

## **CHAPTER II**

### **REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE**

This chapter explains several related theories such as discourse analysis, and political discourse. The second is the main theories which are about Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA), textual analysis, and sociocultural analysis. The third is previous studies which discusses the similarities and the differences between the researcher study and the previous study.

#### **2.1 Discourse Analysis**

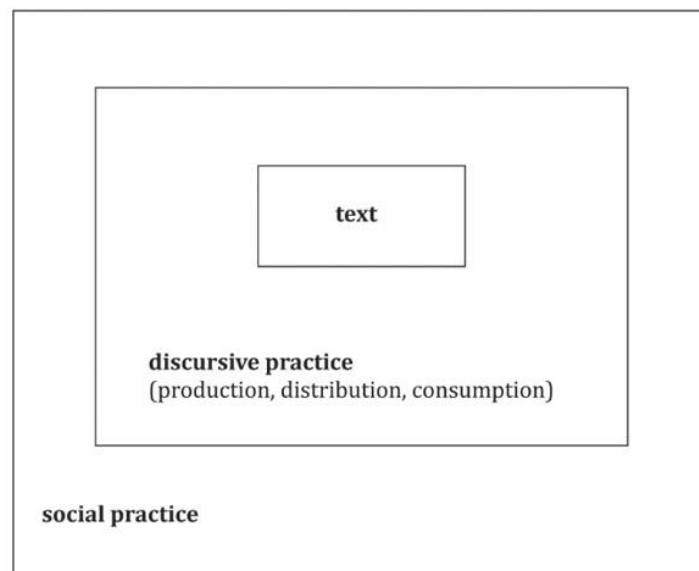
Discourse analysis is concerned with the use of language in a running discourse, continued over a number of sentences, and involving the interaction of speaker (or writer) and auditor (or reader) in a specific situational context, and within a framework of social and cultural conventions (Abrams and Harpham, *A Glossary of Literary Terms*, 2005). Wood & Kroger (2000) also stated that discourse analysis is a study of perspective on the nature of language and its relationship to the central issues of the social sciences. More specifically, we see discourse analysis as a related collection of approaches to discourse, approaches that entail not only practices of data collection and analysis, but also a set of metatheoretical and theoretical assumptions and a body of research claims and studies. Analysis field portrays in many terms, one of them is political discourse.

## 2.2 Political Discourse

An analysis of political discourse as simply an example discourse type, without explicit reference to political content or political context. Torode (1991, cited in Schiffrin et al. 2001, p. 122) mentions that political discourse is “a form of social practice with a malign social purpose”.

## 2.3 Critical Discourse Analysis

Critical discourse analysis (CDA) is a type of discourse analytical research that mainly studies the way social power abuse, dominance, and inequality are enacted, reproduced, and resisted by text and talk in the social and political context (Schiffrin et al., 2001). Fairclough (1995) introduces the three-dimensional approach for analyzing discourse. These are textual analysis (description), discursive practice (interpretation) and sociocultural analysis (explanation).



**Figure 2.1 Representation of Fairclough’s diagram of “social theory of discourse” (Fairclough, 1992: 73)**

There are two-dimensional of three-dimensional approaches which are used in this study, those are textual analysis & sociocultural analysis.

### **2.3.1 Textual Analysis**

Textual analysis is an approach which includes detailed analysis of texts. In the other words, textual analysis concerns with discourse analysis as a text. According to Baure et al. (2014) he claims that textual analysis shall “explain the life-world within which the text is embedded; to open up the perspective of the author that is delineated by his/her social and cultural context and to draw attention to the structural aspect of everyday practices and meaning patterns”.

As for the position of text analyst as a reader, the reader should avoid a “judge, teacher, analyst, confessor, or decoder” role. To analyze a particular text is also to produce it, a self-reflexive activity providing readers with insight about the life-worlds of others, a phenomenological exercise for comparing one’s lived experiences with those of others, modifying one’s perception of the world and coming to a common, inter-subjective construction of social reality by fusing horizons that were hitherto separate.

In this study, the researcher focuses on the theory of Griffith (2006) epistemic and deontic modality with its level according to Naplan and USYD (2012) in order to not only reveal the types of modality but to emphasize its meaning which is taken from the level of modality according to Naplan and USYD (2012) and adjectives within the Donald Trump’s speech in Phoenix, August 31<sup>st</sup> as a text to be analyzed. Since political discourse deals with social and political competence

in achieving certain objectives, this research relates the usage of modality and adjectives with how the speaker is achieving her objectives.

### **2.3.1.1 Modality**

According to Griffiths (2006), modality is about grouping the meaning based on the notion of necessity and possibility. By using modality, the speaker's or the writer's points of view and ideology can be revealed. Hence, modality is very suitable for analyzing campaign speeches. Palmer (1993) explains that modality is classified by grammatical aspects, noting the words in a sentence with modal verbs as the main device. Naplan (2012) classified modal verbs into several categories as shown in the Table 2.1. This classification regards the degree of certainty. However, there are other modality devices.

Griffiths (2006, p. 111) states that "the main carriers of modality are a set of auxiliary verbs called modality". However, modality is encoded in other expressions. There are also other devices which is involved. They are modal nouns, adjectives, adverbs, and negative forms. Notion of modality which are necessity and possibility can be traced as long as it is not auxiliaries. Other than those levels of modality, English is also indicated to have other types of modality as appears in Table 2.2.

**Table 2.1 Guide to High, Medium and Low Modal Verbs (Naplan, 2012)**

High Modality	Medium Modality	Low Modality
Must	will	may
Ought to	should	Might
shall	Can	Could
Has to	Need to	Would

**Table 2.2 List of modal words (USYD, 2012)**

Modality Expressing	High	Medium	Low
<b>Usuality</b>	Always, never, constantly, continually, consistently, permanently	Frequently, often, occasionally	Rarely, seldom
<b>Probability or certainty</b>	Certainly, surely, definitely, absolute, total, complete	Probably, likely, quiet, rather, fairly	Possibly, possibility, could, might, appear, seem, would.
<b>Obligation</b>	Require, necessitate, necessity, requirement, need	Should, ought to, need to	may, right
<b>Inclination</b>	want	wish	Would like to

In English, modal choice brings different level of emphasis which means each of the modality carries different background and meaning. The differences can be seen in the following examples

- a. Rudi *might* be eating

b. Rudi *is* eating

(a) Contains the meaning that there is a slight possibility that Rudi is eating

(b) Contains the meaning that Rudi is eating.

From those two examples, it can be traced that there is the matter of factuality in each content of the modality.

### 2.3.1.1.1 Epistemic Modality

Modality also has two different categories which are called epistemic and deontic modality. Epistemic modality concerns on the level of certainty of a proposition's truth which is decided by the speaker. According to Griffiths (2006), epistemic modality also concerns on the level of knowledge and understanding of the speaker. Griffiths (2006, p. 112) states that markers of epistemic modality are understood as qualifications proffered by speakers or writers (or from someone they are reporting) regarding the level of certainty of a proposition's truth. Epistemic modality is known for differences in the strength level carried by its modal. Based on Kreidler (2002), 'Must' is considered the strongest modal, yet the knowledge of the speaker is necessary to reveal its factuality. For example:

a. Tom *may arrive* tomorrow

b. Harry *must* be busy

*May* in (a) means that it is possible that Tom arrives tomorrow, while *must* in (b) emphasis that the speaker is sure that Harry is busy.

### 2.3.1.1.2 Deontic Modality

Deontic modality concerns with the constraints among society: duty, morality, laws, rules. Griffiths (2006) defines deontic modality as the tool for language users for expressing their attitudes (or relay the attitudes of others) as to whether a proposition relates to an obligatory situation or permissible one, or somewhere in between. Similar to epistemic, deontic modality also has its strength level differences of each modal used by the speaker and considered ‘must’ as the strongest and ‘may’ which is used to grant permission (Lewis, 1979 cited in von Fintel, 2006). The example of deontic modality as follows:

- a. Alex *must* stop talking
- b. Alex *should* stop talking
- c. Alex *may* stop talking

*Must* in (a) indicates that Alex has to stop talking. As in (b), *should* signals suggestion for Alex to stop talking. Meanwhile in (c), *may* indicates permission which is allowed Alex to stop talking.

### 2.3.1.2 Adjectives

Adjective are words used, typically with nouns in order to provide information about things being referred to (Yule, 2010).

“They live in a **big, beautiful** house”

There are two adjectives in the example which are **big** and **beautiful**. Both of those adjectives have use to modify the “house” as a noun. Due to the subject of this study engages with political campaign which means the things being referred

in the text ought to be the other agent or the rival of the subject and the opinion towards the immigration system, the researcher decided to use two types of adjectives which are Feelings and Personality Adjectives.

### 2.3.1.3 Positive and Negative Feelings, Personality of Adjectives

*In this research, the writer decided to use two sides of adjectives as appears in table 2.3 and table 2.4 which are called as positive and negative based on its type of Feelings and Personality (good or bad). The taxonomy is extracted from Wikispace, online.*

*([https://living-beginning-english1.wikispaces.com/file/view/adj\\_list.pdf](https://living-beginning-english1.wikispaces.com/file/view/adj_list.pdf))*

- **Feelings Adjectives** : Adjectives that are used to describe attitude or expression towards things, it is used according to the conditions of an individual.
- **Personality Adjectives** : Adjective that are used to describe characters.

**Table 2.3 Positive personality adjectives**

A-E	E-J	J-R	R-Z
adaptable adorable agreeable alert alluring ambitious amused boundless brave bright calm capable charming cheerful	efficient elated eminent enchanted encouraging energetic entertaining enthusiastic excellent excited exclusive exuberant fabulous fair	joyous lucky kind kind-hearted knowledgeable level likeable lively lovely loving mature modern nice obedient	romantic sedate seemly selective self-assured sensitive shrewd silly sincere skilful successful smiling splendid steadfast



coherent comfortable confident cooperative courageous credible cultured dashing dazzling debonair decisive decorous delightful detailed determined diligent discreet dynamic eager endurable	faithful fantastic fearless fine frank friendly funny generous gentle glorious good happy harmonious helpful hilarious honorable impartial industrious instinctive jolly	painstaking peaceful perfect placid plausible pleasant plucky productive protective proud punctual quiet receptive reflective relieved resolute responsible rhetorical righteous	stimulating succinct talented thoughtful thrifty tough trustworthy unbiased unusual upbeat vigorous vivacious warm willing wise witty wonderful zany zealous
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**Table 2.4 Negative personality adjectives**

A-D	D-H	I-S	S-W
abrasive abrupt abusive afraid aloof ambiguous angry annoyed anxious arrogant ashamed awful bad belligerent bewildered boorish bored boring callous careless clumsy combative confused cowardly crazy creepy	disagreeable disillusioned disturbed domineering draconian embarrassed envious erratic evasive evil faded fanatical fierce filthy finicky flashy flippant foolish forgetful frantic fretful frightened furtive greedy grieving grouchy	ignorant ill irresolute jealous jittery lacking lazy lonely malicious materialistic mean mysterious naive nasty naughty nervous noisy obnoxious outrageous panicky pathetic possessive quarrelsome repulsive ruthless sad	stingy strange sulky tacky tense terrible testy thick-skinned thoughtless threatening tight timid tired tiresome troubled truculent typical undesirable unsuitable unsure upset uptight vague vengeful venomous volatile

cruel cynical dangerous deceitful defeated defective defiant demonic depressed deranged	gruesome grumpy guarded gullible helpless hesitant homeless horrible hungry hurt	scary secretive selfish silly slow sneaky snobbish sore spendthrift squeamish	voracious vulgar wary wasteful weak weary wicked worried worthless wretched
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**Table 2.5 Feelings adjectives**

<b>Feelings (good) A-G</b>	<b>Feelings (good) H-Z</b>	<b>Feelings (bad) A-G</b>	<b>Feelings (bad) G-W</b>
agreeable	happy	Angry	Grumpy
amused	healthy	annoyed	helpless
brave	helpful	anxious	homeless
calm	hilarious	arrogant	hungry
charming	jolly	ashamed	hurt
cheerful	joyous	awful	ill
comfortable	kind	bad	itchy
cooperative	lively	bewildered	jealous
courageous	lovely	black	jittery
delightful	lucky	blue	lazy
determined	nice	bored	lonely
eager	obedient	clumsy	mysterious
elated	perfect	combative	nasty
enchanted	pleasant	cond	naughty
encouraging	proud	emned	nervous
energetic	relieved	confused	nutty
enthusiastic	silly	crazy,	obnoxious
excited	smiling	flipped-out	outrageous
exuberant	splendid	creepy	panicky
fair	successful	cruel	repulsive

faithful	thankful	dangerous	scary
fantastic	thoughtful	defeated	selfish
fine	victorious	defiant	sore
friendly	vivacious	depressed	tense
funny	witty	disgusted	terrible
gentle	wonderful	disturbed	testy
glorious	zealous	dizzy	thoughtless
good	zany	dull	tired
		embarrassed	troubled
		envious	upset
		evil	uptight
		fierce	weary
		foolish	wicked
		frantic	worried
		frightened	
		grieving	

### 2.3.2 Discursive Practice

The following passage is the definition of discursive practice according to Fairclough (1992, p 14)

Discourse practice dimension of the framework concerns with the production, consumption and distribution of texts. Distribution, how texts circulate within orders of discourse, can be investigated in terms of 'chain' relationships (as opposed to paradigmatic or 'choice' relationships) within orders of discourse. There are more or less settled chains of discursive

practices within and between orders of discourse across which texts are shifted and transformed insystematic ways.

For instance, in the mass media there are chains connecting various public orders of discourse (politics, law, science, etc.), media orders of discourse, and orders of discourse in the private domain (the domain of reception). Texts are transformed in systematic ways across these boundaries, and even within media orders of discourse the text production process may involve complex chains of discursive practices and transformations (described in Bell 1991). Distribution is a relatively neglected issue which merits more attention.

### **2.3.3 Sociocultural Analysis**

Sociocultural analysis concerns with issues of power. Analysis of this dimension includes exploration of the ways in which discourses operate in various domains of society (Rodgers et al., 2005, p. 372). Sociocultural analysis is a part of social practice. The analysis of sociocultural practice consists of an investigation of what is happening in a particular socio-cultural framework.

In addition, Rodgers et al (2005) also states that sociocultural practice, is concerned with issues of power. Power which is being a construct that is realized through interdiscursivity and hegemony.

## **2.4 Previous Studies**

The researcher occurs to use a journal by Umar Fauzan (2014) entitled “A CDA of the Ideology of Indonesian TVONE News Report” as the first reference of previous studies which analyzes the ideology of the subject by using the main

theory Fairclough (1989; 1995). The researcher of this study focuses on the three-dimensional approach which are description (textual), interpretation (discursive practice), and explanation (sociocultural) through qualitative approach which is taken from the documentation of the track record of the news.

In order to attain the objective, the researcher focuses on the choice of the grammar and analyze it through textual analysis. The researcher also conducts the study by putting the researcher's position in the position of the news makers by following the meaning structure of the news makers, so that the shape of the distribution and the production of a disguised ideology in discourse can be known. In the study of discourse analysis, such disclosure is intended in the category of critical discourse analysis (CDA). There are similarities with the researcher's study, especially the theory usage which is critical discourse analysis (CDA) by Fairclough (1989;1995), but the differences are the previous study focuses on the choice of grammatical aspect and textual analysis.

The second study is an undergraduate thesis by Annisa' Soraya (2016) under the title "Meaning Construction and Social Effect of *Wardah* Cosmetic Television Advertisement" which also uses Fairclough (1995;1996) theory as the main theory of CDA in order to reveal the ideology of *Wardah* cosmetic and uses qualitative approach. The researcher of this study focuses on the whole three-dimensional approach which are description, interpretation and explanation. The researcher found that *Wardah* tend to use informal instead of formal addresses to the viewers such as "ku"(my), "aku"(i), "mu"(your), "kamu"(you), etc in order to create a friendly atmosphere in persuading viewers.

There are similarities between this study with the researcher's study. Both studies use Fairclough (1995) as the main CDA theory, yet the difference is Annisa's study used Van Dijk as well to employ the media discourse due to the subject is considered as advertisement. The study also uses broad aspects such as semantic meaning, lexical relation and metaphor.

Instead of having such broad field to conduct, the researcher focuses on Donald Trump's use in modality aspects concerning modal verbs and non-modal verbs (usuality, probability or certainty, obligation and inclination) which is divided into two types (epistemic and deontic). The researcher also focuses on Donald Trump's use in lexical choice (adjectives) towards the immigration system circumstances and relates to the highlights of each issue involved in a paragraph. The researcher is also encouraged to conduct the study using two of three-dimensional approach which are textual analysis and sociocultural analysis.