

DISCOURSE STUDIES:

APPROACHES TO DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

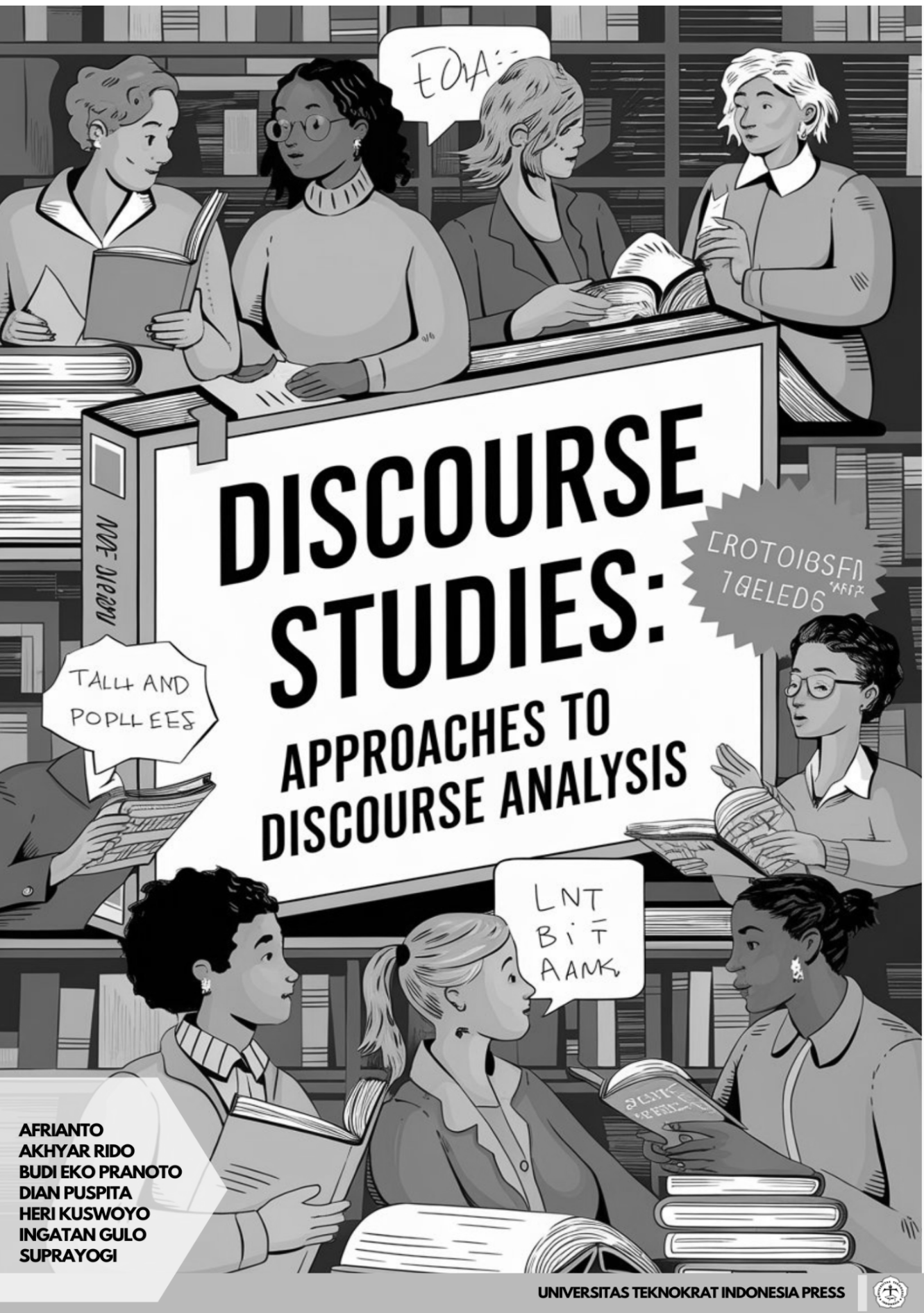
EROTOIBSFN
TAELEDS *AFFX

TALL AND
POPLEES

LNT
BIT
AAMK

AFRIANTO
AKHYAR RIDO
BUDI EKO PRANOTO
DIAN PUSPITA
HERI KUSWOYO
INGATAN GULO
SUPRAYOGI





FOA

DISCOURSE STUDIES:

APPROACHES TO DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

EROTOIBSFI
TGELEDS

TALL AND
POPLEES

LNT
BIT
AANK

AFRIANTO
AKHYAR RIDO
BUDI EKO PRANOTO
DIAN PUSPITA
HERI KUSWOYO
INGATAN GULO
SUPRAYOGI



DISCOURSE STUDIES:

Approaches to Discourse Analysis

**Afrianto
Akhyar Rido
Budi Eko Pranoto
Dian Puspita
Heri Kuswoyo
Ingatan Gulo
Suprayogi**

Published by

UNIVERSITAS TEKNOKRAT INDONESIA

Zainal Abidin Pagaralam 9-11 Labuhan Ratu, Bandar Lampung, 35142

Lampung, Indonesia

www.teknokrat.ac.id

All Rights Reserved. No part of this publication may be reproduced, stored in a retrieval system, or transmitted in any form or by any means, electronic, mechanical, photocopying, recording, or otherwise, without prior written permission of the publisher.

First Edition

Bandar Lampung, March 2025

ISBN : 000-000-00000-0-0

Copyright©Universitas Teknokrat Indonesia, 2025

Cover and Layout Editors

Afrianto

Suprayogi

Printed in Bandar Lampung, Lampung Indonesia

PREFACE

Discourse studies have emerged as a vibrant field of inquiry, encompassing a diverse range of theoretical frameworks and methodological approaches to unravel human communication's complexities. In this book, "Discourse Studies: Approaches to Discourse Analysis," we embark on a journey through the intricate layers of discourse, exploring its multifaceted nature and delving into the various lenses through which it can be analyzed. Through discourse analysis, we can unpack the subtle nuances of power dynamics, identity formation, social practices, and ideological constructions embedded within spoken and written texts.

This book serves as a comprehensive guide to the diverse approaches within discourse studies, providing readers with a roadmap to navigate the complexities of discourse analysis. Each chapter offers a unique perspective, drawing on seminal works and contemporary research to illustrate key concepts and methodologies. From conversation analysis to critical discourse analysis, from narrative analysis to multimodal discourse analysis, this book explores the breadth and depth of discourse studies, showcasing its relevance across various disciplines and real-world contexts.

Whether you are a student embarking on your academic journey, a researcher seeking to deepen your understanding of discourse analysis, or a practitioner looking to apply these insights in your professional endeavors, this book offers a valuable resource for engaging with the complexities of discourse in all its forms. We invite you to join us on this intellectual exploration as we uncover the rich tapestry of human communication through the lens of discourse studies.

Authors

DISCOURSE STUDIES:
Approaches to Discourse Analysis

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Preface	v
Table of Contents	vi
Systemic Functional Linguistics	1
Interactional Sociolinguistics	31
Conversational Analysis	48
Diachronic Aspect in Discourse Analysis	70
Corpus Linguistics and Critical Discourse Analysis	89
Language, Ideology, and Power: A Critical Approach to Political Discourse	113
Microstructure of Discourse	141
References	158
Glossary	
Index	
Authors' Biography	

SYSTEMIC FUNCTIONAL LINGUISTICS

1. General Overview

Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) is a grammar model that examines language as a social semiotic tool that individuals employ to communicate meanings in particular settings. SFL originated in the work of British linguist Michael Halliday in the 1960s. Halliday combined the ideas of Ferdinand de Saussure and Charles Sanders Peirce to articulate a theory that linked the structural aspects of language with their possible meanings. From the standpoint of SFL, meaning is practically the same as function, so explaining language from this angle seems considerably more difficult than explaining its structures. SFL was originally established to help researchers unveil underlying grammatical patterns in language, and it now forms an integral part of social and applied linguistics. SFL has undergone numerous developments over the years, and it is currently used as a tool for language teaching, research, and textual analysis by several scholars worldwide. The application of SFL has been in areas such as classroom discourse, media discourse, political discourse, teacher training, curriculum development, among others. In summary, SFL is a powerful tool for analyzing and describing language. It aims to account for contextual patterns of language use and the social purposes it serves. It has been applied in various fields such as research, pedagogy, and linguistic analysis.

2. Basic Notions in Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL)

2.1 Text and Context

The concept of text and context is fundamental to SFL theory. SFL posits that language use involves the interaction of language choices with context across different levels of the text. As explained by Mickan (2023), the concept of register in SFL refers to the language variations and different semiotic choices made while creating meaning in different contexts. This view of language recognizes grammar as a resource for making meaning in texts that are culturally situated and context-dependent (Toth & Davin, 2016). Halliday and Matthiessen's SFL Grammar provides a method for systematically analyzing how the linguistic features used in a text create meanings within a given social context. According to Rauf (2021), SFL views language as a social semiotic system in which the relationship between its form and meaning is socially and culturally determined. The genre theory, which encompasses all language as texts, considers language use in context as an important factor in meaning-making. This theory is often linked to SFL, which provides a functional grammar for making meaning through the use of language in different contexts (Trojan, 2014). Thus, the SFL model provides a framework for analyzing texts and their contexts and identifying how the choices made in language use create meaning for communication in different situations such as classroom discourse, journalistic discourse, literary studies, and other fields (Khalid, 2013; Islam, 2022). SFL contends that the social and cultural context in which language is employed shapes its meaning, and for this reason, the idea of text and context is fundamental to the theory. It offers a framework for dissecting the linguistic rules that combine with textual context to give texts meaning. As such, it has been applied in diverse fields where language use plays a critical role in communication and meaning-making.

2.2 Metafunctions

Metafunctions refer to the different functions of language in communication. Three primary metafunctions of language in SFL are ideational, interpersonal, and textual (Banks, 2018 & Bloor & Bloor, 2004). The ideational metafunction focuses on the representation of experiences and meaning-making in language. It involves the expression of actions, processes, participants, and circumstances (Hermawan & Rahyono, 2019). The interpersonal metafunction, on the other hand, relates to the expression of social relationships, identities, and attitudes in language (Briones, 2016). It encompasses the negotiation of roles and relationships between participants, the expression of emotions and evaluations, and the modulation of meaning through modalities and moods. Finally, the textual metafunction focuses on the organization and cohesion of language in discourse. It involves the structuring of texts, the selection and sequencing of information, and the use of cohesive devices to guide readers' comprehension (Banks, 2018). In conclusion, metafunctions in SFL provide a framework for analyzing the different functions of language in communication. The ideational metafunction focuses on representing experiences and meaning-making, the interpersonal metafunction on social relationships and attitudes, and the textual metafunction on the organization and cohesion of language. The application of metafunction theory extends to various domains and facilitates a deeper understanding of how language functions in different contexts.

2.3 Register and Genre

Register and genre are important concepts in SFL. While register focuses on language variation, genre refers to typified forms of social action represented by specific language choices and structures. Further, register, within the

framework of SFL, refers to the variation of language use based on different social contexts, fields of discourse, and communicative purposes. It encompasses the choices individuals make in terms of vocabulary, grammar, and style, which are influenced by the situational context and the intended message. In SFL, register is considered a fundamental aspect of language and is closely related to the social and cultural factors that shape communication. It is viewed as a system of choices made by language users to express meaning effectively within specific situations. Register analysis involves examining the linguistic features and patterns that reflect a particular context, including *the field, tenor, and mode*. The field pertains to the subject matter being discussed and the function of language in the activity; the tenor is concerned with the interpersonal dynamics among the participants in the communication; and the mode is concerned with the way language functions in the interaction, whether it be spoken or written (Thompson, 2014). Field, tenor, and mode—the three primary characteristics of variation that define every register—are depicted in Figure 1.

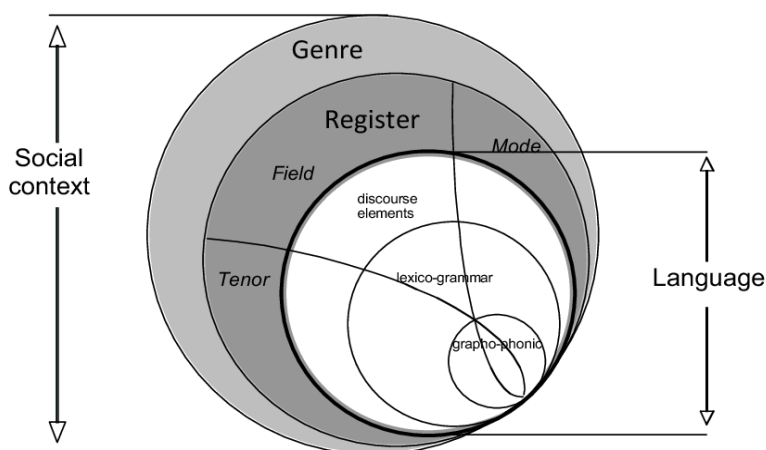


Figure 1. The SFL model: genre, register, and language (Thompson, 2014)

The concept of register in SFL has been widely applied in various domains, including classroom discourse, media discourse, political discourse, and

curriculum design. Understanding register allows educators to teach learners how to adapt their language choices to different contexts and purposes. It helps language users develop awareness of the appropriate language to use in specific social situations, such as formal writing, academic discourse, or casual conversations.

Genre, on the other hand, focuses on language variation, genre refers to typified forms of social action represented by specific language choices and structures. Genres are recognizable patterns of language use associated with specific types of discourse or social activities. They provide language users with predetermined patterns and structures for effective communication within specific social and disciplinary contexts. Furthermore, genre can be defined as register plus communicative purposes; that is, it encompasses a broader understanding of the tasks that interactants are accomplishing through language as well as how they structure the language event—typically into distinguishable phases—to fulfill those tasks (Thompson, 2014).

The interplay between register and genre is crucial in SFL analysis. Register provides the contextual framework within which genres are situated, influencing language choices and structures. Genre, on the other hand, provides the specific patterns and structures that shape language use within a particular social activity. Similarly, a genre deploys ‘the resources of a register in particular patterns to achieve certain communicative goals’ (Thompson, 2014). As a simple and clear example of generic staging, it can be taken from a schematic structure of Aerospace engineering English lectures introduction (Kuswoyo et al, 2020). The heavily abridged version below gives an overview of the main stages of each stage to gain a flavor of the language choices.

Move/Steps

Move 1 Getting started

Step 1 Greeting

Step 2 Signaling the beginning of the lecture

Move 2. Warming up

Step 1 Reviewing previous lecture

Step 2 Housekeeping

Step 3 Stating lecture objective

Step 4 Looking ahead of the lecture

Move 3. Setting up lesson agenda

Communicative Goals

to indicate the beginning of the lecture

to greet students

to signal a lecture's official start

to serve course related matters, look ahead to future lecture, maintain rapport with students

to review an earlier lecture

to explain non-course related matter, informing about organizational issue

to outline the purposes or aims of the lecture

to indicate the plan for the future lecture

to indicate the plan for the future lecture

Register analysis helps identify the appropriate genre for a given communicative situation, while genre analysis sheds light on the language characteristics and expectations associated with specific genres. In conclusion, register plays a central role in SFL by capturing language variation and understanding the contextual factors that shape communication. It provides a framework for analyzing language use in specific social settings and serves as a foundation for genre analysis. The study of register and genre in SFL contributes to a deeper understanding of language variation, effective communication, and language teaching.

2.4 Cohesion and Coherence

In SFL, coherence and cohesion are key concepts that contribute to the understanding of how texts are organized and interpreted. Coherence refers to the overall sense of unity and connectedness in a text. It addresses how the ideas and information in a text are logically connected and flow smoothly from one point to another. Coherence ensures that a text is meaningful and easily understood by the reader or listener. Within SFL, coherence is achieved through the logical and textual metafunctions, which involve the organization of

ideas and the establishment of relationships between them. Cohesion, on the other hand, focuses on the linguistic mechanisms used to create and maintain connections between different parts of a text. It deals with the explicit and implicit markers that link sentences and paragraphs, making the text more cohesive. Cohesion includes a range of devices such as pronouns, conjunctions, lexical and grammatical cohesion, and referencing. These cohesive devices help create a sense of continuity and coherence within a text. In SFL, coherence and cohesion are viewed as interdependent but distinct aspects of textuality.

The study of coherence and cohesion in SFL has practical implications for language teaching, discourse analysis, and text production. It helps language learners understand how to organize their ideas and present them effectively in spoken and written texts. Discourse analysts use coherence and cohesion as tools to analyze and interpret texts, examining how meaning is created through the organization and connections of linguistic elements. Additionally, understanding coherence and cohesion assists writers and speakers in producing texts that are coherent, logical, and easily comprehensible to their intended audience.

Overall, coherence and cohesion are fundamental concepts in SFL that contribute to our understanding of how texts are structured and interpreted. Coherence addresses the overall sense of unity and connectedness, while cohesion focuses on the linguistic mechanisms that create and maintain connections within the text. By examining coherence and cohesion, SFL provides insights into how language is used to create effective written and spoken discourse.

2.5 Lexico-grammatical choices

Lexico-grammatical choices, within the framework of SFL, refer to the linguistic features and patterns that involve the combination of lexicon (vocabulary) and grammar in language use. It examines how words and grammatical structures are employed to convey meaning and achieve specific communicative purposes. In SFL, language is seen as a social semiotic system, where meaning is created through the interaction of grammar, lexis, and context. Lexico-grammatical choices involve the selection and combination of words, phrases, and grammatical structures to construct meaningful and coherent utterances. These choices are influenced by the social and cultural context in which communication takes place. Lexico-grammatical choices encompass various linguistic phenomena, including word choice, collocations, sentence structures, tense and aspect, voice, modality, and rhetorical devices. These choices contribute to the organization and interpretation of spoken and written discourse. SFL offers a framework to analyze lexico-grammatical choices within specific genres and contexts. Researchers in SFL investigate how these choices shape and reflect social meanings, discourses, and power relations. For example, studies may look at how lexico-grammatical choices are used in the construction of Europeanization in political discourse (Majstorović, 2007), linguistic choices in brand slogans (Musté, Stuart, & Botella, 2015), the application of grammatical metaphor in world languages (Suhadi, 2018), or the comparison of lexico-grammatical properties in native and non-native academic writing (Raeisi, Dastjerdi, & Raeisi, 2019). By examining lexico-grammatical choices, SFL provides insights into how language users construct meaning and achieve specific communicative purposes. It contributes to our understanding of language variation, discourse analysis, language teaching, and language processing. The analysis of lexico-grammatical choices enhances our comprehension of the ways in which language functions in different social, cultural, and communicative contexts.

3. The Three Metafunctions of Language

Three categories of meanings emerge as we examine the lexicogrammar, which gives language users access to a vast array of options. According to Michael Halliday, three types of meanings—interpersonal, experiential, and textual—are especially important (Thompson, 2014). Wording resources that express propositional information belong in a different grammar section. We call these broad functions metafunctions because all the more specialized functions can be attributed to one or more of the three broad functions mentioned above. The names of each of the three metafunctions are quite obvious: the experiencing metafunction involves using language to discuss the outside world; the interpersonal metafunction involves using language to engage with others; and the textual metafunction involves organizing language to fit within a certain context.

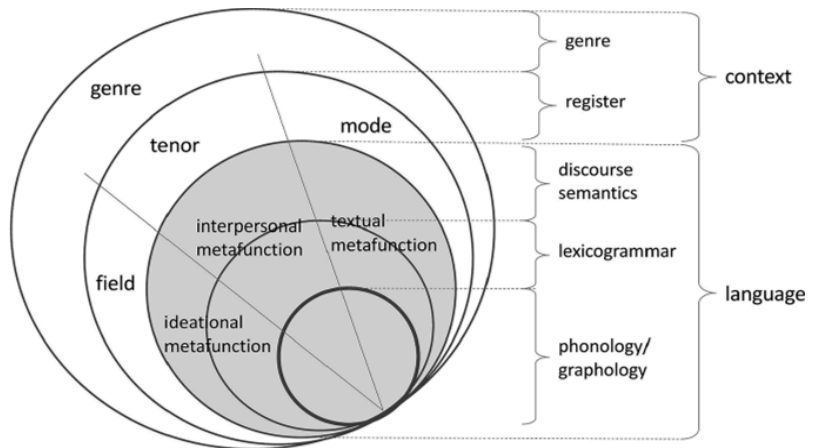


Figure 2. Stratification and metafunctions in SFL (Halliday, 1994)

3.1 The Interpersonal Metafunction (Clause as Exchange)

The interpersonal metafunction examines a statement in light of the ways in which we engage with people through language, negotiating relationships and expressing attitudes and ideas. To establish the relationship, we take turns at speaking, and as we do so, we take on different roles in the exchange (Eggins, 1994). In addition, we use language to communicate with others, build and preserve relationships with them, shape their behavior, express our own opinions about the world, and either elicit or modify theirs (Thompson, 2014). Halliday (1994) suggested that the clause is organized as an interactive event involving speaker, writer, or audience (Emilia, 2014).

The most fundamental types of speech roles we can take on, according to Halliday (1994) are just two: **Giving** (means inviting to receive) and **Demanding** (means inviting to give). Examples of giving and demanding can be seen in some examples below.

Giving

*Would you like to have a cup of coffee?
Laskar Pelangi is a novel by Andrea Hirata
(Emilia, 2014)*

Demanding

*Can I have a cup of tea, please?
Who has read Laskar Pelangi?
(Emilia, 2014)*

At the same time as choosing either to give or demand in an exchange, according to Halliday (1994) we always choose the kind of community that we are exchanging. The choice is between exchanging **information** and **goods and services**.

An example of exchanging information:

A: *Who has read Laskar Pelangi?*

B: *Andi has read Laskar Pelangi.*

An example exchanging **goods and services**:

A: *Can I have a glass of coffee, please?*

B: *Yes, sure.*

A: *Would you like to have a cup of coffee?*

B: *Yes, please (yes, thank you)*

By cross-classifying these two dimensions of 'speech role' and 'commodity' we can come up with the four basic moves we can make to get a dialogue, as shown in Table 1 taken from Halliday (1994).

Table 1. Giving and Demanding, Good and Services or Information

Commodity exchanged Role in exchange	Goods and Services	Information
Giving	Offer <i>Would you like some ice cream?</i>	Statement <i>He is giving her some ice cream</i>
Demanding	Command <i>Give me that ice cream!</i>	Question <i>What is he giving her?</i>

The four basic move types of statement, question, offer, and command are called speech functions. Thus, we can say that every starting move in a dialogue must be one or other of speech functions, and each speech function involves both a speech role and a commodity choice (Eggs, 2004).

Clause as Exchange

These interpersonal meanings are realized in the lexicogrammar through selections from the system of MOOD. As a result, the clause is being discussed as an exchange. A speaker or writer and an addressee are always involved in the interactive process of making an utterance (listener or reader).

When a speaker speaks, they simultaneously assign a speech role to the addressee and choose a speech role for themselves.

If someone speaks and provides you with information, like we are attempting to do right now. It is in his or her nature to invite you to hear that knowledge. When a speaker extends an invitation to accept products or services—like offering you a chocolate or offering to type and distribute class lists—you are implicitly accepting those offers. Alternatively, if someone asks for information from you, you are essentially urged to provide it. It also means that you are inviting her or him to supply the commodity or service if they require it (oh, scratch my back just there please).

The mood element

The mood element consists of two parts:

1. The subject, which is realized by a nominal group
2. The Finite element, which is part of the verbal group.

<i>I</i>	<i>didn't</i>
<i>Who</i>	<i>did</i>
<i>Michael</i>	<i>did</i>
Subject	Finite
Mood	

The remainder of each clause, if there is a remainder, is called the Residue.

<i>It</i>	<i>wasn't</i>	<i>Michael</i>
<i>That</i>	<i>will never</i>	<i>come off there</i>
Subject	Finite	Residue
Mood		

The Finite element is one of the small numbers of verbal operators expressing tense, modality and polarity. It can be seen below.

Finite verbal operators

Temporal:

Past

did, was

had, used to

Present

does, is

has

Future

will, shall

would, should

Modal:

Low

Can, may

Could, might

median

will, would

is to, was to

high

must, ought to

need

(Halliday, 1994: 76)

These Finite verbal operators also have negative counterparts, e.g. *didn't, won't, can't, wouldn't, mustn't*.

Sometimes the Finite element and the lexical verb are fused. This happens when the verb is in:

1. Simple past or simple present: *ate = did eat; eats=does eat*
2. Active voice: *they eat pizza =they do eat pizza vs pizza is eaten*
3. Positive polarity: *they eat=they do eat vs they don't eat*
4. Neutral contrast: *go away=do go away*

The fusion of the Finite element and lexical verb becomes apparent in the Mood tag:

A Panda eats bamboo, doesn't it?

The orchestra played well, didn't it?

Pandas have big feet, don't they?

(Gerot & Wignell, 1994)

The element in declarative sentences that the pronoun in the Mood tag picks up is known as the Subject.

Subject: *It = Panda*

It = Orchestra

They=Pandas

The finite element has the function of anchoring or locating on exchange with reference to the speaker and making a proposition something that can be argued about. It does this in three ways: through primary tense, modality, and polarity. Primary tense means past, present or future at the moment of speaking. 'Now' is the reference point.

That special order came yesterday.
The coming was before the time of speaking.
That special order will come tomorrow.
The coming is after the time of speaking.

Modality indicates the speaker's judgment of the probabilities or the obligations involved in what he or she is saying:

The special order may come tomorrow.
It had better!
Or
But we placed the order any three days ago!

Polarity, positive or negative:

There's a unicorn in the garden! *No, there isn't.*
There's no life on Mars. *There might be.*

Finities combines the specification of polarity with the specification of either temporal or modal reference to the speech event:

You shouldn't be here = *negative polarity, median modality*
He wasn't well = *negative polarity, past tense.*

The *Subject* is that upon which the speaker rests his case in exchanges of information and the one responsible for ensuring that the prescribed action is or is not carried out in exchanges of goods and services.

Residue

In Mood element consists of Subject and Finite, while Residue consists of some elements namely Predictor, Complement (s), Adjunct (s). Look at the following clause!

Henry Ford *built* *his first car* *in his*
backyard

Subject	Finite (past)	Predictor	Complement	Adjunct
Mood		Residue		

This clause displays a typical pattern of elements in the Residue, namely: Predictor, Complement (s), Adjunct (s).

Predictor

The predictor is the verb part of the clause, the bit which tells what's doing, happening or being. Thus, the Predictors in the above five clauses are: 'build', 'proceed', 'move'.

There are also non-finite ('to' + verb and verb 'ing') clauses containing a Predictor but no Finite element, for example:

So as to give *Henry* *more room*

Predictor	Complement	Complement
Residue		

Giving *Henry* *more room*

Predictor	Complement	Complement
Residue		

Complement

The complement answers the question ‘is/had what’, ‘to whom’, ‘did to what’. Thus, in the examples provided above, the following items are Complements: these have the potential to be Subject.

*Henry Ford built **his first** car in his backyard.*
*The driver must have been **very uncomfortable**.*

In the clause, His first car Henry Ford built in his backyard, *His first car* is still Complement, despite the different word order in the clause, because it answers the question: did to what?

<i>His first car</i>	<i>Henry Ford</i>	<i>built</i>	<i>in his backyard.</i>
Complement	Subject	Fin	Pred. Adjunct
	Mood		
	Residue		

Adjuncts

There are many types of adjuncts. They are circumstantial adjunct, conjunctive adjuncts, comment adjuncts, and Mood adjuncts.

1. Circumstantial adjuncts

This kind of adjuncts answer the questions ‘how’, ‘when’, ‘where’, ‘by whom’

For example: Henry Ford build his first car *in the backyard of his home*

2. Conjunctive adjuncts

These adjuncts include items such as ‘for instance’, ‘anyway’, ‘moreover’, ‘meanwhile’, ‘therefore’, ‘nevertheless.

3. Comment adjuncts

These adjuncts express the speaker’s comment on what he or she is saying. It includes ‘frankly’, ‘apparently’, ‘hopefully’, ‘broadly speaking’, ‘understandably’, ‘to my surprise’.

For example:

<i>Unfortunately,</i>	<i>however</i>	<i>they</i>	<i>were</i>	<i>too late</i>
Comment adjunct	Conjunctive adjunct	Subject	Fin.	Comp.
		Mood		Residue

4. Mood adjuncts

Mood adjuncts are part of the MOOD structure, specifically the Mood element, and they convey both interpersonal and structural meanings. The meaning of the finite verbal operators—which communicate likelihood, usuality, obligation, inclination, or time—is especially related to mood adjuncts. For example, *of course, surely, already, mainly* etc.

<i>Surely</i>	<i>he</i>	<i>wasn't</i>	<i>being</i>	<i>serious</i>
Mood adjunct	Subj.	Finite	Pred.	Complement
Mood			Residue	

3.2 The Experiential metafunction (Clause as experience)

In SFL, the concept of clause as experience refers to how clauses encode different types of processes that represent human experiences or actions. We describe events, states, and the entities engaged in them using language when we discuss our experiences of the world, including the world in our brains (Thompson, 2014). According to SFL, language is seen as a resource for making meaning, and the clause is a central unit in this process. In SFL, the clause is analyzed in terms of its structure, function, and meaning. One

aspect of this analysis is the identification of different types of processes within the clause. Processes represent actions, events, or experiences and can be categorized into three main types: material processes, mental processes, and relational processes. Material processes represent actions or events involving physical or concrete entities and typically involve action verbs. For example, "He runs in the park" represents a material process where "runs" is the action verb expressing a physical action. Mental processes, on the other hand, refer to cognitive or psychological activities, such as perception, thinking, and feeling. These processes involve verbs such as "know," "think," "understand," and "believe." For example, "She knows the answer" represents a mental process where "knows" reflects a cognitive activity. Relational processes represent states, qualities, or relationships. They involve verbs such as "be," "seem," and "become." This type of process is used to express attributions, identifications, or descriptions. For example, "He is a doctor" represents a relational process where "is" establishes a relationship between the subject and its attribute.

Three semantic categories—Circumstances, Processes, and Participants—explain in general how real-world happenings are represented as linguistic structures.

Circumstances

Circumstances answer such questions as when, where, why, how, how many and as what. They realize meanings about: Time (temporal) e.g. He goes to church *every Sunday*, Place (spatial) e.g. He goes *to church* every Sunday, Manner e.g. He goes *by taxi*, Cause e.g. He went to the shop *for cigarettes*, Matter e.g. this book is talking about functional grammar, Accompaniment e.g. I left work *without my briefcase*, and Role e.g. He lived a quiet life as a *beekeeper*.

Processes

Processes are central to Transitivity. Through the system of Transitivity, it will explore the clause in its who=does=what=to=whom, who/what=is=what/who, when, where, why, or how function! (Gerot & Wignell, 1994). Participants and Circumstances are incumbent upon the doings, happenings, feelings and beings. This suggests that there are different kinds of goings on, which necessarily involve different kinds of Participants in varying Circumstances. Based on Halliday (1994), there are six types of Process, namely material process (*process of doing*), mental process (*process of sensing*), behavioral process (*process of behaving*), verbal process (*process of saying*), relational process (*process of being*), and existential process (*process of existing*). Processes are realized by verbs. Traditionally verbs have been defined as 'doing words. But as the above list indicates, some verbs are not doing words at all, but rather express states of being or having.

1. Material processes (*process of doing*)

Material processes are Processes of material doing. They convey the idea that something is physically done by one entity, and that something other may be done to it. As a result, there is a doing (Process) and a doer (Participant) in clauses with material process obligations.

For example:

The exhausted bushwalker dropped his pack

Participant: Actor	Process: Material	Participant: Goal
------------------------------	-----------------------------	-----------------------------

2. Mental processes (*process of sensing*)

Mental processes are ones of sensing: feeling, thinking, perceiving. There are three types of mental processes, namely affective or reactive (*feeling*); cognitive (*thinking*), and perceptive (*perceiving through the five senses*). Mental processes are mental, covert kinds of goings, and

the participant involved in Mental processes is not so much acting or acting upon in a doing sense, as sensing-having feelings, perceiving or thinking.

Thus, the participant roles in Mental processes are **Senser** and **Phenomenon**. The **Senser** is by definition a conscious being, for only those who are conscious can feel, think, or see. The **phenomenon** is that which is sensed, felt, thought or seen.

For example:

<i>That toaster</i>	<i>doesn't like</i>	<i>me</i>
Participant: Senser	Process: Mental	Participant: Phenomenon

<i>Mark</i>	<i>likes</i>	<i>new clothes</i>
Participant: Senser	Process: Mental (affect)	Participant: Phenomenon

<i>Mark</i>	<i>understood</i>
Participant: Senser	Process: Mental (cognitive)

3. Behavioral processes (*process of behaving*)

Behavioral processes are processes of physiological and psychological behavior, like *breathing, dreaming, snoring, smiling, hiccupping, looking, watching, listening, and pondering*.

For example:

<i>She</i>	<i>lives</i>	<i>in the fast lane</i>
Behavior	Behavioral	Circumstance: place

<i>He</i>	<i>snores</i>	<i>loudly</i>
Behavior	Behavioral	Circumstance: manner

4. Verbal processes (*process of saying*)

Verbal processes, also known as processes of saying, are a type of material process in SFL that involve the expression of language and communication. Verbal processes encompass various forms of linguistic activities, including speaking, uttering, stating, asking, ordering, and reporting. Verbal processes are used to convey explicit or implicit messages, share information, express opinions, give commands, ask questions, or report someone else's words. These processes play a crucial role in interpersonal communication and are essential for conveying meaning and participating in social interactions. Here is an example of a verbal process:

He said, 'I will meet you at the park tomorrow.'

Participant: Sayer	Process: verbal	Participant: verbiage
------------------------------	---------------------------	---------------------------------

In this example, the verbal process is "said," which represents the act of speaking. The verb "said" indicates that someone expressed the words that follow, which are enclosed within quotation marks. The words inside the quotation marks represent the reported speech, conveying the speaker's intended message. Verbal processes are central to the communication of ideas, attitudes, and intentions. They are essential for sharing information, expressing thoughts, and engaging in conversation. By analyzing verbal processes, SFL allows us to examine how language is used to communicate and interpret meaning in various contexts.

5. Relational process (*process of being*)

Relational processes, also known as processes of being, are a type of process in SFL that focus on states, qualities, or relationships. Relational processes highlight the way in which entities are connected

or described in terms of their attributes or identities. Relational processes are typically realized by the verb *be* or some verb of the same class (or copular verbs such as *seem, become, appear, look, feel, remain, smell, sound, taste*) or sometimes by verbs such as *have, own, possess* etc. Relational processes are divided into two: (1) attributive process, and (2) Identifying process.

Attributive Relational Process

A common type of relational process ascribes an attribute to some entity as follow:

<i>She</i>	<i>was</i>	<i>hungry</i>	<i>again.</i>
Participant: Carrier	Process: Attributive Relational	Participant: Attribute	

Based on an example above, 'hungry' is identified as Attribute and 'She' is identified as a Carrier of the attribution. Meanwhile, the Process is locally focused on 'was' (past tense form of the verb *be*). Another example is illustrated below.

<i>She</i>	<i>is</i>	<i>intelligent</i>
Participant: Carrier	Process: Relational	Participant: Attribute

In this example, the relational process is "is", which establishes a relationship or attribute between the subject "she" and the quality "intelligent."

Also classed as Attributive relational processes are certain possessive structures, such as *I had a little money.*

<i>I</i>	<i>had</i>	<i>a little money</i>
Participant: Carrier: possessor	Process: Attributive Relational	Participant: Attribute: possessed

Identifying Relational Process

An additional function for relational processes is identifying, as in *Quint is his name*.

<i>Quint</i>	<i>is</i>	<i>his name</i>
Participant: Identifier	Process: Identifying Relational	Participant: Identified

Quint (identifier) and his name (identified), respectively, are the participants based on the example above. These are the functions, as the context makes evident. The speaker may have said, "His name is Quint," in opposite order without affecting the intended meaning.

Relational processes are crucial for expressing states, descriptions, and relationships amongst entities. They contribute to our understanding of the qualities, attributes, and connections that exist within a given context. Relational processes are used to shape meaning and convey important information about entities and their characteristics. In a particular language such as Lampung Language (a language in Indonesia), there is a structure of zero relational in which the process does not exist in relational clauses (Afrianto, 2022). The analysis of relational processes in SFL allows for the investigation of how individuals construct and convey meaning through the establishment of relationships and attributes. It provides insights into how language users represent and communicate the nature of entities,

their qualities, and their connections within various social, cultural, and situational contexts.

6. Existential process (*process of existing*)

An existential process, as described in SFL, is a type of process that represents the existence or presence of something in the world. It focuses on the state of being or existing rather than specific actions or qualities. In SFL, the existential process typically involves the sequence "there is" or "there are" followed by the existent, which is the entity or phenomenon being referred to. The existent can be any kind of entity, including objects, events, or abstract concepts. Here are some examples of sentences using the existential process:

<i>There</i>	<i>is</i>	<i>a cat in the garden</i>
	<i>Process:</i> <i>Existential</i>	<i>Participant</i> <i>Existent</i>

In this example, the existential process "is" represents the existence of a cat in the garden. Meanwhile, "a cat in the garden" is identified as the existent or participant. Such clause there is only one participant. The word 'There' is needed as Subject, but it has no experiential meaning: in a sense, its function is to avoid the need for, or the possibility of, a second participant in the clause.

Existential processes are important in SFL as they allow speakers to refer to the existence of entities or phenomena. They play a role in constructing meaning by highlighting what exists or is present in a given context. Studying existential processes in SFL helps in understanding how language is used to convey information about existence and presence. By examining existential processes, we can

gain insights into how individuals represent and communicate aspects of reality through language.

3.3 The Textual Metafunction (Clause as Message)

The textual metafunction, within the framework of SFL, focuses on how a clause functions as a message in organizing information and conveying meaning. It involves the analysis of thematic structure, which involves examining the arrangement of information in terms of themes and rhemes. In SFL, a Theme refers to the initial element in a clause that introduces the topic or subject matter, while the Rheme is the rest of the clause that provides information about the theme. The organization of information through the thematic structure contributes to the coherence and cohesion of a text.

Theme and Rheme

The Theme is the component that functions as the message's starting point and is related to the clause. The remaining portion of the message, where the theme is developed, is known as the Rheme. A clause is made up of a Theme and a Rheme. Below is an illustration of this Theme + Rheme structure:

<i>The duke My aunt The teapot</i>	<i>has given my aunt that teapot has been given that teapot by the duke the duke has given to my aunt</i>
Theme	Rheme

(Halliday, 1994:38)

Theme

The Theme is not necessarily a nominal group, but it may also be an adverbial group or prepositional phrase. The example is explained below:

<i>Once upon a time</i>	<i>There were three bears</i>
-------------------------	-------------------------------

<i>Very carefully For want of a nail With sobs and tears</i>	<i>She put him back on his feet again The shoe was lost He sorted out those</i>
Theme	Rheme

Theme has many types namely Simple Theme of more than one group phrase, Thematic equative, Theme and Mood, Other characteristic Theme, and Multiple Themes.

Simple Themes of more than one group or phrase

The Theme is a single structural element made up of two or more groups or phrases. A complex made composed of two or more groups or phrases can represent any aspect of a clause structure. Take a look at the illustration below:

<i>The Walrus and the Carpenter Tom, Tom, the piper's son From house to house On the ground or in the air</i>	<i>were walking close at hand stole a pig and away did run I wend my way Small creatures live and breathe</i>
Theme	Rheme

Within the clause, each group complex or phrase complex is considered a single element. For instance, a nominal group complex consists of two nominal groups united by and, such as the Carpenter and the walrus. Since there is just one component in the sentence, this makes up the basic Theme.

Thematic Equative

In a thematic equative, all the elements of the clause are organized into two constituents; these two are then linked by a relationship of identity, a kind of equals sign, expressed by some form of the verb be. For example:

What the duke gave to my aunt was that teapot.

Here the Theme is *what the duke gave to my aunt*. It is categorized as a thematic equative because it sets up the Theme + Rheme structure in the form of an equation, where 'Theme = Rheme'. A form of what the duke gave to my aunt is an example of the structural device called Nominalization, which turns any element or set of elements into a nominal group within the sentence. Here, the nominalization fulfils a thematic function.

4. Research on Systemic Functional Linguistics

SFL and Media

SFL has broad applicability in the study of media and communication. SFL offers valuable insights into the analysis and understanding of language use in different media contexts. It provides tools for examining the social and linguistic functions of language in media discourse. Media analysis within the framework of SFL involves exploring how language choices, textual structures, and discursive practices shape meaning and contribute to the construction of media messages. SFL offers a systematic approach to examine the interplay between language, social context, and media genres. SFL has been applied in various media-related studies, including the analysis of newspaper editorials (Ansary & Babaii, 2005), campaign speeches (Sari & Bahri, 2017), news media translation (Zanettin, 2021), critical discourse analysis of media language (Bakuuro & Diedong, 2020), analyzing ideological-political instruction (Jun et al, 2022), and analysis of nominal group expressions in newspaper headlines (Edem, 2018). In these studies, SFL's concepts and models, such as metafunctions, Transitivity, register analysis, thematic structure,

multimodality, and genre analysis, are applied to examine the language choices, textual patterns, and communicative purposes in media discourses. These analyses offer insights into the ways in which media messages are constructed, the power relations within media discourse, the social and cultural ideologies conveyed through language, and the effects of media communication on audience interpretation. Overall, SFL provides a valuable framework for understanding and analyzing media language, allowing researchers to uncover the social, cultural, and communicative dimensions of media texts and discourse. The integration of SFL with other theoretical perspectives, such as critical discourse analysis and corpus linguistics, allows for even more comprehensive and nuanced analyses of media communication.

SFL and Classroom

SFL has significant implications for the classroom and teacher education. It provides a framework for understanding language as a social semiotic resource and offers approaches for analyzing and teaching language in context. Teachers can use SFL concepts to enhance language instruction, analyze discourse patterns, and develop pedagogical practices aligned with students' needs. SFL can help educators to analyze and teach language in context. SFL enables teachers to analyze how language functions in different contexts and design instructional activities that align with the social and cultural demands of specific situations (Kuswoyo et al., 2020). Understanding the ideational, interpersonal, and textual metafunctions of language allows teachers to better address the communication needs of their students (Kuswoyo & Rido, 2019). SFL also offers a way to support disciplinary learning by focusing on the language used within different domains. Teachers can explore the linguistic features of disciplinary texts, help students analyze and produce genre-specific texts, and develop literacy skills relevant to specific

academic and professional fields. Besides, SFL provides strategies to enhance students' language proficiency, particularly in skills such as listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Teachers can apply SFL-based approaches to develop students' awareness of linguistic choices, cohesion, coherence, and pragmatic features of language, helping them become more effective communicators.

SFL and Translation

SFL has gained significant attention in the field of translation studies due to its focus on language as a meaning potential and its emphasis on situational and cultural contexts (Hoang, 2021). SFL provides a functional approach to translation, considering it as the re-instantiation of the source text in another language system (Chen, 2019). This approach has been applied to various translation contexts, including poetry translation, genre-based translation (Rohman, 2020), museum text translation (Manfredi, 2021), and the analysis of translations of religious texts (Yu, 2019). SFL offers a linguistic model for describing and comparing poetry translations, allowing for a comprehensive assessment of their quality. It has demonstrated its relevance in understanding the challenges posed by language variations, such as literary dialects, in translation (Chen, 2019). SFL's applicability to discourse analysis and translation has been explored in the analysis of Chinese poetry, providing a new perspective on Chinese poetry translation (Jiachun, 2019). Overall, SFL has proven to be a valuable framework for understanding and analyzing the complexities of translation.

SFL and Corpus

SFL has been widely used in corpus linguistics due to its focus on language as a social semiotic system and its ability to analyze text samples from large

corpora. SFL provides a framework for examining the functional aspects of language in context. Corpus linguistics, on the other hand, involves the analysis of large collections of text, known as corpora, to gain insights into patterns of language use. By combining SFL principles with corpus linguistics, researchers have been able to investigate various linguistic phenomena, such as lexico-grammatical patterns, discourse features, and genre analysis. SFL-based corpus studies have contributed to fields such as language teaching, translation, and stylistics. For instance, SFL in corpus linguistics has been used to identify and analyze discourse features in academic writing, providing valuable insights for language learners and teachers. Overall, the integration of SFL and corpus linguistics offers a powerful approach to understanding the functional aspects of language in real-world contexts.

5. Conclusion

This chapter has provided an overview of systemic functional linguistics as one of approaches in Discourse Analysis to view language as a social semiotic system in which the relationship between its form and meaning is socially and culturally determined. Some units of metafunction like interpersonal, experiential, and textual are also discussed.

INTERACTIONAL SOCIOLINGUISTICS

1. General Overview

Interactional sociolinguistics is a field of study that examines the relationship between language and social interaction. It focuses on how language is used in everyday conversations and interactions and how social factors influence language use and interpretation. This approach recognizes that language is not just a system of rules and structures but also a social practice that is shaped by and shapes social relationships, identities, and power dynamics.

Interactional sociolinguistics also encompasses the study of cultural and intercultural communication. It examines how language is used to express and negotiate cultural identities, values, and norms in different social and cultural contexts. It explores how language choices, code-switching, and language practices reflect and shape cultural identities and power dynamics. It also investigates the role of language in intercultural communication and the challenges and strategies involved in communicating across different cultural and linguistic backgrounds (Zhu et al., 2022; Yusra, 2022; Wang et al., 2023; Yoyo et al., 2020). In this case, interactional sociolinguistics is an applicable approach to discourse analysis. In other words, interactional sociolinguistics provides valuable insights for discourse analysis by highlighting the social dimensions of language use. It helps in understanding how language functions within specific social interactions and cultural contexts, making it an effective tool for analyzing discourse.

Furthermore, interactional sociolinguistics provides a framework for understanding the complex relationship between language and social interaction. It recognizes that language is not a static system but a dynamic social practice that is shaped by and shapes social relationships, identities, and power dynamics. By analyzing the details of everyday conversations and interactions, interactional sociolinguistics offers insights into how language is used to construct meaning, negotiate social identities, and navigate social interactional discourses. Accordingly, it has applications in various fields, including healthcare communication, education, law, and digital communication (Smith-Khan, 2022; Kelly, 2021; Emelianova, 2021).

In general, interactional sociolinguistics cover studies, such as citizen sociolinguistics, conversational analysis, and sociolinguistics competence. Citizen sociolinguistics is a specific approach within interactional sociolinguistics that involves the collection and analysis of everyday linguistic data by non-experts, or "citizens." This approach recognizes that language is not solely the domain of professional linguists but is a shared resource that can be studied and understood by anyone. Citizen sociolinguistics draws on theories and methods from citizen science to engage non-experts in studying language and society (SturtzSreetharan et al., 2019).

Sociolinguistic competence is a key concept in interactional sociolinguistics. It refers to the ability to use language appropriately in different social contexts and understand its social meanings and implications. Sociolinguistic competence involves not only the knowledge of language rules and structures but also an understanding of the social and cultural factors that shape language use. It includes the ability to recognize and interpret sociolinguistic variables, such as dialects, accents, and speech styles, and to adapt one's language use accordingly (Escalante, 2018).

Several studies in interactional sociolinguistics have been conducted. They are on ***grammar in everyday talk, the social construction of literacy, variation in reference and narration,*** and ***conversational repair and human understanding.***

2. Grammar in Everyday Talk

The study of grammar in everyday talk is an important area of research in linguistics. It recognizes that the grammar used in spoken language differs from that used in written language and emphasizes the role of grammar in communication (Carter & McCarthy, 2015). Everyday conversations exhibit common grammatical phenomena that are often overlooked in traditional grammatical descriptions (Carter & McCarthy, 2015). The grammar of everyday talk is closely intertwined with interaction, and concepts such as on-line syntax and emergent grammar are central to understanding the relationship between grammar and interaction (Fielder, 2020). By studying grammar in everyday conversation, researchers gain insights into the structure and organization of talk in social interactions (Mushin & Doehler, 2021). This research has practical implications for language teaching, as it highlights the importance of incorporating spoken grammar into language instruction (Rashtchi & Afzali, 2011). Understanding the grammar of everyday talk enhances our understanding of language use in various contexts and contributes to a more comprehensive understanding of language as a whole (Laury et al., 2019).

Grammar in everyday talk is a fascinating area of study that sheds light on the structure and organization of language in social interactions. Traditional grammatical descriptions have often marginalized the grammatical phenomena found in everyday conversations Carter & McCarthy (2015).

However, research has shown that spoken language exhibits unique grammatical features that are essential for effective communication in particular discourse and context. Furthermore, corpus analysis has highlighted the central role of fixed chunks and phrase-based units in fluent speech (McCarthy & O'Keeffe, 2004). Additionally, the study of everyday conversation challenges the notion of the "clause" as a crosslinguistic unit and calls for a closer examination of language use in its natural context (Laury et al., 2019). Understanding the grammar of everyday talk has practical implications for language teaching, as incorporating spoken grammar into instruction can enhance learners' comprehension and communication skills (Rashtchi & Afzali, 2011). Moreover, the study of grammar in everyday talk contributes to a broader understanding of language as a social and cognitive resource in everyday interaction (Mushin & Doehler, 2021; Morgenstern, 2022). By examining the linguistic variation and complexity in everyday language use, researchers gain insights into the architecture of grammar and its relationship to communication (Purse et al., 2022). Overall, the study of grammar in everyday talk provides valuable insights into the dynamic nature of language and its role in social interaction.

Grammar plays a crucial role in everyday talk and communication. While there are differences between the grammar of written text and conversational speech, the grammar used in everyday conversation is essential for effective communication and understanding Huettig & Pickering (2019). Conversational grammar is familiar to speakers and allows for efficient and fluid communication (Thomas, 2020). It is shaped by the context of interaction and is constantly evolving and adapting to meet the needs of communication (Benítez-Burraco et al., 2021).

In everyday talk, grammar serves several important functions. First, it helps to convey meaning and express ideas clearly. The use of grammatical structures,

such as word order, verb tense, and agreement, allows speakers to convey their intended message accurately (Fei et al., 2022). Grammar also helps to establish coherence and cohesion in conversation, enabling speakers to connect ideas and maintain the flow of communication (Sundqvist et al., 2021). Additionally, grammar plays a role in conveying social meaning and signaling social identities and relationships (Benítez-Burraco et al., 2021).

The development of grammar in everyday talk is influenced by various factors. For children, exposure to conversational grammar from an early age is crucial for language acquisition and the development of linguistic competence (Fei et al., 2022). Research has shown that shared reading and exposure to a broader range of vocabulary in books can enhance children's syntactic knowledge and language development (Hutton et al., 2021). On the other hand, excessive exposure to television content has been found to have a negative impact on children's vocabulary and grammar development (Sundqvist et al., 2021).

The use of grammar in everyday talk is not limited to spoken languages. Sign languages, such as Persian Sign Language, also have their own grammatical structures and rules that are used in everyday communication (Azar & Seyedarabi, 2020). The study of sign languages and their grammar provides valuable insights into the nature of language and the role of grammar in communication.

Furthermore, the use of grammar in everyday talk is influenced by various sociocultural factors. Different social groups may have their own specific grammatical patterns and conventions that are used in their interactions (Thomas, 2020). For example, certain professional or academic communities may develop their own specialized language and grammar that is understood only by members of that community (Thomas, 2020). Additionally, cultural

norms and values can shape the use of grammar in communication, including politeness strategies, speech registers, and code-switching practices.

The study of grammar in everyday talk has important implications for language teaching and learning. Understanding the grammar used in natural conversation can help educators design effective language instruction materials and activities that reflect authentic language use (Pirainen–Marsh & Lilja, 2022). It also highlights the importance of providing learners with opportunities to practice and develop their grammatical skills in real-life communicative contexts (Pirainen–Marsh & Lilja, 2022). By focusing on the grammar of everyday talk, language learners can develop the linguistic competence necessary for effective communication in various social and cultural settings.

In short, grammar plays a vital role in everyday talk and communication. It helps convey meaning, establish coherence, and convey social meaning. In this case, it can be a device to explore discourses for a particular focus related to daily interaction. The grammar used in everyday conversation is shaped by the context of interaction and is constantly evolving. Factors such as exposure to conversational grammar, sociocultural influences, and individual language development all contribute to the use and development of grammar in everyday talk. Understanding the grammar of everyday conversation has important implications for language teaching and learning, as it provides insights into authentic language use and helps learners develop their communicative competence.

Here are some pieces of research on grammar in everyday talk:

1. The Importance of Grammar in Social Media

This article discusses the importance of proper grammar and spelling on social media platforms such as Facebook and Twitter. The lack of

proper grammar and spelling on social media can lead to miscommunications and misunderstandings, which can have serious consequences (Daniela, 2019).

2. The Role of Grammar in Communicative Language Teaching

This article discusses the importance of grammar in communicative language teaching. It argues that grammar is an essential component of language, as it provides a common set of rules that learners can follow to communicate effectively (Larsen-Freeman, 2018).

3. "The Relationship between Grammar and Communication in English as a Second Language Classrooms"

This study examines the relationship between grammar and communication in English as a second language classrooms. It argues that grammar is essential for effective communication, as it provides learners with the tools they need to express themselves accurately and fluently (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 1999).

4. "Grammar and Communication in Language Education"

This article explores the role of grammar in language education. It argues that grammar is essential for effective communication, as it provides learners with the tools they need to express themselves accurately and fluently (Ellis, 2002).

5. "The Importance of Grammar in Writing Instruction"

This article discusses the importance of grammar in writing instruction. It argues that grammar is an essential component of writing, as it provides writers with the tools, they need to express themselves clearly and effectively (Weaver, 1996).

6. "Teaching Grammar in Context"

This study examines the effectiveness of teaching grammar in context. It argues that teaching grammar in context is more effective than teaching it in isolation, as it allows learners to see how grammar is used in real-life situations (Nassaji & Fotos, 2011).

3. The Social Construction of Literacy

The social construction of literacy refers to the understanding that literacy is not simply a set of individual skills or abilities, but rather a socially and culturally situated practice that is shaped by and shapes social interactions, power dynamics, and cultural norms (Agosto, 2022; Duek & Tanner, 2022; Parker & Smith, 2022). It recognizes that literacy practices are not fixed or universal, but rather vary across different contexts and communities (Sardinha & Najera, 2018).

One key aspect of the social construction of literacy is the recognition that literacy practices are fundamentally social and communicative. Literacy is not just about reading and writing, but also about the ability to understand and participate in the social and cultural practices of a particular community (Agosto, 2022). Literacy practices involve the use of language, symbols, and other semiotic resources to communicate and make meaning within specific social contexts (Han, 2021). These practices are shaped by social norms, values, and power relations, and they contribute to the construction of social identities and relationships (Rowe, 2020).

The social construction of literacy also emphasizes the multiformat and multicontextual nature of literacy practices. Literacy is not limited to traditional written texts, but also encompasses a wide range of multimodal and digital texts, including images, videos, and online content (Parker & Smith, 2022; Butler et al., 2021). Literacy practices occur in various contexts, such as homes, schools, workplaces, and online spaces, and they are influenced by the specific demands and affordances of each context (Han, 2021). Literacy practices are also influenced by the cultural and historical contexts in which

they occur, as well as by individual experiences and identities (Bailey, 2023; Lesley et al., 2023).

Furthermore, the social construction of literacy recognizes that literacy practices are culturally situated. Literacy is not a neutral or value-free activity, but rather reflects and reinforces cultural norms, values, and ideologies (Parker & Smith, 2022). Different cultures have different literacy practices and expectations, and literacy is often used as a means of social inclusion or exclusion (Naddumba & Athiemoolam, 2022). Cultural factors, such as language, ethnicity, and social class, can shape individuals' access to and experiences with literacy (Rashidi et al., 2023). The social construction of literacy also highlights the importance of recognizing and valuing diverse linguistic and cultural practices in literacy education (Koltay & Szőke-Milinte, 2020).

The social construction of literacy has important implications for education and pedagogy. It calls for a shift away from a narrow focus on individual skills and competencies towards a more holistic and sociocultural approach to literacy instruction (Parker & Smith, 2022). This approach recognizes the importance of providing learners with opportunities to engage in authentic literacy practices that are meaningful and relevant to their lives (Bhowmik, 2022). It also emphasizes the need to consider the sociocultural and linguistic backgrounds of learners and to value and build upon their existing knowledge and experiences (Naddumba & Athiemoolam, 2022). Additionally, the social construction of literacy highlights the importance of critical literacy, which involves questioning and challenging dominant discourses and power structures through literacy practices (Mirra et al., 2018; Lesley, 2019).

In today's society, literacy is often viewed as a basic necessity. However, the concept of literacy is not universal and varies across cultures and periods.

Literacy is a socially constructed concept that has been shaped by different social, economic, and political factors. Accordingly, these different factors construct the world of discourse, which defines the focus of how researchers can see and understand various social discursive phenomena. Furthermore, it is important to understand the social construction of literacy because it helps us to recognize how literacy is shaped by social, economic, and political factors. By understanding these factors, we can work towards creating a more equitable and inclusive society where everyone has access to the tools and resources, they need to become literate.

In contemporary society, literacy is often tied to education and economic success, and those who are illiterate are at a disadvantage. However, literacy is not just about reading and writing; it also encompasses digital literacy, media literacy, and cultural literacy.

Digital literacy is becoming increasingly important in today's society, as more and more information is accessed online. However, those who do not have access to technology or the skills to use it are at a disadvantage. This is particularly true for low-income families, who may not have the resources to purchase computers or pay for internet access. Another case, in some countries, women have limited access to education and are therefore more likely to be illiterate. According to a UNESCO report, women represent two-thirds of the world's illiterate population, with the highest rates in South and West Asia and sub-Saharan Africa (UNESCO, 2015). This is due in part to gender inequality, where women are often assigned traditional roles in the household and are not given the same opportunities for education as men. In the United States, the social construction of literacy has been shaped by the country's history of racism and discrimination. African Americans were denied access to education and were often punished for attempting to learn to read and write. This has had intergenerational effects, as African Americans are

more likely to have lower levels of literacy than their white counterparts. These cases illustrate how social, economic, and political factors shape the social construction of literacy. By understanding these factors, we can work towards creating policies and practices that promote literacy for all, regardless of their social or cultural background.

The concept of literacy is deeply embedded within social and cultural contexts, as explored in various works on the subject. Barton and Hamilton (2012) examine how literacy is socially constructed within a specific UK community, emphasizing that literacy practices are shaped by cultural factors rather than being universal. Similarly, Street (1984) presents literacy as a multifaceted concept influenced by social, economic, and political conditions across different cultures and historical periods. Gee (2015) further reinforces this perspective by linking literacy with power structures, arguing that literacy extends beyond technical skills and is deeply intertwined with broader social discourses.

The role of literacy in marginalized communities is another critical area of discussion. Ladson-Billings (2009) focuses on African American communities and highlights how traditional education systems often fail to recognize their cultural backgrounds. She argues that successful educators are those who acknowledge and integrate these cultural contexts into their teaching. The *Condition of Education 2019* report by the National Center for Education Statistics extends this discussion by examining literacy rates in the U.S. and their direct impact on health outcomes, revealing the broader societal consequences of low literacy levels. Similarly, UNESCO's *Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2015* sheds light on gender disparities in literacy worldwide, asserting that gender equality is essential for achieving universal literacy.

Furthermore, historical perspectives on literacy further illustrate its role in shaping social structures. Graff (1991) explores how literacy contributed to social hierarchies and class divisions in 19th-century urban America. He challenges the assumption that literacy alone leads to social mobility, instead presenting it as a mechanism for reinforcing existing power dynamics. Collectively, these works illustrate that literacy is not merely a skill but a socially constructed phenomenon that reflects and influences broader societal structures, inequalities, and cultural norms.

4. Variation in Reference and Narration

The study of variation in reference and narration within the framework of interactional sociolinguistics encompasses a diverse array of research topics and methodologies. Bailey (2015) discusses the use of interactional sociolinguistic perspectives in studies of language and identity, emphasizing the relevance of Gumperz's work in this area. This highlights the significance of language variation in shaping individual and group identities within social interactions. Furthermore, Napier (2007) explores the role of contextualization cues such as pauses, nods, and eye contact in interpreter-mediated monologic talk, drawing on the framework of interactional sociolinguistics. This demonstrates the application of interactional sociolinguistics in analyzing the dynamics of communication and contextualization in mediated interactions. In addition, Canagarajah & Minakova (2022) adopt interactional sociolinguistics to analyze the role of semiotics and contextualization in research group meetings, illustrating how interactional sociolinguistics can provide insights into the nuanced aspects of discourse genres and social interactions within specific settings.

Moreover, Rampton & Charalambous (2019) discuss the relevance of interactional sociolinguistics in the context of everyday (in)securitization, highlighting the potential of this research program in understanding sociolinguistic processes within the domain of securitization.

The study by Nardy et al. (2014) on sociolinguistic convergence and social interactions within a group of preschoolers provides a longitudinal perspective on language variation and its relation to social interactions, offering insights into the development of sociolinguistic patterns in early childhood. Additionally, Egbert & Mahlberg (2020) delve into the variation in register and linguistic features within fictional discourse, shedding light on the sociolinguistic dimensions of narrative and linguistic distinctions in fictional speech and narration.

These studies collectively underscore the diverse applications of interactional sociolinguistics in examining language variation, contextualization, identity, and social interactions across different settings and discourse genres.

Variation in reference and narration is a significant aspect of language and storytelling. Different studies and research articles have explored this topic in various contexts and languages, shedding light on the ways in which reference and narration can vary and impact communication and understanding.

In the field of language and literacy education, variations in reference and narration have been explored in relation to writing prompts and text comprehension. For instance, a study focused on developing a reference scale for weak texts commonly found in grades 1-3. The researchers examined variations in descriptive narration in a functional context and included various weak texts in the reference scale (Skar et al., 2022). This research demonstrates the importance of understanding variations in

reference and narration to support effective writing instruction and text comprehension.

Variations in reference and narration have also been studied in the context of specific literary genres. For example, a study analyzed the variations in the concept of THOUGHT in the epic formulas of the Yakut epic. The researchers examined how different lexemes related to the concept of THOUGHT were used in the epic formulas and how they contributed to the overall narrative (Борисов, 2021). This research highlights the role of variations in reference and narration in shaping the themes and meanings conveyed in literary works.

In the field of psychology and narrative identity, variations in narration have been explored in relation to autobiographical reasoning and adjustment. Researchers have examined how different qualities of events being narrated, such as meaning-making, exploratory processing, and growth, can impact the way individuals reason about their past experiences and how it relates to their sense of self and identity (Lilgendahl & Syed, 2020). This research emphasizes the importance of considering variations in narration to understand the relationship between autobiographical reasoning and psychological adjustment.

Variations in reference and narration have also been studied in relation to perspective-taking and viewpoint alignment in narrative discourse. Studies have shown that variations in referential viewpoint, such as the use of pronominal references or verbs of perception, can influence the identification and interpretation of narrative characters and the overall perspective of the story (Krieken & Sanders, 2021; Domenico et al., 2020). These findings highlight the role of variations in reference and narration in shaping the reader's understanding and engagement with the narrative.

Furthermore, variations in reference and narration have been examined in relation to cultural and linguistic factors. Studies have explored how different languages and cultural backgrounds can influence the use of anaphoric devices and the establishment of topicality in narrative productions (Domenico et al., 2020). These studies demonstrate the importance of considering variations in reference and narration in cross-cultural and multilingual contexts.

In summary, variations in reference and narration play a crucial role in language, storytelling, and communication. Research in various fields has explored these variations in different contexts, such as prosody, literacy education, literature, psychology, and cross-cultural communication. Understanding and analyzing variations in reference and narration can provide valuable insights into the ways in which language is used, meaning is constructed, and narratives are shaped. By examining these variations, researchers can gain a deeper understanding of the complexities of language and storytelling and their impact on communication and interpretation.

Variation in reference and narration is a complex and fascinating topic that has been studied by linguists, sociologists, and psychologists for many years. There are a number of different ways to approach this topic, but one common approach is to focus on the ways in which people use language to refer to people, places, and things, and to tell stories.

One of the most important things to understand about variation in reference and narration is that it is not always a matter of right or wrong. In fact, there are often multiple ways to refer to the same thing, and multiple ways to tell the same story. The way that people choose to refer to things and tell stories can tell us a lot about their social identity, their cultural background, and their communicative goals.

People from different cultural backgrounds may also have different ways of telling stories. For example, in some cultures, it is considered polite to avoid direct eye contact when telling a story, while in other cultures, direct eye contact is seen as a sign of sincerity. These differences in storytelling style can reflect different cultural norms about communication.

Finally, people may choose to refer to things and tell stories in different ways in order to achieve different communicative goals. For example, a person who is trying to persuade someone to do something may tell a story that is designed to evoke sympathy or empathy. In contrast, a person who is trying to inform someone about something may tell a story that is designed to be objective and factual.

The study of variation in reference and narration is a complex and ever-evolving field. There is still much that we do not know about this topic, but the research that has been done so far has shed light on the ways in which language is used to create and maintain social identity, cultural meaning, and communicative goals.

Nowadays, variation in reference and narration has been extensively studied in the field of interactional sociolinguistics. This approach examines how communicative variation manifests in written and spoken discourse Spitzmüller (2021). Studies have explored various aspects of variation, such as the use of different verb tenses in narration and conversation (Comeau et al., 2012), the impact of native and non-native acquisition of sign language on narrative style (Mayberry & Fischer, 1989), and the analysis of linguistic resources in storytelling (Trester, 2013).

5. Conclusion

Interactional sociolinguistics provides a comprehensive framework for understanding the intricate relationship between language and social interaction. By examining how language functions as a dynamic social practice, this field sheds light on how individuals construct meaning, negotiate identities, and navigate cultural and power dynamics within specific social contexts. Through approaches like citizen sociolinguistics, conversational analysis, and the concept of sociolinguistic competence, interactional sociolinguistics offers valuable tools for analyzing discourse and understanding communication across diverse settings. Its insights have practical applications in fields such as education, healthcare, law, and intercultural communication, making it a crucial area of study for addressing the complexities of language use in an increasingly interconnected world.

The social construction of literacy emphasizes that literacy is not simply a set of individual skills, but rather a socially and culturally situated practice. Literacy practices are shaped by and shape social interactions, power dynamics, and cultural norms. They are fundamentally social and communicative, multiformat and multicontextual, and culturally situated. Recognizing the social construction of literacy has important implications for education, as it calls for a more holistic and sociocultural approach to literacy instruction that values diverse linguistic and cultural practices and promotes critical engagement with texts and discourses.

CONVERSATION ANALYSIS

1. General Overview

Conversation Analysis (CA) is developed by Harvey Sacks, Emanuel Schegloff, and Gail Jefferson, who come up with an ethnomethodological perspective developed by Harold Garfinkel and Erving Goffman's conception of the order of interaction (Packer, 1999). In the past decades, much attention has been given to language use in human interaction as it becomes a medium for humans to produce language and communicate with each other. In the existing literatures which focus on human interaction, most studies look at what happens between individuals; what visible activities are conducted by those people and what is in them. Therefore, the foundations of conversation analysis (CA), the 'Two Things'—action and sequence— 'course of action implemented through talk', (Schegloff, 2007a: 9) is established. Later, this becomes a foundation in understanding how CA looks at interaction through talk.

Conversation Analysis (CA) is basically an approach to discourse analysis that seeks to understand how people use language to interact with one another in everyday conversation (Stokoe, 2018). CA focuses on the systematic study of the organization of talk, with an emphasis on how speakers use linguistic resources to accomplish specific social actions and achieve their communicative goals (Mondada, 2018). In this particular context, CA mainly focuses on conversation individuals make in different settings and in everyday activities. In other words, CA is interested in examining speech organization in

a complex interaction conducted by two or more people, interacting to take a turn in a social environment (Sacks et al., 1974).

In the context of research, CA analyzes spoken talks which take place in natural settings as its data. In CA, talks are seen as a vehicle for action. Hoey and Kendrick (2017) state that talk is examined not as isolated utterances, but as talk-in-interaction, an activity that transpires in real settings between real people. In this respect, talks in interaction are always contextually situated, in the sense that they are produced by someone, for someone else, at a certain time, and in a certain way. Some of the key concepts and methods used in CA include turn-taking, sequence organization, repair, and preference organization. These concepts are used to analyze the structure and organization of talk, and to understand how speakers use these resources to accomplish their communicative goals. In short, CA research investigates how the participants care about actions done through talk such as asking, requesting, complaining, and noticing as well as the real-life consequences of those actions (Schegloff, 1995).

One of the key strengths of CA is its focus on the micro-level of interaction, which allows researchers to uncover the subtle and complex ways in which speakers use language to accomplish their social goals. CA also emphasizes the importance of context and situational factors, recognizing that talk is always embedded in a specific social, cultural, and historical context (Voutilainen et al., 2019).

Yule (1996) mentions some examples of fundamental structure of conversation such as adjacency pairs, questions and answers, turn-taking, and repair. An adjacency pair is defined as a unit of conversation that contains an exchange of turns by two speakers. Questions and answers are examples of adjacency pairs that are composed by two speakers that make a conversation. Besides, CA deals a lot with turn-taking and repair, especially in relation to complex

interaction in real life settings. CA researchers, then, examine the transcripts in great detail, looking for patterns of interaction that reveal the underlying rules and norms of talk. CA has been applied in a wide range of contexts, including classroom interaction in the educational context (Wilkinson & Marra, 2019). One of the strengths of CA in educational contexts is its ability to capture the complex and dynamic nature of classroom interaction. By analyzing talk in detail, researchers can uncover the implicit rules and norms that underlie classroom discourse and gain insights into the ways that teachers and students co-construct knowledge (Sidnell, 2019; Stokoe, 2019).

2. Adjacency Pair

When it was invented for the first time by Harvey Sacks in 1968 the term was called utterance pairs. Levinson (1983), Cutting (2002), Yule (1996), and Liddicoat (2007) have a different name for a term defined by Chaika. They call it an adjacency pair. An adjacency pair is a sequence of two related utterances in which the first speaker initiates a particular speech act and the second speaker responds with a corresponding speech act. This concept is particularly useful in the analysis of classroom interaction in educational contexts, as it can help to reveal the underlying structure and norms of classroom discourse (Sert, 2021; Waring, 2018).

There are several types of adjacency pairs including questions - answers, offer/invite - acceptance/refusal, assessment - agreement/disagreement, blame - denial/admission, and compliment-response (Schegloff & Sacks, 1973). In classroom discourse, adjacency pairs are common and can take many forms. For example, a teacher might initiate a question, and a student might respond with an answer. Alternatively, a teacher might give an instruction, and a student might acknowledge the instruction. In either case, the response is directly related to the preceding utterance, and the two utterances together form an adjacency pair (Sert, 2021).

By analyzing adjacency pairs in classroom discourse, researchers can gain insights into the ways that teachers and students use language to co-construct knowledge and meaning. They can also uncover the implicit norms and rules that govern classroom discourse, such as the expectation that students will respond to questions or acknowledge instructions (Waring, 2018).

3. Turn-taking

The organization of turn-taking has been documented in a series of CA researches, including an analytic study by Sacks et al. (1974). Turn-taking is a fundamental concept in discourse studies that refers to the ways in which speakers alternate in producing speech in conversation. Turn-taking is particularly relevant to the analysis of classroom interaction in educational contexts, as it can reveal how teachers and students collaborate in constructing knowledge and meaning (Mondada, 2018; Walsh, 2011).

In the educational educational, turn-taking is governed by a set of rules and norms that are often implicit (Atkinson & Heritage, 2019; Sidnell, 2019) For example, teachers typically have more authority in the classroom and may be expected to initiate turns more often than students. However, students can also initiate turns by asking questions or making comments, and the teacher can choose to respond or not (Rido et al., 2020).

Especially in a classroom setting, teachers need to consider how long one student should talk and when will it be the other student's turn. This also includes teachers' interruption, topic switch, and discussion direction. It can be said that turn-taking that occurs in the classroom are so dependent on the teacher. The lesson topics and the learning activities and the turns of talk are related to the teachers' pedagogical goals (Rido, et al., 2020; Xuerong, 2012).

This encourages students to actively engage during the lessons and build their confidence in expressing their thoughts (Rido et al., 2023).

4. Repair

The term repair is relevant to all levels of talk from the turn-taking system to sequence organization and preference. According to Schegloff et al. (1974) repair is designed to deal with turn-taking errors and violations. Sacks et al. (1974) recognize it as self-initiated self repair, self-initiated other repair, other-initiated self repair, and other initiated other repair.

Repair strategies are particularly relevant to the analysis of classroom interaction in educational contexts, as they can reveal how teachers and students collaborate in resolving misunderstandings and achieving shared understanding. Repair is mostly related to correcting students' errors; it is posted by teachers as feedback or evaluation (Walsh, 2011). Some common strategies employed by teachers to correct students' errors include ignoring the error completely, indicating that an error has been made and correcting it, indicating an error has been made and getting the student who made it to correct it, and indicating that an error has been made and getting other students to correct it (Rido et al., 2020).

Alternatively, a student might request clarification from the teacher or another student if they are unsure of a concept or term. In either case, the repair strategy is aimed at resolving the communication breakdown and restoring the flow of conversation (Rido et. al, 2021). In one case, a teacher sets his lesson to improve his learners' oral fluency, but unconsciously he hinders learners' ability to express their voices effectively if he keeps repairing every error made by them. Thus, when mismatch occurs between pedagogic goals and teachers' language use, learning opportunities might be lost. Therefore,

teachers need to be aware of the positive and negative consequences of repairs they do (Schegloff, 2019).

5. Research on Classroom Interaction Using Conversation Analysis

Taking face-to-face interaction as a strategic site for understanding how social order is achieved, CA uses interactional materials collected by audio or video recording to investigate the procedural basis of the reasoning that enables actors to manage interactional contingencies and achieve mutual understanding in mundane and institutional interactions (Goodwin & Heritage, 1990). Unlike thematic analysis that treats talk as a medium to convey information about the social world, CA takes talk as a form of structurally organized action, the social meaning of which is tractable by a turn-by-turn analysis of talk-in-interaction (Aguinaldo, 2012), including in classroom interaction, especially in second and foreign language (SL/FL) settings (Voutilainen et al., 2019).

Through analyzing conversations and talks in classroom interactions, CA is able to uncover the ways in which sense-making agents produce and reproduce consensual communicative meaning and mutual understanding, and coordinate action in conversational space (Goodwin & Heritage, 1990; Sidnell, 2012) which promote second/foreign language (SL/FL) learning (Rido, et al., 2020).

5.1 Acquiring Data

In the education context, CA as a research approach helps provide an in-depth understanding of complex classroom interaction between teachers and students as well as students and students. As the key concern of CA is to understand the existing classroom interaction dynamics it uses *emic* or insider perspective (Merriam, 2009). In order to collect such *emic* data, a researcher is required to directly 'witness' the classroom interaction. With such a

perspective, researchers using CA normally locate themselves within the qualitative research tradition. CA requires direct contact with the participants (teachers and students) under investigation; therefore, a researcher goes to the schools and observes and records the interactions mainly by observing and video-taping the lessons.

5.2 Observation and Video Recording as Data Collection

Observation is the primary tool underpinning qualitative and CA research. Observation is used because this research needs direct information to understand the behavior, process, situation, or event that occurs during classroom interactions. In particular, observation is used because, first, it allows the researchers to obtain direct data on interaction patterns (e.g., adjacency pair, turn-taking, and repair) because they have the opportunity to be present directly in the classroom, and second, the researchers can gain insight into complex classroom interactions that they do not want to cover in interviews and that cannot be documented by video recordings (Stake, 2010; Perry Jr, 2005).

Video recording is the second tool used in CA research because it improves data density (Howard, 2010; Dufon, 2002). This allows a researcher to write ethnographic notes to reflect and describe the verbal and nonverbal activities of teachers and students in the classroom and not have to worry about them missing out. important words (Wong & Waring, 2010). In the context of CA research, video recording is the most appropriate way to understand complex classroom interactions as it involves teacher and student voice and visual contributions that can be captured up close (Heath, 1997). Through video recordings, researchers get a more complete picture of teacher-student interactions as well as student-student interactions, the contexts in which they participate, and their roles in the future. interactions as well as the type of activities in which they engage in the nature of these interactions. activities . In

addition, video recordings are used to capture the verbal and nonverbal behaviors of teachers and students related to the interaction patterns sought by the researchers (e.g., adjacency pair, turn-taking, and repair). This also includes gestures and physical proximity between teachers and students. The data from the video recordings are then dictated (broad transcriptions) using CA transcription conventions in MS office. Line numbering indicating the turn has been given on the left side of the page for easy reference.

5.3 Transcribing Data Using Transcription Conventions

In CA, transcription plays a key role in understanding the whole complex interaction between teachers and students as well as between students and students. The following is the CA transcription conventions (Sidnell, 2012).

- [Separate left square brackets, one above the other on two successive lines with utterances by different speakers, indicate a point of overlap onset, whether at the start of an utterance or later.
-] Separate right square brackets, one above the other on two successive lines with utterances by different speakers, indicate a point at which two overlapping utterances both end or where one ends while the other continues, or simultaneous moments in overlaps which continue.
- = Equal signs ordinarily come in pairs, one at the end of a line, and another at the start of the next line or one shortly thereafter. They are used to indicate two things:
 - (1) If the two lines connected by the equal signs are by the same speaker, then there was a single, continues utterance with no break or pause, which was broken up in order to accommodate the placement of overlapping talk.
 - (2) If the lines connected by two equal signs are by different speakers, then the second followed the first with no discernible silence between them, or was “latched” to it.
- (0.5) Numbers in parentheses indicate silence, represented in tenths of a second; what is given here in the left margin indicates 0.5 seconds of silence. Silences may be marked either within an utterance or between utterances.
- °hh If the aspiration is an inhalation, it is shown with a dot before it (usually a raised dot) or a raised degree symbol.
- (()) Double parentheses are used to mark the transcriber’s descriptions of events, rather than representations of them: ((cough)), ((sniff)), ((telephone rings)), ((footsteps)), ((whispered)), ((pause)), and the like.
- (word) When all or part of an utterance is in parentheses, or the speaker identification is, this indicates uncertainty on the transcriber’s part, but represents a likely possibility.
- () Empty parentheses indicate that something is being said, but no hearing (or, in some cases, speaker identification) can be achieved.

(.)	A dot in parentheses indicates a “micropause”, hearable, but not readily measurable without instrumentation; ordinarily less than 0.2 of a second.
.	The period indicates a falling, or final, or intonation contour, not necessarily the end of a sentence.
?	A question mark indicates rising intonation, not necessarily a question.
,	Comma indicates “continuing” intonation, not necessarily a clause boundary
¿	The inverted question mark is used to indicate a rise stronger than a comma but weaker than a question mark.
::	Colons are used to indicate the prolongation or stretching of the sound just preceding them. The more colons, the longer the stretching. On the other hand, graphically stretching a word on the page by inserting blank spaces between the letters does not necessarily indicate how it was pronounced; it is used allowed to alignment with overlapping talk.
-	A hyphen after a word or part of a word indicates a cut-off or self-interruptions, often done with a glottal or dental stop.
<u>word</u>	Underlining is used to indicate some form of stress or emphasis, by either increased loudness or higher pitch. The more underlining, the greater the emphasis.
<u>word</u>	Underlining sometimes is place under the first letter or two of a word, rather than under the letters which are actually raised in pitch or volume.
WOrd	Loud talk may be indicated by upper case; again, the louder, the more letters in upper case. And in extreme cases, upper case may be underlined.
°	The degree sign indicates that the talk following it is markedly quiet or soft.
°word °	When there are two degree signs, the talk between them is markedly softer than the talk around it.
<u>;</u>	Combination of underlying and colons are used to indicate intonation contours: If the letter(s) preceding a colon is (are) underlined, then there is an “inflected” falling intonation contour on the vowel (you can hear the pitch turn downward).
<u>:</u>	If the colon itself is underlined, then there is an inflected rising intonation contour.
↑ or ^	The up and down arrows mark sharper rises or falls in pitch rather than would be indicated by combinations of colons and underlining, or they may mark a whole shift, or resetting, of the pitch register at which the talk is being produced.
↓	
><	The combination of “more than” and “less than” symbols indicates that the talk between them is compressed or rushed.
<>	The reverse order, they indicate that a stretched of talk is markedly slowed or drawn out. The “less than” symbol by itself indicates that the immediately following talk is “jump-started”, i.e. sounds like it starts with a rush.
hhh	Hearable aspiration is shown where it occurs in the talk by the letter <i>h</i> – the more <i>h</i> 's, the more aspiration. The aspiration may represent breathing, laughter, etc.
(hh)	If it occurs inside the boundaries of word, it may be enclosed in parentheses in order to set it apart from the sounds of the word.

These transcription conventions are used in CA. Each symbol indicates temporal and sequential relationships in the talk, as well as aspects of speech delivery and intonation, which help researchers interpret spoken data.

5.4 Developing Analysis

While researching classroom interaction using CA as an approach, data analyzing procedures commonly consist of five steps (Merriam, 2009): (1) creating a database, (2) open-coding the data, (3) developing themes, (4) focus-coding, (5) and triangulating the data. Figure 1 below shows the data analysis process of a study on classroom interaction using CA.

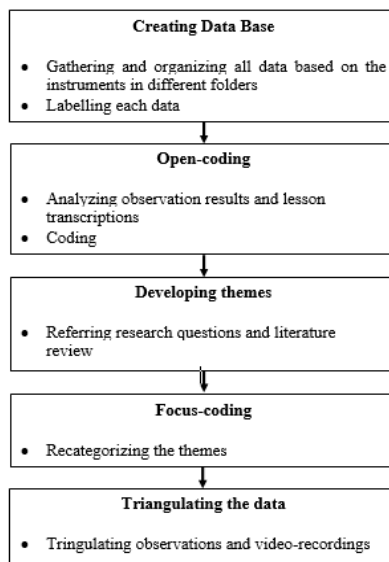


Figure 2. The Process of Data Analysis

The first step in analyzing data is building a database. In CA research, all data gathered from observations and video recordings are organized and labelled in separate folders in one database. Second, open-coding is done. Here, the data are studied carefully, and a researcher must be open to any possible category (e.g., interaction management). A sample of the coding scheme of observation data is illustrated in Figure 2 below.

Interactional Characteristics	Practices	Check -lists	Comments	Coding	
Interaction Management Code:	1. Speak language (English)	target	X	Teacher opens the class and greets the students	
	2. Speak (Bahasa Indonesia).	L1	X	she <u>introduces the topics</u> , hobbies. While talking she also <u>raises her hand and maintains eye-contact</u> . She <u>distributes handouts</u> and starts the lesson. After that, <u>asks the students to read a text one by one</u> . She <u>makes jokes and students laugh</u> .	→ Use English → Decide topic → Use non-verbal gestures → Use handouts
Emotional Strategies:	3. Use non-verbal gestures such as facial expression, hand gesture, and eye-contact.		X		
	4. Use humors or jokes.		X		
Managing strategies:	5. Decide topic.		X		
	6. Decide who speaks.	who	X		→ Decide who speaks → Use jokes

Table 2. Sample Coding of Video-recording Data

Meanwhile, a sample of the coding scheme of video-recording data is shown in Figure 3 below.

Interactional Characteristics	Practices	Check -lists	Comments	Coding	
Interaction Management Code:	1. Speak language (English)	target	X	Teacher opens the class and greets the students	
	2. Speak (Bahasa Indonesia).	L1	X	she <u>introduces the topics</u> , hobbies. While talking she also <u>raises her hand and maintains eye-contact</u> . She <u>distributes handouts</u> and starts the lesson. After that, <u>asks the students to read a text one by one</u> . She <u>makes jokes and students laugh</u> .	→ Use English → Decide topic → Use non-verbal gestures → Use handouts
Emotional Strategies:	3. Use non-verbal gestures such as facial expression, hand gesture, and eye-contact.		X		
	4. Use humors or jokes.		X		
Managing strategies:	5. Decide topic.		X		
	6. Decide who speaks.	who	X		→ Decide who speaks → Use jokes

Table 3. Sample Coding of Video-recording Data

Third, after open-coding the data, similar features might be developed and the emergent themes are obtained. Fourth, after having the emerging themes,

focus-coding is conducted to classify them into sub-categories (e.g., interaction management: code, emotional and managing strategies). Fifth, the final emerging themes are triangulated and a cross case analysis is also done to get patterns of class interaction between teachers and students as well as between students and students.

6. Data Analysis of Classroom Interaction Using Conversation Analysis

CA is a common approach by researchers to examining complex interactions in various educational settings (Sidnell, 2019; Voutilainen, Rauniomaa, & Elo, 2019). This part presents some examples of data analysis using CA in the classroom context between teachers and students. It will first present data analysis of an adjacency pair, followed by turn-taking and repair.

6.1 Adjacency Pair

Adjacency pair is considered as one of the features in classroom interaction. The most common adjacency pair in teacher-student interaction is question-answer.

Asking Questions to the Entire Class

In the following extract, the teacher asks questions to quickly check students' understanding towards the materials at hand.

Extract 1:

- | | | |
|-----|---------|--|
| 380 | Miss R: | Who are they in the picture? |
| 381 | SSS: | Fire fighter |
| 382 | Miss R: | Ya (.) what are they doing? they are (/) what are they |
| 383 | | doing? ((acting as if holding a hose)) |
| 384 | SSS: | Holding a hose |

In extract 1 above, Miss R introduced the students to TOEIC-like listening comprehension test and wanted them to look at pictures on the handouts given. In line 380, she asked a question to the entire class “who are they in the picture.” In line 381, the students gave a choral response “fire fighter.” The next question was asked in lines 382-383 “what are they doing? they are (/) what are they doing?” In line 384, the students also gave a choral response “holding a hose.” These responses indicate that the students had understood the materials at hand and the MTs could continue to the next activity.

The teacher asks questions to the entire class to ensure that the students follow the lesson. In addition, they expect feedback, which becomes an indicator of whether to repeat or continue the lesson.

Asking Close-Display Questions

In the following extract, the teacher asks close-display questions to elicit responses and identify problems. After posing this type of question, the teacher typically receives a short response from the student.

Extract 14:

- | | | |
|-----|---------|---|
| 115 | Miss S: | Is there any difficult word Catur? {approaching Catur’s chair} (.3) would you write down your difficult word? |
| 116 | | |
| 117 | | ((offering her marker and checking Catur’s work)) (.3) |
| 118 | | |
| 119 | S: | no ma’am |
| 121 | Miss S: | No (.) how about you Dani (/) is there any difficult |
| 122 | | word? ((approaching Dani)) |
| 123 | S: | Yes, ma’am |

In extract 14 above, Miss S and the students discussed a reading text. In lines 115-118, she posed a display question to an individual student “Is there any difficult word Catur? {approaching Catur’s chair} (.3) would you write down

your difficult word? {offering her marker and checking Catur's work} (.3) is there any difficult word?" In line 119, the student gave his response "*gak ada bu <no ma'am>*." After that, she approached another student and posed a similar question "how about you Dani (*/*) is there any difficult word?" In line 123, he responded "*iya bu <yes ma'am>*", indicating that he found difficult words. These were actually checking questions which enabled Miss S to identify the problems of her students.

Close-display questions are used because the teacher wants to check the students' understanding towards the materials at hand and encourage the students to speak. This also gives chances for the students to respond to questions.

Asking Open-Referential Questions

Asking open-referential question is the next strategy used by the teacher in the class. The following extract shows question-answer changes between the teacher and the entire students which combine *wh-* and *yes/no* (do) forms of questions.

Extract 15:

- | | | |
|-----|---------|--|
| 112 | Miss R: | Ok (.) why do you say (.) why the answer is <u>she</u> here? |
| 113 | | ((pointing out the words written on the whiteboard)) |
| 114 | SSS: | (inaudible) |
| 115 | Miss R: | Because (.) because the teacher is a (<i>/</i>) |
| 116 | SSS: | Woman |
| 117 | Miss R: | So we use she (.) what about if the teacher is a man? |
| 118 | SSS: | He |
| 119 | Miss R: | Yes, you can answer by he (.) <i>ya kan (/) bisa kan (/) <can</i> |
| 120 | | <i>you?></i> what about this one ? ((pointing out another words |
| 121 | | written on the whiteboard)) the students are (<i>/</i>) |

122	SSS:	They
123	T:	Finish <i>ya</i> (.) now (.) why does Harun answer by using two sentences? do you know why? ((pointing out the words written on the whiteboard))
124		
125		

The above extract reveals that Miss R asked open referential questions to the entire class by using various types of more genuine and open-ended questions to promote discussion and debate. In lines 112 and 123-124, she asked *why* and *yes/no* (do) questions while in lines 117 and 120 she asked ‘what about’ questions. Referring to the types of the questions, it seems that she expected longer responses from the students, but the students only gave one word choral response as shown in lines 118 and 122. Besides those questions, in line 115, she raised her intonation at the end of utterance to indicate the formulation of question with incomplete ending as a signal for the students to complete the turn. In line 116, the students also gave a short answer.

Open-referential questions are generally asked by the teacher to better understand the students’ knowledge. This also becomes one of the ways to express the students’ voices using their own perspectives which promote their critical thinking skills.

6.2 Turn-Taking

In the classroom context, the teacher controls patterns of communication by managing topic conversation and turn-taking while the students give responses. In general, the teacher normally (1) decides topics, (2) decides who speaks, (3) directs the students, (4) controls the direction of discussion.

Deciding Who Speaks

In the following extract, the teacher decides who speaks during the lesson. Here, he nominates a student to read an example of a public figure displayed on screen.

Extract 4:

134	Mr W:	to know ya about it (.) ya this is the example [look at his
135		laptop] all of us know ya (.) <i>semua kita tahu ya</i>
136		(.)(reading attendance list) Adinda (.) Adinda <i>coba</i>
137		<try> Din <i>dibaca</i> <read> Din (.) Barack Hussein Obama
138		

The extract shows that Mr W explained different types of occupation and started developing the topic of the lesson. In lines 134-137, Mr W, then, gave an example of a very important figure, the president of the United States of America. He wanted the students to read the example displayed on the screen. Thus, in lines 137-138, he read the attendance list and nominated a student “((reading attendance list)) Adinda (.) Adinda *coba* <try> Din *dibaca* <read> Din (.) Barack Hussein Obama,” indicating that he controlled the turn allocation.

The teacher nominates the students to speak because first, they want to know the students personally and second, when they offer the students to speak, they choose to be passive. Third, this strategy is employed because they want to make the students alert and pay attention.

Controlling the Direction of Discussion

Not only does the teacher give order or command, they also control the direction of discussion. In the next extract, the transition of the discussion is indicated by the use of discourse markers.

Extract 5:

43	Miss S:	Ya (.) what else? what else?
44	SSS:	Promotion <i>udah bu <done ma'am></i> (.)
45		infotainment
46	Miss S:	Ya (.) now (.) talk about weather
47	SSS:	Rain rain

In the extract above, the students had to classify words from the text and fill the column drawn by Miss S on the whiteboard. In line 43, Miss S asked “what else? what else?” In line 44, the students informed her that one word classification was completed “promotion *udah bu <done ma'am>*.” In line 45, she gave her response by saying “ya” followed by a discourse marker “now” to indicate a transition to the next word classification “talk about weather.” After getting a clue, in line 46, the students directly gave their response “rain rain”.

Since a lesson consists of sequences, the teacher needs to control the direction so that the materials are delivered based on the lesson plan. In short, is the teacher who knows when to start, stop, and continue their explanations.

Giving Opportunity to Speak

In many classroom occasions, teachers allow more turn-taking and greater students’ participation by offering opportunities for them to express their voices during the lesson. In the extract below, the teacher challenges the students to bid her offer.

Extract 6:

54	Miss R:	Yes (.) Muhammad Rizki (.) try number one
55		((approaching the student and giving marker)) number
56		two Yudhistira (.) number one number two Ari
57		

- 58 ((pointing one student)) (.) who wants to try number four? ((raising four fingers))
- 59 S: *Saya bu <ma'am>* ((raising right hand))

In the extract above, Miss R discussed the results of listening comprehension practice with the students. In lines 54-56, she nominated some students to write their answers on the board “Muhammad Rizki (.) try number one {approaching the student and giving marker} number two Yudhistira (.) number one number two Ari ((pointing one student)).” Next, in lines 56-58, she offered the entire class “who wants to try number four? ((raising four fingers)).” Right after offering the opportunity, in line 59, one student bid her offer “*Saya bu <ma'am>* ((raising right hand)).

There are some reasons for using this strategy. The most common reason given is that the teacher wants the students to deliver their ideas, engage them in classroom activities, and boost their confidence.

6.3 Repair

Repair in this context refers to error correction strategies used by the teacher in the classrooms. It consists of some strategies: ignoring the error completely, indicating that an error has been made and correcting it, asking students to make self-repairs, indicating an error has been made and getting other students to correct it, repeating student' response with changes, pointing out the mistake and criticizing the students, frequently interrupting to correct error.

Indicating an Error Had Occurred and Correcting It

The extract below shows how the teacher provides corrections on a student's response that contains error. It is done by indicating an error has occurred and correcting it.

Extract 7:

- 260 S: In the afternoon I lunch (.) after I lunch (.) I saw
261 Miss S: Saw (/) what do you mean by saw?
262 S: I see a TV in the afternoon
263 Miss S: I watch TV (.) not see (.) I watch TV
264 S: I watch TV and I sleep in the afternoon (.) after that

In the above extract, the students presented their daily activities and a question and answer session was conducted after that. In line 260, one student started his presentation "in the afternoon I lunch (.) after I lunch (.) I saw." In line 261, Miss S interrupted the presentation and indicated an error had occurred as the student made the wrong word choice; thus, she did a confirmation check in a form of question "saw (/) what do you mean by saw?" In line 262, the student gave his response "I see a TV in the afternoon," indicating that he tried to repair the error himself. However, the response was still unacceptable since he still chose incorrect diction. In line 263, Miss S repaired the error and repeated the word twice "I watch TV (.) not see (.) I watch TV". After getting the correct word, he repeated it and continued his presentation "I watch TV and I sleep in the afternoon" (line 264).

The teacher indicates an error has occurred and corrected it because they want to show good example to the students and facilitate understanding. This is important as the students always refer their teachers as role models at school and are eager to learn from them,

Repeating Student Errors with Changes

The study also finds that the teacher uses a repair strategy, namely repeating student errors with changes which is commonly employed by the teacher to correct grammatical errors.

Extract 8:

186	Mr W:	Ok one more question (.) <i>satu pertanyaan lagi</i>
187		((raising pointing finger] (.) any question (/) ((looking at
188		the students)) for Tiara's activity?
189	S:	<i>Saya pak <sir></i>
190	Mr W:	Ya
191	S:	What does Tiara do after she lunch?
192	Mr W:	Hhm (/)
193	S:	What does Tiara do after she lunch?
194	Mr W:	((writing on the whiteboard)) what does Tiara do after
195		having lunch (.) <i>ada yang ingat?</i> ((pointing all
196		students)) do you remember what does Tiara do after
197		having lunch?

In the extract above, Mr W facilitated a question and answer session after a student presented her activity. In lines 186-188, he offered an opportunity for the entire class to ask questions “ok one more question (.) *satu pertanyaan lagi* ((raising pointing finger)) any question (/) ((looking at the students)) (.) Tiara's activity (.) *ada pertanyaan untuk* Tiara?” In line 189, one student self-selected herself “*saya pak <sir>*” and in line 190, Mr W responded to her initiation by saying “ya”, implying that he allowed the student to pose a question. In line 191, the student asked one question “what does Tiara do after she lunch?” In line 192, Mr W gave his feedback by saying “hmm (/)” with rising intonation, indicating that it was a question which asked for confirmation.

In line 193, the student repeated the same question “what does Tiara do after she lunch?” In lines 194-195, Mr W wrote on the whiteboard and repeated the student’s answer with changes “what does Tiara do after having lunch?” This showed that he repaired by repeating the student's response with changes.

Besides showing good examples to the students, this strategy is used by the teacher to make students not aware that they are being corrected so that they are not discouraged. This will motivate the students to keep on learning and improving themselves.

7. Conclusion

This chapter has provided an overview of CA as one of approaches in Discourse Analysis to look at complex interaction between two or more individuals. Some units of conversation in talk-in interaction like adjacency pair, turn-taking, and repair are also elaborated. This chapter has also helped the readers in understanding the fundamentals of CA, its units of conversation, and how it is naturally structured in talk-in interaction, involving more than one person, especially in educational setting.

In addition, this chapter has further discussed some methodological procedures in research, especially classroom interaction, which include data acquisition, data collection, transcription convention, and data analysis. This part has helped the readers to understand how research which looks at complex interaction between teacher and students using CA is conducted.

Finally, this chapter has also presented a sample of analysis of data of talk-in interaction in the classroom context in Indonesia. The sample of data analysis consists of units of conversation such as adjacency pair, turn-taking, and repair. This analysis has helped the readers to see the reality of complex interaction in an authentic classroom setting. This has also shown the readers

the role of CA in understanding how the teacher and students make sense of each other through conversation during classroom interaction.

It is hoped that the insight gleaned from this book has contributed to the existing body of knowledge on CA. Specifically, it is expected that the overview of CA, elaboration of research on classroom interaction using CA, and sample data analysis using CA can be a platform for relevant stakeholders, mainly teachers, in understanding complex interaction in their own classrooms.

Diachronic Aspect in Discourse Analysis

1. General Overview

Text might contain the information related to the past or the future and refers to the previous social actors and certain time frames. When analyzing a text, and further a discourse, the context of how, where and by whom it is produced should be taken into account (Afrianto, 2017). Diachronic analysis in discourse sparks interesting points of discussion on how previous text could more or less contribute to the concept and issues discussed in the society. This point entails that the past discourse topics play crucial roles for the current ones.

To begin with, it needs to be clarified that diachronic consideration in discourse analysis is important. The diachronic aspect of discourse refers to the language and communication examination over time. In addition, it entails the investigation of how communication and language patterns alter, develop or hold steady across time. Within a particular language or discourse community, changes in linguistic structures, meanings, and communication techniques can be examined using this diachronic viewpoint. Seeing this diachronic consideration, researchers should be aware of historical linguistics of both micro linguistic and macro linguistic aspects that probably influence the language use in various contexts, for example, historical shifts in vocabulary, semantics, and pragmatics. Furthermore, "There is a subfield of diachronic discourse analysis, which goals are to study discourse domain, discursive categories and structures, changes in discursive functions and forms, as well

as the evolution of large communicative units they are implemented in: text types, genres and discourse domains” (Brinton, 2001: 139-140). This subfield, that draws on historical linguistics, text linguistics and discourse theory, is much less developed in modern linguistics (Ilyinova and Kochetova, 2016).

2. Discourse-Historical Approach as Critical Discourse Analysis Framework

In discourse studies, the diachronic aspect is crucial because it shapes, interprets, and comprehends communication in a fundamental way. By analyzing language in the context of time, scholars can better comprehend linguistic phenomena, social processes, and cultural changes. Further, In Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA), the diachronic aspect is crucial because it helps scholars comprehend how discourse structures, power dynamics, and ideologies change over the course of many historical eras. Finding the mechanisms of social change, ideological transformations, and meaning construction requires analyzing discourse within its diachronic context. As the diachronic analysis itself is rooted from the historical linguistics as well as the development of approaches in discourse studies, this chapter focuses on providing highlights and key terms in Discourse-Historical Approach (DHA) of Ruth Wodak and recent research trends of it.

Discourse-Historical Approach (DHA) has developed for over 30 years originally from Vienna then in Lancaster and other regions. The DHA stands out in terms of its epistemological foundation—that is, its orientation toward the critical theory of the Frankfurt School, specifically Habermas's language philosophy (Wodak, 2015). The following is the timeline of DHA development as written by (Reisigl, 2017).

Table 4. Historical Milestone of DHA

Phase	Description
1 (1987 - 1993)	DHA was employed to investigate the 1986 Austrian presidential campaign of Kurt Waldheim resulting in agreement of four main characteristics of DHA: interdisciplinary (and historical consideration), teamwork, triangulation (data, methods and approaches) and practical implementation attempt. DHA was also used in to explore communication of doctor-patient communication, laws and news broadcasts and guidelines for non-sexist language use in administrative texts
2 (1993 - 1997)	DHA was getting acknowledged. More studies were conducted such as a study on racist discrimination against migrants from Romania and a study on the discourse about the nation and national identity in Austria. The most influential book DHA was first published in 1999 and republished in 2009.
3 (1997 - 2003)	Research Centre "Discourse, Politics, Identity" in Vienna was established leading to the funding of research projects on investigating DHA in racism, national identity, EU and other topics.
4 (2004 - present)	Lancaster became the second research center of DHA. Various researches on visual communication such as posters, leaflets, comics, documentaries, etc and other multimodal texts.

Discourse-Historical Approach (DHA) was first used to analyze presidential campaigns. Then it was and then can be widely used to see the relationship between discourse and discrimination, language barrier in various social institutions, politics, policy, identity, history, media, ecology, organizational communication, and others. Now DHA was familiar among linguists and academia interested in discourse studies.

3. Key Features and Principles of Discourse-Historical Approach

Discourse is seen as "a complex bundle of simultaneous and sequential interrelated linguistic acts which manifest themselves within and across the social fields of action as thematically interrelated semiotic (oral or written) tokens that belong to specific semiotic types (genres)" Wodak and Reisigl (2001: 383). From this notion, Wodak believed that in analyzing how a certain issue or phenomenon is portrayed and (re)produced, both oral and written

sources should be taken into account. As one of the frameworks of Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA), Discourse-Historical Approach (DHA) has shared similar characteristics with the other frameworks, such as revealing ideology, taking into account social context, and focusing on linguistic devices.

Apart from these similarities, the several key features lie on some points. First, DHA employs interdisciplinary perspectives. There are some possibilities that the research on DHA will involve historical, political, sociological, and/or psychological perspectives. Second, DHA could combine multi methodologies and tools. Corpus software, for example, is frequently used to locate word associations, frequency, and trends. Third, DHA also focuses on the historical aspect of the issue both diachronic data and diachronic intertextuality to support the analysis and to deepen the background information of the investigated issue. Furthermore, DHA applies a triangular approach in the analysis i.e. text-internal co-text, intertextual and interdiscursive, social and institutional frames, political and historical.

In analyzing DHA, one type of genre is possible to be conducted. However, more genres are suggested to obtain more comprehensive findings on certain representation of issues. Genre of text as source of analysis for DHA is varied. Wodak and Reisgl (2001) at least mention the following genres: laws, bills, amendments, speech, regulation, recommendations, guidelines, press releases, press conferences, interviews, talkshow, round tables, lectures, contributions, journals, proceedings, declarations, slogans, posters, campaign, brochures, and petitions. If we take a look at the contexts in 2022 when the information channel are broader due to information and communication technology, genre is also can be in the form of live video (instagram live, tiktok live, Youtube live, instagram reels, facebook status), social media comments, chat application (whatsapp, telegram, wechat, twitter), virtual conference (zoom, skype, cisco webex, microsoft team, googlemet). By having these

kinds of genres, the analysis in DHA can fall into two categories. The first one is revealing how a certain issue is represented in general (in many genres), and the second one is how a certain issue is represented in a certain genre in which who produces the text does matter to decide why the representation goes in such ways.

4. Strategies or Linguistic Tools in Discourse-Historical Approach

In Discourse-Historical Approach, there are what are called discursive strategies to represent certain issues. According to Wodak and Meyer (2009), strategy means how language is selected and arranged in a certain systematic composition so that the specific social, political, and psychological goals are accomplished. In Opara's (2009) view, the linguistic device basically serves three functions. The first function is to reveal the ideologies. The second is to express a certain opinion; therefore, it is reflecting their attitudes. The third is to persuade readers or the audience and lead them to think critically. The explanation of each strategy is presented below.

4.1 Nomination

Nomination strategy is defined as a strategy to refer to events, places, things or even person linguistically (by using linguistic devices) so that the writer or producer of text could show their purposes of creating such text in terms of his/her political view, social view as well as the psychological views (Reisigl & Wodak, 2001). So, what are the linguistic devices that can be used for this analysis?

Deixis

Person deixis refers to the use of pronouns to indicate the speaker, the addressee, and others in a discourse. These pronouns can be classified into

two main categories: **deixis of exclusion** and **deixis of inclusion**. Person deixis is an essential language tool that is used to reflect underlying power relations and shape conversation. The roles of person deixis of inclusion and exclusion are especially important in the discourse historical approach (DHA).

Table 5. Exclusion and Inclusion Deixis

Deixis of Exclusion	Deixis of Inclusion
<p>First-person plural exclusive: This form excludes the addressee from the group being referred to. For example: "We (the speaker and others, but not you) should go out for dinner."</p>	<p>First-person plural inclusive: This form includes both the speaker and the addressee in the group being referred to. For example: "We (the speaker and you) should go out for dinner."</p>
<p>Third-person plural: This form refers to a group that does not include the speaker or the addressee. For example: "They (people who are not present) should decide."</p>	<p>Second-person plural: This form directly addresses a group of people, including the addressee. For example: "You (all of you) should do your homework."</p>
<p>Creating a Sense of Unity: Using inclusive pronouns (like "we," "us") can help a group feel more united and like they have a common identity. This can be used to foster a sense of community, mobilize support, or inspire group action.</p>	<p>Othering: When a group is separated from others, exclusive pronouns (such as "they," "them") can be employed to establish a division between "us" and "them." This can be used to uphold boundaries, marginalize particular communities, or defend unfair treatment.</p>
<p>Establishing Authority: A speaker can assert legitimacy and authority by positioning themselves as a member of a group or community and utilizing inclusive pronouns to do so. This is seen in religious sermons and political speeches as the speaker attempts to connect with the audience in order to win their respect and support.</p>	<p>Asserting strength: A speaker might demonstrate their own control and strength by barring others from a group or community. Rhetoric that highlights the superiority of a specific group or ideology demonstrates this.</p>
<p>Developing a Sense of Shared Purpose: To foster a feeling of common objectives, inclusive pronouns might be employed. Through highlighting the collective "we," a speaker might inspire others to collaborate around a shared goal.</p>	<p>Creating a Sense of Threat: You can utilize exclusive pronouns to convey a sense of danger or threat from outside sources. This can be used to justify aggressive behavior or to rally support for defensive measures.</p>

The term "temporal deixis" describes how language is used in a discourse to denote time reference. Place deixis refers to the use of language to indicate

location in a discourse. These language strategies are essential for constructing historical narratives and comprehending the construction and representation of time in the discourse historical approach (DHA).

Table 6. Temporal and Place Deixis

Temporal Deixis	Place Deixis
<p>Creating a Chronology: the process of putting events in order and crafting a logical story. For this, words such as "before," "after," "now," "then," and "next" are used to denote the temporal links between various discourse elements.</p>	<p>Negotiating Power Relations: to make dominance claims and negotiate power dynamics. Place deixis, for instance, can be used by a strong person or organization to seize territory or bar others from entering particular areas.</p>
<p>Framing Historical Events: to place historical events in a certain context, highlighting their importance, duration, or recency. The statement "in recent years" is one that a historian might use, for example, to emphasize the event's importance in the present.</p>	<p>Reflecting Cultural Values: Cultural values and beliefs can be seen in the ways that a location is portrayed in conversation. For instance, whilst some cultures emphasize cosmopolitanism and global connections, others may place a strong priority on local identity and location-based customs.</p>
<p>Building Historical Narratives: Building historical narratives enables authors and speakers to take a position in reference to both the past and the present. This can be employed to support certain historical claims, to cast doubt on preexisting historical interpretations, or to establish a sense of continuity or discontinuity.</p>	<p>Establishing Context: By identifying the location where a speech or piece of writing is being delivered, place deixis is used to establish the context of a discourse. Using terms like "here" or "there," or making more detailed references to locations, cities, or regions, can be as easy as that.</p>
	<p>Framing Historical Events: By highlighting an event's geographic relevance or connection to other locations, place deixis can be utilized to frame it in a specific way. For instance, to emphasize the central position of a specific event, a historian would use the phrase "in the heart of Europe".</p>

Anthroponym

Anthroponyms are proper nouns used to refer to certain people, groups, or locations. The examination of anthroponyms in the discourse historical approach (DHA) can offer insightful information about how social identities are

constructed, power dynamics are negotiated, and history is portrayed. Here are the anthroponym types:

- Given names: These are the names by which people are referred to personally at birth or baptism.
- Family names are surnames that members of the same family or clan have in common.
- Place names are the titles given to certain geographic areas, including towns, cities, villages, and nations.

There are at least four functions of anthroponyms. It can reflect social structures and hierarchies. For example, the use of titles or suffixes in names can indicate social status or rank. It can be used to construct social identities, such as ethnic, religious, or national identities. For example, the use of certain names may be associated with particular cultural or ethnic groups. Then, anthroponyms can be used to negotiate power relations and assert dominance. For example, the adoption of foreign names or titles may be a strategy for social mobility or for aligning oneself with powerful individuals or groups. Furthermore, it can be used to represent historical events and figures. For example, the names of historical leaders or places may be used to evoke certain emotions or associations. Further, anthroponyms can be used to frame narratives and shape historical interpretations. For example, the use of certain names may be associated with positive or negative connotations, which can influence how people perceive historical events.

Metonymy

Metonymy refers to an object by the name of anything that is connected to it. Metonymy is essential to the construction of social identities, negotiation of power dynamics, and creation of historical narratives under the discourse-historical approach (DHA). Some types of metonymy:

- Part for whole: Using a named portion of the whole to refer to it. As an illustration, "the crown" stands for the monarchy.
- Using the term "whole" to refer to a part instead of "part." As an illustration, "Wall Street" stands in for the financial sector.
- receptacle for enclosed identifying the container in reference to the contents. As an illustration, consider "the White House" as the US government.
- Place for institution: Using the location of an institution to refer to it. As an instance, "the Vatican" represents the catholic church.

Metaphor

Metaphor is a figure of speech in which two dissimilar objects are compared. Metaphor is a key component in the construction of social identities, the negotiation of power dynamics, and the molding of historical narratives in the discourse-historical approach (DHA). There are different metaphor types.

- Conceptual Metaphor: mapping one intellectual area onto another is known as conceptual metaphor. For instance, the statement "time is money" transfers the idea of time to the idea of money.
- Orientational Metaphor: the representation of abstract ideas with spatial metaphors. For instance, "up" might stand for advancement or positivity, whereas "down" can stand for negative or regression.
- Personification: the process of giving non-human creatures human characteristics. For instance, "the sea is angry" gives the sea human emotions.

Metaphor in DHA is used to represent complex concept in concise way, historical association, and cultural values or beliefs.

4.2 Predication

Predication strategy is defined as the strategy to label events, places, things or people with some qualities. This strategy is aimed at representing social actors more or less positively or negatively (Reisigl & Wodak, 2001). The strategy is realized by stereotypical, evaluative attribution (in the form of adjective, relative clause, infinitive phrase, and prepositional phrase), explicit collocation, rhetorical figure (including hyperboles and litotes), and allusion (Wodak & Meyer, 2009).

Negative attribution towards events, places, things or people can serve several functions. The first is to characterize people or groups as wicked, evil, or dangerous is known as denigrating or demonizing. Saying something like "a tyrant" or "a dictator" to a political opponent is one example. The second is to marginalize or exclude particular groups from society is known as marginalization or exclusion. Saying that immigrants are "outsiders" or "illegal aliens," for instance. The third is to accuse someone or something of wrongdoing by using derogatory language to place the blame for unfavorable incidents or results on them. For instance, assigning responsibility for economic issues to a specific ethnic community.

On the other hand, positive attribution towards events, places, things or people can also serve several functions. The first is to present people or groups as heroic, virtue-driven, or admirable is known as exalting or glorifying. Saying "a great statesman" or "a visionary" to a national leader, for instance. The second is to incorporate particular people into society through the use of positive rhetoric. As an illustration, calling immigrants "new Americans" or "contributors to our community." The first is to express gratitude to people or groups for their deeds or accomplishments through the use of upbeat language.

Table 7. Predication Types

<p>Stereotypical Attribution</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Adjective: "The cruel Government." ● Relative Clause: "The terrorists who bombed the city." ● Infinitive Phrase: "The stupid people who believe in conspiracy theories." ● Prepositional Phrase: "A woman of Middle Eastern descent." 	<p>Evaluative Attribution</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Adjective: "A brave soldier," "a cruel dictator." ● Relative Clause: "The intelligent students who passed the exam." ● Infinitive Phrase: "The people eager to help others." ● Prepositional Phrase: "A man of great courage."
<p>Explicit Predication</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Subject-predicate construction: "The government is corrupt." ● Copular verb: "She is a doctor." ● Transitive verb: "He ate an apple." 	<p>Rhetorical Figure</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Metaphor: "The government is a ship without a captain." ● Simile: "She is as brave as a lion." ● Personification: "The city is crying out for help." ● Hyperbole: "The sky is falling."

4.3 Argumentation

Argumentation strategies means of which arguments and argumentation schemes do specific persons or social groups try to justify and legitimate the exclusion, discrimination, suppression, and exploitation of others. There is a term known as *topoi*, according to Richardson (2004: 230) is "reservoir of *generalized key ideas*, from which specific statements can be generated". There are many types of argument or *topoi*. Wodak (2006) gives some examples of *topoi* such as usefulness/uselessness, advantage/disadvantage, danger/threat, justice, burdening, history, and abuse. Each issue will have a different *topoi* or argument, and not all samples from Wodak (2006) will appear in certain issues. To analyze the argument, these ideas can be used as the basis to locate the argument:

- something is urgent/not urgent to be conducted
- current condition is enough/not enough

- certain solution is morally correct/incorrect
- certain solution is practical/not practical
- certain solution doesn't fit the social actors/ beneficiary

4.4 Perspectivization

The term "perspectivization" in the Discourse-Historical Approach (DHA) describes how a writer or speaker places himself in relation to the discourse. It involves the use of linguistic devices to create a particular viewpoint or perspective.

- First-person viewpoint: The author or speaker takes the standpoint of the topic of discussion.
- Second-person viewpoint: The author or speaker speaks directly to the reader.
- Third-person viewpoint: The author or speaker makes references to other people in the text.
- Authorial voice: The viewpoints and convictions of the speaker or writer are expressed.
- Reported speech is when someone writes or speaks another person's words.

4.5 Intensification or mitigation

Intensification and mitigation are strategies used to enhance or reduce the force of a statement, respectively. DHA intensification techniques involve the use of language to draw attention to or heighten the importance of particular discourse elements. This can be used to emphasize certain issues, encourage action, or reinforce certain points of view. This can be seen from:

- Emotive Language: Using strong, emotional language to create a sense of urgency or importance. For example, describing a situation as

a "crisis" rather than a "challenge" can intensify the perceived seriousness.

- **Hyperbolic Expressions:** Employing exaggeration or hyperbole to magnify the impact or significance of an issue. For example, referring to a policy as "catastrophic" rather than "problematic" serves to intensify its negative implications.
- **Repetition:** Repeating key terms or phrases to reinforce particular ideas or viewpoints. This can make certain aspects of a discourse more prominent and persuasive.
- **Amplification:** Highlighting specific details or statistics to bolster an argument or viewpoint. This can involve emphasizing certain facts while downplaying others.

Mitigation strategies in DHA involve the use of language to downplay or soften the impact of certain aspects of discourse. These strategies are often employed to manage potential criticism, reduce tension, or moderate the perceived severity of an issue. This is reflected in:

- **Hedging:** Using vague or non-committal language to avoid making definitive statements. For example, phrases like "it seems" or "might be" can mitigate the strength of a claim.
- **Minimization:** Downplaying the significance of an issue or action. For example, referring to a controversial policy as "a small adjustment" rather than "a major overhaul" reduces its perceived impact.
- **Euphemisms:** Using softer or less direct terms to describe something that could be perceived negatively. For example, calling layoffs "streamlining" or "downsizing" can mitigate the harshness of the term "firing."
- **Distancing:** Employing language that creates a sense of separation from an issue or action. For example, using passive constructions like

"mistakes were made" rather than specifying who made them can distance the speaker from responsibility.

Besides these five strategies, DHA also considers intertextuality and interdiscursivity. Intertextuality and interdiscursivity are closely related concepts that explore the ways in which texts and discourses interact with each other. Intertextuality in discourse means the relationship between one text and other texts—both past and present—where one text may cite the others both overtly and implicitly (Paltridge, 2006). Besides intertextuality, there is also interdiscursivity. Interdiscursivity denotes the connection between discourses in various ways through explicit or implicit references (Wodak & Forchtner, 2014).

5. Historical Aspect in Discourse-Historical Approach

Historical aspects in the research of DHA can be overtly stated in the research paper. Understanding the historical context in which a discourse occurs is essential for analyzing its meaning and significance. Thus, the time period plays a significant role. Several factors such as social, political, and economic conditions as well as culture should be taken into account in the analysis. Within the time frame of 2008 - 2017, Utami (2018) compiled the articles on LGBT published in Jakarta Globe. The reason behind the choice of this time frame is because LGBT issue in Indonesian context was first heard in 2008 and intensively exposed in 2016 to 2017.

Table 8. Diachronic Development of Anti-LGBT issue

Period	Issue	The Jakarta Post	The Jakarta Globe
2008	First Article Published	Deviants' Take on Porn Law	Islam 'recognizes homosexuality'
2015 - 2016	Heated Moments	Rights Activists Lash Out at MUI's Anti-LGBT	n response to anti-LGBT fatwa, Jokowi urged to abolish laws targeting minorities
		Male Actors Not Allowed to Show Effeminate Behavior on Screen, Says Broadcasting Body	Commission wants TV, radio free of LGBT
	Anti-climax	LGBT Safety Should be Placed under the Constitution: Activists"	Indonesia must protect LGBT Rights: Human Rights Watch"

Another example is the historical portrait of indigenous belief issues in Indonesia conducted by Suprayogi *et al* (2021).

Table 9. Diachronic Development of Indigenous Belief issue

New Order	2006	2013	2017	2019
Indigenous believers were forced to choose one of the state religions to be put in ID card. The believers were accused of being communist and atheist.	Govt Imposed 2006 Population Administration Law: require the religion column in id card is left blank.	Govt Imposed 2013 Civil Administration Law stating that the column of religion should be left blank.	Constitutional Court Ruled. Indigenous belief is put in the ID card column (judicial review of the 2013 Civil Administration Law) MUI suggested a special ID card for faith believers.	Regional administration issued ID card with faith field "Belief in Almighty God"

The timeline of events is crucial in the Discourse-Historical Approach (DHA) for contextualization, identification of causation, tracing changes, observing power dynamics, and understanding historical memory.

6. Current Researches in Discourse-Historical Approach

For the last 10 years, the research on discourse historical approach has been conducted with diverse issues observed across various genres. The following are some of the research and key points of findings.

Table 10. Summary of Current Research in Discourse-Historical Approach

Paksoy (2022)	Syrian asylum seekers discourse in Turkish Press	Syrian asylum seekers are portrayed through the word <i>Mülteci</i> or literally translated as “refugee”. Turkish Press highlights more on ethnic identities than religious identities and shows an overall positive tone
Omar, Hamouda, Aldaswari (2020)	Egypt, Lebanon and Jordan in the discourse of right-wing movement in immigration	New nationalist and populist discourse resulted in a negative right impact on the image of the asylum seekers in which they are blamed for the crisis and socioeconomic situation in those countries. This resulted in the emergence of anti-immigrant movements and the racist acts.
Khorasgani and Hassanpour (2017)	The discourse on cosmetic surgery in Iran	Through discourse-historical approach by Wodak and gender theory by Bauman and Butler, it is found that institutions such as education, religion, medicine and art play an important stance in articulating the notion of body and cosmetic surgery.
Sugiharti (2018)	The cultural values in the trilogy novel of “Ronggeng Dukuh Paruk”	It reveals religious, socio- economic, and cultural conditions. It shows that in that period, Javanese people were mostly influenced by Hinduism and worked as farmers.
Yatmikasari and Isana (2017)	Local Wisdom in Amanat Galunggung Manuscript	It reveals values of the Sundanese local wisdom which concentrate on three relationships: human relationships with fellow human beings, with God, and with nature.
Lingling (2022)	Coverage of COVID-19 in China	Two media presented different angles in representing the issues, one with negative

	and American Media	terminology used, not highlighting the government effort meanwhile the other is showing the opposite. Different discursive strategies were employed.
Ramadan (2023)	The Comparison of The Statelessness Identity in Germany and Latvia	Germany has a problem conducting statelessness determination procedures meanwhile Latvia has succeeded in it.
Naeem, Noreen, Munir (2023)	Representation of Pakistani political leaders' arrest in Indian and Pakistani's editorial	Predication strategies are used with stereotypical and evaluative attributions, and implicit and explicit predicates.
Mansouri (2023)	Investigating Religious Persian Sermon	The nomination/referential strategies was predominant, which made it necessary to evaluate the religious text in light of its context. The analysis of argumentation techniques revealed the application of several topoi, including burden, responsibility, reality, law and definition, and law.
Mangila (2023)	Reimagining Singapore in Poetry and its role to shape	The first personal pronouns aid in personifying Singapore and expressing an identity of in-group that serves as a unifying force. Descriptive adjectives are used to portray Singapore diversity.
Alfaaz, Monalisa, Andriani (2023)	The Finnish Prime Minister Sanna Marin's loss in the recent election in The Guardian	Marin's loss may indicate a shift towards more conservative values in Finnish society, highlighting a rise in anti-immigration sentiment. It highlights the opposition's successful framing.
Balkan-Sahin (2020)	Understanding the U.S. Withdrawal from	It highlights positive self-presentation and negative other-representation. It further covers the topoi of history, threat, and responsibility. The United States presents

	the Iranian Nuclear Deal	Iran as a hostile rouge regime sponsoring terrorism.
Gasiorowska (2020)	Foreign Language Education Policy in Ireland	It reveals some discontinuities and transformations in the body of foreign language educational policy.

Research on Discourse-Historical Approach has been conducted extensively in the period of last 10 years (2014 - 2024). The issues are varied from asylum seekers, immigration, cosmetic surgery, cultural values, pandemic, political leaders, national identity, election, nuclear power, to education policy. The data source is also diverse, from mass media articles, sermons, literary works, posters, editorial, manuscript, advertisement, and many more. In this context, the research locus were centered in The Middle east, Southeast Asia, and Europe; however, more publications are spread worldwide. Further possible topics of research employing Discourse-Historical Approach (DHA) could focus on a variety of topics, genre, and interdisciplinary studies. The future research may discuss environmental policy, entertainment figures, religion, and minority issues.

7. Conclusion

The Discourse-Historical Approach (DHA) has been thoroughly explored in this chapter, with its main characteristics explained, its historical evolution traced, and its linguistic devices and techniques examined. The method stands out for emphasizing the historical aspects of discourse, arguing that a complete examination of language use and power relations requires a grasp of the socio-historical context. The interaction between discursive practices and historical events, the methodological rigor in integrating macro and micro levels of analysis, and the dedication to exposing the ways in which discourse

sustains social structures and ideologies over time are some of the salient characteristics of DHA.

It is hoped that this chapter has shed light on the importance of DHA as a powerful analytical tool for comprehending the complex interrelationships that exist between history, society, and discourse. This chapter attempts to raise awareness of DHA's contributions to discourse analysis and to stimulate more study that keeps examining and developing its possibilities by offering a thorough explanation of its beginnings, methods, and uses. By making such attempts, academics can learn more about the ways in which discourse serves as a mechanism for social continuity and change, which will ultimately lead to a more sophisticated understanding of the interactions between language, history, and power.

Corpus Linguistics and Critical Discourse Analysis

1. General Overview

Corpus linguistics is "the study of language based on real-world corpus typically refers to a text corpus, which is described as "a collection of language text in electronic form, selected according to external criteria to represent a language or language variation as a source of data for linguistic research" (Sinclair, 2004). It is "a collection of texts thought to be representative of a certain language" (Tognini-Bonelli, 2001) or "collection(s) of texts (or parts of texts) that are saved and accessible electronically" (Hunston, 2002) for linguistic research. The fact that they are encoded electronically enables intricate calculations to be performed on vast amounts of text, revealing linguistic patterns and frequency information that would ordinarily take days or months to discover by hand and may contradict intuition. A corpus is typically large (consisting of hundreds or even millions of words), representative samples of a particular type of naturally occurring language; hence, it can be used as a standard reference for evaluating language claims.

Corpus linguistics utilizes vast computer-stored collections of both spoken and written natural texts (corpora or corpuses, singular corpus). Using several computer-based technologies, corpus linguists can investigate a variety of language-use-related problems. An important contribution of corpus linguistics is the investigation of language usage patterns. Corpus linguistics is a highly effective method for the analysis of natural language and can provide enormous insights into how language usage differs in different contexts, such

as spoken versus written language or formal versus informal interaction (Reppen & Simpson-Vlach, 2020).

There are a number of existing corpora that serve as important research tools for a variety of linguistic issues such as "real examples of language use" (McEnery & Wilson, 2001; Sinclair, 2004). Today, corpus linguistics is understood to be the study of language phenomena through a vast corpus of machine-readable texts. These are utilized in a variety of academic fields, including the Descriptive Study of a Language's Syntax, Prosody, and Language Learning, to name a few. Corpora have been utilized in researching the linguistics branches, including Discourse Analysis. In contrast to solely qualitative approaches to research, corpus linguistics makes use of electronically encoded text corpora and implements a more quantitative methodology, for as by using frequency information on the occurrences of particular linguistic phenomena.

2. Introduction to Corpus Linguistics

There are some well known corpus in the world such as the British National Corpus (BNC), the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA), the Brown Corpus, the Lancaster/Oslo–Bergen (LOB) Corpus, and the Helsinki Corpus of English Texts. A corpus is frequently described as either 'general' or 'specialized' in corpus linguistics. Typically, general corpora are much larger than specialized corpora. For instance, the Bank of English contains over 600 million words, COCA contains over 400 million words, and the BNC contains 100 million words; all of these corpora are general. In contrast, specialized corpora are typically measured in the thousands or low millions of words, although some are quite large. The purpose for which general and specialized corpora were compiled is what differentiates them. Specialized corpora are compiled to describe language use in a particular variety, register, or genre. To

ensure the representativeness and balance of a specialized corpus's contents, the corpus linguist must frequently seek the advice of domain experts. The variety of registers, genres, language forms, and language varieties covered by specialized corpora has expanded in recent years. As the field of corpus linguistics has expanded, so has the demand for more specialized studies and applications, which are often best served by specialized corpora. Having a specific focus also means that corpora can be used to inform the learning and teaching of language for specific purposes, particularly when the patterns of language use are compared to a general corpus to highlight similarities and differences. The following are reference corpus existing as the representative corpora for the English language.

Table 11. Major English Language Corpora (Lee, 2010)

Types of English language corpora	Representative corpora
'General English' corpora (written, spoken, and both)	Brown Corpus of written American English, FROWN (Freiburg-Brown Corpus of written American English), Lancaster Oslo-Bergen (LOB) corpus of written British English, FLOB (Freiburg- LOB corpus of written British English, Wellington Corpus of Written New Zealand English, Australian Corpus of English (ACE), Kolhapur Corpus of Indian English, International Corpus of English (ICE), Bank of English, British National Corpus (BNC), American National Corpus (ANC), Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA)
Speech corpora	Spoken English Corpus (SEC), Machine Readable Spoken English Corpus (MARSEC), London-Lund Corpus of Spoken English, Intonation Variation in English (IVIe) Corpus, Freiburg Corpus of English Dialects FRED (FRED), Cambridge and Nottingham Corpus of Discourse in English (CANCODE), Switchboard Corpus, Santa Barbara Corpus of Spoken American English (SBCSAE)
Parsed written corpora	Lancaster Parsed Corpus (LPC), Surface and Underlying Structural Analyses of Naturalistic English (SUSANNE) Corpus, ICB-GB (Great Britain), Penn-Helsinki Parsed Corpus of Middle English, York-Helsinki Parsed Corpus of Old English Poetry

Historical corpora	Helsinki Corpus of English, A Representative Corpus of Historical English Registers (ARCHER), Corpus of Historical American English (COHA), Lampeter Corpus, Newdigate Newsletter Corpus, Corpus of Early English Correspondence (CEEC), Corpus of Late Eighteenth Century Prose, Corpus of later Modern English Prose, Zurich English Newspaper Corpus, Old Bailey Corpus, Corpus of English Dialogues (CED)
Specialized corpora	Michigan Corpus of Academic Spoken English (MICASE), British Academic Spoken English (BASE), Limerick-Belfast Corpus of Academic Spoken English (LIBEL CASE), City University Corpus of Academic Spoken English (CUCASE), British National Corpus (academic component), LOB (category J texts: 'learned and scientific writings'), Chemnitz Corpus of Specialized and Popular Academic English (SPACE), Reading Academic-Text corpus (RAT), Professional English Research Corpus (PERC), Wolverhampton Business English Corpus, Business Letters Corpus (BLC)
Multimedia corpora	Santa Barbara Corpus of Spoken American English (SBCSAE), Scottish Corpus of Texts and Speech (SCOTS), English Language Interview Corpus as a Second-Language Application, Singapore Corpus of Research in Education (SCoRE), multimedia corpus of European teenager talk (SACODEYL project)

Several Learners Corpora have also been built to be used as the reference in the discourse study in analyzing the language patterns of the learners.

Table 12. Developmental, Learner, and Lingua Franca Corpora (Lee, 2010)

Types of developmental, learner, and lingua franca corpora	Representative corpora
Developmental language corpora	CHILDES database and Polytechnic of Wales (POW) Corpus, Louvain Corpus of Native English Essays (LOCNESS; 324,000 words), British Academic Written English Corpus (BAWE; 6.5 million words), Michigan Corpus of Upper-level Student Papers (MICUSP; 2 million words)

ESL/EFL learner corpora	International Corpus of Learner English (ICLE; 3.7 million written words), Louvain International Database of Spoken English Interlanguage (LINDSEI; 1 million words), Lancaster Corpus of Academic Written English (LANCAWE), Montclair Electronic Language Learners' Database (MELD; 98,000 words), Chinese Academic Written English (CAWE; 408,000 words), International Corpus of Crosslinguistic Interlanguage (ICCI), Japanese EFL Learner Corpus (JEFLL Corpus; 700,000 words), Learner Business Letters Corpus (Learner BLC; 200,000 words), Learning Prosody in a Foreign Language (LeaP corpus; more than twelve hours of recordings)
Lingua franca corpora	Vienna-Oxford International Corpus of English (VOICE Corpus; 1 million words, 120 hours), The Corpus of English as a Lingua Franca in Academic Settings (ELFA Corpus; 1 million words, 131 hours)

However, even though these Reference Corpus exist, researchers interested in investigating features of language use that are not represented by easily available corpora (such as study topics on a particular register or time period) will need to construct a new corpus. These built corpora provide the patterns of specific discourse that can be analyzed in linguistic studies. In brief, both the reference corpus and built corpus are used to employ the functions of corpus linguistics (Conrad, 2002); investigating the characteristics associated with the use of a language feature; examining the realization of a particular function of language; characterizing a variety of language; and mapping the occurrence of language features through a text.

3. Advantages of the corpus-based approach to CDA

Corpus has yet to be utilized extensively in discourse analysis or pragmatic research. One explanation for this is because it has been difficult to locate suitable study materials. As more corpora are produced and annotated with pertinent information, corpus-based research in this field is also increasing. It has something to do with the notion of discourse study itself which deals with the situation and intention of the language user. However, corpus linguistics provides the quantitative method in analyzing the data in addition to the

qualitative method researchers apply in doing comprehensive analysis in discourse research. According to Baker (2006), some advantages can be gained from using Corpus to analyze discourse:

Reducing Researcher Bias

By utilizing a corpus, researchers can at least place certain limitations on their cognitive biases. When examining hundreds of newspaper articles, for example, it becomes more difficult to be selective about a single article. Using this corpus method, overall patterns and trends will emerge. Due to constraints placed on researchers (such as word limit restrictions for journal articles), selectiveness is a factor. With a corpus, however, we are starting from a position in which the data itself has not been selected to confirm existing conscious (or unconscious) biases.

The Incremental Effect of Discourse

Due to the cumulative effect of discourse, corpus linguistics is a useful approach to discourse analysis in addition to reducing bias. The use of language is one of the most important means by which discourses are disseminated and strengthened in society, and it is the responsibility of discourse analysts to decipher how language is employed, frequently in quite subtle ways, to reveal underlying discourses. We should be more resistant to attempts by authors of texts to influence us by suggesting what is 'common sense' or 'conventional wisdom' if we are more aware of how language is used to construct discourses and various worldviews.

Resistant and Changing Discourse

The nature of discourses is not static. They continually shift position, a fact that can frequently be demonstrated through an examination of language variation.

There is little consensus among linguists as to whether language reflects or shapes thought, or whether the relationship constitutes an endless cycle of influence. Regardless of the direction of influence, charting language changes is an effective means of demonstrating that discourse positions in society are also in flux. The discourse that was hegemonic a decade ago may now be viewed as resistant or unacceptable. This can be demonstrated at the most fundamental level by analyzing the changing frequency of words in a diachronic (or historical) corpus or by comparing multiple corpora containing texts from various time periods. Comparing two equally sized corpora of British English containing written texts from the early 1960s and the early 1990s reveals that in the 1990s corpus, various types of words occur much more frequently than they did in the 1960s corpus. These include lexis which reflects the rise of capitalist discourses, such as initiatives, strategies, capitalists, customers, resources, privatization, and markets; and lexis which reflect 'green' discourses, such as environmental, sustainable, and environmentalist. In addition, we find that certain terms have become less common: girls and titles such as Mr. and Mrs. were more common in 1960s British English than in the 1990s, suggesting that perhaps sexist discourses or formal ways of addressing people have become less prevalent.

Triangulation

According to McNeill (1990), triangulation (a term coined by Newby in 1977) or the use of multiple methods of analysis (or forms of data) is now widely accepted by "the majority of researchers." Layder (1993) argues that triangulation has several advantages: it facilitates validity checks of hypotheses, it anchors findings in more robust interpretations and explanations, and it enables researchers to respond flexibly to unexpected problems and aspects of research. Even if discourse analysts do not want to go through the trouble of building a corpus from scratch, they can still

profitably use corpora as a reference to support or expand on their findings derived from smaller-scale analyses of individual texts. Sunderland (2004), for instance, examined a newspaper article that advertised a 'fairytale' venue for wedding ceremonies. Due to phrases such as "its flying staircase down which the bride can make a breathtaking entrance," she argued that the article portrayed the bride as the object of the (stereotypically male) gaze. Bride tends to co-occur with appearance-related terms such as blushing, dress, wore, beautiful, and looked, according to an analysis of its most frequent co-occurrences in a large corpus of natural language. In contrast, bridegroom and groom tended to collocate with primarily functional words (pronouns, conjunctions, prepositions, etc.), suggesting that the constructions of brides in the article were 'loaded' in a manner that did not apply to bridegrooms. While the primary focus of Sunderland's analysis was a single news article, a general corpus proved useful in confirming her suspicions that what she was observing was indeed a hegemonic discourse. In such situations, it only takes a few minutes to consult a reference corpus, demonstrating that this corpus-based triangulation technique is highly effective.

4. Corpus Building

4.1 Procedure for building a corpus

Corpora are important sources of data for a number of areas within the wide scope of Linguistics. Biber (2005) states that examining language use offers a valuable supplementary perspective to conventional linguistic analyses. There are also compelling reasons to create a specialized corpus: reference corpora may need more representation of the text types you want to examine or may need more references to the subject(s) you want to research. Furthermore, the data could already be out of date (one possible factor including many reference corpora seems to be that they take so much time to build so that by

the time they are done, they capture historical documents, which are useful for diachronic analysis but may not reveal much about current discourses).

The completion of projects involving corpus research requires a significant time investment on the part of the researcher. A worthy research project will have a number of different components, such as providing a motivation of the significance of the topic, providing a clear description of the corpus and the methods used in the study to analyze your results, providing a presentation of the results, providing a discussion of the results, and providing a conclusion that provides a summary and "takeaway message" of the research. All of these components are necessary for the research project to be deemed worthy. Researchers should select a topic that is not only interesting but also potentially relevant to others when deciding on a topic. In other words, if they were to tell someone about your research topic and they responded, "So what? ", they should have a well-thought-out response (Crawford & Csomay, 2024). To respond to this question, they should select a topic that they believe will contribute to understanding how and why language forms may vary in specific contexts.

Nowadays, more corpora are available in digitized format and accessible online. Therefore, it is easier and more affordable for researchers to build a corpus from electronic texts. The procedure of corpus building itself is divided into two phases; designing and implementing. Following are the steps of each phase in building a corpus (Sinclair, 2002).

Designing a corpus.

To design a corpus, one needs to do the following steps;

1. Select a topic of research to study. Since the use of language corpus is wide, we can analyze specific topics of research to study. For example,

researchers want to find the characteristics of language use in a novel, in newspapers, or other texts.

2. After selecting the topic, capture or collect the texts. One of the efficient ways to gather the texts is to utilize the data that is available in electronic format. They can be in the form of online data or e-books.
3. Save the texts in plain-text format (.txt) to be able to proceed with them in the corpus tools which are available online or offline.
4. Annotate the text. Corpus annotation involves the process of including explanatory language details in a corpus. One prevalent form of annotation is adding tags or labels to indicate the word class of words in a text. This is known as part-of-speech tagging (or POS tagging), and it might be beneficial, for instance, in differentiating words that share the same spelling but have distinct meanings or pronunciations. Besides POS tagging, there are other types of annotation; phonetic annotation, semantic annotation, pragmatic annotation, discourse annotation, stylistic annotation, and lexical annotation. The annotation can be done online or offline in the corpus tools available.
5. Once the corpus is fully compiled, create a duplicate copy on the drive as a precautionary measure against potential system failures or data integrity issues.
6. Upload or store the texts to the corpus tools to analyze.

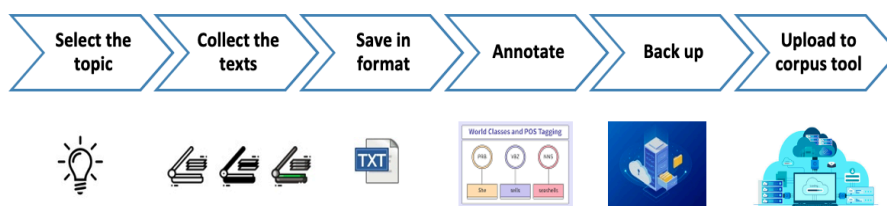
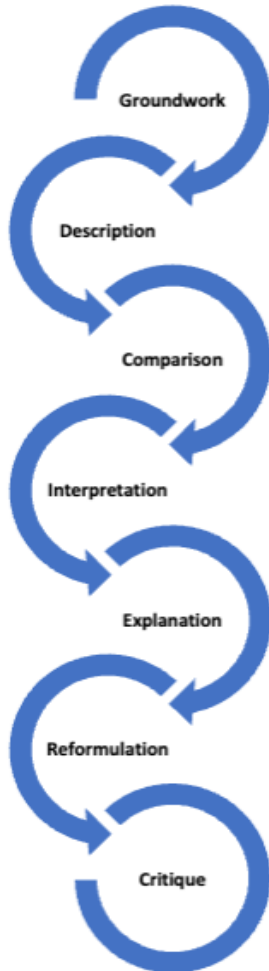


Figure 3. Steps in Designing Corpus

Implementing the corpus.

Once the corpus is placed in the tools, we may proceed to implement and commence the analysis of the collected data. The implementation of the corpus in the research involves the following steps (Baker, 2023).



1. **Groundwork**; what are my initial research questions? What should go in my corpus?
Setting research questions requires prior knowledge of the content inside our corpus. However, the process of setting research questions can also assist in determining the appropriate content to include in our corpus.
2. **Description**; what aspects of language are frequent or distinctive in the corpus?
The next step requires selecting a corpus tool or collection of tools and doing initial studies. This may show the result of keywords or frequency lists, or tailored searches based on desired traits or keywords.
3. **Comparison**; how is language use different or similar in different parts of the corpus?
When unexpected linguistic traits or unexplainable differences appear early in the analysis, the approach is likely to be refined. Sharing your preliminary findings with others might be advantageous in terms of guiding your decision-making process over what areas to prioritize.

4. **Interpretation**; what is the function of the language patterns identified?
Once patterns have been identified in the corpus, subsequent actions may entail the interpretation of the findings. This phase typically entails thorough concordance analyses of specific words, phrases, or linguistic patterns, along with the use of a functional classification framework to discover common (and uncommon) language usage.
5. **Explanation**; why do these patterns exist in the corpus?
During this point, it may be necessary to temporarily set aside the corpus tools and explore alternative sources.
6. **Reformulation**; what additional questions can we ask of the corpus?
Another phase of analysis may entail generating and examining hypotheses within the corpus itself, employing methods that are not based on the corpus.
7. **Critique**; is there a problem and how can it be resolved?
There is an additional, discretionary phase that relies on our desire to actively analyze our study.

4.2 Tools of Corpus Linguistics

There is no definitive instrument, technique, or statistical test that is universally considered the best. It is valuable to explore several approaches to gain an understanding of the different outcomes they yield. In addition to downloadable executable programs, there are also web-based utilities that may be used through internet interfaces without the need for any downloads. In addition, several web interfaces offer the capability for users to upload their collections of linguistic data. For analysts dealing with vast amounts of textual information, this feature is likely to be quite appealing. Certain programs do automated part-of-speech annotation on corpora, which involves giving codes to words indicating their grammatical categories, such as single common nouns or superlative adjectives. This annotation process can be applied to corpora

submitted by the user. Below are several corpus tools that can be utilized for conducting linguistic research analysis.

Table 12. Features of popular corpus analysis tools

	Price	Tagged versions of corpora	Online or standalone	Special features
WordSmith	£50 (versions 4.0 and 5.0 are free)	No	Standalone	Text editing utilities
AntConc	Free	No	Standalone	Concordance sorts by frequency
#LancsBox	Free	Yes	Standalone	Collocational networks
CQPweb	Free	Yes	Online	Lockwords
Wmatrix	Free	Yes	Online	Semantic annotation
Sketch Engine	Free for 30 days trial, free to some EU institutions, €99,98 per year + VAT for academics	Yes	Online	Word Sketches, Trends Analysis
English-Corpora.org	Free	Yes	Online	Searches via pronunciation
UAM CorpusTool	Free	Yes	Standalone	Multiple layers of analysis and across layers
SysFan	Free	Yes	Standalone	Facilitates the systemic-functional analysis of text
Systemics	ASEAN Countries: \$SGD60 (\$SGD45 for students). Others: US \$45/AUD \$65	Yes	Standalone	Efficient and comprehensive discourse analysis of text from the perspective of Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL)

Grammar Explorer	Free	Yes	Standalone	Coding text examples, or exploring KPML grammar
-------------------------	------	-----	------------	---

These various tools provide different methods for performing techniques such as concordances, collocations, and keywords. These tools may offer distinct tests, such as the log-ratio test or the BIC test. Even tools that offer the same tests may have slight variations in word counting or calculation methods. Consequently, conducting the same test on the same corpus using different tools can occasionally yield inconsistent results. Hence, it is strongly recommended to use the tool that most aligns with your intended objective.

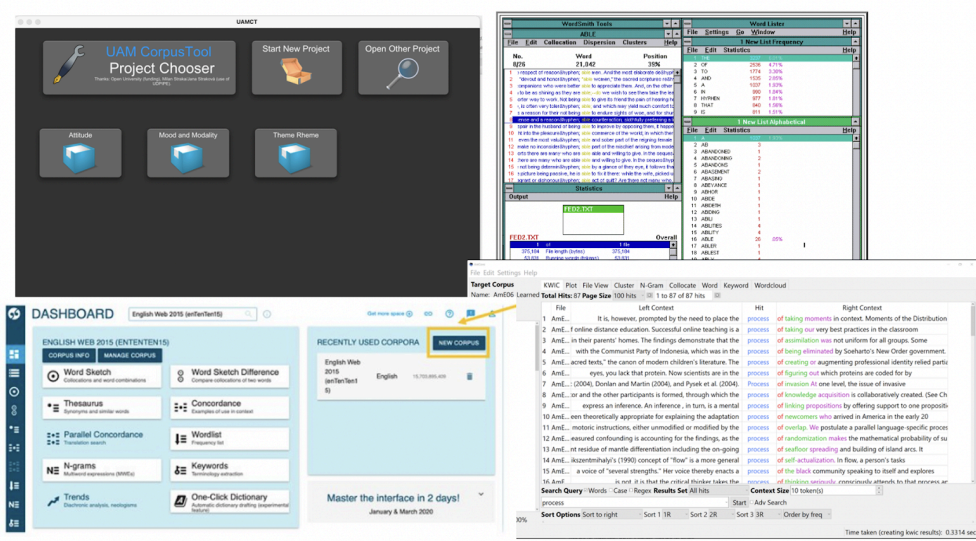


Figure 3. Screenshots of Some Corpus Tools Interface

5. Research on CDA using Corpus Linguistics

The relationship between language corpus and Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) lies in the fact that corpora can serve as a beneficial tool for conducting critical discourse analysis (Baker, 2023). Corpora are essential for undertaking

critical discourse analysis as they offer a methodical and thorough collection of texts for examination. Language corpora can be utilized by researchers to uncover and study linguistic characteristics, trends, and discursive tactics that contribute to the formation and spread of ideologies and power dynamics. Corpus linguistics techniques, such as concordancing, frequency analysis, and collocation analysis, can assist CDA researchers in discovering repetitive language patterns and identifying discursive aspects that mirror and strengthen social institutions.

Utilizing corpora in Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) enables a methodical and evidence-based investigation of language, providing a basis for critical scrutiny and understanding. Language corpora are a crucial tool for academics conducting Critical Discourse Analysis. They allow for a thorough investigation of language usage in particular circumstances, uncovering hidden power dynamics and ideological effects. The integration of corpus-based methodologies with critical discourse analysis amplifies the thoroughness and empirical foundation of the inquiry into the interconnections among language, power, and society. The CDA investigates several corpus linguistics methodologies as follows.

5.1 Frequency, Dispersion, and Distribution

In corpus linguistics, frequency, dispersion, and distribution are key concepts that help researchers analyze and understand patterns within a language corpus. Below is a concise summary of each phrase.

Frequency

Frequency denotes the quantitative measure of how often a specific linguistic component (such as a word, phrase, or grammatical structure) appears in a given collection of texts. Examining the frequency of occurrences allows

researchers to ascertain the most prevalent and least prevalent items in a corpus. It offers valuable information on the significance of specific linguistic characteristics and can be utilized to examine vocabulary, word usage, or syntactic structures.

Dispersion

Dispersion, in the field of corpus linguistics, refers to how a linguistic element is distributed or dispersed among various sections of a corpus.

Dispersion analysis aids academics in comprehending the extent to which a specific word or linguistic characteristic is spread out or concentrated across the corpus. A term's frequency may be high, but if it is only found in certain portions of the corpus, its dispersion is restricted.

Distribution

Distribution pertains to the configuration or organization of linguistic components within a corpus, including their placement, occurrence alongside other components, and overall contextual utilization. Distributional analysis entails the examination of the relationships and settings in which language features manifest. By analyzing text, one can uncover collocation patterns (words that often appear together), grammatical structures, and semantic correlations. An essential aspect of comprehension lies in analyzing the distributional patterns of words and structures across many contexts.

As their definitions and significances, we can apply frequency analysis to do vocabulary analysis (identifying high-frequency and low-frequency words), dispersion analysis to do see textual patterns (understanding how certain themes or topics are distributed across a corpus), and distribution analysis to do collocational studies (studying the co-occurrence patterns of words and identifying lexical relationships). For example, Consider the word "computer" in a corpus of technology articles. The frequency would tell you how often

"computer" appears in the entire corpus. Dispersion analysis would reveal whether the term is evenly spread across all articles or if it occurs more in specific sections. Distributional analysis might explore the collocates of "computer," such as "software," "hardware," or "technology," providing insights into its semantic field.

As frequency, dispersion, and distribution are fundamental concepts in corpus linguistics that facilitate the systematic exploration of linguistic elements within a corpus, offering valuable insights into language usage and patterns, several studies have been conducted. Following are some examples.

Table 13. Research on Frequency, Dispersion, and Distribution

	Linguistic feature(s) analysed	Finding(s)
Haider (2017)	Dispersion	The dispersion analysis showed a similar and equal representation of <i>Qaddafi</i> in the two investigated newspapers.
Joharry & Turiman, (2020)	Frequency	The frequency list showed the aboutness of the public letters to the editor of a popular news portal on COVID-19 pandemic.
Afzal & Omar (2021)	Concordance, frequency, collocates, and dispersion	Two newspapers studied exhibited a great inclination towards endorsing women's empowerment of the Saudi Vision in 2016.

5.2 Concordance

In the field of corpus linguistics, a concordance is a specialized instrument that offers a methodical compilation of instances of a specific word or phrase throughout a corpus, accompanied by the surrounding context of each instance. Concordances are valuable tools for analyzing word usage, collocations, and grammatical trends in a given text corpus. We can apply concordance analysis to do lexical studies (investigating the meaning, usage,

and collocations of words), syntactic analysis (examining the syntactic patterns in which a word or phrase appears, providing insights into its grammatical roles), and stylistic analysis (studying the writing style and patterns of individual authors or across different genres). For example, a researcher has a keen interest in examining the term "technology" in a collection of scientific journals. A concordance for the term "technology" would provide occurrences of the word, the context in which it appears, and its position within the corpus. This enables a comprehensive analysis of the utilization of "technology" in many settings. Other examples include concordance on the Critical Discourse Analysis research as follows.

Table 14 Research on Concordance

	Linguistic feature(s) analyzed	Finding(s)
Kitishat et al. (2020)	Collocation and concordance	The concordance tool unveiled the attitudes of newspapers towards the Syrian refugee crisis. The findings of the study showed that Jordanians see Syrians as “brothers” and “guests”. However, Jordanian newspapers overstated the negative effect of Syrian refugees on the Jordanian economy, education, healthcare, etc.
Gu (2020)	Concordance	An analysis of the concordance showed that different geopolitical players are mentioned at the press conferences indicating diplomatic priority is on more important and powerful players in the world (e.g. the USA, Russia, and Japan) as well as supranational organisations or regional blocs (e.g. the EU, the ASEAN and African countries). In comparison, small countries are often never addressed individually but are subsumed under these various country groups in an undifferentiated manner. Cognitively, this shows that Beijing places countries in a hierarchical order and different countries are given different levels of diplomatic attention.

Orpin (2005)	Collocation and concordance	The concordances in greater detail showed that corruption had a greater negative connotation than sleaze. The words sleaze and corruption covered some of the same semantic area, but were connotationally different, and were used in different geographical contexts.
---------------------	-----------------------------	---

5.3 Collocates

Each word demonstrates different levels of co-occurrence with one another. Collocates refer to the statistically significant co-occurrences of words that consistently appear close to each other. Collocation refers to the frequent co-occurrence of distinct words close to one another. Firth (1957) suggests that the terms frequently associated with a phrase can offer useful insights into its meaning. Collocation is a technique used to understand the meanings and relationships between words that are typically difficult to ascertain by analyzing a single text in a limited manner. Some studies using collocates are shown in the following table.

Table 15. Research on Collocates

	Linguistic feature(s) analysed	Finding(s)
Kheovichai (2022)	Collocation	The results indicated that Covid-19 was discursively represented as posing severe multifaceted threats to the world. Furthermore, the discursive construction of Covid-19 was found to promote the image of WHO as an active and ethical organization
Al Fajri (2020)	Keyword, collocation, and concordance	Collocation analysis showed that dominant discourses around Indonesian Muslims in the Australian newspapers are related to terrorism and extremism and they have not undergone a dramatic shift over the last 15 years. It then can be argued that the media representations of Muslims in Indonesia, a country that is not involved in major conflicts and wars, are still primarily negative. While the Australian newspapers canonically portray Indonesian Muslims as moderate, the frequencies for moderate belief

		words are lower than strong belief words and the term is mainly used in the discussion of terrorism and extremism.
Haider (2016)	Collocation	The collocational analysis showed that Qaddafi was represented positively in the pre-uprisings period (2009/2010). During the Libyan uprisings (2011), the newspapers represented him negatively highlighting his violence against his own people. In the post-uprisings era (2012/2013), the newspapers tended also to describe him negatively by referring to the terrorist activities he was involved in and criticizing his policies and behaviors during his 42 years in power.

5.4 Keyness

Keyness refers to the statistical measurement of the significance of specific words or phrases within a corpus, indicating their frequency in comparison to a reference corpus (Baker, 2023). Keyness analysis is a corpus linguistic approach that helps identify words or terms that are particularly associated with a specific discourse, allowing researchers to uncover patterns and biases in language use. Keyness is often calculated using statistical measures such as log-likelihood ratio, chi-square, or t-score. These measures assess the likelihood that a word or phrase occurs significantly more (or less) frequently in the target corpus compared to a reference corpus. Words or phrases that exhibit high keyness scores are considered key terms. These terms are crucial in understanding the discursive strategies, power relations, or ideologies present in the discourse under analysis. Once key terms are identified, CDA researchers perform a detailed contextual analysis to understand how these terms are used within the discourse. This involves examining collocations, semantic associations, and the broader linguistic context in which the key terms appear. Following are some examples of research employing keyness analysis.

Table 16. Research on Keyness

	Linguistic feature(s) analyzed	Finding(s)
Suhaili et al., (2024)	Keyness	Using keyness scores, an analysis was conducted on the linguistic style employed by Trump on social media. Several significant keywords emerged, including "people," "real," "brave," "suffering," and "killed." These terms are directly related to the terrible conditions of the Iranian people. The findings also indicated that individuals who are seen as courageous figures consistently receive help and love from Trump.
Khorsheed et al., (2023)	Keyness	This paper showed that the use of keyness technique combined with concordance can reveal the underlying ideology in the portrayal of Self and Other in national identity construction relying on the discourse historical approach (Wodak et al. 2009) as a theoretical foundation.
Mısır & Işık-Güler, (2022)	Keyness and keywords	The representation of the 'ideal subject' in Massive Open Online Courses (MOOCs) was examined through the keyness. Based on the high keyness score, some significant keywords were analyzed further; "courses", "learning", and "skills". The analysis shows that the platforms use an array of promotional persuasion strategies, including advice-giving, autonomization, and responsabilization of individuals, and reinforce a self-betterment discourse to create marketable employees.

5.5 Further direction

Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) and corpus research are continuously influenced by current trends in linguistics and related disciplines. It is important to consider that the field may have changed since then, hence it is advisable to refer to more recent literature for the most up-to-date information. Here are a few possible future trajectories:

- Digital Discourse and Social Media.
The investigation of digital communication, particularly on social media platforms, is expected to become an increasingly popular field of study. Researchers can investigate the construction and dissemination of power relations and ideologies in online environments.
- Analysis of Multimodal Discourse
In the future, research will likely incorporate multimodal analysis more extensively, encompassing written and spoken language and images, videos, and other non-verbal components. This can offer a comprehensive comprehension of communication in diverse circumstances.
- The intersection of Big Data and Corpus Linguistics
With the progress of technology, researchers are likely to increasingly employ big data and large-scale corpora to examine vast datasets. This may entail analyzing patterns in huge volumes of textual data from many sources to discern overarching societal patterns.
- Worldwide and Interdisciplinary Outlook
The scope of CDA and corpus research is likely to broaden, incorporating a wider range of global and cross-cultural viewpoints. Gaining insight into the functioning of conversation in diverse cultural and linguistic situations is essential for conducting a thorough examination.
- Discussion on Environmental Issues
In light of the increasing significance of environmental concerns, the next study may concentrate on the analysis of the discussions about climate change, sustainability, and environmental regulations. This may entail examining how language is employed to mold public views and exert influence on decision-making.
- An examination of the field of Critical Data Studies.
Researchers might further immerse themselves in vital data investigations through corpus research. This entails scrutinizing the prejudices, ethical

factors, and societal ramifications of the data employed in language analysis.

- Incorporation of Cognitive Linguistics

The potential exists for enhanced integration between CDA and cognitive linguistics. An investigation into the impact of cognitive processes on the formation and interpretation of speech can yield a more profound comprehension of the connection between language and thought.

- Creation of Specialized Corpora

Researchers can develop and employ unique collections of written or spoken language, known as corpora, that are customized to address specific research inquiries or areas of study. One such approach is to construct specialized collections of texts that specifically target particular domains, such as medical language, legal language, or scientific communication.

- Political discourse and populism

Political discourse refers to the communication and exchange of ideas within the realm of politics. Populism, on the other hand, is a political ideology that emphasizes the interests and concerns of the general population, often by appealing to their emotions and grievances. In light of the current worldwide political environment, scholars may persist in examining political communication, particularly emphasizing populist speech and its influence on public sentiment.

- Ethical considerations and reflexivity

Subsequent investigations are expected to prioritize ethical considerations in Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) and corpus research. Researchers might employ reflective methodologies, recognizing their positionality and potential biases during the study process.

These paths propose a further development of CDA and corpus research, highlighting the importance of multidisciplinary methods, technological

progress, and a broader focus on tackling current societal issues. Researchers in these disciplines are prone to investigate novel approaches and adjust to the changing dynamics of language usage in many circumstances.

6. Conclusion

This chapter has explored the many perspectives of this dynamic field to provide a thorough understanding of corpus linguistics. We have looked at the several kinds of corpora that are frequently employed, showcasing their various uses in language study. There has been extensive discussion of the benefits of using corpora, including the capacity to examine vast amounts of language data and identify patterns that are not visible in smaller samples. The chapter has also examined important prior research that has influenced our knowledge of corpus linguistics and detailed the key steps in the corpus development process, from data collection to annotation. It is advised that in order to improve corpus analysis, scholars keep embracing developments in computational tools and techniques. Additionally, broadening the scope of corpora to encompass a wider range of linguistic variations and genres can provide more profound understandings and support inclusive and representative linguistic research.

Language, Ideology, and Power: A Critical Approach to Political Discourse

1. General Overview

In the mission of spreading awareness towards the interpretation and explanation of the ideological relationships among language, ideology, and power in sociopolitical contexts, this chapter focuses on presenting the overview of available models of critical approach to language analysis in political discourse and also drawing the manifestation of mental representation of ideologies in the discourse of politics.

Political contestation and activities produce varied ranges of texts which interest linguists to have a look at it. These texts have become the central object of language studies in recent years. The activities of analyzing political texts and how power and the person are involved in it are often called political discourse analysis (Van Dijk, 2000). There are numerous definitions of it, but most frequently they refer to A.N. Baranov's definition: Political discourse is defined as the entirety of all speech acts utilized in political conversations, as well as principles of public policy, venerated by custom and supported by evidence (Rakhmatovna, 2022). The precise topic matter that will be investigated is first determined by the researcher. A general summary of a certain event or person's discourses, or a specific query pertaining to that event or person, are two possible formats for this. Even if there are many other ways that we might approach the definition and delimitation issues, we can

ultimately accept the entire context as being the deciding factor in whether or not to classify language as "political" or not. The main aspects of these contexts are the participants and the actions based on their specific roles in the discourse. The researchers can also analyze these texts more extensively in terms of political and communicative engagement and events bound with its own setting of time, place, and situation. Also, these texts are shaped by the circumstances, intentions, and objectives associated with them within the discourse. In other words, the people involved, politicians, only engage with specific texts that are contextualized within relevant communicative context such as cabinet meetings, parliamentary hearings, campaigns, press conferences, interviews, and oration (Van Dijk, 2000). In relation to the contexts, political texts are composed, distributed, and communicated to serve functions and obviously produce implications to the society (Van Dijk, 2000) one of which is to communicate ideologies. In political context, speeches are categorized as one of the media to communicate ideologies. Through it, meanings, values, and ideas are manifested and then learned by the people. The spread of ideologies is also carried out by mass media, particularly newspapers and television (Nahrkhalaji, 2011). Therefore, many political actors construct the proposed idea using a set of language and publish them through various media outlets in order to reach and persuade as many target audiences as possible. In our modern society, we live in a time of immense change and instability, in which power and dominance structures are being dramatically transformed, and shifting cultural practices constitute a major component of social transformation. It entails a shift in language usage habits. According to Wodak (2001), discourse is seen as a type of social action, always constructed by values and social ethics, practices (as naturalized ideologies) and social practices, and consistently bounded and impacted by power structures and historical processes.

2. Political Discourse

Power that a language has in political context is its persuasive feature. In linguistics, these features are observed through the concept called rhetoric. Rhetoric at first mainly looked at how to convince listeners during oral discourse, particularly speech, later developed into a science of persuading readers during written discourse (Noermanzah et al. 2017). Using the persuasive features of language, the speaker constructs a powerfully persuasive text that can transfer his/her ideas, gain public attention, maintain his/her position politically, and strive for power. Much of our conversation, especially during group discussions, individuals tend to express opinions that are ideologically biased. Our ideological perspectives are primarily shaped by exposure to others in our social circles, starting with our parents and peers (Nahrkhalaji, 2011). Whether through television, newspapers, or casual conversations with friends, we acquire ideological ideas from various sources (Lee and Knot, 2020). Newspapers and political propaganda, for instance, explicitly aim to impart ideologies to group members and newcomers. Consequently, ideologies are acquired rather than innate, and the nature of such discourse can significantly influence the formation of mental models of social events. These mental models may then be generalized and abstracted into broader social representations and ideologies (Van Dijk, 2000). Therefore, it is crucially important to raise the critical awareness of power relations embedded in political discourse through the use of language both oral and written. The relations can be sufficiently dismantled using the analysis tools of CDA. As a result, research in Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) should go beyond merely explaining and interpreting the relationship between ideology and power. There is a need for an expansion into applied fields such as applied linguistics and second language education. It becomes essential to explore how learners transfer a particular ideology from their native language (L1) to their utilization of a second language (L2). This extension of focus can

contribute valuable insights into the practical applications of CDA principles in language learning and education contexts. Effective communication requires a critical understanding of language. According to Fairclough (1995), people's language skills and practices are inexorably tied to the growth of their critical knowledge of language. As a result, such reflective work may require EFL students and teachers to evaluate and maybe change their own speaking, listening, writing, and reading behaviors.

The significant rationale for the application of Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) in educational practices lies in its methodological approach, facilitating the transition from analyzing individual texts to examining social institutions, effectively spanning from micro to macro levels (Luke, 2002). The primary objective of discourse analysis within this framework is to denaturalize ideologies, aiming to unravel and challenge the taken-for-granted assumptions inherent in discourse that includes critical aims. Demonstrating how social structures affect discourse qualities and how discourse affects social structures constitutes denaturalization. According to Fairclough (1995), a comprehensive investigation would involve illustrating how ideological categories influence the characteristics of discourse and, conversely, how discourse shapes social categories. Participants in such a study can actively construct a communicative situation by gaining a deeper understanding of how ideologies typically function in both the creation and comprehension of discourse. This process begins with attitudes and shared knowledge within specific social domains, such as politics. Subsequently, it extends to the level of individual discourses produced by group members, influenced by their ideologically-biased mental models of social events and situations (Van Dijk, 2000).

The primary objective of a discourse analysis with critical goals, such as the one mentioned, is to denaturalize ideologies. Denaturalization involves the demonstration of how social structures exert influence on the characteristics of discourse and, reciprocally, how discourse impacts social structures (Fairclough, 1995). This approach aims to unveil and challenge the assumed or naturalized aspects of ideologies, shedding light on the reciprocal relationship between language use and broader societal structures. Such research demonstrates how ideological categories influence discourse characteristics, which in turn influence social categories. Participants can create a communicative situation by understanding how ideologies typically operate. In the creation and understanding of discourse, the process unfolds initially through the lens of attitudes and shared knowledge within specific social domains, such as politics. Subsequently, it operates at the level of individual discourses generated by group members, influenced by their ideologically-biased mental models of social events and situations. This intricate interplay between attitudes, group knowledge, and individual mental models contributes to the shaping of discourse within distinct social contexts. Discourse analysis, regardless of its critical nature, might not significantly impact the pressing concerns and challenges of contemporary society, as emphasized earlier, unless we can instill a critical perspective in our students or colleagues. Achieving this requires more than simply expressing opinions or justifying viewpoints; it demands the transmission of knowledge. Despite several studies in critical discourse analysis demonstrating positive initial results, our current knowledge in this area remains somewhat limited. Notably, there is a gap in critical analyses that involve a contrastive study between two languages with pedagogical implications, particularly regarding this prevalent form of written discourse. In our current textbook, we explore how deeply ingrained, socially accepted representations, along with individual models, can influence patterns in discourse. What individuals say, the subjects they choose or avoid (fallacy), the information they communicate clearly or leave implicitly

(implication), and the meanings they emphasize and underline (presupposition), which details are dramatized or left vague, as well as the provision of comparisons and examples, can significantly influence the structure of discourse.

3. CDA - What does it all mean?

Concepts like Critical Linguistics (CL) and Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) are commonly used interchangeably. In fact, the theory once known as CL is now referred to by the term CDA, which has lately acquired popularity. The Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) originated as a collaborative effort among academics in the early 1990s, stemming from a brief meeting convened in Amsterdam in January 1991. Facilitated by the University of Amsterdam, prominent figures such as Teun Van Dijk, Norman Fairclough, Gunther Kress, Theo van Leeuwen, and Ruth Wodak came together for a two-day session. During this period, they had a unique opportunity to engage in discussions about the concepts and methods of Discourse Analysis, with a specific focus on Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA). The gathering allowed for the confrontation of very different and distinct perspectives, many of which are still applicable today despite the fact that they have altered significantly since 1991. In the process of group formation, the similarities and differences were laid out: similarities and differences with respect to other discourse analysis theories and methodologies (Wodak and Meyer, 2009). The main difference between Discourse Studies (DS) and Critical Discourse Studies (or CDA), in addition to adopting all of the aforementioned ideas, is the latter's innately problem-oriented, multidisciplinary approach. Because social phenomena are intrinsically complex and call for the use of several disciplines and approaches, CDA is not interested in studying a linguistic unit per se but rather examining social phenomena. This is a typical misconception of the objectives and goals of CDA and the term "critical," which, of course, does not mean "negative" as

in popular usage. The objects under inquiry do not have to be tied to unpleasant or unusually "serious" social or political experiences or occurrences (see below). Any social phenomenon can be critically examined, questioned, and not taken for granted (Wodak and Meyer, 2008). Therefore, CDA is an interdisciplinary tool that highlights inequality and injustice. The usage of written materials in both our personal and professional life keeps ideology and power in the middle. CDA highlights the issues brought about by this relationship (Heberman, 1973).

Language use is seen by CDA as a form of social practice (Fairclough, 1995; Fairclough and Wodak, 1997). Consequently, CDA sees discourses as comparatively consistent linguistic uses that contribute to the structuring and organization of social life. The term "discourse" is obviously utilized extremely differently by different academics and even in different academic contexts within this concept (Wodak, 2006). Van Dijk (1998) asserted in a similar vein that CDA is a field concerned with researching and examining spoken and written texts to reveal the underlying discourse-based origins of power, dominance, inequality, and bias present in written and spoken communication within communities, educational institutions, media, and the political sphere. Further, it also looks at the preservation and replication of these discursive sources within certain social, political, and historical settings. In other words, CDA seeks to critically examine the ways that language use is used to express, signify, constitute, legitimate, and other aspects of social inequality (or in discourse). Simply put, Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) seeks to elucidate the connections between discourse practices, social practices, and social structures. In CDA, analyzing social life necessitates investigating both interactional and structural factors (Fairclough 1995). The entire theoretical foundation of CDA, according to Weiss and Wodak (2003), looks extensive and erratic. In fact, social science has always been interested in social practice and social change, whereas linguistics has generally concentrated on the

micro study of texts and interactions. However, CDA isn't founded on a single, uniform, and consistent theory or approach (Fairclough 2003; Meyer, 2001; Weiss and Wodak, 2002 in El-Sharkawy, 2017). Instead, it involves linguistic and social approaches that would support Habermas's assertion that language is a medium of dominance and social force in such a way that it supports organized power relations. Because CDA is concerned not only with what a text means but also with how that text portrays facts in various perspectives. CDA views every text as a unique creation of a unique creator that not only provides facts but implies multiple instances of the facts. Additionally, texts do not present facts; rather, they pose issues for the linguists to address.

Every social practice is intricately tied to particular historical contexts. Fairclough's Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) model comprises three interconnected analytical processes, which manifest as three dimensions of discourse. These dimensions encompass the object under analysis, the production or distribution of the object, and the socio-historical conditions that regulate these processes. Each dimension is analyzed through text analysis, process analysis, and social analysis. Text analysis uses a constructed analysis on Transitivity, thematic structure, and mood structure, as modeled by Halliday and Matthiessen (2014) in systemic functional linguistics. The purpose of text description is to discover the characteristics of linguistic features of an information web. After the meta-functions were described, the relations among participants as stated in the data were interpreted. Finally, the social contexts on how and why Mahathir showed a certain attitude, as reflected from his ideas on terrorism, were explained.

4. The Underlying Factor: Discourse, Power and Ideology

Concept of Ideology

Although the fundamental definition of ideology in political science has remained constant over time as a cohesive and largely consistent system of views or values, the implications associated with this notion have experienced various changes (Wodak, and Meyer, 2008). Van Dijk (2000) defined “ideology as a vague and controversial notion”. Further, Mullins in Wodak and Meyer (2008) mentioned four key characteristics of ideologies:

1. Power is more important than cognitions
2. They are capable of giving individuals' evaluations
3. They provide guidance through action
4. They must be logically coherent

Nahrkhalaji (2011) asserts that ideology is known as a set of beliefs that underlies and directs the major social power structures in our society. In this process, language serves as an ideological forces medium which aims to serve and to validate structured power relations. Language is ideological inasmuch as the justification of power relations is not expressed (Heberman, 1973). A linguistic ideology might disagree with the facts and be a mistaken interpretation of language, or it can be a "right" view of language (Seargeant, 2009). Ideologies form the basis for the social representations or belief systems within specific communities, as articulated by Van Dijk (2001). In the realm of political science, these may also be denoted as belief systems or diverse forms of social representations. (Augoustinos, 1998; Farr & Moscovici, 1984; Fraser & Gaskell, 1990 in Nahrkhalaji, 2011). This indicates that they are group beliefs rather than individual beliefs, much as grammar, sociocultural knowledge, group attitudes, or norms and values are group beliefs rather than individual beliefs. Indeed, we presume that ideologies serve as the foundation

for the social representations or belief systems of certain communities (Van Dijk, 2001). Ideologies are unique kinds of social cognition that social groups share that serve as the foundation for group members' social representations and behaviors, including their speech, while also acting as a tool for ideological formation, reproduction, and challenge (Van Dijk, 2000). Ideologies are shared from generation to generation mostly by reading and listening to parents and people around them. In this era, technology has disrupted any form of communication and the distribution of information to society. The rapid distribution of ideologies is made possible by the existence of television, online newspapers, social media, and other digital platforms. All these media are also utilized in distributing political indoctrination and propaganda that aim to explicitly “teach” ideologies to group members and newcomers (Van Dijk, 2000). Therefore, the examination of discourse will include the analysis of language usage, textual elements, oral expression, verbal interactions, and communication.. The term "Cognition" will be used to refer to all mental characteristics of ideologies, including their nature as ideas or beliefs, relationships with other ideas and information, and their position as widely accepted representations. Within the overarching concept of "society," the study of ideologies involves exploring their social, political, cultural, and historical dimensions. This examination focuses on their collective nature, specifically their role in either sustaining or challenging dominance. Keep in mind that these conceptual differences are purely analytical and useful. Of course, they overlap. For instance, socially shared beliefs among group members and discourse are both a component of society.

Analyzing Ideological Discourse Structures

Analysis on ideology in language and discourse attracts wider attention among researchers in the humanities and social sciences. The underlying assumption in such analyses is that speakers or writers' ideologies can be revealed

through careful reading, comprehension, or systematic analysis, as individuals may overtly or inadvertently convey their ideologies through language and communication (Van Dijk, 1995). Ideologies not only shape individual language users' specific knowledge and beliefs through language use but also impact other social representations, including attitudes and socio-cultural knowledge. How ideologies are structured in discourse are detectable with their own complexity, structures and categories. In its process, ideologies may be communicated directly or indirectly that allows challenging analysis. Analyzing ideological discourse structures is a complex and nuanced process that involves a thorough exploration of how language is utilized to convey and reinforce specific ideologies in a given context. This analytical endeavor goes beyond linguistic examination, delving into the underlying structures and patterns that shape and reflect ideological positions. In this analytical framework, the identification of key elements within the discourse, such as recurring themes, linguistic choices, and rhetorical strategies, becomes pivotal. Understanding the broader contextual factors is equally crucial, as it entails examining the social, political, and cultural backdrop in which the discourse is situated. Power dynamics play a significant role in ideological discourse, and unraveling structures of power within the discourse helps identify influential entities, the wielders of power, and the impact of such influence on shaping and disseminating specific ideologies. Furthermore, the analysis explores interdiscursivity and intertextuality, revealing how ideologies are sustained and reinforced across various communicative contexts. Semantic and pragmatic analysis of language semantics and contextual use is imperative, as it uncovers the meaning and impact of specific words, phrases, and communicative acts. Discursive strategies, such as framing, metaphorical language, and narrative construction, are identified to understand how ideological messages are strategically communicated. The investigation extends to social representation analysis, shedding light on how specific groups or individuals are portrayed, thus reinforcing particular ideological

perspectives. The use of contrastive analysis, comparing different instances of discourse, highlights variations and consistencies in ideological messaging. Finally, a critical reflexive approach involves acknowledging the researcher's own positionality and biases, ensuring a nuanced and objective analysis of ideological discourse structures. In essence, this analytical process offers a comprehensive understanding of the intricate mechanisms through which ideologies are communicated, perpetuated, and contested within language use.

Concept of Power

Another key idea in CDA is power, as it frequently examines the language used by individuals in positions of authority who are accountable for the persistence of inequities. Primarily, scholars in Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) focus on understanding how discourse contributes to the (re)production of social dominance, including instances of power abuse by one group over another. They also explore how groups subjected to such dominance engage in discursive opposition (Wodak and Meyer, 2008). This leads to an important inquiry into how CDA researchers perceive power and the moral principles guiding their ability to differentiate between legitimate and unethical uses of power. Notably, this particular aspect has not yet been addressed in the existing literature (Billig, 2008). As there are social theories, there are as many different notions of power. A Weberian definition of power as the likelihood that a person in a social relationship can accomplish his or her own goals despite resistance from others serves as the lowest common denominator in practically all sociological and socio-psychological theories (Weber in Wodak and Meyer, 2008).

It is extremely uncommon for a text to be the creation of a single individual, which is a crucial perspective in CDA in relation to the concept of "power."

Discursive differences are negotiated in texts; they are regulated by power differentials that are partially encoded in and influenced by discourse and genre. As a result, books frequently function as battlegrounds because they reveal the vestiges of competing ideologies and discourses vying for control. Given these considerations, the distinctiveness of Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) becomes evident through its keen interest in power as an essential element of social life. CDA is notable for its dedicated efforts to formulate a language theory grounded in this understanding, which sets it apart as an organization. The meticulous examination of intertextuality and recontextualization of conflicting discourses across diverse public settings and genres is a hallmark of CDA. Scholars in the field, such as Ledema (1997), Ledema and Wodak (1999), and Muntigl et al. (2000), place significant emphasis on power and control struggles. Power, within the framework of CDA, is intricately linked to understanding how disparities are interconnected, particularly exploring the consequences of differences within social institutions. The inherent connection between language and broader social issues establishes that language is intricately woven into social power dynamics. This interconnection manifests through various avenues, including the indexing and expression of power, as well as language's active role in disputes and challenges to established power structures. While language may be used to dispute, undermine, and change power distributions in both the short and long terms, power does not always come from language. Language is a well expressed medium for expressing power disparities in hierarchical social institutions. Understanding the nature of social dominance and power is a necessary precondition for effective CDA. The reality of power disparity between participants in discourse events shows an uneven capacity to govern how texts are generated, circulated, and consumed in certain socio-cultural settings and this is how power is understood.

5. Main Research Agenda and Challenges

When exploring the main research agenda and challenges in political discourse, scholars and researchers focus on various aspects to gain a deeper understanding of how language shapes and is shaped by political processes. Here's an overview of the main research agenda and challenges in this field:

Table 17. Main Research Agenda

No.	Research Topic	Aim
1.	Rhetoric and Persuasion	In this topic, researchers may investigate the linguistic strategies employed by political actors to persuade and influence public opinion. Here the research may focus on analyzing speeches, political advertising, and communication strategies to understand how language is used for persuasion in different political contexts.
2.	Media Discourse	In this topic, researchers may Examine the role of media in shaping political discourse and public perception. Here, the research may focus on exploring the framing of political events, the influence of media bias, and the impact of digital platforms on the dissemination of political information.
3.	Identity and Representation	In this topic, the study may be carried out through the investigation of how political discourse constructs and reinforces identities, both individual and collective. The research focuses are the analysis of the language used to represent diverse social groups, examination of issues of inclusion, exclusion, and the impact on political participation.
4.	Populism and Authoritarianism	This topic aims to understand the linguistic features of populist and authoritarian discourse by exploring how political leaders use language to establish authority, create a sense of "us" versus "them," and appeal to populist sentiments.
5.	Global Political Communication	The research studies the impact of language on international relations and diplomacy by analysing diplomatic discourse, political speeches on the global

stage, and the role of language in shaping international perceptions and alliances.

Table 18. Challenges

No.	Issue	The challenge
1.	Digital Transformation	the rise of social media and digital communication platforms introduces new challenges in analysing and understanding political discourse. The speed and volume of information make it difficult to keep pace with evolving communication dynamics.
2.	Algorithmic Bias	the algorithms that curate and prioritize information on digital platforms can introduce biases in the dissemination of political content, affecting public perception and contributing to the polarization of political discourse.
3.	Multimodal Analysis	political discourse is not limited to text; it includes visual elements, gestures, and non-verbal cues. Integrating multimodal analysis poses challenges in capturing the full complexity of political communication.
4.	Erosion of Trust	political discourse faces the challenge of a growing scepticism and erosion of trust in institutions. Understanding the role of language in shaping trust and credibility is essential for addressing this issue
5.	Cross-cultural Perspectives	political discourse varies across cultures and languages. Researchers face the challenge of developing methodologies that account for linguistic and cultural nuances in a globalized political landscape
6	Ethical Considerations	as researchers delve into sensitive political topics, ethical considerations become paramount. Balancing the need for transparency and accountability with the potential for unintended consequences is an ongoing challenge

Addressing these challenges while pursuing the research agenda can contribute to a more comprehensive understanding of political discourse, its

impact on societies, and the potential for positive change in political communication.

6. Approaches and Methodology: Central Approaches to Analyzing Political Discourse

There are a range of approaches to CDA in political discourse. Among them we will outline those of three prominent scholars namely Fairclough, Van Dijk, and van Leeuwen.

Fairclough's Socio-Cultural Approach

Fairclough's theoretical framework integrates three analytical traditions: the first involves textual and linguistic analysis within the field of linguistics, the second draws from the macro-sociological tradition, emphasizing the analysis of social practices in connection with social structures, and the third stems from the interpretivist or micro-sociological tradition, viewing social practice as something actively created and comprehended by individuals based on shared commonsense procedures (explanation) (Fairclough 1992, 72). This three-analytical tradition is also famously known as Fairclough's three-dimensional model. At the first stage, description, a text is described linguistically by thoroughly dismantling its properties. At the second stage, interpretation, the connection between the discursive processes/interaction within the text is interpreted to draw its link. In the last stage, explanation, the relationship among discourse, social, and cultural reality is explained to understand how language use and communication contribute to shaping and reflecting broader social and cultural structures. Fairclough's Three-Dimensional Model, often associated with Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA), encompasses three interrelated dimensions for analyzing discourse.

These dimensions are:

Textual Dimension: this dimension focuses on the linguistic features of the discourse, including grammar, vocabulary, and rhetorical devices. It involves the analysis of how language is structured, the use of specific terminology, and the presence of patterns in the discourse. The textual dimension aims to uncover how language choices contribute to the representation of social reality and the promotion or challenge of specific ideologies.

Discursive Dimension: the discursive dimension examines the broader communicative practices within which the discourse is situated. It involves analyzing the ways in which language is used to enact power relationships, social roles, and identities. This dimension considers the social context, power dynamics, and the role of discourse in shaping social practices. Fairclough emphasizes the importance of understanding discourse as a form of social practice that both reflects and constructs social reality.

Social Dimension: the social dimension extends the analysis to the societal and institutional contexts in which the discourse is embedded. It involves investigating the broader social structures, power relations, and historical influences that shape and are reflected in language use. This dimension explores how discourse contributes to the maintenance or transformation of social structures and ideologies. Fairclough argues that understanding the social dimension is crucial for grasping the broader implications and effects of discourse on society.

Fairclough believes that texts in discourse are never free of value and intended aims (Amoussou & Allagbe, 2018:11), instead, they are driven and motivated by ideology. As a result, discursive practices can have ideological consequences by generating and reproducing uneven power relations between social classes, gender groups, and ethnic and cultural majorities and

minorities through the depiction of objects and individuals' positioning. Fairclough (1989) says that in modern society, ideology is increasingly used to exercise power. Building on the relationship between discourse, power, and ideology, he introduces the concept of hegemony, defining it as "a way of theorizing change in relation to the evolution of power relations that allows a particular focus on discursive change, but at the same time a way of seeing it as contributing to and being shaped by larger processes of change" (Fairclough, 1993:92, cited in Jahedi et al., 2014:30). Fairclough contends that the political idea of "hegemony" is useful in studying the structure of speech. According to Fairclough (2003:24), a discourse order is a network of social activities with a language component that includes discourses, genres, and styles in addition to linguistic features. He claims that discourse orders are not static; they can change over time, and these changes are caused by shifts in power dynamics in social interactions. Fairclough emphasizes that the structuring of discourses within a given order of discourse, as well as how such structuring evolves over time, is influenced by shifting power dynamics at the level of social institutions or society. "Power at these levels involves the ability to regulate orders of discourse, with one part of this control being ideological—ensuring that orders of discourse are internally harmonized or, at the society level, harmonized with one another" (Fairclough, 2001:25).

Fairclough's Three-Dimensional Model provides a comprehensive framework for examining the intricate relationships between language, discourse, and society. It emphasizes the interconnectedness of these dimensions and underscores the need for a holistic approach to analyzing the complex ways in which language both reflects and shapes social reality.

Van Dijk's Socio-Cognitive Approach

In line with Fairclough's critical approach, Van Dijk's socio-cognitive perspective sees speech as a manifestation of social practice. Unlike a

concentration on discursive practice, Van Dijk emphasizes social cognition as the link between text and society. According to him, Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) should include the diverse forms of social cognitions shared by social collectivities such as groups, organizations, and institutions (Van Dijk, 2001). Van Dijk defines social cognitions as "socially shared representations of societal arrangements, groups, and relations, as well as mental operations such as interpretation, thinking and arguing, inferencing, and learning" (Van Dijk, 1993: 257). Van Dijk defines two levels of (discourse) analysis: macro and micro. Language use, discourse, verbal engagement, and communication define social order on a micro level, whereas power, dominance, and disparity between social groups are considered on a macro one. Furthermore, Van Dijk's Critical Conversation Analysis (CDA) approach (quoted in Jahedi et al., 2014) is largely based on understanding the ideological frameworks and social power relations implicit in conversation. Van Dijk defines 'social power' as control (Van Dijk, 2003) and views ideologies as "the basis of the social representations of groups" (Van Dijk, 2006:131). Van Dijk argues that "groups have (more or less) power if they are able to (more or less) control the acts and minds of (members of) other groups" (2003:354). Additionally, he underscores that ideological discourse typically adheres to a general strategy of positive self-presentation (boasting) and negative other-presentation (derogation).

In his framework, Van Dijk introduces proposition analysis to unveil the idea contained in text of discourse. Van Dijk stated that a discourse is built through relationships between propositions and global meanings (Van Dijk, 1980:43). A proposition is a semantic unit consisting of a sequence of elements, and one of these elements functions as the core element. Propositions are interrelated and form a complete text, starting from paragraphs, series of events, and to forming a discourse in the text (Larson, 1984: 198). According to Renkema (2004), propositions are used to indicate minimal units of meaning. A

proposition has several arguments, one of which is the core of the proposition, and a verb. According to Van Dijk (1980), the verb functions as a link between the arguments in the proposition. In a discourse, macro propositions are used to define the general topic or global representation of the discourse. In this case, Van Dijk (1980: 47) formulated a rule that can be used to obtain macro propositions in a discourse. These rules are called macro rules (macro rules). These rules are as follows.

a. Deletion

In this rule, “propositions that are not relevant to the main proposition are eliminated. In this case, only propositions that are in accordance with the interpretation are maintained” (Van Dijk, 1980: 46). Notice the example below.

(1) *Peter saw a blue ball*

→ *Peter saw a ball*

(micro proposition: Peter saw a ball. The ball was blue)

The deletion rule allows the removal of unimportant parts. This is based on the understanding that several existing propositions can be represented by just one proposition. Under certain conditions, deletion can be carried out over the full clause (Van Dijk, 1980).

(2) *Harry saw a blonde. She was wearing a white frock*

→ *Harry saw a blonde*

In the example above, deletion is applied to a full clause. The main idea in the sentence can be represented by the first sentence alone so that subsequent clauses are considered irrelevant and then deleted.

b. Generalization

In this rule, propositions that are considered specific are changed into more general propositions (Van Dijk, 1980: 47). When compared with the deletion rule, the compression rule not only eliminates irrelevant parts, but also replaces them with more general predicates and arguments.

Notice the example below.

(3) *Peter saw a hawk*

→ *Peter saw a bird*

(4) *Peter saw a hawk. Peter saw a vulture*

→ *Peter saw birds*

(5) *Harry watched a tall slim blonde*

→ *Harry saw a pretty girl*

In the example above, predicates and arguments that are considered specific are replaced with more general ones (hawk, vulture → bird; slim. blonde → pretty girl).

c. Preparation (construction)

This rule formulates a proposition by arranging a number of existing propositions (Van Dijk, 1980: 48). When compared with the rules of appropriation, the rules of preparation can use predicates or arguments in the discourse. In the example above, the macro proposition still uses the word saw found in the discourse. Notice the example below.

(6) *Peter bought bricks, sand, cement, laid foundations, erected walls,...*

→ *Peter built a house*

In the example above, the macro proposition is prepared by not using predicates or arguments in the discourse, but using other words. The macro

propositions from the discourse above are prepared through the abstraction of several propositions, then summed up to produce the macro proposition Peter built a house. Not only propositions, Renkema (2004: 90) states that there is a property that is also important in discourse, namely topic. Topics are important because they are the main thing discussed in a discourse. According to Van Dijk (1980), the topic of a discourse can be found through the process of discovering macro propositions.

Van Leeuwen's Social Actor Analysis

Theo van Leeuwen is a linguist and semiotician who has made significant contributions to the fields of discourse analysis, social semiotics, and multimodality. Van Leeuwen's discourse analysis is grounded in the broader framework of social semiotics, focusing on the analysis of language and other semiotic resources in social contexts. His work often emphasizes the role of visual communication and multimodality in addition to verbal communication. In his framework, van Leeuwen (2008:32) emphasizes the importance of sentence structure (active and passive), as well as Transitivity structures in depicting social actors' representation in discourse. He further argues that social actors are constructed deeper beyond the grammatical construction of a text which involves an intricate process of exclusion and inclusion. Therefore, through this framework, Leeuwen (2008) expresses the role of social actors in text using socio-semantic categories rather than grammatical ones. Leeuwen's framework weights on mechanisms like genericization and specification, assimilation, association and dissociation, intertermination and differentiation, nomination and categorisation, functionalization, and identification, as well as over-determination (cited in Bernard, 2018:86).

In its analytical framework, social actors analysis is performed by analyzing the participants that are grammatically structured in a form of clauses by looking at the "agent" as the actor carrying the action which is realized as the subject of

the verb in an active clause. While the “patient” refers to the recipient of the action (Bernard, 2018). However, the existing participants cannot all be taken as social actors because some might be physical objects. The omission of any mention of social actors is referred to as backgrounding, and according to Van Leeuwen (2008:28), this form of exclusion, although less extreme, gives rise to questions and inferences. Van Leeuwen (2008:22) emphasizes the significance of choosing between a generic or specific representation. Social actors may be portrayed as part of a broader category (genericized) or as identifiable individuals (specified). An illustration of this can be found in the representation of experts as distinct individuals and 'ordinary people' as part of a general category in print media designed for middle-class readers. Another approach involves individualizing social actors or depicting them as part of a collective through assimilation, which encompasses aggregation and collectivization. The formation and labeling of groups in text are reflected in association and dissociation (cited in Bernard, 2018).

Indetermination arises when social actors are unspecified or anonymous, whereas determination occurs when their identity is specified. Nomination and categorization explore the representation of social actors based on either their individual identity or shared functions. Functionalization defines social actors by their actions, while identification portrays them not through their deeds but by their inherent characteristics. Categorization encompasses both functionalization and identification. Functionalization emphasizes what social actors do, while identification highlights who they are. Identification encompasses classification, relational identification, and personal identification. Social actors can also be personalized or impersonalized. Personalization depicts them as individuals using personal pronouns, proper names, or nouns with the semantic feature of 'human.' In contrast, impersonalization employs words lacking the semantic feature of 'human,' involving abstraction and objectification. Objectification includes spatialization,

utterance autonomization, instrumentalization, and somatization. Lastly, Van Leeuwen (2008) introduces the concept of overdetermination, where social actors are portrayed as participants in more than one social practice simultaneously. Overdetermination categories include inversion, symbolization, connotation, and distillation (cited in Bernard, 2018).

7. Current Studies on Discourse and Politics

Politics is one of the major aspects of humans' lives that have existed for centuries and has a massive impact on the growth of civilization. Thus, political discourse has been analysed frequently by researchers around the world throughout the decades. Furthermore, in this research, the researchers have selected and gathered several relevant studies that have their contribution to the political discourse field of study. The first study is entitled "Representation of Government Concerning the Draft of Criminal Code in *The Jakarta Post: A Critical Discourse Analysis*" (Sari & Pranoto, 2021). This study aimed to investigate and reveal the representation of the government regarding the draft of the criminal code. It also employed a qualitative descriptive method combined with Fairclough three-dimensional model that includes textual analysis, discourse practice, and social practice to explore the study. The study revealed that The Jakarta Post chose to be on the protester' side, which is the side that rejects the arising issue. Thus, The Jakarta Post criticized the government in a negative light. In textual analysis, the newspaper considered that President Jokowi had a powerful role to pass, postpone and refuse the bills. In discourse practice, the researchers unraveled that The Jakarta Post was inclined to defend their political views through implicit sentences or indirectly and in the socio-cultural practice, the researchers divulged that the protest and the insurgency against the government occurred due to their complaints and needs being ignored by the government.

The second study is “A Critical Discourse Analysis of Political Ideology and Control in News Translation” (Shojaei & Laheghi, 2012). This study investigated the connection between translators, their translation and the political ideology that influences the ongoing process of translation. This study employed a Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) approach combined with textual analysis and Lefevere’s patronage. The researchers gathered their data from news texts from the Wall Street Journal (18th of May, 2010) and its translation by JAAM-E-JAM newspaper (19th of May, 2010). The researchers also had the knowledge that the JAAM-E-JAM newspaper depended upon the Persian government and supported the Iranian government but against some western and American states. Furthermore, the study was conducted in a qualitative method and was deciphered in word level, sentence level and discourse level. It was revealed that through the textual analysis, the researchers found out that there were intentional changes in the order of the sentences that resulted in the shift of meaning of the texts. This phenomenon of the shift of meaning could certainly be affected by personal ideology of the translator or the control of the government or political party or the publisher and many more possible effects.

The third study is “The Analysis of Political Discourse in Anies Baswedan Interview with The Sydney Morning Herald” (Vidhiasi, 2020). The Sydney Morning Herald is an Australian newspaper written by James Masolla and Anies Baswedan is a political figure that aims to ascend the presidential election in 2024. Furthermore, this study investigated the political discourse within the video interview with James Masolla given by Governor Anies. The researcher employed a qualitative descriptive method combined with the theory of persuasive strategy. The researcher gathered the data by downloading the video of the interview and transcribing it. In the result, the researcher revealed that the interview between Anies and James Masolla garnered multiple points of views from the audiences. Anies often used the

appraisal technique to ensure his statement. Moreover, he also provided accurate data during the interview with James Masolla. Thus, the answers he gave were supported by the data he had gathered prior the interview. The researcher concluded that Anies was an influential figure in this interview. It is because of his skill in being able to argue coherently and provide answers with the accurate data to support him.

The fourth one is entitled “Manipulative Uses of Pragmatic Markers in Political Discourse” (Furko, 2016). This research combined the pragmatic markers and political discourse which made the article to be distinct compared to others in the field of political discourse. Thus, it also became the novelty in this research. Furthermore, this article investigated evidential markers, general extenders, quotation markers, and markers of (un)certainty in BBC, CNN and Hungarian ATV’s political interviews and online comments. It also employed a qualitative method. The interviews and online comments were in both English and Hungarian. The CNN sub-corpus had 36 transcripts and each interview lasted for 50 minutes. Meanwhile, the BBC sub-corpus consisted of 37 transcripts and the interviews lasted for 30 and 60 minutes. For the Hungarian ATV, each of the interviews lasted for 60 minutes. The research revealed that the words “I think” were frequently used strategically in the interviews to put the emphasis on certainty, uncertainty and also the subjective point of view of the interviewees. Social class in the society also had a pivotal role in the interviews. The words “I think” had a different impact and meaning for working class speakers and important figures speakers. Important figures had power and influence over society. Hence, people often believe the promises of political figures. Thus, when politicians used the words “I think”, they could affect middle-class society and also rally the support of working-class society in one particular event.

The fifth one is a journal article entitled “Presupposition and Ideology: A Critical Discourse Analysis of Joe Biden’s Inaugural Speech” (Renaldo, 2021). This article explored Biden’s ideology that was represented in his inaugural speech that was delivered on January 20th, 2021. This article employed CDA theory. In the analysis progress, the researcher relied on Dijk’s presupposition and the investigation was on the microstructure level. This research employed a descriptive qualitative method of research. It analyzed the arising questions such as what, why. The data were analyzed by collecting the transcript of the speech, classifying the types of presupposition that were used by Biden and in the last part the researcher found out Biden’s ideology by the classification of the presupposition’s meaning. The results unraveled by the researcher were that Biden used three types of presupposition that occurred frequently in his inaugural speech, which were lexical, existential and factive. Biden also talked about democracy and health care, which were prominent issues in The United States. It was also believed that Biden was not anti-muslim from his speech and he also believed in racial equality for every US citizen. Furthermore, through the analysis of his speech, it could be concluded that Biden would have further discussion and also alteration on Trump’s immigrant issue. Thus, through Biden’s inaugural speech, the researcher unveiled the ideology of Biden’s to make changes in the United States. Not only in healthcare and the justice system, but also in the environmental issue as he also mentioned the issue of climate change in his speech.

8. Conclusion

This chapter has explored the relationship between discourse and politics by examining key frameworks and their implications. We have explored Fairclough's approach to critical discourse analysis, emphasizing how language shapes and is shaped by power dynamics, and Van Dijk's framework, which offers valuable insights into the interplay between text, ideology, and political structures. Our discussion has illuminated how texts not

only reflect but also perpetuate ideologies, influencing power relations within political contexts. Additionally, we have reviewed significant previous studies that have contributed to our understanding of these complex interactions. Moving forward, it is recommended that future research continue to investigate how emerging discursive practices influence political power and ideology in contemporary settings, while also considering the impact of new media and digital platforms on discourse and politics.

MICROSTRUCTURE OF DISCOURSE

1. General Overview

The microstructure of discourse pertains to the detailed components that constitute the meaning and structure of language at a local level. It involves analyzing elements such as lexical choices, syntax, word classes, propositions, coherence, pronouns, and other linguistic features within a text (Liando et al., 2022). This level of analysis focuses on the surface representation of discourse, encompassing lexical, grammatical, and prosodic features as well as the relationships between individual discourse units (Mariya et al., 2016). In discourse analysis, the microstructure can be observed by examining the choice of words, sentences, propositions, clauses, and styles used by individuals or specific communities (Beeh et al., 2023).

Moreover, the microstructure of discourse plays a vital role in various fields, such as psychology, linguistics, and aphasiology. Studies have demonstrated that the microstructure of discourse can be influenced by factors such as education levels, reading and writing habits, and language disorders (Malcorra et al., 2022). In the case of aphasia, analyzing the microstructure of language involves considering aspects like lexico-grammatical complexity, mean utterance length, and the use of cohesive devices (Diez-Itza et al., 2018). Additionally, research has emphasized the significance of addressing

microstructure and macrostructure elements in discourse treatment interventions for individuals with language disorders (Dipper et al., 2020).

The microstructure of discourse refers to the smallest units of language used to convey meaning and structure in communication. It includes the analysis of individual words, phrases, and grammatical structures used in a conversation or written text. At the word level, microstructure analysis includes examining the meaning and use of individual words, along with their connotations and associations. This analysis can help identify subtle differences in meaning or tone that may be important for understanding the overall message.

At the phrase level, microstructure analysis examines how words are combined into larger units of meaning, such as idioms, collocations, and phrasal verbs. This analysis can help identify common patterns and structures used in different types of discourse and how these patterns may differ across various contexts and cultures.

At the grammatical level, microstructure analysis includes examining the rules and conventions that govern the use of syntax, punctuation, and other aspects of grammar in communication. This analysis can help identify how different grammatical structures convey meaning and create coherence in a conversation or written text.

The microstructure of discourse is an essential aspect of language analysis, as it provides insight into how meaning is created and conveyed through language use. By examining the smallest units of language, researchers can gain a deeper understanding of the patterns and structures that underlie communication and develop more effective methods for analyzing and interpreting discourse in different contexts.

Overall, the microstructure of discourse offers valuable insights into the intricate details of language use, contributing to a deeper understanding of how meaning is constructed and conveyed in communication. By scrutinizing the micro-level components of discourse, researchers can uncover patterns, relationships, and nuances that enhance our comprehension of language and its role in various contexts.

2. Semantic Aspects

Semantic aspects in the microstructure of discourse are fundamental for understanding language comprehension and production. The discourse microstructure analyzes elements such as words, sentences, propositions, and clauses within a text (Carragher, 2023). This level of analysis focuses on the activation of word meanings, proposition formation, and the generation of inferences and elaborations, regardless of the discourse context (Kintsch, 1988). Moreover, the semantic structure of texts can be examined at both a local microlevel and a more global macro level (Kintsch & Dijk, 1978). In other words, semantic aspects are crucial for understanding the meaning of discourse, because the aspects involve the choice of words, the structure of sentences, the relationships between different parts of the text, and the context of the text. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976).

Understanding the semantic aspects within the microstructure of discourse is crucial for unravelling how language is processed and how meaning is constructed at various levels of linguistic analysis. By exploring word choices, sentence structures, and semantic relationships, researchers can gain valuable insights into the cognitive processes underlying language comprehension and production.

Analyzing the microstructure of discourse, particularly in critical discourse analysis contexts like Covid-19 health-protocol advertisements in tourist

facilities, emphasizes the significance of coherence as a vital feature indicating semantic connections within texts (Budiarta & Kasni, 2023). As a semantic aspect, coherence contributes to communication's overall intelligibility and effectiveness. Furthermore, research on computing discourse semantics demonstrates how predicate-argument semantics are computed for discourse connectives, showcasing the computational aspects of semantic analysis in discourse (Forbes-Riley et al., 2005). This computational perspective offers insights into the systematic processing of semantic information within discourse.

Furthermore, semantic coherence influences the interpretive process and the construction of meaning in discourse and takes role as an integral part of discourse content, shaping subsequent anaphoric references and structuring the flow of information within texts (Asher & Lascarides, 2013). Additionally, the social organization of folk songs reveals the layered nature of discourse within discourse, necessitating an integrated theory that considers semantic, syntactic, and behavioral evidence in understanding oblique contexts (Mannheim, 1987). This integrated approach underscores the complexity of semantic aspects within discourse structures.

In computational linguistics, deriving discourse meaning from its parts involves mechanisms such as compositional semantics and inference, illustrating the distinct yet interconnected meanings at different levels of linguistic analysis (Forbes et al., 2003). This separation of processes underscores the unique challenges and strategies in uncovering discourse's semantic aspects. Furthermore, discourse structuring submodules map semantic relations to discourse relations, forming coherent discourse graphs that organize and convey meaning effectively (Bouayad-Agha et al., 2011). This structural mapping highlights semantic relations' role in shaping discourse's overall coherence and intelligibility.

Anaphora and discourse structure research reveal the richness of discourse semantics by recognizing separate relations derived anaphorically and those associated with adjacency or structural connectives (Webber et al., 2003). This recognition adds depth to understanding how semantic information is intertwined within discourse. Moreover, the social representations of events in media discourse underscore the use of metaphors to convey meaning, emphasizing the semantic dimensions of discourse and its interpretive frameworks (Caillaud et al., 2011). Metaphorical expressions enrich the semantic landscape of discourse, offering nuanced insights into complex social phenomena.

Furthermore, ambiguity and anaphora with plurals in discourse highlight the rhetorical relations between discourse constituents, showcasing how semantic ambiguity can be resolved through discourse structure and coherence (Asher & Wang, 2003). This resolution process underscores the role of semantic relations in disambiguating meaning within discourse. Additionally, various models of discourse relations investigate word order variation, linking coherence, subject matter, and rhetorical ties to the semantic components of discourse (Creswell, 2004). This holistic approach integrates semantic properties with discourse structure, shedding light on the multifaceted nature of meaning construction.

In the critical discourse analysis of speeches, the microstructure analysis reveals the local meaning embedded in texts, emphasizing the importance of word choice, sentence structure, and language style in conveying semantic nuances (Astari et al., 2022). This attention to micro-level details underscores how semantic aspects contribute to the overall interpretation of discourse. Furthermore, investigating semantic aspects for teaching purposes highlights the consideration of lexical units within discourse contexts, emphasizing the practical application of semantic knowledge in educational settings (Lacková,

2021). This pedagogical perspective underscores the relevance of semantic analysis in enhancing language learning and comprehension.

Moreover, sense annotation in discourse treebanks treats discourse connectives as discourse-level predicates, linking abstract objects such as events and propositions to semantic structures within discourse (Miltsakaki et al., n.d.). This annotation process illuminates the semantic underpinnings of discourse relations, providing a framework for analyzing and representing semantic information. Moreover, the analysis of Buginese folklore through a Van approach emphasizes the semantic aspects of meaning, including conceptual, connotative, social, affective, reflective, collocative, and thematic meanings (Syukri et al., 2022). This comprehensive analysis showcases the richness of semantic dimensions within cultural and linguistic contexts.

How semantic relations are conveyed through linguistic constructions and inferential processes and the varying influences of explicit and implicit signals on discourse spans can be revealed through discourse adverbials (Rohde et al., 2015). This signalling mechanism underscores the role of semantic cues in guiding discourse interpretation. Stochastic discourse modelling in spoken dialogue systems utilizes semantic dependency graphs to model discourse, showcasing how semantic structures can be leveraged for computational analysis and understanding (Yeh et al., 2006). This computational approach demonstrates the practical applications of semantic modelling in discourse processing.

Text comprehension in residual aphasia emphasizes the involvement of multiple levels of representation, including surface, semantic, and situational levels, in processing discourse (Chesneau & Ska, 2014). This multilevel processing highlights the interplay between semantic structures and cognitive functions in understanding texts. Stylistic means of headline creation in media

texts underscore the pragmatic and semantic aspects of discourse, particularly in assessing and revising communicative conventions to enhance the semantic impact of headlines (Karpovskaya et al., 2019). This pragmatic perspective reveals how semantic considerations influence communicative strategies in discourse production.

Toward a model of text comprehension and production, the semantic structure of texts is described at both micro and macro levels, emphasizing the hierarchical organization of semantic information within discourse (Kintsch & Dijk, 1978). This hierarchical organization underscores the systematic arrangement of semantic elements to convey meaning effectively. Efforts to learn better discourse representation for implicit discourse relation recognition through attention networks integrate external semantic memory with discourse arguments and relations, highlighting the importance of semantic integration in discourse comprehension (Zhang et al., 2018). This integrative approach underscores the role of semantic memory in constructing coherent discourse representations.

2.1 Lexical Semantics

Lexical Semantics, the study of word meaning, plays a crucial role in understanding the microstructure of discourse. The microstructure of discourse refers to the local and immediate linguistic features that shape the flow and meaning of a text or conversation. This includes aspects like word choice, lexical cohesion, and the use of specific lexical items to signal relationships between ideas. Lexical Semantics provides the foundation for analyzing how individual words contribute to the overall coherence and meaning of a discourse segment. By examining how word choices are made, how words are repeated and substituted, and how lexical items contribute to the development

of themes and arguments, researchers can gain insights into the subtle ways language is used to create meaning and structure at the micro-level of discourse. Here are some pieces of research that collocates to lexical semantics: 1) The choice of words can convey different meanings, attitudes, and emotions (Crystal, 2008); 2) Synonyms can be used to avoid repetition and create variety, while antonyms can be used to contrast ideas (Quirk et al., 1972); 3) Connotations are the emotional or associative meanings of words, while denotations are the literal meanings (Fowler, 1996); 4) Collocations are words that frequently occur together, while idioms are fixed expressions with meanings that cannot be deduced from the individual words (Nation, 2001); and 5) Lexical cohesion refers to the use of related words to create a coherent text (Halliday & Hasan, 1976).

2.2 Sentence Semantics

Sentence Semantics, the study of meaning at the level of sentences, provides a crucial framework for understanding the microstructure of discourse. The microstructure of discourse refers to the local and immediate linguistic features that shape the flow and meaning of a text or conversation. Sentence-level meaning, with its focus on grammatical structure, logical relations, and the interplay of different sentence types (e.g., declarative, interrogative, imperative), directly influences how information is presented and processed within a discourse segment. By analyzing how sentence structure, word order, and the use of grammatical devices like conjunctions and pronouns contribute to the overall coherence and meaning of a text, researchers can gain insights into how the micro-level organization of sentences shapes the flow of information and the development of ideas within a discourse. Here are some pieces of research that collocate to sentence semantics: 1) The structure of a sentence can affect its meaning, such as the use of passive voice or the placement of emphasis (Biber et al., 1999); 2) Grammatical relations refer to

the relationships between words in a sentence, such as subject, verb, and object (Chomsky, 1965); 3) Different sentence types, such as declarative, interrogative, and imperative, can convey different intentions (Quirk et al., 1972); 4) Thematic progression refers to the way in which the topic of a discourse is developed and maintained (Halliday & Hasan, 1976); and 5) Information structure refers to the way in which information is presented in a sentence, such as given and new information (Prince, 1981).

2.3 Discourse Semantics

Discourse Semantics, the study of meaning at the level of extended stretches of language, provides a crucial framework for understanding the microstructure of discourse. The microstructure of discourse refers to the local and immediate linguistic features that shape the flow and meaning of a text or conversation. Discourse Semantics, with its focus on how meaning is constructed across multiple sentences and utterances, examines how these micro-level features contribute to the overall coherence, cohesion, and interpretation of a discourse segment. This includes analyzing how the sequencing of sentences, the use of cohesive devices like pronouns and conjunctions, and the interplay of different speech acts contribute to the development of discourse themes, the building of arguments, and the establishment of shared understanding between speakers. Here are some pieces of research on discourse semantics: 1) Coherence refers to the overall meaning of a discourse, while cohesion refers to the linguistic devices used to connect different parts of the text (Halliday & Hasan, 1976); 2) Reference refers to how words refer to entities in the world, such as people, places, and things (Halliday & Hasan, 1976); 3) Substitution and ellipsis are linguistic devices used to avoid repetition (Halliday & Hasan, 1976); 4) Conjunctions and connectives are words used to connect different parts of a sentence or discourse (Quirk et al., 1972); and 5) Topic and comment refer to the given and new information in a sentence." (Halliday, 1967).

2.4 Analytical Tools and Methods

The study of the microstructure of discourse, focusing on the local and immediate linguistic features that shape the flow and meaning of a text or conversation, relies on a variety of analytical tools and methods. These tools and methods allow researchers to systematically investigate and describe the intricate interplay of linguistic features that contribute to the coherence, cohesion, and overall meaning of a discourse segment. This includes techniques such as discourse analysis, conversation analysis, corpus linguistics, and computational linguistics, which utilize a range of methodologies, including qualitative and quantitative approaches, to identify patterns, analyze relationships between linguistic elements, and ultimately gain a deeper understanding of how language is used to create meaning and structure at the micro-level of discourse. Research applying analytical tools and methods are presented as follows. 1) Corpus analysis involves the study of large collections of texts to identify patterns and trends (McEnery & Hardie, 2000); 2) Critical discourse analysis is a theoretical and methodological framework for analyzing the relationship between language and power (Fairclough, 1995); 3) Conversation analysis is a method for studying naturally occurring conversation (Sacks, Schegloff, & Jefferson, 1974); 4) Pragmatic analysis is the study of language in context, focusing on how people use language to achieve their goals (Levinson, 1983); and 5) Semantic network analysis is a method for representing the relationships between concepts in a discourse." (Sowa, 1984).

2.5 Case Studies and Examples

Case studies and concrete examples provide invaluable insights into the intricate workings of the microstructure of discourse. By examining real-world instances of language use, such as conversations, news articles, or literary

texts, researchers can observe how local and immediate linguistic features, such as word choice, sentence structure, and the use of cohesive devices, contribute to the overall meaning and coherence of the discourse. These case studies allow for in-depth analysis of how specific linguistic choices impact the flow of information, the development of ideas, and the interpretation of meaning within a particular context. Through the careful examination of these examples, researchers can refine their understanding of the complex interplay between linguistic form and communicative function at the micro-level of discourse. Here are some examples of research. 1) **Analyzing political speeches:** Fairclough (1995) analyzes political speeches to examine how language is used to construct power relations; 2) **Examining news articles:** Van Dijk (1988) analyzes news articles to explore how language is used to represent different groups of people; 3) **Studying social media conversations:** Herring (2001) analyzes social media conversations to investigate how language is used to create and maintain social identities; 4) **Investigating literary texts:** Fowler (1996) analyzes literary texts to examine how language is used to convey themes and messages; and 5) **Exploring cross-cultural discourse:** Blommaert (2005) analyzes cross-cultural discourse to explore how language is used to negotiate cultural differences.

3. Syntactic Aspects

Syntactic aspects play a crucial role in the microstructure analysis of discourse studies, encompassing various linguistic features that contribute to the structural organization and interpretation of texts. Research by Hulk & Müller (2000), Frascarelli & Jiménez-Fernández (2021), and Marini et al. (2011) delves into the intricate relationship between syntax and discourse, emphasizing how syntactic structures influence the communicative functions of language. Kiran et al. (2015) shed light on the Test of Syntactic Effects on Discourse Comprehension (TSEDC) in aphasia, highlighting how syntactic

structures impact the understanding of discourse. Additionally, studies by Levy et al. (2012) and Fairclough (2001) explore the effects of syntactic complexity on discourse comprehension, showcasing the interplay between syntax and the coherence of discourse.

Zhou (2023) emphasizes the importance of authentic language data in analyzing grammar within discourse contexts. Caponigro & Davidson (2011) and Bentley (2004) investigate the syntactic properties of discourse, showcasing how syntactic structures encode pragmatic relations and contribute to communication coherence. Tawfik (2022) explores syntactic complexity and grammatical accuracy in shaping interactional discourse and engagement markers within texts. Heilmann & Malone (2014) and Heilmann et al. (2020) focus on the properties of spoken language samples, highlighting syntax's role in discourse difficulties and content organization.

Haegeman (2014) provides insights into how syntactic structures, such as discourse markers, contribute to articulating speech acts within discourse. Bowie & Popova (2020) and Yip (2022) examine the relationship between grammar and discourse, showcasing how grammatical choices influence the expression of ideologies and attitudes within texts.

In conclusion, syntactic aspects in microstructure analysis within discourse studies are pivotal in shaping texts' structural organization, coherence, and interpretation. By examining the syntactic features of discourse, researchers can gain valuable insights into how language structures contribute to the communicative functions and meaning construction within diverse discursive contexts.

4. Stylistic Aspect

Stylistic aspects in discourse studies encompass various linguistic features that contribute to the aesthetic, expressive, and communicative dimensions of texts. Scholars such as Alzahrani (2021), Merzah & Abbas (2020), and Ononye (2017) have explored the stylistic domain within discourse analysis, focusing on elements such as honorifics, forms of address, tone, and pragma-stylistic choices to uncover deceptive strategies in literary works. These studies highlight how stylistic decisions impact the overall tone, meaning, and communicative effectiveness of discourse.

The analysis of stylistic aspects in discourse extends to various literary genres. Studies by Shawa (2017), Aziz & Gheni (2023), and Walidah et al. (2020) delve into the stylistic features of poetry, detective fiction, and religious texts, providing insights into how devices such as personification, vagueness, and linguistic identity contribute to the aesthetic appeal and thematic depth of literary works.

Furthermore, Abushihab's pragmatic stylistic framework (2015) and Jaafar's cognitive stylistic analysis (2020) shed light on how stylistic features influence text interpretation and analysis. These approaches emphasize the importance of stylistic elements in understanding the cognitive and pragmatic dimensions of discourse.

Stylistic analysis in discourse studies also intersects with other fields. For instance, Haafteen (2019) investigates argumentative strategies and stylistic devices, while Batool et al. (2020) explore cultural hybridity through discourse stylistics. These studies demonstrate how stylistic choices shape argumentation, convey cultural nuances, and influence the persuasive impact of texts.

Moreover, the integration of discourse analysis and stylistics is evident in works such as Simpson & Hall (2002), who focus on contemporary discourse stylistics that draws on discourse analysis techniques. This interdisciplinary approach highlights the synergies between stylistic analysis and discourse studies in uncovering nuanced layers of meaning, intention, and rhetorical strategies embedded in texts.

5. Rhetoric Aspect

Rhetorical aspects in discourse analysis encompass various linguistic features that contribute to the organization, coherence, and effectiveness of communication within texts. By examining how rhetorical strategies are employed within discourse, researchers can gain valuable insights into how language is structured, interpreted, and used to convey meaning in diverse communicative contexts. Therefore, rhetorical aspects in discourse analysis play a significant role in understanding how language is structured, organized, and used to convey meaning effectively. Drummond et al. (2015) highlight deficits in narrative discourse elicited by visual stimuli in patients with mild cognitive impairment, showcasing how narrative discourse requires speakers to reproduce episodes while respecting temporal and causal relationships. This example underscores the importance of narrative coherence and structure in conveying information effectively within discourse. Here are other examples of research on rhetorical aspects.

- 1) Frascarelli & Hinterhölzl (2007) argue for a systematic correlation between discourse roles and grammatical properties of topics in German and Italian, emphasizing how discourse structures are intertwined with syntactic elements. This correlation showcases how

rhetorical aspects are embedded within the syntactic structures of languages, influencing the expression and organization of information.

- 2) Geelhand et al. (2020) delve into narrative production in autistic adults, emphasizing the systematic analysis of microstructure, macrostructure, and internal state language in discourse. By examining the rhetorical aspects of the narrative output, researchers can gain insights into how individuals with autism utilize language to convey information and manage spoken discourse effectively.
- 3) Budiarta and Kasni (2023) analyze the microstructure of COVID-19 health-protocol advertisements in tourist facilities using critical discourse analysis to identify semantic, syntactic, lexical, and rhetorical elements within the texts. This approach allows for a comprehensive examination of how rhetorical strategies are employed in advertising discourse to convey health protocols effectively to the target audience.
- 4) Lira et al. (2010) emphasize the sensitivity of discourse analysis in detecting language impairment, showcasing how rhetorical aspects can reveal underlying cognitive and linguistic processes within discourse. This sensitivity to linguistic nuances highlights the role of rhetorical analysis in identifying language-related challenges and impairments.
- 5) Leitch & Palmer (2010) advocate for analyzing texts in context within Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA), emphasizing the importance of considering the situational and contextual factors that influence rhetorical strategies within texts. This contextual analysis allows for a deeper understanding of how rhetorical elements are employed to convey meaning within specific discursive contexts.

- 6) Kasni et al. (2023) explore the superstructure of food product advertisement discourse on television, emphasizing the structures that are commonly seen in spoken language, such as discussions, interviews, comments, and utterances. This analysis sheds light on how rhetorical elements are utilized in advertising discourse to engage and persuade audiences effectively.
- 7) Eemeren (2018) invites contributions from argumentation theorists with backgrounds in informal or formal logic, rhetoric, and discourse analysis. This showcasing the interdisciplinary nature of studying argumentative and rhetorical strategies highlights the diverse perspectives that can enrich the analysis of rhetorical aspects within discourse.
- 8) Kentner (2015) explores stress clash in reading and its impact on processing noncanonical structures, emphasizing the interaction between prosodic features and syntactic structures. This example illustrates how prosodic elements play a crucial role in enhancing the cognitive processing of discourse and syntactic complexity.
- 9) Armstrong (2000) discusses aphasic discourse analysis, focusing on lexical, syntactic, semantic, pragmatic, and conversational aspects within discourse. This comprehensive analysis underscores the importance of considering multiple linguistic dimensions, including rhetorical aspects, in understanding and interpreting discourse in individuals with aphasia.

9. Conclusion

In conclusion, the microstructure of discourse, encompassing a multifaceted array of linguistic features, plays a pivotal role in shaping the meaning, structure, and effectiveness of communication. By meticulously examining lexical choices, syntactic structures, semantic relations, stylistic devices, and rhetorical strategies at the micro-level, researchers can gain a profound understanding of how language functions to convey information, express ideas, and shape social interactions. This intricate interplay of linguistic elements contributes to the overall coherence, cohesion, and interpretability of discourse, influencing how messages are encoded, transmitted, and decoded within diverse communicative contexts. Furthermore, the analysis of microstructure provides valuable insights for various fields, including linguistics, psychology, education, and communication studies, informing our understanding of language acquisition, language disorders, and the effective use of language in various social and cultural settings.

REFERENCES

- Afrianto. (2022). Zero Relational Process in Lampung Language Clause. *Linguistik Indonesia*, 40(1), 63-82.
- Alfaaz, M.F., Monalisa, A., & Andriani, A. (2023). Finland's Election: Ideology, Power, and Critique behind the Loss of Sanna Marin in The Guardian. *Teaching and Learning English in Multicultural Context*, 7(1), 61-73.
- Amoussou, F., & Allagbe, A. A. (2018). Principles, Theories and Approaches to Critical Discourse Analysis. *International Journal on Studies in English Language and Literature (IJSELL)*, 6(1), 11-18. <http://dx.doi.org/10.20431/2347-3134.0601002>
- Augoustinos, M. (1998). Social Representations and Ideology. In U. Flick (Ed.), *The Psychology of the Social*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Afzal, N., & Omar, A. (2021). The Saudi Vision 2030: Reproduction of Women's Empowerment in the Saudi Press: A Corpus-based Critical Discourse Analysis. *Register Journal*, 14(1), 121-138. <https://doi.org/10.18326/rjt.v14i1.121-138>
- Al Fajri, M. S. (2020). The Construction of Indonesian Muslims and Islam in Australian Newspapers: A Corpus-Assisted Critical Discourse Analysis. *Discourse and Interaction*, 13(1), 5-24. <https://doi.org/10.5817/DI2020-1-5>
- Ansary, H., & Babaii, E. (2005). The Generic Integrity of Newspaper Editorials. *RELC Journal*, 3(36), 271-295. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0033688205060051>
- Atkinson, J. M., & Heritage, J. (2019). Conversation Analysis: A Method for Research on Teaching and Learning in Classrooms. In P. Smeyers & M. Depaepe (Eds.), *Educational research: Discourses of Change and Changes of Discourse*. New York: Springer.
- Baker, P. (2006). *Using Corpora in Discourse Analysis*. London: Bloomsbury Publishing.
- Baker, P. (2023). *Using Corpora in Discourse Analysis*. London: Bloomsbury Publishing.
- Balkan-Sahin, S. (2020). Tracing Discursive Strategies to Understand the U.S. Withdrawal from the Iranian Nuclear Deal. *Uluslararası İlişkiler / International Relations*, 17(66), 61-76.
- Banks, D. (2018). The First Translation of an Academic Article. *Revista de Lingüística y Lenguas Aplicadas (RlyLA)*, 1(13), 31. <https://doi.org/10.4995/rlyla.2018.7933>

- Bakuuro, J., & Diedong, A. (2020). A Critical Discourse Analysis of Language in Ghanaian Newspaper Editorials. *Athens Journal of Mass Media and Communication*, 1(7), 45-60. <https://doi.org/10.30958/ajmmc.7-1-3>
- Bernard, T. (2018). The Discursive Representation of Social Actors in the Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) and Integrated Annual Report (IA) Reports of Two South African Mining Companies. *Critical Approaches to Discourse Analysis across Disciplines*, 10(1), 81-91.
- Biber, D. (2005). Corpus Linguistics and the Study of English Grammar. *Indonesian Journal of English Language Teaching*, 1(1), 1–22. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13555502.2010.491667>
- Bloor, T., & Bloor, M. (2004). *The Functional Analysis of English (Second Edition)*. London: Routledge.
- Briones, R.R. Y. (2016). Textual Analysis through Systemic Functional Linguistics. *Journal of English Language Teaching and Linguistics*, 2(1). <https://doi.org/10.21462/jeltl.v1i2.27>
- Brinton, L. J. (2001). Historical Discourse Analysis. In D. Schrifin, D. Tannen, & H. E. Hamilton (Eds.), *The Handbook of Discourse Analysis*. UK: Blackwell Publishers.
- Chen, J. (2019). On Re-Instantiation of Literary Dialects: A Systemic functional approach. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 6(9), 706. <https://doi.org/10.17507/tpis.0906.14>
- Conrad, S. (2002). Corpus Linguistic Approaches for Discourse Analysis. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 22, 75–95. doi:10.1017/S0267190502000041
- Crawford, W. J., & Csomay, E. (2024). *Doing Corpus Linguistics*. New York: Routledge.
- Cutting, J. (2002). *Pragmatics and Discourse: A Resource Book for Students (1st ed.)*. Florence: Routledge.
- Dufon, M.A. (2002). Video Recording in Ethnographic SLA Research: Some Issues of Validity in Data Collection. *Language Learning & Technology*, 6(1), 40–59.
- Edem, S. (2018). The Communicative Functions of Nominal Group Expressions in Selected Nigerian Newspaper Headlines. *International Journal of Language and Linguistics*, 2(5). <https://doi.org/10.30845/ijll.v5n2a12>
- Eggs, S. (1994). *An Introduction to Systemic Functional Linguistics (Second Edition)*. London: Continuum.
- Emilia, E. (2018). *Introducing Functional Grammar*. Bandung: Pustaka Jaya.
- Fairclough, N. (1992). *Discourse and Social Change*. Cambridge: Polity Press.
- Fairclough, N. (1995). *Critical Discourse Analysis: The Critical Study of Language*. New York: Longman.
- Fairclough, N. (2003). *Analysing Discourse: Textual Analysis for Social Research*. Oxon: Routledge.
- Fairclough, N., & Wodak, R. (1997). Critical Discourse Analysis. In T. van Dijk (Ed.), *Discourse Studies: A Multidisciplinary Introduction* (Vol. 2). London: Sage

- Publication.
- Farr, R.M., & Moscovici, S. (Eds.). (1984). *Social Representation*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Farser, C., & Gaskell, G. (Eds.). (1990). *The Social Psychological Study of Widespread Beliefs*. Oxford-NY: Clarendon Press Oxford University Press.
- Furko, P. (2017). Manipulative Uses of Pragmatic Markers in Political Discourse. *Palgrave Communications*, 3(1), 1-9.
- Gerot, L., & Wignell, P. (1994). *Making Sense of Functional Grammar*. Sydney: Gerd Stabler.
- Goodwin, C., & Heritage, J. (1990). Conversation Analysis. *Annual Review of Anthropology*, 19, 283-307.
- Gu, C. (2020). Concordancing China's Friend, Foe and Frenemy: A Corpus-based CDA of Geopolitical Actors (Re)presented at China's Interpreter-mediated Political Press Conferences. In *Corpus-Based Approaches to Grammar, Media and Health Discourses: Systemic Functional and Other Perspectives*. Singapore: Springer Singapore.
- Halliday, M.A.K. (1994). *An Introduction to Functional Grammar*. London: Edward Arnold.
- Halliday, M.A.K., & Matthiessen, C. (2014). *Halliday's Introduction to Functional Grammar. Fourth Edition*. Oxon: Routledge.
- Heath, C. (1997). Using Video: Analyzing Activities in Face-to-Face Interaction. In D. Silverman (Ed.), *Qualitative Research: Theory, Method, and Practice* (pp. 183-200). London: Sage Publications.
- Hermawan, B., & Rahyono, F. (2019). Ideational Meanings of Science and Interpersonal Position of Readers in Science Textbooks for Basic Level in Indonesia. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 1(9). <https://doi.org/10.17509/ijal.v9i1.15932>
- Hoang, V. V. (2021). Systemic Functional Linguistics in Translation. *Linguistics and the Human Sciences*, 1(15), 52-96. <https://doi.org/10.1558/lhs.19981>
- Hoey, E., & Kendrick, K. H. (2017). Conversation Analysis. In A.M.B. De Groot & P. Hagoort (Eds.), *Research Methods in Psycholinguistics and the Neurobiology of Language: A Practical Guide*. Oxford: Wiley Blackwell.
- Hunston, S. (2002). Pattern Grammar, Language Teaching, and Linguistic Variation. In R. Reppen, S.M. Fitzmaurice, & D. Biber (Eds.), *Using Corpora to Explore Linguistic Variation* (pp. 167-183). Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Co.
- Howard, A. (2010). Is There Such a Thing as a Typical Language Lesson? *Classroom Discourse*, 1(1), 82-100.
- Ilyinova, E.Y., & Kochetova, L.A. (2016). Diachronic Perspective in Text and Discourse Studies: Review Approaches. *Vestnik Volgogradskogo Gosudarstvennogo Universiteta. Seria 2. Zykoznanie*, 15(4), 18-25.

- Islam, R. (2022). A Lexical Cohesion Analysis on Oscar Wilde's Short Story The Selfish Giant. *English Language Teaching Journal*, 1(2), 1-45. <https://doi.org/10.35897/eltj.v2i1.709>
- Jahedi, M., Abdullah, F. S., & Mukundan, J. (2014). An Overview of Focal Approaches of Critical Discourse Analysis. *International Journal of Education & Literacy Studies*, 2(4), 28-35.
- Jiachun, W. (2019). An Experiential Metafunctional Analysis of Poetry in Song Dynasty -Take Ru Meng Ling as an Example. *IJLL*, 2(6). <https://doi.org/10.30845/ijll.v6n2p9>
- Jun, N., Li, M., Tian, Y., & Wang, Y. (2022). A Study of Ideological-Political Instruction in Systemic Functional Linguistics Class. *PIJ*, 4(5), 01-07. <https://doi.org/10.55014/pij.v5i4.280>
- Khalid, P. (2013). Modality Analysis of the Newspaper Articles About the Scottish Ship RMS Queen Elizabeth. *AJIS*, 2 (9). <https://doi.org/10.5901/ajis.2013.v2n9p458>
- Kitishat, A. R., Kayed, M. Al, & Al-Ajalein, M. (2020). A Corpus-Assisted Critical Discourse Analysis of the Syrian Refugee Crisis in Jordanian Newspapers. *International Journal of English Linguistics*, 10(6), 195–201. <https://doi.org/10.5539/ijel.v10n6p195>
- Khorasgani, A. R., & Hassanpour, A. (2017). Bodybuilding: Application of Ruth Wodak's Historical Discourse Approach in the Documentary Analysis of "Iranian-Style Nose". *Applied Sociology*, 28(2), 49-70.
- Khorsheed, N. N., Dzakiria, H., & Singh, M. K. S. (2023). Keyness for Revelation of Self and Other Representation in Kurdish National Identity Construction. *Qalaai Zanist Scientific Journal*, 8(2), 1338–1360. <https://doi.org/10.25212/lfu.qzj.8.2.54>
- Kuswoyo, H., Sujatna, ETS., Indrayani, LM., & Rido, A. (2020). Schematic Structure and Lexico-Grammatical Features of Aerospace Engineering English Lectures: A Systemic Functional Linguistic Approach. *ASIAN EFL Journal*, 27(4.6), 171-203.
- Kuswoyo, H., Sujatna, ETS., Rido, A., & Indrayani, LM. (2020). Theme Choice and Thematic Progression of Discussion Section in Engineering English Lectures. *ACM International Conference Proceeding Series*. <https://doi.org/10.1145/3452144.3452194>
- Kuswoyo, H., & Rido, A. (2019). Process Types of Transitivity System in Engineering Lecture Introduction: A Pedagogic Discourse. *Lingua: Jurnal Bahasa dan Sastra*, 19(2).
- Lee, Ben & Knot, Lee (2020). *How and Why Ideologies Are Shared and Learned*. London: CREST.
- Lee, D. Y. (2010). What Corpora Are Available. In *The Routledge Handbook of Corpus Linguistics* (pp. 107–121). New York: Routledge.
- Levinson, S. C. (1983). *Pragmatics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Liddicoat, A. J. (2007). *An Introduction to Conversation Analysis*. London: Continuum.

- Lingling, L. (2022). A Corpus-Based Discourse-Historical Analysis of China-Related Coverage of COVID-19 in Chinese and American Mainstream Media. *Journal of Research in Medical and Dental Science*, 10(1).
- Manfredi, M. (2021). Professional Museum Translators for Promoting Multilingualism and Accessible Texts: Translation Practices in Some Italian Museums and a Proposal. *Journal of Translation Studies*, 1(1), 59-86. <https://doi.org/10.3726/jts012021.5>
- Majstorović, D. (2007). Construction of Europeanization in the High Representative's Discourse in Bosnia and Herzegovina. *Discourse & Society*, 5(18), 627-651. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0957926507079635>
- McEnery, T., & Wilson, A. (2001). *Corpus Linguistics: An Introduction (Second)*. Edinburgh University Press.
- Mickan, P. (2023). Functional Linguistic Perspectives in TESOL: Curriculum Design and Text-Based Instruction. *TiC*, 1(31), 7-24. <https://doi.org/10.21153/tesol2022vol31no1art1697>
- Mısır, H., & Işık-Güler, H. (2022). "Be a Better Version of You!": A Corpus-Driven Critical Discourse Analysis of MOOC Platforms' Marketing Communication. *Linguistics and Education*, 69. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.linged.2022.101021>
- Mondada, L. (2018). The Interactional Organization of Talk in Time-Critical Institutional Practices: An Introduction. *Time & Society*, 27(2), 139-154.
- Musté, P., Stuart, K., & Botella, A. (2015). Linguistic Choice in a Corpus of Brand Slogans: Repetition or Variation. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, (198), 350-358. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.07.454>
- Naeem, W., Noreen, S., & Munir, T. (2023). News Media Discourse of Imran Khan's Arrest in May 2023: Discourse Historical Approach. *PalArch's Journal of Archaeology of Egypt/Egyptology*, 20(2), 1736-1755.
- Noermanzah, Emzir, & Lustyantje, N. (2017). Variety of Rhetorics in Political Speech: The President of the Republic of Indonesia Susilo Bambang Yudhoyono and Joko Widodo in Educational Field. *Humanus*, 16(2), 221-238.
- Omar, A., Hamouda, W. I., & Aldawsari, M. (2020). A Discourse-Historical Approach to Populism in the Right-Wing Discourse on Immigration. *International Journal of English Linguistics*, 10(3), 151-158.
- Orpin, D. (2005). Corpus Linguistics and Critical Discourse Analysis: Examining the Ideology of Sleaze. *International Journal of Corpus Linguistics*, 10(1), 37-61.
- Paltridge, B. (2006). *Discourse analysis: An introduction*. London: Continuum.
- Paksoy, A.F. (2022). The great Syrian exodus: A discourse-historical approach to Syrian asylum seekers in the Turkish press coverage (2011-15). *Journal of Arab & Muslim Media Research*, 15(1), 87-106.
- Rauf, F. (2021). Transitivity Analysis of Mariam's Character in A Thousand Splendid Suns. *UOCHJLL*, 11(5), 137-147. <https://doi.org/10.33195/jll.v5iii.334>
- Raeisi, M., Dastjerdi, H., Raeisi, M. (2019). Lexico-grammatical Analysis of Native and Non-Native Abstracts Based on Halliday's SFL Model. *TPLS*, 11(9), 1388.

- <https://doi.org/10.17507/tpls.0911.03>
- Rido, A., Ibrahim, N., & Nambiar, R. M. K. (2020). *Interaction and Pedagogy of Indonesian Vocational English Master Teachers*. Kuala Lumpur: UKM Press.
- Rido, A., Kuswoyo., H., & Ayu, R. (2020). Interaction Management Strategies in English Literature Lectures in Indonesian University Setting. *Indonesian Journal of EFL and Linguistics*, 5(2), 315-337.
- Rido, A., Kuswoyo, H., Suryaningsih, A.S., Nuansa, S., Ayu, R., & Arivia, R.P. (2021). Repair Strategies of English Literature Lectures in a University in Indonesia. *Teknosastik: Jurnal Bahasa dan Sastra*, 19(1), 14-23.
- Rido, A., Prakoso, B. H., & Kuswoyo, H. (2023). 'Thank you very much': Feedback Strategies in University English Literature Lecture Interaction. *European Journal of Educational Research*, 12(1), 29-40.
- Rakhmatovna, Khamrukulova Farangiz. (2022). The Concept of "Political Discourse". *European Scholar Journal (ESJ)*, 3(3), 88-91.
- Reisigl, M., & Wodak, R. (2001). *Discourse and Discrimination: Rhetorics of Racism and Antisemitism*. London: Routledge.
- Reisigl, M. (2017). *Routledge Handbook of Critical Discourse Studies*. J. Flowerdew, J. Richardson (Eds.). New York: Routledge.
- Renaldo, Z.A. (2021). Presupposition and Ideology: A Critical Discourse Analysis of Joe Biden's Inaugural Speech. *Project (Professional Journal of English Education)*, 4(3), 497-503.
- Reppen, R., & Simpson-Vlach, R. (2020). Corpus Linguistics. In *An Introduction to Applied Linguistics*. New York: Routledge.
- Rohman, T. (2020). A Genre-based Translation of Watch Promotional Text In Colours Magazine of Garuda Indonesia Airline. *Diadikasia Journal*, 1(1). <https://doi.org/10.21428/8c841009.5635b6a9>
- Sacks, H., Schegloff, E. A., & Jefferson, G. (1974). A Simplest Systematics for the Organization of Turn-taking for Conversation. *Language*, 50(4), 696-735.
- Schegloff, E. A. (1995). Discourse as an Interactional Achievement III: The Omnirelevance of Action. *Research on Language and Social Interaction*, 28(3), 185-211.
- Schegloff, E. A. (2007a). *Sequence Organization in Interaction: A Primer in Conversation Analysis* (Vol. 1). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Schegloff, E. A. (2019). Repair as an Interactional Accomplishment: Multiple Sequential Solutions to a Problem of Understanding in Conversation. In Couper-Kuhlen, E. & Kortmann, B. (Eds.), *The Routledge handbook of contemporary corpus linguistics* (pp. 368-380). New York: Routledge.
- Schegloff, E. A., & Sacks, H. (1973). Opening up Closings. *Semiotica*, 8, 289-327.
- Sert, N. (2021). An Exploratory Study on Adjacency Pairs in Second Language Writing Feedback. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 51, 100815.
- Sidnell, J. (2012). Basic Conversation Analytic Method. In Sidnell, J. & Stivers, T. (Eds.), *The Handbook of Conversation Analysis* (pp. 77-99). Oxford: Blackwell

- Publishing Ltd.
- Sidnell, J. (2019). Conversation Analysis and Education. In Stivers, T., Enfield, N. J., & Sidnell, J. (Eds.), *The Cambridge handbook of linguistic anthropology*. Cambridge University Press.
- Stake, Robert E. (2010). *Qualitative research: studying how things work*. New York: The Guilford Press.
- Stokoe, E. (2018). *An Introduction to Conversation Analysis* (2nd ed.). New York: Routledge.
- Sugiharti, S. (2018). A Discourse-Historical Analysis on Local Culture in The First Trilogy *Ronggeng Dukuh Paruk* by Ahmad Tohari. *Jurnal Cahaya Pendidikan*, 4(2), 57-66.
- Suprayogi, S., Puspita, D., Nuansa, S., Sari, K. (2021). The Discursive construction of Indigenous Belief Issue in *The Jakarta Post*. *Language Literacy: Journal of Linguistics, Literature and Language Teaching*, 5(2), 417-430. <https://doi.org/10.30743/ll.v5i2.4538>
- Suhadi, J. (2018). The Adequacy of Grammatical Metaphor to Account for World Languages. *KSS*, 4(3), 1. <https://doi.org/10.18502/kss.v3i4.1912>
- Suhaili, A., Suganda, D., Darmayanti, N., & Yuliawati, S. (2024). A Corpus-Assisted Critical Discourse Analysis of the Iranian People in the Corpus of Donald Trump's Social Media Texts. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 14(1), 88–97. <https://tpls.academypublication.com/index.php/tpls/article/view/7225>
- Sari, K., & Pranoto, B. E. (2021). Representation of Government Concerning the Draft of Criminal Code in *The Jakarta Post: A Critical Discourse Analysis*. *PAROLE: Journal of Linguistics and Education*, 11(2), 98-113. <https://doi.org/10.14710/parole.v11i2.98-113>
- Sari, Y.N., & Bahri, S. (2017). Tenor Configurations in Campaign Speeches of Two Democratic Party Presidential Candidates 2016. *Linguistics, Journal of Linguistics of FBS Unimed*, 4(6). <https://doi.org/10.24114/jalu.v6i4.7598>
- Sergeant, Philip. (2009). Language Ideology, Language Theory, and the Regulation of Linguistic Behaviour. *Language Sciences*, 31, 345–359.
- Shojaei, Amir, & Laheghi, Fardin. (2012). A Critical Discourse Analysis of Political Ideology and Control Factors in News Translation. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 2(12), 2535-2540.
- Sivandi Nasab, Zohre, & Dowlatabadi, Hamid Reza. (2015). An Investigation into Rohani's Meeting Coverage in Two English Daily Newspapers with a Critical Discourse Analysis Perspective: Tehran Times vs. Los Angeles Times. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 5(10), 2131-2137.
- Taylor, C., Croot, K., Power, E., Savage, S., Hodges, J., Togher, L. (2014). Trouble and Repair During Conversations Of People With Primary Progressive Aphasia. *Aphasiology*, 8-9(28), 1069-1091. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02687038.2014.930411>

- Thomas, R. (2020). Brahmins As Scientists and Science As Brahmins' Calling: Caste In An Indian Scientific Research Institute. *Public Understanding of Science*, 3(29), 306-318. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0963662520903690>
- Toth, P., & Davin, K. (2016). The Sociocognitive Imperative of L2 Pedagogy. *The Modern Language Journal*, S1(100), 148-168. <https://doi.org/10.1111/modl.12306>
- Tognini-Bonelli, E. (2001). *Corpus Linguistics at Work* (Vol. 6). Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Co. <https://doi.org/10.1353/lan.2004.0092>
- Trester, A. (2013). Telling and Retelling Prankster Stories: Evaluating Cleverness To Perform Identity. *Discourse Studies*, 1(15), 91-109. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1461445612466472>
- Troyan, F. (2014). Leveraging Genre Theory: A Genre-based Interactive Model for the Era of the Common Core State Standards. *Foreign Language Annals*, 47(1), 5-24. <https://doi.org/10.1111/flan.12068>
- Thompson, G. (2014). *Introducing Functional Grammar*. New York: Routledge.
- UNESCO. (2015). Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2015: Gender and EFA 2000-2015: Achievements and Challenges. United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization.
- Utami, M.A. (2018). The Representation of LGBT and a Hidden Ideology of The Jakarta Post and Jakarta Globe. *Ranah: Jurnal Kajian Bahasa*, 7(1), 86-144. <https://doi.org/10.26499/rnh.v7i1.566>
- Van Dijk, T. (2000). New(s) Racism: A Discourse Analytical Approach. In Cottle, S. (Ed.), *Ethnic Minorities and the Media* (pp. 211-226). United Kingdom: Open University Press.
- Van Dijk, Teun A. (1980). *Macrostructures: An Interdisciplinary Study of Global Structures in Discourse, Interaction, and Cognition*. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publisher.
- Van Dijk, Teun A. (1997). *Discourse as Structure and Process*. London: Sage Publications.
- Van Dijk, Teun A. (2008). *Discourse and Context: A Sociocognitive Approach*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Vidhiyasi, D. M. (2020). The Analysis of Political Discourse in Anies Baswedan Interview with *The Sydney Morning Herald*. *Al-Lisan: Jurnal Bahasa (e-Journal)*, 5(2), 148-163. <https://doi.org/10.30603/al.v6i2.1340>
- Voutilainen, L., Rauniomaa, M., & Elo, S. (2019). Student Participation in Classroom Interaction: A Review of Research Methods and Instruments. *Journal of Classroom Interaction*, 54(2), 1-14.
- Wang, H., Xu, T., Zhang, M. (2023). A Mixed Method Study on Chinese Primary School EFL Teachers' Preparation, Affecting Factors and Support Needed to Implement Intercultural Foreign Language Teaching. *PLOS ONE*, 4(18), e0284146. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0284146>

- Walsh, S. (2011). *Exploring Classroom Discourse: Language in Action*. London: Routledge.
- Waring, H. Z. (2018). Adjacency pairs and beyond: Social action formats in classroom interaction. In Nguyen, H.T., & Kasper, G. (Eds.), *Conversation Analytic Research on Learning-in-Interaction: Perspectives on Language and Education*. London: Routledge.
- Weaver, C. (1996). The Importance of Grammar in Writing Instruction. *College Composition and Communication*, 47(2) <https://www.jstor.org/stable/358807>
- Weiss, Gilbert & Wodak, Ruth (Eds.). (2002). *Critical Discourse Analysis: Theory and Interdisciplinarity*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Wilson, S. M. (1993). The social construction of literacy in the classroom: A case study of a teacher and her students. *Anthropology & Education Quarterly*, 24(1), 3-32.
- Wilkinson, R., & Marra, M. (2019). *Interactional Practices in Tertiary Education: From Discourse Analysis to Conversation Analysis*. New York: Routledge.
- Wong, J. & Waring, H. Z. (2010). *Conversation Analysis and Second Language Pedagogy*. New York: Routledge.
- Wodak, R. (2001). The Discourse Historical Approach. In R. Wodak & M. Meyer (Eds.), *Methods of Critical Discourse Analysis*. London: Sage Publication.
- Wodak, R. (2006). Critical Linguistics and Critical Discourse Analysis. In J. O. Ostman & J. Verschueren (Eds.), *Handbook of Pragmatics*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins. <https://doi.org/10.1075/hop.10.cri1>
- Wodak, R. (2015). Critical Discourse Analysis, Discourse-Historical Approach. In K. Tracy (Ed.), *The International Encyclopedia of Language and Social Interaction* (pp. 1-24). New Jersey: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Wodak, R., & Forchtner, B. (2014). Embattled Vienna 1683/2010: Right-wing Populism, Collective Memory and the Fictionalization of Politics. *Visual Communication*, 13(2), 231-255.
- Wodak, R., & Meyer, M. (2009). Critical Discourse Analysis: History, Agenda, Theory, and Methodology. In R. Wodak & M. Meyer (Eds.), *Methods for Critical Discourse Analysis* (pp. 1-33). London: Sage Publication.
- Xuerong, F. (2012). Excellent English Teachers' Classroom Strategies: A Case Study of Three College English Teachers in China. *Higher Education Social Sciences*, 2(1), 1-7.
- Yoyo, Y., Mukhlis, A., Thonthowi, T., Ferawati, F. (2020). High Variety Vs Low Variety Culture In the Arabic Language : The Tensions Between Fushâ And 'ÂMiyya In The Contemporary Arab World. *AJAS*, 1(5), 25. <https://doi.org/10.24865/ajas.v5i1.195>
- Yu, H. (2019). *Recreating the Images of Chan Master Huineng: A Systemic Functional Approach to Translations of the Platform Sutra*. Canada: Equinox Publishing. <https://doi.org/10.1558/isbn.9781781797969>

- Yusra, K. (2022). Switching Languages for Political Fear, Power and Anger in Digitally-surveillanced Multilingual Facebook Interaction In Indonesia. *Linguistik Indonesia*, 2(40), 179-196. <https://doi.org/10.26499/li.v40i2.345>
- Zanettin, F. (2021). *News Media Translation. In News Media Translation*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1017/9781108568364>
- Zhao, J. (2015). Book Review: Jr Martin (Ed.), interviews With M.a.k. Halliday: Language Turned Back On Himself. *Discourse Studies*, 3(17), 385-387. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1461445615571205d>
- Zhu, P., Isawi, D., Luke, M. (2022). A Discourse Analysis Of Cultural Humility Within Counseling Dyads. *Journal of Counseling & Develop*, 2(101), 167-179. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jcad.12457>

GLOSSARY

A

- **Adjacency pair:** a sequence of two related utterances in which the first speaker initiates a particular speech act and the second speaker responds with a corresponding speech act.
- **Annotation:** the practice of assigning additional information to aspects of a text, often by using tags.
- **Anthroponyms:** names that refer to individuals, specifically personal names.
- **Aphasiology:** the study of **aphasia**, a language disorder that affects a person's ability to communicate.

B

- **Big data:** large, structured datasets of naturally occurring language used to analyze linguistic patterns and discourses quantitatively.

C

- **Classroom interaction:** the interaction between the teachers and students, and amongst the students, in the classroom.
- **Cognitive Linguistics:** the mental processes of thinking, learning, understanding, and remembering, involving conscious intellectual activities like perception, memory, and reasoning
- **Cohesion:** the linguistic mechanisms used to create and maintain connections between different parts of a text.
- **Coherence:** the logical and meaningful connection of ideas within a text or discourse that makes it understandable as a whole
- **Collocate:** a word that frequently appears next to or close to another word in a corpus, usually more often than would be expected if the words all appeared in random order.
- **Concordance:** a table showing all of the occurrences of a word in its immediate context.
- **Connotation:** the significance and perception of a term that is influenced by its cultural or emotional connotations beyond its literal meaning.
- **Context:** the circumstances, conditions, or background information that help in understanding the meaning of a word, phrase, sentence, or text
- **Conversation Analysis:** an approach to discourse analysis that seeks to understand how people use language to interact with one another in everyday conversation.
- **Corpus:** an electronically encoded collection of texts that have usually been sampled to represent a particular text type, genre, or register.
- **Corpus-based:** a form of corpus analysis that aims to examine pre-existing hypotheses about language, using a corpus as a source of information.

- **Corpus-driven:** a form of corpus analysis that does not begin with particular hypotheses but allows techniques from corpus linguistics to drive the analysis, e.g. by accounting for keywords.
- **Corpus linguistics:** a form of linguistic analysis that uses specialist computer software with one or more corpora to help human analysts make sense of linguistic patterns and trends.
- **Critical discourse analysis:** a form of analysis that is focused on identifying the ways that unequal power relationships are discursively embedded in texts and how such relationships are enabled or challenged by wider social structures.
- **Cultural practices:** habits, customs, rituals, and activities that define a specific group or community.

D

- **Diachronic analysis:** The study of change in a phenomenon (such as language) over time (in contrast to synchronic analysis).
- **Discourse:** 1. language as it occurs in context. 2. a way of making sense of the world, often using language in repeated representations, narratives, and arguments.
- **Discourse-Historical Approach:** A model of critical discourse analysis that looks at how discursive practices have changed throughout time in political and historical contexts.
- **Discursive dimension:** investigates how language use in writings and discourses reflects identities and power dynamics while creating social meaning.
- **Discursive strategies:** Tools that speakers and writers use to convey, shape, and interpret messages within various contexts such as pronouns, conjunction, figurative languages, and many more.

E

- **Emic data:** the insider's perspective, examining research settings by describing the participants' ways of communicating, behaving, and interacting in the scene.

F

- **Folklore:** the collective body of traditions, customs, beliefs, stories, songs, rituals, and practices that are passed down orally or through demonstration within a particular culture or community.
- **Framing:** Another important concept in interactional sociolinguistics. It relates to how language shapes and interprets social situations and events.
- **Frequency:** the number of times a linguistic item occurs in a corpus. The raw frequency is the actual number whereas the standardized frequency would be given as a proportion, e.g. the number of occurrences per million words.

G

- **Genre:** typified forms of social action represented by specific language choices and structures.

- **Grammar in everyday talk:** A study highlights the structure and organization of language in social interactions.

H

- **Historical linguistics:** Historical Linguistics explores different aspects of language change such as sound change, semantic change, lexical change, and syntactic change.

I

- **Ideational metafunction:** the representation of experiences and meaning-making in language.
- **Interactional sociolinguistics:** A field of study that examines the relationship between language and social interaction.
- **Interpersonal metafunction:** the expression of social relationships, identities, and attitudes in language.

K

- **Keyword:** a word that occurs relatively more often in one corpus when compared against a second corpus (which often acts as a benchmark for typical frequencies in language).

L

- **Legitimate:** something that is considered valid, acceptable, or justifiable according to established standards, rules, or norms within a particular discussion or argument.
- **Lexico-grammatical choices:** the linguistic features and patterns that involve the combination of lexicon (vocabulary) and grammar in language use.
- **Linguistic devices:** Tools that speakers and writers use to convey, shape, and interpret messages within various contexts such as pronouns, conjunction, figurative languages, and many more.

M

- **Metafunctions:** the different functions of language in communication.
- **Multimodal analysis:** it studies how different communication modes—like visuals, gestures, and sound—combine to create meaning in interactions.

N

- **Nominalizations:** a linguistic process where a verb, adjective, or clause is transformed into a noun or noun phrase.

P

- **Part of speech:** a category of a word that has similar grammatical properties (e.g. noun, verb, adjective).
- **Political discourse:** a discussion of political concepts, procedures, and issues. It entails conversations and arguments about issues including social fairness, political beliefs, elections, and the function of institutions.

- **Power and dominance:** ideas that are frequently used to characterize the capacity of people, organizations, or groups to exert influence or control over others.
- **Power dynamic:** the ways in which power is distributed and the effects this distribution has on relationships and interactions within a group, organization, or society.
- **Preference:** the tendency for a particular word to co-occur with other words or phrases that all have a similar meaning.
- **Propaganda:** facts, concepts, or viewpoints that are purposefully disseminated to sway public perception or action; frequently, this is done by offering a skewed or deceptive viewpoint.
- **Proposition:** the core meaning or content of a statement, abstracted from the specific way it is expressed.

R

- **Reference corpus:** a type of corpus that is usually very large, often contains a wide range of text types and acts as a standard reference regarding typical uses and frequencies of linguistic items
- **Register:** the language variations and different semiotic choices made while creating meaning in different contexts.
- **Repair:** is mostly related to correcting students' errors; it is posted by teachers as feedback or evaluation.
- **Representation:** ways of using language to describe and evaluate something, e.g. a social actor.
- **Right-wing movement:** political or social movement that aligns with conservative ideologies.

S

- **Second language:** any language that a person learns or uses in addition to their native language, which is known as their first language or mother tongue.
- **Search term:** a word, token, cluster, tag, or combination of these, which can be entered into a search box in a corpus tool to produce concordance and frequency information.
- **Semantic network:** a conceptual framework that represents the relationships between words, concepts, or ideas in a structured way.
- **Sermon:** a spoken address delivered by a religious leader, such as a minister, pastor, priest, or imam, typically during a worship service or religious gathering.
- **Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL):** a grammar model that examines language as a social semiotic tool that individuals employ to communicate meanings in particular settings.
- **Social Actor Analysis:** a theoretical framework within Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) that examines how social actors are represented in discourse.
- **Socio-cognitive approach:** Van Dijk's method that examines the relationships that exist between discourse, knowledge, and society
- **Sociocultural dimension:** It extends the analysis to the societal and institutional contexts in which the discourse is embedded.

- **Sociolinguistic competence:** A key concept in interactional sociolinguistics. It refers to using language appropriately in different social contexts and understanding its social meanings and implications.
- **Social construction of literacy:** It denotes the comprehension that literacy transcends being merely a collection of discrete skills or proficiencies; instead, it constitutes a practice that is situated within social and cultural contexts, which both influences and is influenced by social interactions, power relations, and cultural conventions.
- **Social cognition:** how individuals view, process, and comprehend social cues and interactions.
- **Social institution:** a long-standing, organized system of standards, beliefs, and customs that controls particular spheres of social life

T

- **Tagging:** the practice of annotation – in corpus linguistics, this is often carried out with computer software (e.g. to assign part of speech tags or semantic tags to words).
- **Textual dimension:** it studies the structure, content, linguistic qualities, and coherence of language in a text to determine how it communicates meaning.
- **Textual metafunction:** the organization and cohesion of language in discourse.
- **Turn-taking:** a fundamental concept in discourse studies that refers to how speakers alternate in producing speech in conversation.

V

- **Variation in Reference and Narration:** This highlights the significance of language variation in shaping individual and group identities within social interactions.

INDEX

A

Adjacency Pair	49, 50, 51, 54, 55, 59, 68,
Anthroponyms	76, 77,
Appraisal	138
Annotation	98, 100, 101, 112, 146

B

Bias	94, 108, 111, 115, 116, 119, 124, 126, 127
------	---

C

Campaigns	72, 114
Cognition	121, 122, 131
Cohesion	3, 6, 7, 25, 29, 35, 147, 148, 149, 150, 157
Coherence	6, 7, 25, 29, 35, 36, 141, 142, 144, 145, 147, 148, 149, 150, 151, 152, 154, 157
Collocation	8, 79, 101, 102, 103, 104, 105, 106, 107, 108, 142, 148
Concordance	100, 101, 102, 105, 106, 107, 109
Conversation Analysis	48, 53, 59, 131, 150
Corpus	28, 29, 30, 34, 73, 89, 90, 91, 92, 93, 94, 95, 96, 97, 98, 99, 100, 101, 102, 103, 104, 105, 106, 108, 109, 110, 111, 112, 138, 150
Corpus building	96, 97

D

Deixis	74, 75, 76
--------	------------

E

Emanuel Schegloff	48
-------------------	----

Emic data	53
Erving Goffman	48
Exclusion	39, 75, 79, 80, 126, 134, 135
F	
Fairclough	116, 117, 118, 119, 120, 128, 129, 130, 136, 139, 150, 151, 152
Framing	76, 86, 123, 126
Frequency	73, 89, 90, 95, 99, 101, 103, 104, 105, 108
G	
Gail Jefferson	48
Gender	40, 41, 85, 129
Grammar	1, 2, 4, 8, 9, 18, 33, 34, 35, 36, 37, 102, 121, 129, 142, 152
Genre	2, 3, 5, 6, 28, 30, 73, 74
Government	80, 86, 136, 137
H	
Harold Garfinkel	48
Harvey Sacks	48, 50
I	
Ideational metafunction	3
Identity	26, 42, 43, 44, 45, 46, 72, 75, 76, 86, 87, 109, 126, 135, 153
Ideology	75, 109, 111, 115, 119, 121, 122, 130, 137, 139, 140
Inclusion	39, 75, 126, 134
Inequality	40, 119
Injustice	119
Interactional sociolinguistics	31, 32, 33, 42, 43, 46, 47
Interdiscursivity	83, 123
Interpersonal metafunction	3, 9, 10
Intertextuality	73, 83, 123, 125
K	
Keyness	108, 109
Keyword	99, 102, 107, 109

L

- Language learning 90, 116, 146
Lexico-grammatical choices 8

M

- Media 1, 4, 27, 28, 36, 37, 40, 72, 73, 86, 87, 107, 109, 110, 114, 119, 122, 126, 127, 135, 140, 145, 146, 151,
Metafunctions 3, 9, 28
Metaphor 78, 80, 145
Metonymy 77
Multimodal 38, 72, 110, 127

N

- Narration 33, 42, 43, 44, 45, 46
Native Language (L1) 115
Natural language 89, 96
Nominalization 27

O

- Occurrence 90, 93, 103, 104, 106, 119

P

- Perspective 28, 29, 41, 42, 43, 44, 48, 53, 54, 62, 73, 81, 96, 101, 112, 115, 117, 118, 120, 124, 127, 130, 144, 146, 147, 156
Populism 111, 126
Power dynamics 31, 32, 38, 42, 47, 71, 76, 77, 78, 84, 103, 123, 125, 129, 130, 139
Power relation 8, 28, 38, 75, 76, 77, 87, 108, 110, 115, 120, 121, 129, 130, 131, 140, 151
Pragmatic 29, 70, 93, 98, 123, 138, 147, 150, 152, 153, 156
Presupposition 118, 139
Proposition 14, 131, 132, 133, 134, 141, 143, 146

R

- Reference 14, 33, 42, 43, 44, 45, 76, 78, 81, 92, 144, 149
Reference corpus 91, 93, 96, 108

Register	2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 27, 36, 43, 90, 91, 92, 93
Repair	33, 49, 52, 53, 54, 55, 59, 65, 66, 67, 68
Representation	3, 73, 74, 76, 78, 86, 96, 105, 107, 109, 113, 115, 117, 121, 122, 123, 126, 129, 131, 132, 134, 135, 136, 141, 145, 146, 147
Rhetoric	8, 75, 79, 115, 126, 154, 156
S	
Second language (L2)	37, 115
Social context	2, 4, 27, 32, 38, 47, 73, 117, 120, 129, 134
Social class	39, 129, 138
Social representation	121, 122, 123, 130, 145
Social phenomenon	119
Sociocultural	35, 36, 39, 47, 121
Sociolinguistic competence	32, 47
Speech	10, 11, 12, 14, 21, 27, 32, 34, 36, 43, 48, 49, 51, 57, 73, 75, 76, 78, 81, 91, 92, 98, 100, 111, 113, 114, 115, 122, 126, 130, 139, 145, 149, 151, 152
Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL)	1, 2, 101
T	
Textual metafunction	3, 6, 9, 25, 28
Triangulation	72, 95, 96
Turn-taking	49, 51, 52, 54, 55, 59, 62, 64, 68
V	
Van Dijk	113, 114, 115, 116, 118, 119, 121, 122, 123, 128, 130, 131, 132, 133, 134, 139, 151
Van Leeuwen	118, 128, 134, 135, 136
W	
Wodak	71, 72, 73, 74, 79, 80, 83, 85, 109, 114, 118, 119, 120, 121, 124, 125

AUTHORS' BIOGRAPHY

Afrianto is an Associate Professor of Comparative Linguistics at the English Department, Faculty of Arts and Education, Universitas Teknokrat Indonesia. He accomplished his Doctoral Program in Linguistic Study at Universitas Padjadjaran in 2021. Furthermore, Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) is his expertise and he is also a member of ASFLI (Asosiasi Systemic Functional Linguistics Indonesia). At this moment, he is in a project of SFL of Lampung Language; it is such a local language documentation. Accordingly, he published an article discussing Clause and Predicative Constituent Structure in Lampung Language and this article was published in Topics in Linguistics journal. In addition, in 2019 he participated in the Sandwich-like Program or PKPI (Peningkatan Kualifikasi Publikasi Internasional) and became a visiting scholar in Northern Illinois University, Illinois, USA. What is more, is that he was awarded a grant from Kemristekdikti in scheme PDD (Penelitian Disertasi Doktor) in 2020.

Akhyar Rido is a Professor of Classroom Interaction and Pedagogy at the English Department, Faculty of Arts and Education, Universitas Teknokrat Indonesia. He was a guest lecturer at the Centre for Modern Languages, Universiti Malaysia Pahang Al Sultan Abdullah (2024), a visiting researcher at the Research Centre for Education, the National Research and Innovation Agency Republic of Indonesia (2022-2023), a visiting scholar at Mahidol University International College, Thailand (2022), and a guest lecturer at the Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia (2021). His research interests include classroom interaction using technology, classroom discourse, and second language learning. He has published five books/book chapters and more than 40 research articles.

Budi Eko Pranoto is a PhD candidate and graduate teaching assistant at the Linguistics and English Language Department, at Lancaster University, UK. His research focuses on discourse analysis in political contexts and corpus linguistics. He has contributed articles to Q1 Scopus-indexed journals on Japanese disaster news reporting and SINTA-indexed journals on political discourse. In recognition of his research, he was awarded the Penelitian Dosen Pemula (PDP) Research Grant in 2018 and 2019.

Dian Puspita, M.Li. is a PhD researcher at the School of English, University of Galway, Ireland. Her research focuses on discourse studies in political and disaster contexts. She has published articles in Q1 Scopus-indexed journals, particularly on the topic of Appraisal Analysis in Japanese news reporting on disasters. In 2019, she was awarded the Penelitian Dosen Pemula (PDP) Research Grant in recognition of her contributions to the field.

Heri Kuswoyo is an Associate Professor of Functional Linguistics at the English Department, Faculty of Arts and Education, Universitas Teknokrat Indonesia and a Post-doctoral Researcher at the Faculty of Cultural Sciences, Universitas Padjadjaran, Indonesia. He was a visiting researcher at the Department of English, College of Liberal Arts and Sciences, Northern Illinois University in 2019. His research interests include discourse analysis, classroom discourse, and systemic functional linguistics. His most recent publications are 'Let's take a look...': An Investigation of Directives as Negotiating Interpersonal Meaning in Engineering Lectures (2021, *Pertanika Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities*) with Prof. Eva Tuckyta Sari Sujatna, Dr. Lia Maulia Indrayani, Dr. Doris Macdonald, Akhyar Rido, Ph.D. and "This novel is not totally full of tears...": Graduation Resources as Appraisal Strategies in EFL Students" Fiction Book Review Oral Presentation (2022, *World Journal of English Language*) with Prof. Eva Tuckyta Sari Sujatna, Dr. Afrianto, Akhyar Rido, Ph.D. and 'An appraisal perspective on students' use of attitudinal resources in university EFL academic oral presentations' (2024, *Cogent Arts and Humanities*) with Prof. Eva Tuckyta Sari Sujatna.

Ingatan Gulö is a lecturer in the English Literature program at the Faculty of Arts and Education, Universitas Teknokrat Indonesia. He completed his Master's degree at Universitas Padjadjaran in 2014. His research interests include the Nias language, syntax and grammar, sociolinguistics, and translation studies. He has published articles on these topics in SINTA-indexed journals and presented at conferences.

Suprayogi is the Head of the English Department, Faculty of Arts and Education, Universitas Teknokrat Indonesia. His research interests include language variation, political discourse, and multimodal discourse in children's literature. He has published extensively in SINTA-indexed journals on topics such as discourse analysis, English language teaching, and language variation. They were the recipients of the Penelitian Dosen Pemula (PDP) Research Grant in both 2018 and 2019, recognizing his contributions to the field.



PENERBIT
UNIVERSITAS
TEKNOKRAT
INDONESIA **PRESS**