

Discourse Analysis of Speech Ideology of Teachers and Students in English Classroom of Senior High School in Purworejo, Central Java

Sudar

Djoko Sutopo

Postgraduate Program State University of Semarang
(English Department, Postgraduate Program, Semarang State University)

Abstract: *My study, discourse Analysis, focuses on the use of language in field of education; it is particularly using a language by English teachers and their students in English classroom of senior high school of Purworejo. Exploring how English teachers and their students produced their speech is challenging. Further, in this study I would like to analysis the English teachers and their students' speech, particularly from the ideological point of view. My study is particularly the language ideology produced by English teachers and their students in their speech in classroom. Furthermore, language ideology is of interest to students of language and to students of social life alike, because beliefs about what language is and how it works can affect language as well as social relation among the speakers. It is specific that in my study the speakers are English teachers and their students. The setting of my study was in state senior high school of Purworejo. The population was eleven state senior high schools. I took two state senior high schools from different level. Depdikbud, classifies four great of senior high school, those are SBI, RSBI, SKM, RSKM. There are two categories of senior high school in Purworejo, they are RSBI and SKM. I took two samples for my research data analysis. The first is RSBI School, I took State Senior High School 1 Purworejo, and I took State Senior High School 6 Purworejo as representatives of SKM school level. Research finding stated that the English teachers and their students produced different speeches; they have different ideology in producing the speech. English teachers in their class have high ideology. English teachers have their authority to indoctrinate to their students.*

Keywords: *discourse analysis, teachers and students' ideology, speech, classroom.*

INTRODUCTION

Learning language is learning culture; it means that when we are learning a language it is automatically related to the culture of the speaker of its language. Commonly, language learners never think about the other issues of language discussion. Most of the language learners are usually only busy with the surface study of language for example, the vocabulary, pattern, pronunciation, the spelling of words, etc. My study would like to discuss the other issues related to the language study. It is about the "language ideology". In this section, I would like to discuss the term "ideology" related to the study of language.

Language is seen as intricately connected with ideological means being ideological. Communication and language can be ideological but do not need to be, language can be political but not need to be. Further, language reflects power structure, and language has an impact on power structure (Van Dijk, 1998). Language can be an instrument for or

against enlightenment, for or against emancipation, for or against democracy, for or against human rights. Language is intricately related to beliefs, opinions, and ideologies, (Wodak and Weiss, 2004; Wodak, 2006). Furthermore, Benjamin, (2007) said that all language is ideological or every use of language serves ideological or political aims. Different experts have different point of view about language ideology. John Barbara, 2008, 66-67), said that language ideology is about what language and how it works. Belief about how “language and reality” are related, beliefs about how communication works, beliefs about linguistics correctness, goodness and badness, articulateness, and inarticulateness all are aspects of language ideology.

Based on the opinion of language ideology above, my study specifically concern with the linguistics study. It is connected with the discussion about linguistics ideology which is stated by Woolard (1994), it is stated that linguistics ideologies have been defined as “set of beliefs about language articulated by users as a rationalization or justification of perceived language structure and use. Because of these, my study focuses on the linguistics use in the classroom by English teachers and their students. To know deep discussion, further I present the review related literature and also finding and discussion based on the data taken from the data resources.

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

1. The Knowledge of Discourse Analysis

Discourse analysis is concerned with study of the relationship between language and the contexts in which it is used. Discourse analysis has grown into a wide-ranging and heterogeneous discipline which finds its unity in the description of language above. Discourse analysis is thus fundamentally concerned with the relationship between language and the contexts of its use. Discourse analysis is not only concerned with the description and analysis of spoken interaction, in addition to all our verbal encounters we daily consume hundreds of written and printed words: newspaper articles, letters, stories, recipes, instructions, notices, comics, billboards, leaflets pushed through the door, and so on. Therefore discourse analysts are equally interested in the organization of written interaction. In this book, we shall use the term discourse analysis to cover the study of spoken and written interaction. That discourse analysis enables us to describe actual performance, to delimit targets more accurately in language teaching and to evaluate input and output in the teaching-learning process (McCarthy, 1993: 5-21).

Discourse Analysis is the study of language in the everyday sense in which most people use the term. What most people mean when they say “language” is talk, communication, discourse. Further, discourse analysis basically “the study of language” however it is useful to try to specify what make discourse analysis different from other approaches to language study. “Language analysis” underscores the fact that we are not centrally focused on language as an abstract system. We tend instead to be interested in what happens when people draw on the knowledge they have about language, knowledge on the based on their memories of things the have said, heard, seen, or written before, to do things in the word: exchange information, express feelings, make things happen, create beauty, entertaining themselves and others, and so on. Why discourse analysis rather than “discoursology” on the analogy of “phonology,” “discoursography” on the analogy of “ethnography,” or “discourse criticism,” on the analogy of “literary criticism” or “rhetorical criticism”? the answer has to do with the fact that discourse analysis typically focuses on the analytical process in a relatively explicit way. It is useful to think of discourse analysis as analogous to chemical analysis. Like chemical analysis, discourse analysis is a methodology that can be used in answering many kinds of questions. Linguistic analysis is also sometimes a process of taking apart. Discourse analyst often find it useful to divide longer stretches of discourse into parts according to various criteria and then look at the particular characteristics of each part. Discourse analyst work with

material of many kinds, including transcripts of audio- or video-recorded interaction, written documents, text transmitted via oral tradition such as proverbs, and printouts of online communication. (Johnstone, 2008: 2-9)

Malcolm Coulthard, Deirdre Burton, John Sinclair, David Brazil, Martin Montgomery and Michael Hoey, who developed a particular type of discourse analysis; that is the analysis of the structures in spoken utterances or written text above the level of the sentence (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975; Coulthard, 1977, 1992, 1994; Brazil et al. 1980; Burton, 1980; Coulthard and Montgomery, 1981; Hoey, 1983). These analysts have been concerned to analyze language use in context, rather than focusing on idealized abstract versions of language. Discourse analysis can be seen as a reaction to traditional linguistics (formal, structural linguistics) which is focused on the constituent units and structure of the sentence and which does not concern itself with an analysis of language in use. Discourse analysis, in contrast to formal linguistics, is concerned with applying to notion of structure above the level of the sentence, i. e. taking the analogy of grammatical relations such as subject-verb- object, and applying it to the analysis of longer text (Mills, 2004: 117-118).

2. Language Ideology

One set of beliefs about what is “natural” consist of “language ideology,” or ideas about what language are and how it works. Student of language ideology explore the ways in which language is conceived of and thought to articulate with other aspects of social life. Beliefs about how “language “ and “reality” are related, beliefs about how communication works, and beliefs about linguistics correctness, goodness and badness, articulateness and inaccuracy all are aspects of language ideology, as are beliefs about the role of language in a person’s identity, beliefs about how languages are learned, and beliefs about what the functions of language should be, who the authorities on language are, whether and how usage should be, legislated, and so on. Work on language ideology shows how linguistic choices and language change are affected by how people conceive of language and its use and explores the circulation of and struggles over dominant conceptualizations of language and its functions. Language ideologies impact many areas of public and private life. In education, beliefs about correctness, standardness, and appropriateness influence how curricula are designed and student evaluated. (Johnstone, 2008: 66-67).

Ideology certainly does not give the impression of having a single fixed meaning- far from it! Indeed, it is not unusual to find words like ideology describe as ‘meaningless’ because they have so many meanings. Ideology is interpreted as ‘any social policy which is in part or in whole derived from social theory in a conscious way’. The others is in the Marxist tradition: ideologies are ‘ideas which arise from a given set of material interests’ in the course of the struggle for power. The definitions I have used here are from Williams R 1976. Ideology would require comparison of meaning systems, not just word meanings. For instance, in the postwar American sense of ideology mentioned above, ideology is closely related to totalitarianism, and totalitarian and ideological are sometimes used as near synonyms (Fairclough, 1989: 93-94).

The theorizing of ideology, especially the work of Louis Althusser, is based on the notion that the position from which the theorist speaks is one of scientific critique (see Althusser, 1984; Eagleton, 1991). Thus, ideology is often characterized as false consciousness or an imagined representation of the real conditions of existence; the position from which this falseness is apprehended is that of critique and stands outside ideology. Foucault’s own theoretical position is fundamentally undermined, since it seems to suggest that, within a discourse theory view, all statements, whether theoretical or not, have the same status and validity; that is, any act of critique is determined and formed by the power relations of which it is a part. All statements are similarity determined by

institutional pressures. This makes it difficult to distinguish between statements and acts which oppose oppression and those which are complicit with that oppression. The notion within ideology of false consciousness assumes that there is a consciousness which is not false (the position of critique); for Foucault, all knowledge is determined by a combination of social, institutional and discursive pressures, and theoretical knowledge is no exception (Mills, 2003: 29).

3. Spoken and Written Language

From the point of view of production, it is clear that spoken and written language make somewhat different demands on language-producers. In spoken interaction the speaker has the advantage of being able to monitor his listener's minute-by-minute reaction to what he says, he also suffers from the disadvantage of exposing his own feelings ('leaking'; Ekman & Friesen, 1969) and of having to speak clearly and concisely and make immediate response to whichever way his interlocutor reacts. In written texts, the notion of 'text' as a printed record is familiar in the study of literature. A 'text' may be differently presented in different editions, with different type-face, on different sizes of paper, in one or two columns and we still assume, from one edition to the next, that the different presentations all represent the same 'text'. The problems encountered with the notion of 'text' as the verbal record of a communicative act become a good deal more complex when we consider what is meant by spoken 'text'. The simplest view to assume is that a tape-recording of a communicative act will preserve the 'text'. The tape-recording may also preserve a good deal that may be extraneous to the text (Yule, 1993: 4-9).

4. Speech Act and Its Function

Thus, no utterance is completely context free in terms of meaning or function. Nevertheless, philosophers such as Austin (1962) and Searle (1969) have shown that it is possible to classify utterances into a very small set of functions. In Searle's (1969, 1976) system these include directives, commissives, representatives, declaratives, and expressives.

Directives

To account for the choice of directive forms, Ervin-Tripp (1972) found it helpful to classify directives into five types that include the relationship between the speaker and addressee roles:

1. Personal need/desire statements
Example: I need/I want
Addressee: Subordinates
2. Imperative
Example: Gimme X
Addressee: Subordinates or familiar equals
3. Imbedded imperative
Example: Could you give me X (please, ok)?
Addressee: Unfamiliar people; people who differ in rank or who are physically distant; someone who is in his or her own territory; someone whose willingness to comply is in doubt
4. Permission directive
Example: May I have X? is there any X left? Do you have X?
Addressee: Someone who might not comply; also used when there is an obstacle to compliance
5. Hint (sometimes with humor)
Example: this has to be done over. What about the X?

Addressee: persons with shared rules such as member of a family, people living together, and work groups

Commissives

A second speech act function in language is commissives, which are statements that function as promises or refusals for action. Like directives, commissive vary in strength; they may be very strong or highly hedged in either positive or negative directions.

Maybe I can do that tomorrow

I pledge to uphold the constitution of the United State of America

Don't worry, I'll be there

I already gave at the post office

Representatives

A representative speech act can be judge for truth value. The preceding sentence is a representative. So are the following:

I went to the Amish quilt exhibit

There are approximately twenty quilts on display

Some are very old and some are new

The old are very dramatic because they have black or dark colors for background

Some are almost art deco in design while others are extremely angular

The quilts contrast with the simplicity of decoration shown in the photos of Amish homes.

Representatives may vary in term of how hedged or aggravated the assertion might be.

Declaratives

Declaratives (Austin calls these performative) are speech acts that, when uttered, bring about a new state of being. When a teacher says "Class dismissed," a real change takes place – students get up and leave. The declarative "I now pronounce you husband and wife" changes the status of the couple.

Expressives

All languages have utterances that can be classified as having an expressive function. Our statement of joy and disappoint likes and dislikes are reflected in statements such as:

I'm so very disappointed

What a great day!

Oh my, that's terrible!

Speech act functions and subfunctions

Council drew on the work of Austin and Searle, the final set of speech functions differs somewhat. Six major functions are identified. (where possible, the speech act equivalent is given.)

1. Exchange factual information
Example: the plane departs at 7:10
Speech act equivalent: representative
2. Exchange intellectual information
Example: These arguments are correct
Speech act equivalent: representative
3. Exchange emotional attitudes
Example: I'm worried about my term papers
Speech act equivalent: expressive
4. Exchange morel attitudes

- Example: I appreciate your help
Speech act equivalent: expressive
5. Suasion
Example: hand in your assignments.
Speech act equivalent: directive
 6. Socializing
Example: hi, Larry, how are you?
Speech act equivalent: directive? (i.e., "tell me how you are")

Halliday's system (Halliday 1975, 1976), although not incorporated into a teaching syllabus, is widely used in child language research and in other applied linguistic studies. Halliday's primary functions include:

1. Instrumental. The function that serves our wants and needs. The "I want" or "I need" function.
2. Regulatory. The function that lets us control actions. The "do this" function.
3. Interactional. The vocatives and other signals that get attention and allow us to interact with others.
4. Personal. The ways we express our individual personalities through language.
5. Heuristic. The "teach me" or "tell me why" function that helps us build our own worlds.
6. Imaginative. The "let's pretend" function that helps us build our own worlds.
7. Informative. The function that lets us share information with others. (Hatch, 1994: 121-133)

RESEARCH METHOD

In a qualitative study, research design should be a reflexive process operating through every stage of a project" (Hammersley & Atkinson, 1983, p.28). The activities of collecting and analyzing data, developing and modifying theory, elaborating or refocusing the research questions, and identifying and eliminating validity threats are usually all going on more or less simultaneously, each influencing all of the others. Research design is like a philosophy of life; no one is without one, but some people are more aware of theirs, and thus able to make more informed and consistent decisions. Yin (1994) states that every type of empirical research has an implicit, if not explicit, research design. Design in qualitative research is an iterative process that involves "tacking" (Geertz, 1976, p. 235) back and forth between the different components of the design, assessing the implications of purposes, theory, research questions, methods, and validity threats for one another (Maxwell, 1996:2-4).

There are many valid reasons for doing qualitative research. One reason is the conviction of the research based upon research experience. Another reason is the nature of the research problem. Some areas of study naturally lend themselves more to qualitative types of research, for instance, research that attempts to uncover the nature of persons' experiences with a phenomenon, like illness, religious conversion, or addiction. Qualitative methods can be used to uncover and understand what lies behind any phenomenon about which little is yet known. Qualitative methods can give the intricate details of phenomena that are difficult to convey with quantitative methods.

What are the major Components of qualitative research? There are three major components. First there are the data, which as mentioned can come from various sources. The second component of qualitative research consists of the different analytic or interpretative procedures that are used to arrive at findings or theories. Written and verbal reports make up the third component of qualitative research (Corbin, 1990:19-20)

Merriam (1988) mentioned six assumptions:

1. Qualitative researchers are concerned primarily with process, rather than outcomes or products

2. Qualitative researchers are interested in meaning – how people make sense of their lives, experiences, and their structures of the world.
3. The qualitative researcher is the primary instrument for data collection and analysis. Data are mediated through this human instrument, rather than through inventories, questionnaires, or machines.
4. Qualitative research involves fieldwork. The researcher physically goes to the people, setting, site, or institution to observe or record behavior in its natural setting.
5. Qualitative research is descriptive in that the researcher is interested in process, meaning, and understanding gained through words or pictures.
6. The process of qualitative research is inductive in that the researcher builds abstractions, concepts, hypotheses, and theories from details

The data collection procedures

The data collection steps involve (a) setting the boundaries for the study, (b) collecting information through observations, interviews, documents, and visual materials, and (c) establishing the protocol for recording information.

Data recording procedures

Before entering the field, qualitative researchers plan their approach to data recording. What is to be recorded and how will it be recorded are two critical concerns to be addressed. (Creswell, 1994:145-149)

Data Analysis Technique

My research is qualitative field research. It means that, my data are taken from the natural setting of data produced by the populations. The population of research is the English teachers and their students in the nine senior high schools, and to limit the population, I take the sample purposively whether the English teachers or their students in nine senior high schools. My research is qualitative. Then to analyze the data, I use the Qualitative Analysis Outline which is developed by (Miles and Haberman, 1994).

According to Miles and Haberman (1994, 10). There are three steps in analyzing the qualitative data namely; Data Reduction, Data Display, Conclusion Drawing and Verification. To understand the way how to analyze the qualitative data, I would like to present the flows how it starts to analyze the data. The flows design is the following. In the following pages are the designs of how to analyze the qualitative data (Miles and Habermans, 1994).

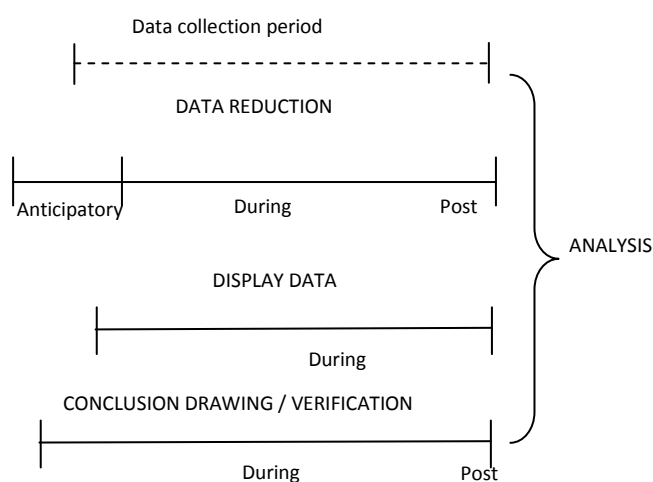


Fig. 1. Qualitative Analysis Outline (Miles and Haberman, 1994:10).

According to this design, there are three steps in analyzing the qualitative data: data reduction, data display, and conclusion drawing/verification.

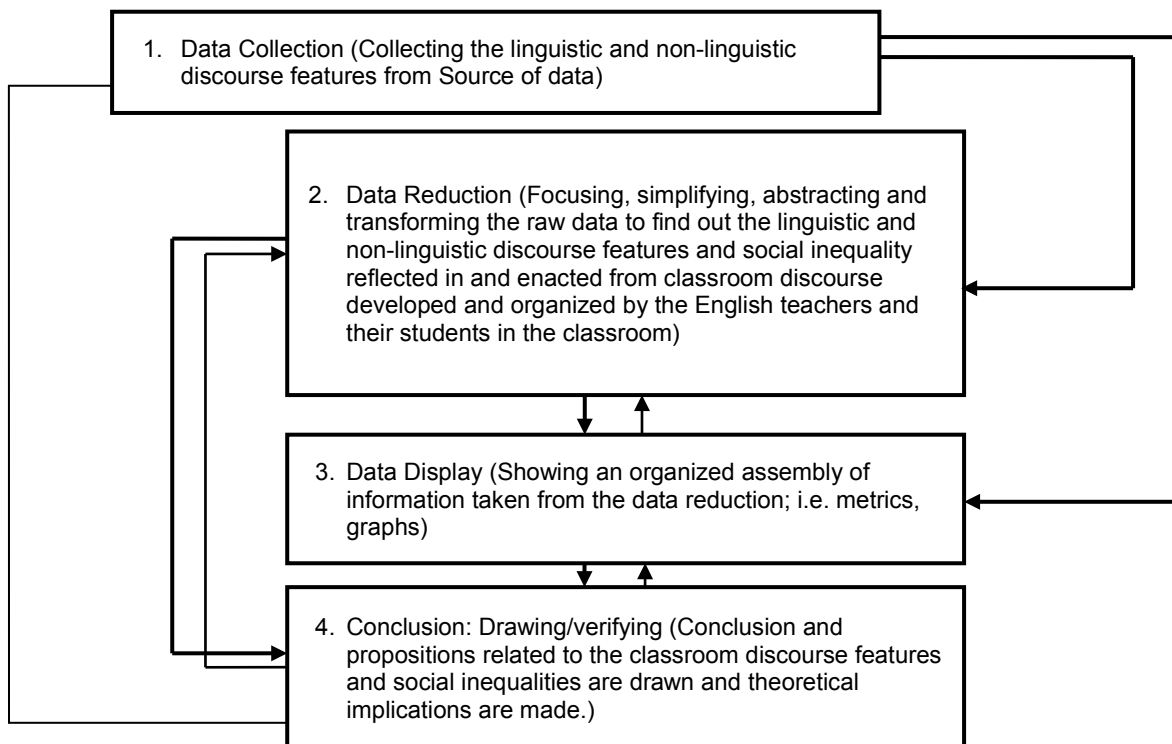


Fig. 2. The component of Data Analysis: Interactive Model (Miles & Habermans, 1994: 12)

In this model analysis, there are four components to analyze the qualitative data. The four components are; data collection, data reduction, data display, and conclusion; drawing/verifying.

A. Data and Discussion

There are two English classrooms Discourse which are as the main data of my research. The first is state senior high school 1; it is as RSBI School in Purworejo. The second English classroom is state senior high school 6; it is as one of SKM school level in Purworejo. Concerning to my study, I would like to analysis the two English classes as sources of taking the data. The data is in form of spoken discourse, it means that the data made by English teachers and their students in the two English classes. To make the data analysis easy, I only focus on the utterances made by the two English teachers and their students in the different senior high school of Purworejo.

Based on the purposes of my study I would like to analysis the utterances taken from two different schools related to "The Language Ideology". Further, concerning to the language Ideology, I specify my analysis only on *"linguistic correctness and how the speeches are displayed by English teachers and their students in the classroom"*.

To understand the two phenomena, I would like to present the speeches which are produced by the two English teachers and their students in the English classroom. Furthermore, the following the tables are concerning with the speeches analysis based on the theory of "linguistics correctness and speech act".

Table 1. The English Speeches made by Mr. Ex, it is in the English Classroom of State Senior High School 1 Purworejo

The example of Teacher's Speeches		Speech Acts and its function				
Linguistics Correctness		Directive	Representative	Comisive	Declarative	Expressive
- So, what the picture is about? - Ok...you say that it is not a good thing	- You must not... - Take care	- Ya...we'll talk together in Bahasa Inggris, right? - I'm trying to check whether you have submitted the last.	- Is it a good thing or bad thing? - Ok..that can be one occur the dangerous thing	- You are permitted to - Wait a minute	- Ok.. depend on this picture - Is it non-alcohol?	--
Standardize Utterances = 340	Non-Standardize Utterances = 159	10 utterances	17 utterances	6 utterances	9 utterances	0 utterance

Table 2. The English Speeches made by Mr. Mt, it is in the English Classroom of State Senior High School 6 Purworejo

The example of Teacher's Speeches		Speech Acts and its function				
Linguistics Correctness		Directive	Representative	Comisive	Declarative	Expressive
- We have to be able to learn English through internet, reading books, see the real things, etc - We want to talk about an accident	- That something happen to us - Then must follow his office	- Please answer the question based on the paragraph - Mey...bisa menerjemahkan?	- There are many factors that make an accident - Reading is so important		- We want to talk about the accident - Kita berkemas-kemas dan berdoa	--
Standardize Utterances = 165	Non-Standardize Utterances = 89	5 utterances	6 utterances	0 utterance	4 utterances	0 utterance

Table 3. The English Speeches made by students in the English Classroom of State Senior High School 1 Purworejo

The Example of Students' Speeches		Speech Acts and its function				
Linguistics Correctness		Directive	Representative	Comisive	Declarative	Expressive
- you should not hate your father - don't try this at home	- You are forbidden to - Are not allowed	- I can do it	- You are prohibit to use drugs - You are not allowed to use drugs	--	- Don't try this at home - Looking for another girl	--
Standardize Utterances = 25	Non-Standardize Utterances = 61	1 utterance	5 utterances	0 utterance	4 utterances	0 utterance

Table 4. The English Speeches made by students in the English Classroom of State Senior High School 6 Purworejo

The example of Students' Speeches		Speech Acts and its function				
Linguistics Correctness		Directive	Representative	Comisive	Declarative	Expressive
- The driver is very tired - It's human error	- Operating the mobile phone - Melanggar lalu lintas	--	--	--	--	- It's so dangerous
Standardize Utterances = 9	Non-Standardize Utterances = 45	0 utterance	0 utterance	0 utterance	0 utterance	1 utterance

Based on the data, it is said that the English teachers whether in RSBI school or in SKM school, the English teachers still dominant to produce the speeches in their classroom. It means that the students in the teaching learning process are not so active to participate in learning process. The number of utterances made by English teachers both in RSBI and SKM School are still dominant compare to the student's utterances. There are two types of utterances made by English teachers and also their students, they are standardized and non-standardized utterances. The standardize utterances are the utterance which is linguistically at least consisting two constituents related each other. Further, non-standardize utterances means an utterance which is not complete, it can be in form of one word or phrases. The number of standardize utterances in RSBI school made by English teacher is 340 utterances, while non-standardize utterances are only 159 utterances. It is meaningful, that the English teachers in RSBI School have a good linguistics competence. Furthermore, my study is not only talking about linguistics competence but also talking about how English teachers performed their speeches. it is stated that based on the theory of speech Act, the English teacher in RSBI school still have minimal competence in producing the speech act that have particular meaning. It is clear that the English teacher in RSBI school only able produce 10 utterances of directive, 17 utterances of representative, 6 utterances of commisive, 9 utterances of declarative.

The number of English teachers' speeches of SKM School is lower than RSBI School; it means that the English teacher of SKM School is not similar to the English teacher of RSBI School in relation to the Linguistics Competence. It is proved with the data taken from the classroom interaction between the English teacher and his students. It is found that the number of standardize utterances is only 165 utterances and 89 is for non-standardize utterances. Further, the English teacher's speech act understanding is also not so significant, it is stated in the finding that there are 5 utterances of directive, 6 utterances are representative, there is no commisive utterance, further there are 4 utterances of declarative, the last is expressive utterance, it is stated that there is no expressive utterance found whether in RSBI or SKM school.

Students are different from their teachers concerning with the production of language ideology, particularly the linguistics ideology. It means that the students understanding of standardize and non-standardize utterances is not as good as their teacher. It is stated in the finding of the analysis, there are only 25 standardize utterances and the number of non-standardize utterances is 65 utterances, it happens in RSBI school. The student understanding of speech act performance is also not so good whether in RSBI or SKM school. There is only 1 utterance of directive, 5 utterances are representative, there is no commisive utterance, and 4 utterances are declarative, and there is no expressive utterance. These made by the students of RSBI School. Furthermore, the number of standardize utterance made by the students of SKM school is

9, while non-standardize utterances are 45. Then, the student understands in performing the speech act is also not good, there is no directive, representative, commissive, declarative utterance made by the students of SKM School. There is only 1 utterance of expressive in their speech act performance. This is my analysis and finding of my study after finishing analyzing the data taken from two kinds of school, the first data taken from RSBI School and the second data taken from SKM School.

CONCLUSION

Based on the theory of study, then I analyze the data related to the language ideology using the qualitative descriptive design, it is found that the linguistics ideology and the speech act performance made by English teacher and their students from two schools are different. The English teachers of RSBI have good competence in producing the standardize utterances. Further, the English teacher understanding of speech act performance is also better than the English teacher of SKM School. The student's standardize utterances are lower than their English teachers. It means that the English teachers whether in RSBI School or SKM school still dominant to produce their utterances in classroom. Then, the English teachers have high authority to penetrate their linguistics ideology. Furthermore, the students in English classroom mostly still limited to produce the standardize utterances, and they also have limited understanding to perform their speech acts when they are in the process interaction with their English teachers. Further, it is necessary to discuss language ideology and the issue of performing speech act properly among of English teachers and also their students in the English classroom interaction.

REFERENCES

- Brown and Yule, 1993. *Discourse Analysis*, Cambridge University Press.
- Benamins, J. 2007. *Journal of Language and Politics*. Benjamin, Publishing Company.
- Crabtree and Miller, 1992. *Doing Qualitative Research*, SAGE Publications International Education and Professional Publisher Newbury Park London New Delhi.
- Creswell, John W, 1994. *Research Design Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches*, SAGE Publication , Inc.
- Corbin, Juliet, 1990. *Basics of Qualitative Research: Grounded Theory Procedures and Techniques*, SAGE Publications, Inc.
- Fairclough, Norman, 1989. *Language and Power*, Longman Group, UK limited, Longman House, Burnt Mill, Harlow, England.
- Fairclough, Norman, 2010. *Critical Discourse Analysis; the Critical Study of Language*, Edinburg Gate, Harlow CM20 2JE United Kingdom.
- Johnstone, Barbara, 2008. *Discourse Analysis*, Second Edition, Blackwell, Publishing. 350 Main Street, Malden, MA, 02148-5020, USA.
- Huberman, Michael, 1994. *Qualitative Data Analysis*, 2nd Edition. SAGE Publication, Inc. Mill Sara, 2004. *Discourse*, Great Britain: Tj International Ltd, Padstow, Cornwall.
- Miles and Huberman, 1994. *Qualitative Data Analysis*. California: Sage Publications, Inc
- Maxwell, Joseph, 1996. *Qualitative Research Design; an Interpretive Approach*, Sage Publication.
- Nunan, David. 1992. *Research Methods in Language Learning*, Cambridge University Press.
- Van Dijk. 1998. *Ideology*, London SAGE.
- Wodak, R. 2006. Images in /and news in a globalised world. Lassen.
- Woolard. 1994. *Language Ideology*, Department of Sociology, University of California, San Diego. 92093.