MODULE 6   GENRE ANALYSES

Introduction

Finally, Module 6 will look into the meaning of genre, how to analyse genres and analysis of some sample genres in order to help you understand the specialized nature of ESP and what to expect at different target situations. You will be exposed to features of legal language, language of journalism and English for science and technology.

Unit 1   Meaning of Genre Analysis
Unit 2   Legal Language
Unit 3   English for Journalism
Unit 4   English for Science and Technology (EST)

UNIT 1   MEANING OF GENRE ANALYSIS

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1.0   INTRODUCTION

If you remember that ESP concentrates on language in context, it will be worthwhile if we look at some of these contexts. In the words of Lorenzo (2005), ESP "concentrates more on language in context than on teaching grammar and language structures" (p.1). It is not a matter of teaching specialized varieties of English; not a matter of science words and grammar for scientists; not different from any other kind of language teaching but concerns what people do with the language and the range of knowledge and abilities that enables them to do it (Hutchinson & Waters, 1981). The development of ESP moved from register analysis (choice of words used in the target situation), through rhetorical or discourse analysis, target situation analysis, skills and strategies to learning-centred approach. The deficiencies of register and discourse analysis were corrected by genre analysis. This unit introduces you to the meaning of genre and genre analysis with the intention of analyzing different genres in subsequent units.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

By the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- define and explain what is meant by a genre;
- define and explain genre analysis;
- state the advantages of analyzing genre; and
- explain the methods of analysing genre.

HOW TO STUDY THE UNIT

a. Read this unit as diligently as possible.
b. Find meaning of unfamiliar words in the unit using your dictionary.
c. As you read, put major points down in a piece of paper or jotter.
d. Do not go to the next section until you have fully understood the section you are reading now.
e. Do all the Self-Assessment exercises in the unit as honestly as you can. In some areas where it is not feasible to provide answers to Self-Assessment exercises, go to the relevant sections of the unit to derive the answers.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   What is a Genre?

The word "genre" came from French and originally from Latin meaning "kind" or "class". The term is widely used in rhetoric, literary theory, media theory, and more recently linguistics, to refer to a distinctive *type* of 'text'. Robert Allen notes that 'for most of its 2,000 years, genre study has been primarily nominological and typological in function. That is to say, it has taken as its principal task, the division of the world of literature into types and the naming of those types - much as the botanist divides the realm of flora into varieties of plants' (Allen 1989:44).

According to Swales (1990), "A genre comprises a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes. Genre is a recognisable communicative event in which language plays a significant role in terms of its dominance and frequency.

Genre analysis is most relevant for you, as a distance learner under the NTI programme, in the area of the language of lesson delivery in the classroom. Classroom discourse is a kind of language that you must know and be able to analyse. As you read this unit, try to apply the genre analytical process to analysing the language of classroom lesson delivery very relevant to your field.

3.2   Genre Analysis in ESP

The concept of text - the genre analysis approach - came to make up for the shortcomings of register and discourse analysis. The approach considers text as a total entity, rather than a collection of unrelated units. For example if you want to teach writing of certain very specific texts such as … the business or technical report, we need a system analysis that shows how each type of text differs from other types. This can be achieved by seeking to identify the overall pattern of text through a series of phases or moves. Genre Analysis is 'a system of analysis that is able to reveal something of the patterns of organisation of a "genre" and the language used to express those patterns.

Genre analysis, however, focuses on the distinguishing regularities of structure of different text types. It can help learners build a repertoire of the organization and the relevant language forms of different genres. It can also make learners aware of the socio-linguistic role that texts play in particular discourse communities (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998). It is language use in professional settings.

According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987), ESP is an approach to language teaching in which all decisions as to content and method are based on the learners' reasons for learning. Learners already possessed reasonably adequate competence in the use of the language for general every day functions; they will still need to develop:

(a)   understanding of the special code;
(b)   familiarity with the dynamics of specialist genres, which include rhetorical forms and content;
(c)   specific context they respond to and the conventions they tend to use in their responses; and
(d)   proficiency in the manipulation of specialist genres to respond to the exigencies of unfamiliar and novel situations.

Genre analysis and material design seeks to clarify rather than prescribe. Once learnt and adequately understood, the conventions and procedures can be exploited creatively to achieve private ends with the socially recognized communicative purpose (Bhatia, 1993).

The advantage of genre analysis in teaching and learning of specialist English or ESP is that learners do not learn language in isolation from specialist contexts. It also makes a relevant connection between the use of the language on one hand and the purpose of communication on the other. It helps to develop an explicit desire to participate consciously in the professional community and not just be able to read and write. On the language teaching side, this may also be seen to represent a

conscious effort to integrate the product, process and communicative purpose in a meaningful context.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

i.   What is a genre?
ii.   What is genre analysis
iii.   Why should learners learn about specific genres
iv.   Of what use is genre analysis to ESP

3.1   Steps in Analysing Genre

Address the following areas, and use evidence from the genres to support your discussion, and maintain <u>third</u> person voice throughout:

(a)   Introduction

-       Start with a brief discussion of the subject/topic that the two genres are focusing on. Include the title of each piece, the genre type, and the author or company name of each in the introduction.
-       State the thesis, either implied or stated, in each genre. Your thesis, which goes in the last paragraph, is the synthesis of the two genres.

(b)   Audience and Purpose Questions

-       Who is the intended audience for each genre?
-       What discourse community (or communities) is this audience in?
-       What is the audience likely to know? Want to know? Why?
-       How much time will this audience want to spend with the information presented in the genres?
-       What is the purpose of the information presented in the genres? (inform, persuade, entertain)

(a)   **Rhetorical Issues: Ethos, Pathos and Logos**

-       How does each genre help to establish the information's credibility? Is it effective?
-       How does each genre help to evoke an emotional response from the audience? Which emotions? Why?
-       What types of evidence are used to support the claims of the information in the genres? Is it appropriate? Why or why not?

(b)   **Structure**

-       How is the information shaped by the genre (s)? (Consider the limitations/freedoms of space, time, layout, audience, and so on.)
-       How are the genres organized to convey its message?
-       How does the structure facilitate the purpose of the information in the genre(s)?

(c)   **Style/Language**

-       How formal/informal is the language?
-       What specialized vocabulary is used?
-       What other language features do you notice?

(d)   **Conclusion/Synthesis**

-       Which genre was more effective in conveying its message? Why?
-       Offer a final comment on the impact of genres on discourse.

In conducting a genre analysis, one needs to be very careful when attributing a single set of communicative purposes to texts, writers or readers because of the complex nature of purposes of communicative events.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

Part of the job of the genre analyst is to consider the rhetorical issues of the texts. What does this mean?

4.0   CONCLUSION

You must acquaint yourself with the communication goal-oriented purposes associated with specific appropriate rhetorical procedures. You must also be familiar with the conventions typically associated with the specialist discourse community that you are aspiring to join. The intent is to help learners to use language more effectively in academic and professional settings and to bring much needed psychological reality and relevance to the learning task. In other words, learners need to develop the understanding of code, the acquisition of genre knowledge associated with the specialist culture, sensitivity, then, and only then, can they hope to exploit generic knowledge of a repertoire of specialist genres by becoming informed users of the discourse of their chosen field.

5.0   SUMMARY

This unit has examined genre as a distinctive text and a class of recognizable communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes. Language is considered in terms of its dominance and frequency. The purposes of a particular communicative event are not always easy to identify. The unit also examined what it means to analyse genre and the benefits. Attempt was made at suggesting some methods one should adopt in trying to analyse any genre.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

i.   In one sentence only, define genre analysis.
ii.   State and explain the advantages of genre analysis to ESP.

7.0   REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 2   LEGAL LANGUAGE

CONTENTS

1.0   INTRODUCTION

Legal English is the style of English used by lawyers and other legal professionals in the course of their work. It has particular relevance when applied to legal writing and the drafting of written material, including:

- legal documents: contracts, licences etc.
- court pleadings: summons, briefs, judgments etc.
- laws: Acts of parliament and subordinate legislation, case reports
- legal correspondence.

This unit is an attempt to x-ray the meaning, style and the characteristic features of legal English. You are advised to use the analytical procedures used in analysing legal English here to analyse the style of English used by teachers like you in the classroom.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

By the end of the unit, you are expected to be able to:

- describe what is meant by Legal English;
- state the uses of legal English;
- describe the source of vocabulary for Legal English;
- mention some of the key features of Legal English; and
- state the two other languages that influenced Legal English.

HOW TO STUDY THE UNIT
   a.   Read this unit as diligently as possible.
   b.   Find meaning of unfamiliar words in the unit using your dictionary.
   c.   As you read, put major points down in a piece of paper or jotter.

> d.   Do not go to the next section until you have fully understood the section you are reading now.
> e.   Do all the Self-Assessment exercises in the unit as honestly as you can. In some areas where it is not feasible to provide answers to Self-Assessment exercises, go to the relevant sections of the unit to derive the answers.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   What is Legal English?

Legal English has traditionally been the preserve of lawyers from native speakers of English (especially the U.S., the UK, Canada, Australia, and the New Zealand) which have shared common law traditions. However, due to the spread of English as the predominant language of international business, as well as its role as a legal language within the European Union, legal English is now a global phenomenon. It is also referred to casually as **lawspeak**.

Modern legal English is based on Standard English. However, it contains a number of unusual features. These largely relate to terminology, linguistic structure, linguistic conventions, and punctuation, and have their roots in the history of the development of English as a legal language. The influence of Latin can be seen in a number of words and phrases such as *ad hoc, de facto, bona fide, inter alia,* and *ultra vires,* which remain in current use in legal writing – see Legal Latin.

3.2   Style of Legal English

David Crystal (1969) explains a stylistic influence upon English legal language. During the Medieval period, lawyers used a mixture of Latin, French and English. To avoid ambiguity, lawyers often offered pairs of words from different languages. Sometimes, there was little ambiguity to resolve and the pairs merely gave greater emphasis, becoming a stylistic habit. This is a feature of legal style that continues to the present day. Examples of mixed language doublets are: "breaking and entering" (English/French), "fit and proper" (English/French), "lands and tenements" (English/French), "will and testament" (English/Latin). Examples of English only doublets are: "let and hindrance", "have and hold."

Modern English vocabulary draws significantly from French and Latin, the latter often by way of French, and by some estimates, Modern English vocabulary is approximately 1/4 Germanic, 1/4 French, and 1/4 Latin (the balance being from other languages). These vocabularies are used preferentially in different registers, with words of French origin

being more formal than those of Germanic origin, and words of Latin origin being more formal than those of French origin. Thus, the extensive use of French and Latin words in Legal English results in a relatively formal style.

Furthermore, Legal English is useful for its dramatic effect: for example, a subpoena compelling a witness to appear in court often ends with the archaic threat "Fail not, at your peril"–what the "peril" is isn't described (being arrested and held in contempt of court) but the formality of the language tends to better put a chill down the spine of the recipient of the subpoena than a simple statement like "We can arrest you if you don't show up."

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

i.   At the initial stage, what is another name for legal English?
ii.   What two languages influenced the development of legal English?
iii.   What gave legal English its formal style?
iv.   Why can we say that legal English is useful?

3.3   Features of Legal English

Legal language is a distinct language, easy to some extent to those familiar with it, but to others is of certain difficulty. In other words, Legal language is characterised by a specific language and therefore a specific terminology. Some of the features are:

1)   Terms of Latin and French origin

One of many noticeable features of English legal lexicon is the existence of Latinisms (Latin terms) in its terminology. Alcaraz and Brian (2002) link the presence of such terms to certain reasons; we briefly consider them. In the first place, it was inevitable for English law to escape the influence of Latin which was supported by the power of the Roman church over Europe at that time, and also to its widespread use throughout this place of earth as a language of learning and literature. In addition to the incredible power of the Roman law which was a coherent written system, and had strength of an institution over a considerable area of Europe. Here are some Latin phrases and words in common use:

-       Bona fide (good faith or in good faith)
-       Res judicata (an issue adjucated)
-       Bes nova (a new thing; an undecided question of law)
-       Actus reus (guilty act)
-       Alibi (elsewhere; the fact or state of having been elsewhere when an offence was committed) (Garner, 2001, p. 20).

Like Latinisms, the existence of legal French terms within English legal language is also apparent. After the Norman Conquest in 1066, the language of the invaders gained an undeniable position in the legal sphere of England, bringing with it a wealth of legal French terminology (Crystal & Davy 1986, p. 208). As a case of illustration, the following terms were originally French:

- Contract, proposal, schedule, terms, conditions, policy, alias, quash and so on.
- The parties *hereto* agree as follow.
- *Hereinafter* referred to as wife.
- The total rent for the term *hereof* is the sum of**....**
- *Profits à prendre*, also known as the right of common, where one has the right to take the fruits of the property of another.
- *Acquis communautaire*: A French expression used in contemporary legal English which refers to the entire body of EU law.

2)   Archaic diction of legal English

Legal English lexicon is considerably made of archaic legal terms. However, this touch of Archaism is not in vain, it is done on purpose. There are reasons behind this tendency towards archaic words. Tiersma (1999, p. 95) states that "*legal language often strives toward great formality, it naturally gravitates towards archaic language*"

According to this quotation, archaisms give a flavour of formality to the language to which they belong. Some lawyers prefer to use antique terms instead of new ones. For example, they use 'imbibe' as an alternative of 'drink', 'inquire' rather than 'ask', 'peruse' instead of 'read', 'forthwith' as a substitution of 'right away' or 'at once' and so on. Another convenient example is the use of the verb 'witnesseth' with the preservation of an 'eth' ending for the third person singular present tense morpheme as an alternative of the current morpheme 'es' 'witnesses'.

There exist also some archaic adverbs, they are actually a mixture of deictic elements: 'here' 'there' and 'where' with certain prepositions: of, after, by, under etc. Later, Tiersma (1999, p. 96) mentions another two reasons for legal language:

Conservatism, which is for safety and convenience, accordingly, the more conservative legal terms are, the safer a legal document will be. In other words, this use of antiquated terminology is driven by the need to avoid troublesome changes as far as legal lexical meaning is concerned. The principle, according to Crystal and Davy (1986) is that "*what has*

been tested and found adequate is best not altered" (p. 213). Certain archaic words have actually acquired an authoritative interpretation over the years. So, altering them is an absolute risk. Also, this ongoing use of old-fashioned diction is, on the other hand, a matter of convenience. That is, what was workable before can be workable again.

Despite the so called usefulness of the archaic touch within legal language, its functionality is still debatable. It is quite apparent from the examples given previously that certain outdated terms and constructions are truly a handicap for better understanding; they make legal language inaccessible for public readers and are meant specifically for those who are mainly concerned with legal matters, and noticeably such terms render comprehension difficult.

3)   Archaic use of the modal "shall" in legal English

The modal *shall* pose a level of difficulty in both interpretation of clauses containing it and in the translation of such clauses. Traditionally, the modal *shall*, in legal texts, carries an obligation or a duty as opposed to its common function: expressing futurity (Tiersma: 1999, p.105).

Examples include:

▪   All such payments shall be made to Landlord at Landlord's address as set forth in the preamble to this Agreement on or before the due date and without demand.
▪   Tenant shall make no alterations to the buildings or improvements on the Premises or construct any building or make any other improvements on the Premises without the prior written consent of Landlord.
▪   Husband shall pay to Wife spousal support in the sum of _____.
▪   Tenant shall comply with any and all laws, ordinances, rules and orders of any and all governmental or quasi-governmental authorities affecting the cleanliness, use, occupancy and preservation of the Premises.

As already stated the modal *shall* is used basically to demonstrate that the legal subject of a given sentence has a duty to do or not to do something. However, certain sentences in which the modal *shall* carries a meaning different from that intended in legal writing can be found. *Shall* is sometimes used in a way that is truly confusing and causes a dilemma for readers of legal documents - to assume definitively whether the modal *shall* is being used for an obligation, futurity or a false imperative. Consider the following examples:

- Wife shall have the right to retain her married name or shall also have the right to return to her maiden or former name: _____.

- Husband shall have the following rights of title and ownership in the family residence: _____.

The use of *shall*, in the two sentences above, bears no consequences on behalf of the legal subject neither *wife* nor *husband*. Obviously, The use of *shall* in legal texts is widely frequent; and therefore may pose certain difficulty for many.

4) Lexical repetition or redundancy

In legal writing, draftsmen avoid the use of anaphoric devices or referential pronouns. Such as: the personal pronouns (he, she, it etc) or the demonstrative ones (this, that, etc), in addition to the verb 'to do' that may substitute a whole clause as in the following example, *He rents a car and so does his brother* (Sabra: 1995). Actually, legal language is highly concerned with the exactness of reference; hence its tendency toward lexical repetition, and therefore to functional redundancy.

- *The Lessee shall pay to the Lessor <u>at the office of the Lessor.</u>*
  Here, if we opt for the possessive pronoun 'his' instead of the word 'Lessor' in the phrase 'at the office of the Lessor' would certainly create confusion and ambiguity. For example:

- *The Lessee shall pay to the Lessor at <u>his office.</u>*
  In this case, it would be confusing whether the intended office is the one of Lessee or that of the Lessor. Consequently, such substitutes may, in many cases, refer to a lexical item other than that intended by the writer. However, using anaphoric devises or referential pronouns would definitely increase ambiguity and confusion.

5) Unusual use of the words 'the same', 'such' and 'said'

Using such words in legal language is quite different from using them in ordinary one. The word 'the same' usually implies comparison to a similar object or person, but in legal use it refers to sameness of reference. (Tiersma, 1999:88) For example:

- *The tenant shall pay all the taxes regularly levied and assessed against Premises and keep <u>the same</u> in repair.*

In this example, 'the same' refers to the word 'Premises'. Correspondingly, Tiersma suggests that the pronoun 'it' can conveniently substitute the phrase 'the same' (p. 91) Also, word like

'such' means normally 'that sort' or 'this sort'. Now, observe its use in a legal context:

▪ *We conclude that the trial court's order constituted an abuse of discretion in the procedural posture of this case which compels us to set aside <u>such</u> order.*

Apparently, the phrase 'such order' signifies 'this order'. So, here, *Such* acts in the same way as the demonstrative pronoun 'this'.

Concerning the function of the word *said* in legal drafting, it is used as an article or a demonstrative pronoun (Sabra, 1995:43). To illustrate this, let us look at the following example:

▪ *Lessee promises to pay a deposit. <u>Said</u> deposit shall accrue interest at a rate of five percent per annum.*

Here, the word 'said' could be substituted by the article 'the' or the demonstrative pronoun 'this' with no loss of meaning. By the way the examples mentioned in this section are originally used by (Tiersma, 1999),

6)   Frequent use of doublets

Actually, there is a common use of such collocations in which synonyms or near- synonyms are combined in pair "doublets" (Alcaraz & Brian (2002, p. 9). Such words can be either nouns, verbs, adjectives or even prepositions. For example:

made and enter	fit and proper
by and between	perform and discharge
lying and situated	dispute, controversy or claim
terms and conditions	promise, agree and covenant.
covenants and obligations	null and void
in good order and repair	represents and warrants
any and all	

Such constructions must be treated with caution, since sometimes the words used mean, for practical purposes, exactly the same thing (*null and void*); but sometimes they do not quite do so (*dispute, controversy or claim*).

7)   Legal English as a technical language

We have seen so far that a considerable part of legal English vocabulary is a mixture of archaic terms and terms of Latin and French origin. Another noticeable feature of legal English is its technical terminology. According to Tiersma (1999), if a word or a phrase is used exclusively

by a particular trade or profession or if that profession uses it in a way that differs from its normal meaning and the term has a relatively well-defined sense, it should be considered a technical term (p. 108).

This reveals that a technical term is an unshared term used exclusively by a specific trade or profession. In other words, specialists in the legal sphere are actually equipped by a distinct language peculiar to ordinary people and highly characterized by a vocabulary of technical nature. Accordingly, Alcaraz and Brian (2002:17) present a classification of technical vocabulary: purely technical terms and semi-technical terms.

(a)   **Purely technical terms:** are those that are only applicable in the legal sphere but nowhere else. For example:

decree (n)	waiver
mortgage (n)	restraint of trade
sub-letting	restrictive covenant
deem (v)	promissory estoppel
permises	tenant
lease (n)	hereinafter
landlord	

Actually, the understanding of such kind of terms is of great importance in grasping any given legal text in which they occur.

(b)   **Semi-technical terms:** words and phrases of this group belong to everyday lexicon which has gained extra-meanings in the legal context. So, terms of this type are polysemic, tougher to recognize their precise meaning without resorting to the context in which they occur. The following examples are terms of this type: the familiar term *consideration* refers in legal English, to contracts, and means, *an act, forbearance or promise by one party to a contract that constitutes the price for which the promise of the other party is bought*.

Other words often used in peculiar contexts in legal English include *construction, prefer redemption, furnish, hold,* and *find*.

Actually, purely technical terms are monosemic; that is, having one legal meaning and so have no difficulty for the translator. The latter can simply consult a bilingual dictionary, of course, not a standard dictionary but a specialized legal one. Semi-technical vocabulary is a more complex type of terms; they have one meaning or more than one in everyday language and another in the field of law.

The main conclusion is that legal English lexicon differs to a great extent from ordinary one. No doubt that such vocabulary does not render

legal language clearer, but unfortunately tougher, hard to understand, without a considerable familiarity with the legal sphere.

8)   Lack of punctuation

One aspect of archaic legal drafting – particularly in conveyances and deeds – is the conspicuous absence of punctuation. This arose from a widespread idea among those in the legal profession that punctuation is ambiguous and unimportant, and that people should gather the meaning of legal documents only from the words used and the context in which they are used. In modern legal drafting, punctuation is used to give clarification about meaning.

9)   Unusual word order

At times, the word order used in legal documents appears distinctly strange. For example, *the provisions for termination hereinafter appearing* or *will at the cost of the borrower forthwith comply with the same*. There is no single clear reason explaining this phenomenon, although the influence of French grammatical structures is certainly a contributing factor.

10)   Use of unfamiliar pro-forms

For example, *the same, the said, the aforementioned* etc. The use of such terms in legal texts is interesting since very frequently they do not replace the noun – which is the whole purpose of pro-forms – but are used as adjectives to modify the noun, for example, *the said John Smith*.

11)   Use of pronominal adverbs

Words like *hereof, thereof,* and *whereof* (and further derivatives, including *-at, -in, -after, -before, -with, -by, -above, -on, -upon* etc) are not often used in ordinary English. They are used in legal English primarily as a way of avoiding the repetition of names of things in the document – very often, the document itself. For example, *the parties hereto* instead of *the parties to this contract*.

12)   *-er, -or,* and *-ee* name endings

Legal English contains a large number of names and titles, such as employer and employee, or lessor and lessee, in which the reciprocal and opposite nature of the relationship is indicated by the use of alternative endings. This practice derives from Latin.

13)   Use of phrasal verbs

Phrasal verbs play a large role in legal English, and are often used in a quasi-technical sense. For example, *parties **enter into** contracts, **put down** deposits, **serve** [documents] **upon** other parties, **write off** debts*, and so on.

14) Long, complex sentences, with intricate patterns of coordination and subordination

Even today prescriptive legal documents in English tend to use punctuation sparingly. Some earlier statutes were formulated as one sentence without any punctuation except for a final full stop. Nonetheless Crystal and Davy (1969) observe that

> It is not true that legal English was always entirely punctuationless, and in fact the occasional specimens which were intended for oral presentation – proclamations, for instance – were quite fully punctuated. The idea of totally unpunctuated legal English is a later development […] (p. 200-201).

Although reforms in punctuation have been slowly introduced through the centuries, even today, sentences may run to hundreds of words, especially in preambles, with complex patterns of coordination and subordination.

15) A Highly impersonal style of writing (Maley 1985, p. 25)

Using passive forms is one of the most common methods of emphasizing the impersonal in a language (Sˇarcˇevicˇ 2000: 177). The generalized use of the third person (singular and plural) in legislative texts helps to reinforce the idea of impartiality and authoritativeness. Where, for example, a provision applies to everybody, the sentence either begins with *every person*, *everyone* etc., when expressing an obligation or authorization, or *no person*, *no one* etc., when expressing a prohibition.

- *No one* may be subjected to slavery, servitude or forced labour
- *Everyone* has the right of access to – (a) any information held by the state; and (b) any information that is held by another person and that is required for the exercise or protection of any rights.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

Mention and describe at least five features of Legal English.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Legal language is made up of several genres, each with its own specific, and related if often related, characteristics. It ranges from the spoken exchanges in a court between, say, lawyers and witnesses in a cross-examination, to the relatively standardized instructions given to jury members who are required to express a verdict in a court case, to the jargon employed by members of the legal profession in interpersonal communication, to the written language in case law, law reports and

prescriptive legal texts. It has been discovered that certain types of written legal language may contain features that mark it as being so highly idiosyncratic as to be at times incomprehensible to anyone except legal experts. This is because it is not only one of the least communicative of all uses of language but also about as far removed as possible from informal spontaneous conversation

5.0   SUMMARY

In this unit, we have described some of the main characteristics of written legal English such as sentence length and the complexity of its sentence structures, repetitiveness, the high concentration of Latinisms and archaic or rarely used lexical items etc., (Bhatia 1993). Such features have been widely held for centuries as having an exclusionary function, entrenching the privileges of the legal profession

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Legal English employ technical terms. Discuss.

7.0   REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 3   ENGLISH FOR JOURNALISM

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1.0   INTRODUCTION

Journalism has been defined by *Encyclopaedia Britannica* as collection, preparation, distribution of news and related commentary and feature materials through media such as pamphlets, newsletters, newspapers, magazines, radio, film, television, and books. The term was originally applied to the reportage of current events in printed form, specifically newspapers, but in the late 20th century it came to include electronic media as well. It is sometimes used to refer to writing characterized by a direct presentation of facts or description of events without an attempt at interpretation. Colleges and universities confer degrees in journalism and sponsor research in related fields such as media studies and journalism ethics. This unit examines the term journalism. It also looks at the headline and lead as aspects of written journalism, and the features of each are outlined.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

By the end of this unit, you are expected to be able to:

•   define journalism;
•   state the functions of a newspaper headline;
•   name and explain the different types of headlines;
•   list and explain some grammatical features of headlines;
•   list and explain the wording features of headlines;
•   explain what a lead means;
•   state the function and characteristics of newspaper lead;
•   list and explain the different types of lead; and
•   Extract these features from local newspapers.

HOW TO STUDY THE UNIT

a.   Read this unit as diligently as possible.

b.   Find meaning of unfamiliar words in the unit using your dictionary.

c.   As you read, put major points down in a piece of paper or jotter.

d.   Do not go to the next section until you have fully understood the section you are reading now.

e.   Do all the Self-Assessment exercises in the unit as honestly as you can. In some areas where it is not feasible to provide answers to Self-Assessment exercises, go to the relevant sections of the unit to derive the answers.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   What is Journalism?

Journalism is the investigation and reporting of events, issues, and trends to a broad audience. Although there is much variation within journalism, the ideal is to inform the citizenry. Besides covering organizations and institutions such as government and business, journalism also covers cultural aspects of society such as arts and entertainment. The field includes jobs such as editing, photojournalism, and electronic documentary or features in print.

Journalism instructors often state that broadcast news-writing is supposed to sound just like everyday speech. In essence, however, writing broadcast news is more akin to writing song lyrics. Both tasks involve constructing language in a *visual* form (writing) for communication in an *oral* form (speaking or singing). Like song lyrics, broadcast news-writing adheres to patterns of language use (such as appropriate vocabulary and formulaic sentence-structure) that the audience expects to hear and will use in interpreting the communication. It includes simple sentences and ways of writing other features such as headlines, leads, use of abbreviations, journalistic coinages and others.

3.2   Headlines: Functions and Types

You can be a better reader if you know what to expect in a newspaper. For example, when you read a newspaper you usually look quickly at the headlines first. Newspaper headlines have a language of their own and it is necessary to learn about it.

3.2.1 Functions of Headlines

(a)   Outlining the News: Essence of the News: A newspaper usually has dozens of pages. It is unimaginable that a common reader

should read the newspaper word by word from the very beginning to the end. Readers read the paper to their taste. Thus, headlines are a "guide" for them, for headlines are the essence of the news to read.

(b) Beautifying the Format of the Newspaper Pages: Headlines help to clarify news articles respectively in the paper to make the pages attractive for readers.

3.2.2 Types of Headlines

Newspaper headlines can be classified into several types:

(a) **Straight headlines** give you the main topic of the story. They are the most common type of headline and are the easiest to understand.
> *INEC gets parties' nod to shift polls till April*
> *Ribadu: PDP will go*

(b) **Headlines that ask a question** report a future possibility or offer some doubt about the truth or accuracy of the story.
> *Can technology fix ballot woes?*
> *EFCC: Forcing governors to play ball?*

(c) **Headlines that contain a quotation** which is important or which shows that a statement is not proven.
> *Oni is to blame for Ekiti's woes*
> *We won't quit*

(d) **Double headlines** are two-part headlines for the same story and are often used for major events.
> *How Express broke diplomatic silence*
> *HUSH-UP ON "SPY" ENVOYS*

(e) **Feature headlines** are used for stories that are either highly unusual or amusing. Headlines for such stories try to be as clever as possible to catch the reader's interest.
> *Dead student fell under the crush during clashes*

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

i. What is journalism?
ii. Name two functions of a headline.
iii. What do you understand by straight and double headlines? Give two examples of each from your local Newspaper.
iv. Write short notes on any other three types of headlines you know.

3.3 Features of Headlines

Please read the following headlines:
> *Moscow official wounded by gunmen*
> *Earthquake rocks Turkey*

Husband to sue wife
Boy on cliff rescued
Young Sudanese refugees endured famine, separations from family

From the above, we can see two prominent features of English newspaper headlines:

(a)   Headlines are almost always in the present tense and even future events are put in the present tense.
(b)   Headlines generally omit unnecessary words, especially articles and the verb to be, and is often replaced by a comma.

3.3.1 Grammatical Features of Headlines

i.   Omission: Omission of grammatical words or functional words, such as articles, conjunction of 'and', link verb of 'to be', etc. Examples:

➢   Top Indian Hotel Angry at BBC *instead of A* top Indian hotel *is* angry at *the* BBC.
➢   NBC's President Seeks Big Acquisitions, Ventures for Network = *The* NBC's president seeks big acquisitions *and* ventures for *the* network.
➢   Mother, Daughter Share Fulbright Year
       = *A* mother *and her* daughter share *a* Fulbright Year.)
➢   Three Dead After Inhaling Over Gas
➢   Financier Killed by Burglars
➢   Move to Ban Tobacco Advertising
➢   TB on the Rise Again in China
➢   Four Killed and Five Hurt In a House Fire

ii.   Tenses: The frequent tenses used in the headline are the simple present, the simple future and the present progressive, whether it is of the past event. This is used in order to add to its freshness and immediacy. Examples:

➢   Longevity Star *Dies* at 110
➢   Largest Chinese Trade Delegation *to Visit* US in Nov.
➢   Deposits, Loans *Rising* in HK
➢   Sun *Faces* Charge Over 'Racist' Cartoon
➢   Voices: Passive voice in the headline is often represented without the auxiliary verb 'be' or 'by' phrase. Only the bare past participle will do. Example:
➢   Two Workmen Injured in Electrical Accident

iii.   Punctuations

➢   Comma often functions as the conjunction 'and'. Example:
        China, Japan Seek More Ways
➢   Dash is often functioned as quotes, introducing the speaker or the
        source. Example:

Economy Grows Slowly as Unemployment, Inflation Rise —Economists

➢   Colon is often functioned as 'saying' or the conjunction of link
        verb 'be'. Example:

        Bush: US Vows to Combat Terrorists
        Chinese Acrobats: Masters of Stunts
Other features include the combination of direct and indirect speech in
news reporting. You get passive sentences like:

        it is alleged that ….
        there has been some speculation …
        an eye-witness reported that …
        a spokesman for the family claimed …
        is currently under investigation …
        several previous convictions …

3.3.2 Wording Features of the Headlines

(i) Short and Simple, But Not Lengthy: Short, simple and concrete
     words are often applied in the headlines to create vividness and
     accuracy. Examples:

        (a)   US Refuses to Back Environment Fund
        (b)   Europe Hold Talks to End Tension in Yugoslavia
        (c)   World Eyes Mid-East Peace Talk
        (d)   Allowance to Be Cut in 200,000 Families

Below are some words used in journalism and their meanings:

Words for Your Reference (1): Verbs

Words	Meaning	Words	Meaning	Words	Meaning
aid	help / assist	alter	change	ask	inquire
assail	denounce	axe	dismiss/ reduce	back	support
ban	prohibit / forbid	bar	prevent	bare	expose / reveal / disclose
blast	explode	begin	commence	bid	attempt
bilk	cheat	bolt	desert/ abandon	boost	Increase

buy	purchase	check	examine	claim	cause the death of
clash	disagree strongly	curb	control/ restrict	cut	reduce
dip	decline/ decrease	due	schedule	ease	reduce/ lessen
edict	decree/ proclamation	end	terminate	eye	watch with interest
face	confront	fire	dismiss	flay	criticize
flout	insult	foil	prevent from	grab	acquire
grib	seize	grill	investigate	gut	destroy
head	direct	hit	criticize	hold	retain/ arrest
hurt	injure	kick	abandon	kill	murder
laud	praise	launch	begin/ commence	loom	happen
lop	diminish	map	work out	mar	damage
mark	celebrate	moot	discuss	mull	study/ consider
nab	arrest	name	appoint/elect/ nominate	net	capture
nip	defeat	nix	deny/ disapprove	nod	approve
opt	choose	oust	Expel	peril	endanger
pledge	promise	plot	conspire	plunge	plummet
poise	ready for action	probe	investigate	prod	instigate
prompt	trigger off	quit	resign/step down	raid	attack/ search
rap	criticize	rage	become violent	raze	destroy
rebuke	criticize	rock	shake violently/ shock	rout	defeat completely
sack	dismiss	shift	transfer	shun	abandon
slay	murder	snub	neglect	soar	skyrocket
spark	encourage	spur	encourage	stall	make no progress
stem	check	study	investigate	swap	exchange
sway	influence	thwart	Obstruct	toe	criticize
top	exceed	trade	exchange	trim	reduce
try	endeavour/ attempt	urge	promote/ advocate	use	Utilize
vie	compete	void	invalidate	voice	express
vow	promise/ determine	wed	Marry	weigh	consider
woo	seek to win				

Words referring to Nouns

Words	Noun referred to	Words	Noun referred to	Words	Noun referred to
ace	champion	aid	assistance	arms	weapons
blast	explosion	blow	injury/ disappointment suffered	body	committee
clash	controversy	cool	uninterested	cop	policeman
crash	collision	deal	agreement/ transaction	dems	democrats
down	decrease	envoy	ambassador	fake	counterfeit
fete	celebration	feud	strong dispute	firm	company
flop	failure	freeze	stabilization	gem	jewel
glut	oversupply	GOP	Grand Old Party	jobless	unemployment
key	essential	link	Connection	loot	money stolen
man	representative	mart	Market	nod	approval
output	production	pact	agreement / treaty	pay	wage / salary
pit	coal mine	plea	request for help	poll	election / public opinion
post	position	probe	investigation	pullout	withdrawal
Reds	communists	riddle	mystery	rift	separation
row	quarrel	set	ready	snag	unexpected difficulty
stance	attitude	statement	dispute that cannot be settle	step	progress
strife	conflict	talk	conference	ties	(diplomatic) relations

3.4   Initials or Acronyms

Another feature of journalistic English includes the use of initials and acronyms. We have different types and they include:

(a)   For organizations and Proper Names:

EEC	European Economic Community
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
CPPCC	Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference
IMF	International Monetary Fund
APGA	All Progressive Grand Alliance

Others are: ASEAN, CIA, CPC, FBI, GATT, IOC, NASA, NATO, NPC, OAU, OPEC, PLO, WHO

(b)   For common things: ABM, EST, GMT, ICBM, PR, SALT, SDI, DJI, UFO

(c)   For professions: MP, PM, VIP, TP, MNI, OON, OFR

Initials in the headlines may not be familiar to the readers. Nonetheless, the complete forms of the initials can usually be found in the lead or understood through the context. Examples:

▪   US Refuses **ME** Talks Date Change

        WASHINGTON - The US administration on Thursday turned down Arab requests for setting a new starting time for the *Middle East* peace talks.

▪   Alumnus Donates 1 Billion Naira to ASUU.

▪   A Nigerian-American doctor donated N1 billion to UCH Ibadan as a special gift to mark the 60th anniversary of the founding of his alma mater.

3.4.1 Shortened Words or Abbreviations

Some commonly used nouns; adjectives are often shortened by clipping to save letters in the headlines, which could be easily detected through the context. Examples:

overseas   co-ops,   hi-tech research   pc (percent),
grad (graduate)   hosp (hospital) bn (billion)   cig (cigarette)

Abbreviations and their full forms

Abbreviations	Full forms	Abbreviations	Full forms	Abbreviations	Full forms
ad	advertisement	auto	automobile	bach	bachelor
biz	business	celeb	celebrity	champ	champion
con	convict	deli	delicatessen	divi	diviend
disco	discotheque	doc	doctor	dorm	dormitory
exam	examination	expo	exposition	frat	fraternity
gas	gasoline	gym	gymnasium	homo	homosexual
Japs	Japanese	lab	laboratory	lav	lavatory
mag	magazine	lib	liberation	memo	memorandum
mod	modern	pic	picture	pix	pictures
pro	professional	rail	railway	rep	representative
Russ	Russia	sec	secretary	sub	Subway / submarine
van	vanguard	vet	veteran	uni	university
cello	violoncello	chute	parachute	coon	racoon
copter	helicopter	dozer	bulldozer	gator	alligator
quake	earthquake	wig	periwig	flu	influenza
fridge	refrigerator	tec	detective	vic	Convict
Nat'l	national	nat	nationalist	heliport	Helicopter airport

motel	motor hotel	Int'l	international	dept	department
Com'l	commercial	C'tee	committee	cric	Critic
C'wealth	Common Wealth	bike	bicycle	mike	microphone
pram	perambulator	Co-ed	Female college student	Aussie	Australian
bookie	bookmaker	hanky	handkerchief	telly	television

3.5   Journalistic Coinages

Journalistic coinages are often made up of a phrase by saving some syllables in order to make a compound. Examples:

> smog   smoke fog;
> newscast   news broadcast;
> atobomb   atom bomb;
> blacketeer   black marketer;
> fruice   fruit juice;
> slanguage   slang language;
> politburo   polical bureau;
> teleceiver   television receiver;
> Euromart   European Common Market;
> stagflation   stagnation and inflation;
> Euromissiles   European-based missiles
> cinemanufacturer   cinema manufacturer;

Notes: Witticism or pun is often seen in the headlines, example, Chinese Climbers Hold Summit Talks

3.6   Lead

3.6.1 Functions and Characteristics of the Lead

Lead distinguishes news from other forms of literature. Usually lead refers to the first paragraph or first few paragraphs including the latest, foremost intriguing facts. It is either to summarize, or to outline, or to brief the news in order to lead the readers to the depth of the story. Western journalists regard the lead as the cream of the news as well as a show window of their writing style. It states the who, where, how and when of an event or item of news.

(a)   **Succinct:** Being brief, simple, plain, and concise, a lead is usually of about 25 words or at most 35 words by one sentence.
(b)   **Informative:** A lead should tell us of the essence of the news within the fewest words.
(c)   **Intriguing:** Try to attract the readers' interest through its wording. Now try to compare the following examples.

1)   Police Chief I. W. Ringim announced today two children were killed outside Eagle Square, at Tafawa Belewa Ave., when a "heartless terrorists" left bomb in an abandoned vehicle near the square at about 11: 30 am.

2)   Two children were killed and 12 others injured today at Abuja bomb blast

3)   Two children at play were killed and 12 others injured today when a speeding sports car jumped the curb outside Prospect Park and ran them down.

3.6.2 Types and Features of the Lead

(a)   Summary lead or roundup lead

▪   Parties yesterday endorsed the proposal by the Independent National Electoral Commission (INEC) to shift the general election from January to April, 2011.

(d)   Main fact lead

▪   Sixteen-year-old Li Hongmei has become China's most successful heart transplant patient.

(e)   Descriptive lead

▪   Old women sit stoically on cots, and portly men sweat in the heat, oblivious to the youngsters at play around them. This camp for Bosnian refugees is in Vienna, but it could be almost anywhere in central Europe.

(f)   Direct address lead or personal lead

▪   This is my first dispatch from China in 22 years. The news I have to report would have been incredible only a few weeks ago—— Americans are welcome in the People's Republic.

▪   If you live another 50 years, you will probably be a millionaire.

However, a loaf of bread will cost #1000, a car #10,000,000 and a home #50,000,000 million.

(g)   Quotation lead

▪   "These people tried to loot and burn our city and we intend to make them pay for it," said Lang, the tough-talking governor of Plateau State.

(h)   **Suspense lead**

▪   Two weeks ago, the senator bought a stack of guidebooks to Obudu Ranch, planning a cross-country trip she and her husband were to begin today. Senator Funke, days later, she bought a coffin.

(i)   Delayed lead or multi-paragraph lead

▪   **Lagos** — When the match was over the couch, the Super Eagles, just did not want to return to Lagos.
▪   She stayed on long after the dishes were cleared off, admiring the blue tablecloth, the fresh yellow tulip on it and marvelling about the food she had just eaten: Nigerian returnee from Libyan War.
▪   "We had three courses today," said the poverty-stricken pensioner, one of the first to partake of the Nigerian humanitarian aid that began arriving here Monday by the planeload. "We've never had that much before."

(j)   Contrast lead

▪   While nine survivors of the Sosoliso plane crash last Friday have recovered sufficiently to be out of danger, six others who survived initially died to raise the death to 106.

(k)   Question lead

▪   How long could communication magnet resist the pull of the rag trade?
▪   There were no plans when the former queen of the local boutique scene won the franchise for the Body Shops in Silverbird Mall last year.

(l)   Anecdotal lead

▪   At 14, Kent Conrad figured he'd be ready for the Senate in 1986 or 1988. twenty-four years later, Conrad laughs at the memory. At 38, about to become North Dakota's new senator, he says "I guess I was a serious kid."

(m)   Combined lead or multiple element lead

▪   Riot police were involved in further clashes with a crowd of about 300 early today as "bread riots" in the Ely district of Cardiff broke out again for the third night running.

(n)   **Label lead or empty lead**

- The president of the United States, Barack Obama will meet the Nigeria president, Goodluck Jonathan during a visit to Africa next week, Nigerian Television Authority said Tuesday. The report could not be confirmed.

4.0   CONCLUSION

Journalistic English is apt, simple and catchy. The aim has always been to attract attention. The importance of journalism in modern society has been testified to by the establishment of schools of journalism at most of the world's leading universities.

5.0   SUMMARY

This unit has examined the meaning and features of journalistic English as a genre. Prominent and important to all news writing are the headlines and the lead. The unit has examined the types and features of the headline and the lead. It is expected that as an ESP practitioner, you will be able to design a course for would-be journalists, giving them what to expect at the target situation

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Discuss the grammatical features of a newspaper headline.

7.0   REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 4   ENGLISH FOR SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY (EST)

CONTENTS

1.0   Introduction
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3.0   Main Content
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6.0   Tutor-Marked Assignment
7.0   References/Further Reading

1.0   INTRODUCTION

EST is a style of writing as a result of the development of science and technology. It is characterized by soundness in logic and accuracy in thinking. This kind of writing is usually formal in style and serious in tone. It does not take artistic beauty of language as its goal. Instead, it tries to achieve clarity in logic and accuracy in meaning. Thus, it has its own stylistic features, which are different from the literary English and other English styles. There are many prominent stylistic features on different levels of language as we can see from the following analysis.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- explain the graphological, lexical and syntactic nature/features of English for Science and Technology (EST);
- explain what is meant by context;
- list the contextual factors and explain each of them;
- analyse a chosen EST passage linguistically; and
- analyse another passage contextually.

HOW TO STUDY THE UNIT

  a.   Read this unit as diligently as possible.
  b.   Find meaning of unfamiliar words in the unit using your dictionary.
  c.   As you read, put major points down in a piece of paper or jotter.

d.   Do not go to the next section until you have fully understood the section you are reading now.
e.   Do all the Self-Assessment exercises in the unit as honestly as you can. In some areas where it is not feasible to provide answers to Self-Assessment exercises, go to the relevant sections of the unit to derive the answers.

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   Features of English for Science and Technology (EST)

3.1.1 At the Graphological Level

In EST, the writing form varies a little. It is used as a convenient and communicative medium to convey the latest information in science and technology and exchange academic achievements concerning this field. As a result, this kind of writing is formal in style. Only so, it can clearly communicate the information to the people who are interested in it.

A.   Punctuation

The punctuations can help readers to have a better understanding of sentence structures and the whole meanings the passages convey. So the punctuations in EST are very beneficial to the readers when they are reading such texts.

In the following passage, we can find that the punctuation mark comma is used more frequently than in other types of writings. Yet, the question mark is never used. Thus, it shows that the sentences in this kind of English style are quite long. Also, the sentences are not interrogative sentences but totally declarative sentences. As a result of these, the structures in EST are tightly organized and its subject matters are quite single. As we all know, it is used to convey scientific information, but not to exchange feelings, which the interrogative sentences, the exclamatory sentences and the imperative sentences are quite easily used to convey.

B.   Paragraphing

In EST, the sentences are quite long, and in each sentence, there are a lot of words. This is because this kind of style aims to describe the scientific facts, explain the scientific phenomena, and conclude the scientific conceptions. It needs a certain number of words and sentences to communicate the information to the users. So, it has formed such sort of long sentences and a great many paragraphs.

3.1.2 At the lexical level

A.   Use of Long and Big Words

In EST passages, long words are quite frequently used, such as investigation, determination, assumption, and so on. These words are very suitable for the English for science and technology, because they can express the meaning in a more accurate way. These words are in accordance with the requirements of the scientific English that it tries to avoid the ambiguity in words or expressions.

B.   Use of Prepositional Phrases

EST passages also have quite a lot of prepositional phrases, especially the preposition "of". The prepositional phrases can make the sentences organized more closely and the structures understood easily.

C.   Use of Nominal Words

Nominal words such as "motion, investigation, and separation" are used many times. Such kinds of words indicate the formality of the text, and make much information combined together closely coherently and logically.

Science and technology is a formal and objective subject, which cannot use the ambiguous words. In other styles, verbs, adjectives, and some other words act as the grammatical components, while in EST, it is often the nominal words that are quite often used instead of the verbs and adjectives.

D.   Frequent Use of Technical Terms

Technical terms are frequently used. Some of these are many commonly used words in the ordinary English style. However, in the domain of science and technology, they are used differently in meaning and have special meaning different from what we usually see and understand. So they could make the information and the content more scientific and well-knit. Here, these words "branch, rigid, force, body, parts, flexible, etc" are such examples to be used in a different manner in meaning from that in the other types of English writing.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

i.   What can you say about punctuation and paragraphing in EST?
ii.   Describe the use of words in EST.

3.1.3 At the Syntactical/Grammatical Level

A.   Frequent use of the passive voice

In EST passages, the passive voices are frequently used. In physics, chemistry, and engineering textbooks, one third of all finite verbs are passive voice. In EST, passive voice occurs quite frequently, becomes one of the important devices to making the text objective and standard. Since the scientific style attaches more importance to facts, phenomena, or processes, and also it is not interested in the doers of the action but in results achieved, passive voice, is therefore employed to stress the objects and the contents of the sentences.

B.   Frequent use of declarative sentences

Coherence in logic, clarity and fluency in expression are typical of the scientific English, therefore, the declarative sentences have a high proportion in EST. The author of EST does not express his own feelings, because EST tries to avoid subjective opinions or evaluations. The agents of the actions could be anybody in many cases. Besides, the focus of the text is not on the people or the agents but on the objective phenomena and the information itself.

C.   Frequent use of the present tense

The scientific disciplines and phenomena are not restricted by time. For this reason, the present tense appears almost throughout EST passages. The word "will" is used for judging or guessing but not for the future tense.

D.   Frequent Use of Long Sentences

According to the statistic research conducted by QIAN Yuan (1991), the average simple sentence in all English styles includes 17.8 words but in most EST passages, the average word in each sentence is 24.4. This indicates that the sentence length in EST is longer than that in other types of English styles. EST is a functional style. It is used to express the complicated thoughts and logical relationships. As a result of these, the long sentences are frequently put into use.

E.   Frequent Use of Complex Sentences

The majority of the sentences found in EST passages are complex sentences. The sentences are usually long and complete. There is no need to bother unduly with stylistic elegance. Therefore, the sentence patterns vary a little. The relative pronouns "which" and "that" appear

numerously in the scientific and technical passages. In order to enhance the objectivity and the accuracy of the information, such sentences are frequently used in the passage.

3.2   Contextual Factors Analysis

Context refers to all elements of a communicative situation: the verbal and nonverbal context, the context of a given speech situation, and the social context of the relationship between the speaker and the hearer, their knowledge and their attitude. So as to have a detailed understanding of the stylistic features the EST passages have, it is not sufficient to just describe the passage linguistically. Because any kind of styles could be understood clearly and correctly on the basis of a certain situation or setting in which the passage takes place, it is necessary to analyze the passage's style in a contextual situation. According to functional stylistics, contextual factors include the following aspects:

3.2.1 Field of Discourse

Field of discourse exerts great influence on the vocabulary and sentence patterns of the language used. Further studies have discovered two aspects embraced in "field of discourse". One is the subject matter; the other is the nature of the activity. These two factors have great impact on the stylistic features.

EST passages can be seen as scientific discourse in English. Science should not make many mistakes. The subject matter is concerned with the scientific information which is objective. No doubt, the nature of scientific activity is objective. The objectivity plays a critical part in choosing the vocabulary and the grammar the language uses. This linguistic function makes the EST unique and distinctive from other types of writing in style. For example, the technical terms and the passive voice are used frequently in such passages, which rightly fulfil the requirements of the objectivity the EST needs.

3.2.2 Tenor of Discourse

Tenor of discourse refers to the relations among the participants in a discourse (Halliday, 1964). It chiefly concerns the degree of formality of the language in use. The scientific professionals play an important role in the scientific activities or conferences. They use the EST as convenient media to convey the latest scientific information and exchange the scientific achievements with each other. In addition to the professionals, there are other groups of people who are interested in this subject or have received higher education.

EST is characterized by declarative sentences and the use of present tense. The participants in the scientific field could not express their own feelings in a subjective way. Otherwise, they would not be able to convey the scientific information to the public. EST differs from the literary English, which includes so many parts of speech to show the author's subjective opinions and evaluations.

3.2.3 Mode of Discourse

Mode of discourse "refers to the medium or the kind of the language activity, and it is this that determines or rather correlates with, the role played by the language activity in the situation" (Halliday, 1964:91). To be more explicit, language style varies with different communicative channels. EST is written English and informative English in style. The two parties in the communicative process communicate their information through the visual medium. Its communication could be limited by the communicative channels. Therefore, any passage of EST, the long and complex sentences and the declarative sentences are used frequently to indicate clarity and accuracy in contents and avoid the ambiguity in words or expressions.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

i.   What is context?
ii.   List and explain three contextual factors you have studied.

4.0   CONCLUSION

EST is to account, exchange, and communicate the scientific information as its main aim. So, as an informative style, EST is characterized by its accuracy and logic. It is a matter of fact English devoid of the feelings and biases of the author. We must analyze its stylistic features deeply and in detail, then we could make an effective achievement with little efforts when we study or use the English for science and technology.

5.0   SUMMARY

EST is analyzed from the two perspectives: linguistic descriptions and contextual factors. While the linguistic features talk about the form, words and sentence structure, the contextual features discuss the social context of the relationship between the speaker and the hearer, their knowledge and their attitude. So as to have a detailed understanding of the stylistic features the EST passages have. The features listed above are quite representative in the English for science and technology.

6.0   TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

i.   From what you have learnt so far, choose any passage from any scientific textbook and give a detailed linguistic analysis of it.
ii.   Using another passage, make a contextual analysis of EST.

7.0   REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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