

ENG 352: DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

MODULE 1 DISCOURSE ANALYSIS: INTRODUCTORY ASPECTS

Unit 1	Discourse Analysis: An Introduction
Unit 2	Major Concepts in Discourse Analysis
Unit 3	Kinds of Discourse

UNIT 1 DISCOURSE ANALYSIS: AN INTRODUCTION

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

Prior to the advent of Discourse Analysis (henceforth DA), the predominant practice was to analyse language according to the structure without much regards for the context and other features that shape meaning. DA started by focusing on speech, mainly naturally-occurring conversation. Contrary to the traditional practice, DA studies naturally-occurring instances of language use beyond the sentence boundary. So, unlike most traditional linguistic analyses, the text is not invented. This is to underscore the importance of context in language use.

Linguists have identified two major approaches to language: formalism and functionalism. Formalism sees language as a mental phenomenon and tends to explain linguistic universals as deriving from a common genetic linguistic inheritance of the human species. Formalists are inclined to explain children's acquisition of language in terms of a built-in human capacity to learn language. Functionalists regard language primarily as a societal phenomenon and tend to explain it in relation to the social

institution from where the language derives. The approach to DA is functionalist approach.

In this Unit, we shall look at the concept of discourse, which is what linguists analyze when they do DA. We shall also look at the origin of the discipline and the earliest practices in DA.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this introductory unit you should be able to do the following:

- define Discourse Analysis;
- describe what Discourse Analysis does;
- explain the origin of Discourse Analysis; and
- explain some earliest practices of Discourse Analysis.

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 Discourse Analysis?

DA has a very strong link with many other disciplines other than language and this affects the way scholars see the discipline. In this section, we shall examine some views of DA.

Before trying to define DA, it is important to define the term discourse. Originally the word 'discourse' comes from Latin '*discursus*' which denotes 'conversation, speech'. Discourse is generally seen as "language in use." Johnstone (2002: 2) defines discourse as "actual instances of communication in the medium of language." Discourse can also be seen as a continuous stretch of spoken or written language larger than a sentence, often constituting a coherent unit (Pustejovsky 2006). It is also commonly referred to a connected speech or writing. The term discourse has several definitions. In the study of language, discourse often refers to the speech patterns and usage of language, dialects, and acceptable statements, within a community. It is a

subject of study in peoples who live in secluded areas and share similar speech conventions.

Johnson (2002) defines discourse as an institutionalized way of speaking that determines not only what we say and how we say it, but also what we do not say which can be inferred from what we say. Initially, the term refers to speech, but later, its meaning extends beyond speech to include every instance of language use.

Sociologists and philosophers tend to use the term discourse to describe the conversations and the meaning behind them by a group of people who hold certain ideas in common. Such is the definitions by philosopher Michel Foucault, who holds discourse to be the acceptable statements made by a certain type of discourse community.

For linguists, discourse is an extended stretch of language, such as we find in conversations, narratives, polemical statements, political speeches, etc., is not just a string of sentences, one following the other, but rather it exhibits properties which reflect its organization, coherence, rhetorical force, thematic focus, etc.

DA is generally viewed as language above the sentence or the clause. It is the aspect of linguistics that is concerned with how we build up meaning in larger communicative, rather than grammatical units. It studies meaning in text, paragraph and conversation, rather than in single sentence.

Stubbs (1983:1) describes DA thus:

The term discourse analysis is very ambiguous. I will use it in this book to refer mainly to the linguistic analysis of naturally occurring connected speech or written discourse. Roughly speaking, it refers to attempts to study the organization of language above the sentence or above the clause, and therefore to study larger linguistic units, such as conversational exchanges or written texts. It follows that discourse analysis is also concerned with language use in social contexts, and in particular with interaction or dialogue between speakers.

Brown and Yule (1983) observe that DA examines "how addressers construct linguistic messages for addressees and how addressees work on linguistic messages in order to interpret them."

From this description of DA by Stubbs, the following important information about the discipline obtains:

- (a) DA studies naturally-occurring connected speech or written discourse.
- (b) DA studies language above the sentence or clause.
- (c) DA is concerned with language use in social context.

Every instance of language use is situated in a particular social context, which determines the kind of meaning communicated. There are contextual features that

shape the kind of language people use. These include: the interactants themselves, their discourse roles, the physical environment of the discourse, the worldview and cultural practices in the domain of the discourse, and so forth. DA looks at the language together with these features in order to interpret meaning. This is why any good DA will generate data based on observation and intuition of the language users. Discourse analysts analyze conversations (casual, telephone, gossip, *etc*), speeches (campaigns, formal speeches delivered by political figures, *etc*), written discourse (novels, plays, news, written speeches, editorials, *etc*).

Discourse analysis is concerned not only with complex utterances by one speaker, but more frequently with the turn-taking interaction between two or more, and with the linguistic rules and conventions that are taken to be in play and governing such discourses in their given context. The overall goal of any DA is to explain how language users construct and interpret meaning in discourse.

3.2 Origin of Discourse Analysis

The term Discourse Analysis was first used by Zellig Harris in 1952 in a paper he published then. Harris was an American structural linguist, Harris did not use the term in the sense it is now commonly used. Later in the 1960s and 1970s, scholars started using the term to describe an approach to the study of social interaction. The earliest discourse analysts were ethnographers, anthropologists and sociologists.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Describe what in your own words what discourse analysts do.

3.3 Earliest Studies of Discourse Analysis

The earliest studies of Discourse Analysis were done by people in other disciplines namely, sociologists, anthropologists and ethnologists. Their major concern then was not language, but social interaction. They developed a method for investigating such interaction, which they called **Ethnomethodology**. The proponent of this method is Harold Grafinkel an American sociologist.

Other scholars who were inspired by ethno methodologists focused their attention on how the conversation is ordered and structured. Their method is called **Conversational Analysis**. They observe and describe the sequential patterning of conversation. The key figures in this school of thought are Emmanuel Schegloff, Harvey Sacks and Gail Jeffersons. We shall examine in details the methods of Ethnomethodology and Conversational Analysis later in this course.

Much later, linguists who perceive language as a social phenomenon got interested in analyzing discourse from that perspective. They see Linguistics as a sub-branch of Sociology, as opposed to another school of thought, which sees Linguistics as a sub-branch of Psychology (The Transformational Generative grammarians).

The first major attempt to analyze discourse from the perspective of Linguistics was done by John Sinclair and Michael Coulthard of the University of Birmingham in the UK. They analysed the language used by teachers and pupils in the secondary school and proposed a five-point discourse rank scale for analyzing discourse. After these scholars, other scholars in the Birmingham School have followed their theory.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Discourse Analysis is the approach to language that focuses on the use of discourse in society and the role context plays in the interpretation of discourse. Unlike earlier approaches before it, it examines naturally occurring texts, such as conversation and written texts. The goal is to bring out the salient discourse features in such texts. Though started by non-linguists, it has in recent times become a very popular approach in linguistic analysis. Its use is not only limited to linguists. Scholars in other disciplines also find Discourse Analysis relevant, since discourse is often seen as a social practice that exists in all facets of human endeavour.

5.0 SUMMARY

A background issue on Discourse Analysis was our focus in this unit. We started by looking at what we mean by the term “Discourse” and the discipline “Discourse Analysis.” Afterwards, we traced the origin of Discourse Analysis from its earliest times to Anthropologists and Sociologists, whose goal was just to look at how the society is organized through the use of discourse. Linguists later got involved in the practice. Lastly, we examined the earliest practices of Ethnomethodology and Conversational Analysis.

6.0. TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Identify the key figures in Ethnomethodology and Conversational Analysis and discuss in details the practices of ethno methodologists and conversational analysts.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Brown, G. and Yule, G. (1983). *Discourse Analysis*. Cambridge: CUP

Johnstone, B. (2002). *Discourse Analysis*. Blackwell Publishers.

Olaofe, I. A. (2012). *Discourse Analysis and Pragmatics*. Zaria: ABU, Press Ltd.

Osisanwo, W. (2005). *Introduction to Discourse Analysis and Pragmatics*. Lagos: Femolous-Fetop Publishers.

Pustejovsky, James (2006). *Language as Action*. Accessed from edu/~jamesp/classes/usem40a06/slides/DiscourseAnalysis.ppt – on January 2 2008.

UNIT 2 SOME MAJOR CONCEPTS IN DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

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 - 3.2 Context
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

In this unit, we shall be examining selected basic concepts used in Discourse Analysis. These concepts will lay the foundations for many other things we shall be discussing later in the course. We shall be examining two all important concepts: text and context. Since discourse is both writing and speech, we shall look at the nature of written and spoken discourse briefly.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- identify some basic concepts in DA;
- define these concepts and give appropriate examples to support you definition;
and
- differentiate between speech and writing.

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 Text

Speech and writing are the primary medium of language use. A text is an instance of language in use. It ranges from a word to a large chunk of language. Sometimes, people associate text with just written language, but text is any instance of language use. A text could be a statement, an utterance, a sentence, a paragraph, a whole chapter, a news item, a conversation, and so forth. One aspect of Linguistics that studies written text is called *Text linguistics*. Text linguistics tends to focus on the patterns of how information flows within and among sentences by looking at aspects of texts like *coherence*, *cohesion*, the distribution of topics and comments, and other discourse structures. Much like Syntax is concerned with the structure of sentences, Text linguistics is concerned with the structure of texts.

One of the criteria of a text identified by Halliday and Hasan (1976) is that it must form “a unified whole.” A text may be spoken, written, prose, or verse, dialogue, or monologue. It may be anything from a proverb to a whole play, from a momentary cry for help to an all-day discussion on a committee (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 1). A text is best regarded as a semantic unit. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), a text has a texture and this is what distinguishes it from something that is not a text. It derives its texture from the fact that it functions as a unity with respect to its context.

3.2 Context

The word context is a commonly used expression, which may mean different things to different people. Its general meaning is the set of facts that surrounds a particular event or situation. From the linguistic point of view, context is everything that surrounds the production of a piece of communication. These include the physical situation in which the communication takes place, the interactants or interlocutors, the knowledge of the communicators of their cultural norms and expected behaviour, and the expressions that precede and follow a particular expression. All these features of context help language speakers to interpret meaning appropriately. Linguists are particularly interested in the linguistic context of any form of language use.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Discuss the role of context in the construction of a text.

3.3 Speech and Writing

Speech and writing are the primary medium of language use. Speech however is the oldest form of language use and writing is said to be a derived form of speech. The fact that there are still a good number of languages that do not have any written form is a pointer to the fact that speech predates language in human history. Gestures are also forms of language, but they are seen by linguists as primarily complementing

speech. There is a branch of Linguistics that studies signs, and this branch is called **Semiotics**. In this section, we shall look through some of the features of speech and writing and how they are studied in Discourse Analysis.

Speech is the primary medium of human communication. It can be said to be as old as human existence. Children automatically learn to speak because there is an inbuilt mechanism in humans that makes them to acquire whichever language is spoken in their immediate environment. Most people speak more than they write, because every human society builds relationships through speech. Speech simply refers to oral medium of transmission of language. It is the meaningful oral sound produced through the use of our respiratory, phonatory and articulatory system and perceived by our auditory system. Humans express thoughts, feelings, and ideas orally to one another through a series of complex articulation, which results in specific, decodable sounds. Speech is produced by precisely coordinated muscle actions in the head, neck, chest, and abdomen. Speech development is a gradual process that requires years of practice. During this process, a child learns how to regulate these muscles to produce understandable speech. Speech is spontaneous, so it is characterized by repetitions of speech sounds, hesitations before and during communication, and the prolonged emphasis of speech sounds. Speech, especially a casual one is susceptible to errors or slips, hence the expression “slip of the tongue.” This occurs when we say things we do not intend to say. Speakers many times self-correct their speech, when they are aware that they did not produce the correct utterance. People’s origin and identity are very often recognized from their speech. They either speak with a particular accent or intonation. Most times when people speak, one is able to identify their social roles and gender. Speech is transient and time bound which basically means that when someone speaks to you, it doesn’t really stay in your memory for that long which gives it a disadvantage. Certain human behaviours aid speech. They include body language, gesture and facial expressions and people use these modes without even realizing it. Speaking is as fundamental a part of being human as walking upright but writing is an optional extra.

Writing, on the other hand, is a product of a more careful thought, so it is expected as much as possible to be flawless. It is not a spontaneous act rather, it is a well thought out process. Children have to be taught how to write any particular language, even their mother tongue. Unlike speech that uses the medium of phonic substance, writing uses the medium of graphic substance. Written words can be chosen with greater deliberation and thought, and a written argument can be extraordinarily sophisticated, intricate, and lengthy. These attributes of writing are possible because the pace of involvement is controlled by both the writer and the reader. The writer can write and rewrite at great length, a span of time, which in some cases can be measured in years. In writing, there is a time lag between the production and reception, while in speech, the reception is instant and extra linguistic cues help the listener to interpret. Writing is more associated with formality than speech. The chances are that we write more often to people we are less familiar with than the ones we are familiar.

4.0 CONCLUSION

The major concepts in Discourse Analysis discussed in this Unit are meant to help you to understand what we shall be spending our time discussing in the better part of this course. They are concepts you will come across from time to time and a good grounding in them will help you to interpret them whenever you come across them in future in any of the modules ahead of this.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this Unit, we have examined some major concepts which are meant to help to be more grounded in the whole course. Such concepts are widely used in other disciplines, but what we have been able to do in this Unit is to explain them as they are used in the field of language study. Text and context are very important concepts in discourse. While text is what we analyze, context helps us to understand the text better, thereby having a more accurate interpretation.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Write a detailed essay with adequate illustrations on the difference between speech and writing.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Halliday, M. A. K., & Hasan, R. (1985). *Language, context, and text: aspects of language in a social-semiotic perspective*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Olaofe, I. A. (2012). *Discourse Analysis and Pragmatics*. Zaria: ABU, Press Ltd.

Osisanwo, W. (2005). *Introduction to Discourse Analysis and Pragmatics*. Lagos: Femolous-Fetop Publishers.

UNIT 3 KINDS OF DISCOURSE

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- 3.0 Main Content
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 - 3.5 Written Discourse
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- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

This Unit introduces you to the kinds of discourse. The term discourse is so widely applied that we need to delimit it and identify some of the kinds of discourse that discourse analysts are particularly interested in. Such types of discourse include: spoken discourses, such as: monologue, dialogue, multilogue and conversation. We shall also look at written discourse and the different types, and lastly, interpersonal discourse.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- identify the different kinds of discourse;
- explain the peculiarities of each type of discourse; and
- discuss how spoken discourse is different from written discourse.

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 Spoken Discourse

A spoken discourse is any discourse that is verbalized or spoken. It is also generally referred to as speech. Every language is spoken, so every social activity we are involved in where speech is used is referred to as spoken discourse. Some examples of spoken discourse are: casual conversation, sermon, political campaign, symposium, public lecture, classroom discourse, doctor-patient discourse, telephone exchange, service encounter, sports commentaries, *etc.* Though a spoken discourse is essentially verbal, certain non-verbal behaviour helps speakers to interpret the discourse. They include our facial gestures, body movements and other sounds uttered that are not necessarily regarded as speech.

Spoken discourse takes place in different forms. We have face-to-face discourse in which the speakers are together physically. Apart from this, we have distance communication, in which though the speakers are not necessarily together physically, they are still able to transmit their voice through some other media like: radio, telephone, and so forth.

3.2 Monologue

Monologue refers to a speech situation in which an individual is doing the talking for a long time either to himself or to other people who are not responding. *The Wikipedia Dictionary* defines monologue as “an extended, uninterrupted speech by one person only. The person may be speaking his or her thoughts aloud or directly addressing other persons, e.g. an audience, a character, or a reader.” Many times, we get carried away that we express our thoughts aloud even when they are not really addressing some specific people.

Monologue is a basic feature in drama to make the audience or readers to know the thought of a character. This is often referred to as dramatic monologue. However, a dramatic monologue is also called a soliloquy when it refers to a lengthy talk in which a character, alone on stage, expresses his or her thoughts aloud. Soliloquy is often used to reveal thoughts or a feeling that is delivered by a character in a play to him or herself, or directly to the audience.

3.3 Dialogue

A general definition of dialogue is “a conversation between two persons” A dialogue is a discourse that involves 2 or more interlocutors. The roots of the word Dialogue can be traced to the Greek "dia" and "logos" which means "through meaning." In a dialogue, there is an exchange of ideas by the participants. Dialogues have some socio-cultural characteristics, such as the participants listening while the person who has the floor is speaking, respect for differences, with the believe that everyone has an essential contribution to make and is to be honored for the perspective which only

they can bring equality of perspectives, and minimization of interruption as much as possible. A dialogue is not just a situation in which two or more people are interacting, it is a skillful exchange or interaction between people with shared understanding based on their cultural practice and shared world-view. For two or more people to be involved in a dialogue successfully, they must be able to share some sort of understanding about the topic in focus.

3.4 Multilogue

Multilogue on the other hand refers to a situation in which too many people are engaged in conversation at the same time. This may refer to the situation in which many conversations are happening at one time within a chat room. The term is also more commonly used to describe a situation in which many interactants communicate using the aid computer mediated forms, such as online video, message boards, forums, *etc.*

3.5 Conversation

Conversation simply refers to the use of speech for exchange of ideas by two or more people. A conversation may be formal or informal. This is determined by the kind of relationship that exists between the people involved. People involved in a conversation are referred to as **conversationalists** or to use a more technical term **interlocutors**. A conversation is built on certain conventions, such as:

- the people involved do share some common grounds, such as a culture, a belief or norm;
- their conversation is guided by these culture, norms and beliefs;
- the people know that ideas are being shared, so no one dominates, except; they are allowed by convention or the conversationalists; and
- the conversationalists respect one another's views despite their differences.

The whole idea of conversation is based on the understanding that turns have to be taken. We shall soon come to deal more extensively with the term **turn-taking** in conversation.

3.6 Written Discourse

A written discourse is any discourse in which the thoughts of the producer are represented graphically on a surface, such as paper and other media. Initially in the study of Discourse Analysis, written discourse was not considered. The attention then was on the spoken discourse. Written discourse as we have seen earlier is quite different from spoken discourse. It is more carefully constructed and gives a lot of room for correction and possible reconstruction.

Written discourse is organized in such a way that similar ideas are put together in sections of the writing called paragraph and each paragraph can usually be summarized in one sentence, which is generally called the **topic sentence**. Also, each paragraph is linked with the one directly before it and the one after, and all the paragraphs can be seen as a unified whole, which can also be summarized in a sentence.

To make written language easy to read, certain marks are used to punctuate it. These marks are used to indicate where the reader needs to pause for a period of time (full stop and comma), raise the tone of their voice to either show that they are asking a question or that they are surprised. These marks are called **punctuation marks**. They make the written discourse readable in a meaningful way. When punctuation marks are not used in any written discourse, such discourse loses the full meaning that it ought to convey to the reader.

A group of linguists, who developed interest in the study of written discourse in the tradition of Systemic Linguistics, refers to the study of written discourse as **Textlinguistics**. They believe written discourse has certain characteristics, which make them essentially different from spoken discourse. They focus on the **textuality** of the discourse, which is marked by its cohesion and coherence. They also look at the elements that are thematized in a written discourse and how one paragraph relates to the other thematically (thematic progression). Examples of written discourse are: newspaper stories, letters, novels, articles in magazines, editorial in newspapers, *etc.*

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Using adequate examples, differentiate between monologue, dialogue and multilogue.

3.7 Interpersonal Discourse

Interpersonal discourse is the kind of discourse that involves two or more person. One of the commonest forms of interpersonal discourse is a conversation. If you will remember, we earlier dealt with conversation. Interpersonal communication is not restricted to face to face communication; it may also be a feature of written or even distance communication, *e.g.*, telephone discourse, letters, communication through electronic media, such as e-mail, mobile phones, SMS texts and so forth. Interpersonal communication may not necessarily be verbal. They can also be non-verbal, using movements and body positions, such as kinesics, posture, gesture, eye gaze, *etc.* It is important that every human being possess the skills for interpersonal discourse. Such skills help them to build, manage and sustain intimate relationships with other people around them. Interpersonal discourse skills also help us to counsel, negotiate for prices in the market, teach or coach, mentor others and manage conflicts in our relationships and other people's relationships.

To engage successfully in any interpersonal discourse, the people involved must use simple and clear language based on the premise that the other(s) involved in the

discourse will be able to understand. It is more difficult for people from different cultural background to successfully engage in interpersonal discourse even sometimes when they share same language. For instance, a Nigerian English speaker and a Canadian English speaker do not share the same cultural background, yet they speak the same language. When two people from different cultural backgrounds are engaged in interpersonal discourse, they should not base their discourse on too much assumption. Every expression that is likely to be misunderstood must be expressed in simpler terms.

4.0 CONCLUSION

The kinds of discourse were extensively examined in this Unit. They clearly show that the discourse analyst is open to a lot of options in his analysis of both spoken and written discourse. The most essential view of a discourse analyst of these various kinds of discourse is that they are instances of language use in different social contexts; therefore, these social contexts play a prominent role in their interpretation. The discourse analysts do not lose focus of the linguistic peculiarities of the discourse as they examine how the context informs and shapes such peculiarities.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this Unit, we looked at the different kinds of discourse that we can come across in any human social context, such as the various kinds of spoken discourse (monologue, dialogue, multilogue and conversation). Also, we examined the kinds of written discourse. We particularly noted the practice of analyzing written discourse by looking at the devices used for making the text appear as a unified whole and how themes in each paragraph progress.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Identify the key features of a conversation.
2. How is a multilogue different from a conversation?

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Brown, G. and George, Y. (1983) *Discourse Analysis*, Cambridge: CUP.

Coulhard, M. (1977) *Introduction to Discourse Analysis*. London: Longman.

Halliday, M. A. K. (1985). *Spoken and Written Language*, Victoria: Deakin University, 1985.

MODULE 2 APPROACHES TO DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

Unit 1	Ethnomethodology
Unit 2	Conversational Analysis
Unit 3	Linguistic Anthropology

UNIT 1 ETHNOMETHODOLOGY

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5.0	Summary
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

This Unit looks at one of the earliest approaches to Discourse Analysis. The discussions in this Unit will help you to understand how the approach to language analysis, which you are studying, emerged. The earliest practitioners of Discourse Analysis were not linguists and in contemporary times, Discourse Analysis is fast adopting a multidisciplinary approach, which makes it relevant not only to linguists, but also sociologist, philosophers, psychologists, political scientists and other social scientists. This Unit will expose you to the earliest ways of studying discourse.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- explain the terms Ethnomethodology and Conversational Analysis;
- describe how to conduct a research using ethno methodological approach; and
- describe how language functions in the social world.

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 Ethnomethodology?

Ethnomethodology is a blend of the words: Ethnography and methodology. It is a branch of Anthropology, which studies people in their environment. Methodology simply refers to the way of doing things. The major focus is the cultural behaviour of the people) and the methods involved in doing a particular thing). The term Ethnomethodology is a sociological term, which describes a discipline that studies how people make sense of their world. How they are able to understand one another to the extent that they are able to exist in an orderly social context.

Ethno methodological approach was developed by a sociologist named Harold Garfinkel. The approach looks at the organization of practical actions and reasoning, the organization of talk-in-interaction. Ethno methodologists are concerned primarily with Ethnomethodology which is concerned with the how (the methods) by which social order is produced, and shared. One thing that is of central concern to ethno methodologist is “context.” Their focus is always on the ways in which words are dependent for their meaning on the context in which they are used.

Ethnomethodology is concerned basically with the following:

- **The organization of practical actions and practical reasoning:** This was the concern of earliest ethno methodologists
- **The organization of talk-in-interaction:** This is known in modern times as Conversational Analysis. We shall be looking at this late in this unit.
- **Talk-in-interaction within institutional or organizational settings:** this is basically concerned with interactional structures that are specific to particular settings.
- **The study of work:** The study of any social activity within the setting in which it is performed.

3.2 Language and the Social World

Language is an essential part of the human social structure. Everyday, we use it actively to create and shape the world through social interaction. Every language operates in a social world. Speakers, as part of a society, rely on a corpus of practical knowledge, which they assumed is shared, at least partly with others. This is why a group of linguists, generally referred to as Functionalists, see language as a social activity being performed in a social world. The primary concern of such linguists, who belong to the schools of Sociolinguistics, Systemic Functional Linguistics, Discourse Analysis, Text Linguistics, Critical Discourse Analysis, and so forth, is that language is context-dependent and the general context is the world we live in, while the specific contexts are the contexts of a particular usage. Context here includes the knowledge of the speaker of his/her world, the culture, values, expectations and norms.

One way in which language is believed to influence our understanding of social reality goes back to the ideas of Edward Sapir and Benjamin Lee Whorf. The Sapir-Whorf

Hypothesis stresses that we view and perceive our world in terms of our language. It also stresses that the social reality we experience is unique to our language, since no two languages/cultures share exactly the same social reality. This is why oftentimes; terms for specific phenomena in languages do not have precise counterparts in other languages.

What we have discussed in this section is really an important guiding principle for our approach to the analysis of discourse. We can only analyze any particular discourse effectively if we situate it within the social context or domain of its use. And this will take into consideration a lot of factors such as, the interlocutors, their role relationships in discourse and the mode of discourse. All these are used to create the text that will fit appropriately into the social world of the language users.

3.3 Conducting Ethnomethodological Research

Ethno methodological research has its own peculiar characteristics. An ethno methodological research is often referred to as a qualitative research. The goal of a researcher using this approach is to understand local knowledge and practices relating to the daily life of the people being investigated. Therefore, ethnomethodologists do not just conduct their research from a distance. They participate in the life of the people and observe daily interactions among them in formal and informal conversations among the groups and individuals. This method of doing research is called participant observation method, and the researcher is called a participant-observer.

The traditional method of doing research that distances the researcher from his field has been observed to be characterized by normative descriptions. Scholars working from the perspective of seeing language as a social phenomenon have emphasized the importance of an interaction between the researcher and the community. This makes the outcome to be that in which the researcher is present in the text. This is more authentic than the traditional research method.

Ethno methodological research demands that the researcher reside in the community he or she is investigating to facilitate his/her interaction with the people. So, it involves months and years of fieldwork. It is usually an in depth study of the historical, demographical and cultural norms of the people alongside with the specific issue being investigated.

One can summarize the features of an ethno methodological research as follows:

- It involves the study of naturally occurring phenomena in their setting.
- It involves social interaction with the community within their social context.
- It involves data collection and analysis that takes place at the micro level.
- It involves discovery through interaction.
- It involves the study of the local knowledge, i.e. identifying terms, concepts and logic used by individuals and the group to talk about specific subjects.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Identify the major principles of an ethno methodological research.

4.0 CONCLUSION

One of the earliest approaches to research in Discourse Analysis is Ethnomethodology. Though the study of discourse keeps undergoing changes from time to time, the use of this approach has remained one of the key approaches to investigating discourse. It presents a common ground for linguists studying discourse. This is particularly so because it emphasizes the importance of context in Discourse Analysis. The two major ways of collecting data in Discourse Analysis are really context-dependent. The use of tape recorder as a data collecting method depends largely on the context of the discourse. This implies that the researcher has to be present at the setting to do his/her recording. The other method, which is emphasized in Ethnomethodology, is the participant observation, which requires the researcher to be present in the community for a period of time.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this Unit, we have looked at a major approach to Discourse Analysis – Ethnomethodology. We examined its origin and its use in Discourse Analysis. We particularly focused attention on the methods of doing Ethnomethodology, with its emphasis on interaction between the researchers and the people they are investigating. The emphasis students should note is that language is a social phenomenon and each time people use language, they are being creative, so, this makes each social event and situation unique and worthy of being analyzed distinctly by looking at the social factors that facilitates the creation of the text.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Describe how you would do an ethno methodological study of the discourse of motor park touts.
2. Explain the connection between language and the social world.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 2 CONVERSATIONAL ANALYSIS

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 What is Conversational Analysis?
 - 3.2 Turn Taking and Turn Allocation
 - 3.3 Insertion Sequences
 - 3.4 Adjacency Pairs
 - 3.5 Error and Repair Mechanisms
 - 3.6 Simultaneous speeches
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In this Unit, we shall be examining another approach to Discourse Analysis – Conversational Analysis. This approach is concerned with the study of talk in interaction. We shall be examining such topics as how people allocate and take turns in conversation (the mechanisms used). This shows that people do not just talk anyhow in conversation. They are guided by some specific discourse rules. We shall also look at the concepts of insertion sequences and adjacency pairs. This will show how conversations are ordered. There are appropriate responses to specific expressions and when these responses do not come, then it is either the person responding did not understand the question or he/she is deliberate in giving such response.. This will then lead us to how we repair errors in discourse. How simultaneous speech is managed, to the extent that it does not degenerate into confusion.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this Unit, you should be able to do the following:

- define all the terms used in conversational analysis;
- identify how conversationalists allocate and take turns in discourse;
- explain the terms insertion sequence and adjacency pairs;
- explain how errors are repaired in conversation; and
- describe how simultaneous speech occurs and how it is managed.

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 Conversational Analysis?

Conversational Analysis (henceforth CA) is an approach to Discourse Analysis that is concerned with the study of talk in interaction. The major aim of CA is to describe how conversationalists achieve orderliness in their interaction. It studies how interactions are structured in a sequential manner. CA studies any instance of talk, which may include institutional discourse, such as, classroom discourse between the teacher and the students, doctor-patient interaction, antenatal classroom discourse, and courtroom discourse. It also studies routine or casual conversation.

CA was a method introduced by Emmanuel Schegloff, Harvey Sacks and Gail Jefferson in the early 1970s. It was inspired by Ethnomethodology. CA has now become an established force in Sociology, Anthropology, Linguistics, Speech-Communication and Psychology.

3.2 Turn Taking and Turn Allocation

Turn taking is a general feature of conversation. It has been observed that people involved in a conversation do not just talk in a disorderly manner. A person speaks and after his turn, another person takes the floor. It is not normal in a conversation for one person to speak all the time while others just listen. It is also the case that people are aware when it is their turn to speak. There are some clues to when a speaker's turn has finished and when another speaker should commence talk.

Turn taking is a basic characteristic of any normal conversation. Speakers and listeners change their roles in order to begin their speech (Coulthard, 1985: 59). Turn taking mechanisms may vary between cultures and languages. Scholars have identified a set of rules that govern turn taking in discourse. These are:

- When the current speaker selects the next speaker, the next speaker has the right to and is obliged to commence the turn
 - If the current speaker does not select the next speaker, any one of the speakers has the right to self-select and become the next speaker
 - If neither the next speaker selects the next speaker nor the next speaker self-selects, the current speaker may resume his or her turn
- Sacks, Schegloff and Jefferson (1974:704)

There are signals to turn taking that are called **turn-eliciting signals**. We have the **Turn Construction Unit (TCU)**, which is the fundamental segment of speech in conversation. It describes pieces of conversation, which may comprise an entire turn. The end of a TCU, called a **Transition Relevance Place (TRP)**, which marks a point where the turn may be go to another speaker, or the present speaker may continue with another TCU. The change of turn occurs only in the TRP. TRP is the possible structural completion point of one-word, lexicon, phrase, clause or full sentence.

There are other signals to turn taking. The dominant referring tone, the interrogative functions of tones and phatic questions serve a role in turn taking. For instance, a speaker may use a rising tone rather than a fall-rise tone in ending a sentence to hold his turn by underlining his/her present status as the dominant speaker. This indicates that the speaker expects to be allowed to go on without an interruption. Story tellers are fond of using this continuative rising tone (Brazil, 1997:93). Other signals are, the last speaker's gaze direction, the last speaker calling the name of the next speaker, the last speaker aligning his body towards the next speaker, and so forth.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Observe a conversation in a "home video" and identify the mechanisms for turn taking.

3.3 Adjacency Pairs

Adjacency Pair is a unit of conversation that contains an exchange of one turn each by two speakers. The turns are so related to each other that the first turn requires a range of specific type of response in the second turn. It is a sequence that contains functionally related turns. Examples of adjacency pairs are:

Question – Answer Pair

Q. When will you be home

A. At 5 o'clock

Greeting – Greeting Pair

G. Good morning Bola.

G: Good morning.

Request – Acceptance/Rejection

R: Can I use your pen for one minute.

A: Yes, please have it/ R: I am sorry. It's the only one I have

Inform – Acknowledgement

I: You have to see the head of department before he leaves for the Senate meeting at 4.

A: Okay.

Apology – Acceptance/Rejection

App.: I am sorry, I could not make the appointment

Acc.: That's okay, we can fix another time

Rej.: You have no excuse. You just kept me waiting for nothing.

Congratulations – Thanks

C: Congratulations on your PhD.

T: Oh, thanks

In an adjacency pair, the first pair part invites, constrains, and partially determines the meaning and range of possible second pair part. If somebody shouts "help", it is an action not language that is required. If the exclamation is 'ouch', it is likely to elicit a question, 'What's the matter' which in turn starts off an adjacency pair, completed by, for example, 'I've cut my finger'. Adjacency pairs are normal in conversations, but sometimes they do not necessarily occur. Some instances may affect the flow of adjacency pair. For instance, if a person decides to ask another question after being asked a question, the flow is disrupted. This is called an insertion into what would have been a normal sequence of conversation. This is called insertion sequence. We shall treat this in the following section.

3.4 Insertion Sequences

An insertion sequence is a sequence of turns intervenes between the first and second parts of an adjacency pair. It is a kind of delay in which the response expected is not given, rather, an entirely different, though related response is given. Conversations usually occur in pairs, for instance we have question-answer, request-acceptance/rejection, invitation-acceptance/rejection, and so forth. For instance, let us see a conversation

1. Bola: When are you traveling back to London?
2. Uju: Why do you ask?
3. Bola: I would like to send you with a parcel to my auntie in Woolwich.
4. Uju: Okay, I will be going in a week's time.

In this piece of conversation above, Bola asked a question and expects a direct answer. But turns 3 and 4 are together an insertion sequence, which separates the earlier question in turn 1 from the direct answer in turn 4, which comes later. Insertion sequences occur in situations when people do not want to provide a direct response to an elicitation until they are sure of the intention of the speaker as we can see in the conversation piece above.

3.5 Error and Repair Mechanisms

In conversation, we do not always say things the correct ways we desire to say them. When we did not say what we ought to say, we still have a way of saying them. This is called error repair.

3.6 Overlap in Speeches

An overlap in speech occurs when two or more interlocutors are talking at the same time. It can also be described as occurrences of two or more participants trying to take their turns at the same time after the previous speaker had finished or is about to finish his turn. The real overlap occurs when the two participants start their turns simultaneously and none of them relinquishes the floor for the other. This is not always the case in a normal conversation. Earlier on, we said that conversations are orderly, because speakers will naturally take turns. An overlap in speech may occur in any of the following situations:

- when a speaker deliberately comes in while another speaker is having turn,
- when a speaker thought another speaker had finished his/her turn and decided to come in.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Analyzing a conversation involves how turns are taken and allocated and other features such as how people correct their errors in speech when they realize them. It also involves looking at the way some talks are connected despite their seemingly unconnected nature. Apart from all these, we realize that talks overlap, especially when the speakers involved are eager to make their points, or when a speaker feels that the last speaker has finished their turn. All these features of conversation simply tell us that natural conversation is not always smooth and orderly. Some of the features discussed above contribute to the naturalness of most conversation. In fact, when a conversation moves on without any of these features, it seems less natural than when they are present.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this Unit, we have looked at the features of conversation that discourse analysts look at when they study the conversation. Such features include: turn taking and turn allocation, insertion sequences, adjacency pairs, overlap in speech, and so forth. These features exist in most conversations. Though as we have observed, some of them feature more in some conversations than others. For instance adjacency pairs are a very visible feature of any form of interview, such as employment interview or newspaper interview. It is also important to note that in some kinds of speech, turns are necessarily allocated by a person who has the social role to do so. For instance in a discussion, a moderator has such social role. Also in classroom discourse, the teacher determines who takes up a turn and when they do so.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Select any written play by Wole Soyinka and explain how some of the feature of conversation discussed in this Unit manifest in the conversations.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 3 LINGUISTIC ANTHROPOLOGY

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 2.1 Linguistic Anthropology: Introduction
 - 2.2 Speech Community
 - 2.3 Speech Situation/Event
 - 2.4 Ethnography of Speaking
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In this Unit, you shall be learning about a discipline that is central to your understanding of the whole idea of Discourse Analysis – Linguistic Anthropology. The field methods of Linguistic Anthropology are very useful for discourse analysts, because the latter places a lot of importance on context, as you earlier saw. The whole idea of analyzing discourse originated from Anthropologists, whose focus was not really on the language corpus but on how the society is structured through human interaction. We shall also take you through other notions related to Linguistic Anthropology, such as the concept of a speech community and Dell Hymes’ notion of Ethnography of Speaking.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

By the end of this Unit, you should be able to do the following:

- explain clearly what Linguistic Anthropology is all about;
- define the concept of Speech Community;
- use Ethnography of Speaking to describe any particular speech situation; and
- explain the terms “speech community” and “speech event”.

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 Linguistic Anthropology: Introduction

Linguistic Anthropology is a branch of Anthropology. The focus of the discipline is on how language is used in various social contexts. It focuses on speech both ancient and contemporary ones. Linguistic anthropologists are interested in how many languages there are, how those languages are distributed across the world, and their contemporary and historical relationships. It is also the study of the relationship between language and social relations. So, the concern of Linguistic Anthropology is the diachronic or historical, evolutionary, and internal structure of human languages in relation to the context. For instance, a linguistic anthropologist may decide to study the Etymology of names of places. This will require some historical data on the origin of those places. Linguistic Anthropology is an interdisciplinary field. It draws a great deal from other, independently established disciplines and in particular from the two from which its name is formed: Linguistics and Anthropology. Linguistic Anthropologists use traditional ethnographic methods such as participant-observation and work with native speakers to obtain local interpretive glosses of the communicative material they record. They also use elicitation techniques similar to those employed by typological linguists interested in grammatical patterns. Recently, these methods have been integrated with new forms of documentation of verbal practices developed in such fields as urban Sociolinguistics, Discourse Analysis, and Conversation Analysis. The advent of new technologies for the electronic recording of sounds and actions has broadened the range of phenomena that can be studied, increased our analytical sophistication, and, at the same time, multiplied the number of technical, political, and moral problems that a fieldworker must confront. As we enter this new technological era, it is imperative to develop a discursive arena in which to examine the pros and cons of the new tools within a general discussion of methodology for the study of human communicative behaviour.

3.2 Speech Community

Speech community is a group of speakers who use language in a distinct way generally accepted among them. This group of speakers may be located in the same area or situated in different locations. What is common to them is that they recognize a language or a dialect of a language as their standard means of communication. For instance, we can talk about a Yoruba speech community comprising of Yoruba speakers in the south-western Nigeria and in other parts of the world, such as Benin Republic, parts of Brazil and USA.

The speech community is the locus of most sociolinguistic and anthropological linguistic research. Earliest attempts to identify speech communities date back to the Prague School notion of *sprachbond* or ‘speech bond’, which refers to “shared ways of speaking which goes beyond language boundaries.” They also talk about *sprachbond* “language bond”, which involves “relatedness at the level of linguistic forms” (Romaine, 1994: 23).

Several scholars have defined speech community in different ways. Below are some of the definitions.

“The speech community is defined by the participation in a set of shared norms...which may be observed in behaviour and in the uniformity of abstract patterns of variation”. Labov (1972: 120 ff)

“A speech community is made up of individuals who regard themselves as speaking the same language” . Corder (1973: 53)

"any human aggregate characterized by regular and frequent interaction by means of a shared body of verbal signs and set off from similar aggregates by significant differences in language usage". Gumperz (1971: 101)

"A community sharing rules for the conduct and interpretation of speech, and rules for the interpretation of at least one linguistic variety... A necessary primary term... it postulates the basis of description as a social, rather than a linguistic, entity". Hymes (1972: 54 ff).

"A speech community is a group of people who do not necessarily share the same language, but share a set of norms and rules for the use of language. The boundaries between speech communities are essentially social rather than linguistic... A speech community is not necessarily co-extensive with a language community". Romaine (1994: 22).

3.3 Speech Situation/Event

A speech event is a communicative event with the main role of a speech component (planned, organized, controlled, and socially significant), e.g.: *meeting, conference, summit, wedding, funerals, elections, party, primaries*. Any social activity in which speech is used can be seen as a speech event or situation.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Explain the differences between the following kinds of speech community:

- a geographical speech community.
- a social speech community.
- a virtual speech community.

3.5 Ethnography of Speaking

The term Ethnography of speaking was originally formulated by Dell Hymes in 1962 to describe what happens whenever we engage in communication through speech. Since the use of the term by Hymes, it has been developed to be known as a method in the social approach to language, which draws on the anthropological field of Ethnography to explain how we communicate our experiences in our cultures. The

concept was redefined in 1964 as **Ethnography of Communication** to include the two major means of communication: speech and writing. Any speech event can be seen as comprising several components, and the analysis of these is a major aspect of ethnography of speaking. Seven types of component or factor can be discerned. Every speech event involves:

Setting/scene

This refers to the time when a speech takes place and the place. Scene does not only refer to the physical scene, but also the psychological setting. This includes the nature of the communication, the degree of its formality, which is determined by the institutionalized cultural way of behaving when engaged in such kind of communication. For instance, there are ways a priest is expected to behave when conducting a service. Informal interactions are less rule-governed when compared to formal ones.

Participants

This refers to the speaker and his/her audience in any particular speech situation. The speaker is the person who is performing a speech act. He/she may be informing, directing, or eliciting some form of behaviour from his/her audience. The audience is the people involved in the speech situation, usually; they are being addressed by the speaker. Participants do not have to be physically present before the speaker. There are instances of communication in which the speaker is far away from the participants, eg: news, telephone, e-mail, and so forth.

Ends

This refers to the purpose, goal or outcome of the communication. For instance, a goal might be to educate as in the speech situation involving a teacher and his/her students; to entertain, as in a comedian and his/her audience; to promote a view, as in a political campaign, an advertisement, *etc.*

Act Sequence

Every event has a form and an order it follows. This is what is being referred to here. There are always ways to order one's communication so that they can be meaningful to the other participants. For instance, a story usually starts with the following phrase "once upon a time", "a long time ago", "in the year _____", and so forth. This is the point of departure and it makes the communication a story. Every meeting starts with a greeting. This is particularly more prominent in formal presentations, where protocols are observed, that is, some people have to be recognized and greeted in a particular order (usually, the order of their status).

Key

The ways of behaving differs when people are engaged in different speech events. For instance, we use different tones when we are engaged in different discursive practices. Our tone and facial expression are serious when we are warning people. When we are engaged in any form of banter, we are more relaxed in our tone. There are ways we speak that will make people laugh and there are ways we speak that will make people

sober or even cry. These are what we mean by key as a component of Ethnography of Speaking.

Instrumentalities

This refers to the style we adopt in our speech. For instance, when we are engaged in any casual conversations, our words comprise mostly colloquial expressions. However, in any formal situation, we choose our words carefully. Two words may mean the same thing, but each of them is used in different speech style. For instance, the word *loo* is an informal expression, while its formal counterparts are *gents*, *ladies* or *convenience*.

Norms

Norms refer to the social rules governing the behaviour of people when they speak. Such rules govern their actions and reactions in the speech situation. There are norms for every speech community. For instance, in Yoruba land, when younger male persons greet older people, they prostrate in addition to what they say. The whole idea of greeting therefore is not just saying the words, but also performing the gesture that goes along with the words.

Genre

Genre refers to the kind of speech act being performed. Different speech communities have different ways of identifying a genre.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Linguistic Anthropology is a hybrid discipline combining the methods of Anthropology and Linguistics in its investigation. One typical feature of Linguistic Anthropology is its dependence on the social context and culture of conversation. It depends on the practices of a community and the real events that take place while the linguistic performance is going on. Dell Hymes identified a set of components necessary for the interpretation of speech, which he called Ethnography of Speaking representing each letter of the word SPEAKING with another word that describes these components.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this Unit, we looked at the discipline – Linguistic Anthropology and some of the terms used in it. The idea of a speech community is very vital to the discipline because every linguistic behaviour is not only enacted within a particular speech community. It is also made to follow the norms and practices in the community. We also noted that a speech event is a social activity planned and structured in a particular way to be identified as meaningful. In addition, we also looked at the factors that come to play in any typical speech situation or event. These factors help to shape the meaning of the event.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- i. Visit a law court and use the components of Ethnography of Speaking to describe the event.
- ii. How do the following components of Ethnography of Speaking shape meaning: Participants and Norms.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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MODULE 3 APPROACHES TO DISCOURSE ANALYSIS I

Unit 1	Information Structure / Thematic Structure
Unit 2	Thematic Progression
Unit 3	The Birmingham School Approach

UNIT 1 INFORMATION STRUCTURE/THEMATIC STRUCTURE

CONTENTS

1.0	Introduction
2.0	Objectives
3.0	Main Content
3.1	Information Structure
3.2	The Given
3.3	The New
3.4	Thematic Structure
3.5	Theme
3.6	Rheme
3.7	Marked and Unmarked Themes
3.7	Multiple Themes
4.0	Conclusion
5.0	Summary
6.0	Tutor-marked Assignment
7.0	References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In this Unit, we shall examine how information is organized in discourse, using the two well-known paradigms: Information Structure and Thematic Structure. This Unit will expose you to how people structure their information in such a way that they are able to put things considered more important before the others that are considered less important to their listeners or readers.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of your study of this unit, you should be able to do the following:

- explain the concepts of information structure and thematic structure;
- differentiate between “Give/New” and “Theme/Rheme” concepts;
- identify instances of multiple themes in texts; and
- analyze texts for instances of information structure and thematic structure.

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 Information Structure

Information structure is all about how speakers arrange the information in their message. It is natural for the shared message to come before the one not known to the hearer. The shared message is usually found at the beginning of the clause and it is called the **Given** information. The other information is the focus of the speaker's message and it is referred to as the **New** information. The Given and the New information make up the information structure of the clause.

3.2 The Given

The Given information is the information that is known to both the speaker and the hearer. It is normally taken for granted that the listener(s) or reader(s) know the information. So the speaker takes off from that point to supply the new information. For example:

My younger son *travelled to the USA yesterday*

In the sentence above, it is assumed that the hearer knows who the younger son is, so the speaker does not have to mention the name or use any descriptive term beyond the one he used. The emboldened expression is the Given. The referent therefore is obvious to both the speaker and the hearer.

3.3 The New

The new information is the rest of the clause. It is called New because it is actually what is new to the hearer or reader. For instance in the sentence above, *travelled to the USA yesterday* is the new information. It is what the speaker actually wants the hearer to know.

In writing, the writer usually engages in a carefully thought-out exercise, because he wants to be understood. So the nature of information structure in writing differs from

that of speaking. In informative texts, sometimes questions are used to elicit the required information. For example:

What is Linguistics?

Linguistics is the scientific study of the nature of language.

The Given element is put before the New information, because there is an area of mutual knowledge the writer wants to share with the readers (see Bloor and Bloor (1995; Taiwo, 2003). Sometimes, authors may not necessarily use question heading. They may just use an ordinary heading. It is also possible that the whole information in the clause is new, for example:

It is my belief that you are coming tonight.

Since the word *it* is a **dummy** or an **empty subject**, it carries no information, the whole stretch can be regarded as New information.

Writers may also use ellipsis as a style in writing. Ellipsis is the omission of a word or a chunk from a sentence in such a way that only the given information is left. This does not render the text incomprehensible in any way, as the reader can still make up the omitted part. For example:

(a) *Bola got up form the bed*

(b) *rushed to the bathroom*

(c) *and took her bath.*

In (b) and (c) above, all the information are new, because the Given information has been omitted, but the hearer can still link it to the subject of (a).

In spoken texts, there are more assumptions, since the situation helps the interlocutors to interpret the message. For instance, in the sentence:

Please get me my slippers.

the entire information is new. This is because the speaker shares some information with the hearer, which include the fact that the hearer knows he/she is the one being addressed and that the hearer knows where the speaker's slippers are., and so forth.

3.4 Thematic Structure

This is similar to what we just finished discussing, but not exactly like it. Thematic structure refers to the organization of the message in the clause. A special status is given to one part of the clause that is called the **Theme** and the other part is called the **Rheme**. This simply has to do with what the writer or speaker chose as the starting point of the clause. Discussions on thematic structure were popularized by scholars in Systemic Linguistics and The Prague School.

3.5 Theme

The theme is defined as Halliday (1985: 39) as:

the element which serves as the starting point for the message

He went further to say that the Theme is what the clause is all about. In most cases, the Theme assumes the first position in the clause. For example:

The president of Nigeria *is from the northern part of the country.*

The Theme here refers to a person. In other instance, it may refer to places, time, attitude, and so forth, as we can see in the following examples respectively:

In Ghana, *Nigeria lost a football match*

Last week, *I went to Cotonou by road*

In my own opinion, *you are wrong*

3.6 Rheme

The Rheme is defined by Eggins (1993: 275) as:

that part of the clause in which the Theme is developed.

It is every other part of the clause apart from the Theme. The Rheme is the part of the clause that contains the real message of the clause. The speaker/writer departs at the point of the Theme to supply the message to the hearer/reader.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Take two newspaper editorials and identify the Themes and Rhemes in theme. Also, identify the Given and New information in them. Now, compare the differences and similarities in the Theme/Rheme and Given/New information.

3.7 Marked and Unmarked Themes

A marked theme is the unusual Theme. The usual Theme is the one that occupies the position of the subject. This shows that in most cases, the subject position and that of the theme overlap. When there is this overlap, which is often the case, we are said to have an **Unmarked Theme**. However, when other elements apart from the subject are given prominence by being placed in the initial position, they are called **Marked Theme**. Examples of Marked Theme are given below:

While in school, *I was very sickly.*

Away it *flew.*

Strangely, *I could not recognize he.*

Before you arrived, my father had spoken about you.

In the examples above, we can see other elements functioning as Theme apart from the subject, thereby pushing the subject to a second position in the clause. In 8.9, we have an adverbial group indicating time. In 8.10, we have a complement. In 8.11, we have a comment adjunct, while in 8.12, we have a subordinate adjunct of time.

3.8 Multiple Themes

Multiple Themes do sometimes occur in clauses when more than one constituent in the clause are given thematic status. Halliday (1985) identifies three types of theme that can feature in the multiple themes. He used the three dimensional metafunctions: Experiential, Textual and Interpersonal. The three types of theme recognized are the Textual Theme, the Interpersonal Theme and the Topical Theme. The latter, Topical Theme is typically unmarked, because it is the usual Theme. Textual Theme are used mostly in conversation to indicate argument. Interpersonal Themes are used to address listeners in conversation. They are usually signified by first names (*David*), terms of affection (*darling*), mood adjuncts (*maybe*), comment adjuncts (*fortunately*).

Now let us see how multiple themes operate in clauses .

Now	Darling	my aim	is to get him to follow me tomorrow
TEXTUAL	INTERPERSONAL	TOPICAL	RHEME

4.0 CONCLUSION

The organization of information in the clause structure is determined by the speaker or writer. As we have seen in this unit, a speaker may choose to identify and place a piece of information important to him than others in a position, which ordinarily that piece of information does not occupy. The whole essence of the organization of information is to present elements in their priority to the speaker/writer.

In the example above, textual theme is signified by the discourse marker *now*, showing the boundary of a conversation and indicating that the speaker is about to focus on a specific topic. The word *Darling* is an affectionate term, which indicates the interpersonal relationship between the speaker and the listener. The topical theme *my aim* in the sentence above is usually a constant theme. Even when other kinds of theme are not there, the topical theme is always present. The rest of the message is the rheme.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this Unit, we have examined two related but different aspects of information organization in the English clause: Information Structure and Thematic Structure. We looked at how speaker/writers organize the clause in such a way that they are able to place the information that is important to them before the others. We also identified different types of Theme in the clause structure. The concept of Multiple Themes was also examined and we saw how language users can give thematic status to more than one element. This is a departure from what we had been discussing before, where only one element of the clause structure took up the thematic position.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- (i) Select two poems each of Niyi Osundare and Wole Soyinka. Identify and describe how marked themes are used in the poems.
- (j) Use a tape recorder to record any natural conversation and identify and discuss the multiple themes used in it.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 2 THEMATIC PROGRESSION

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Thematic Progression
 - 3.2 The Constant Theme Pattern
 - 3.3 The Linear Theme Pattern
 - 3.4 The Split Rheme Pattern
 - 3.5 Derived Theme Pattern
- 4.0 Identifying Themes in Discourse
- 5.0 Conclusion
- 6.0 Summary
- 7.0 Tutor-marked Assignment
- 8.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

This unit is a continuation of what we looked at in the last unit. Thematic structure deals with how the message is organized in the clause. Some scholars went beyond the organization of the message in the clause to how thematic choices work in instances of language use longer than the clause, for instance text. They focus on how the theme is organized across sentence boundaries, how themes progress from one sentence to another. This unit will look at all these.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of your study of this Unit, you should be able to do the following:

- explain the concept of “Thematic Progression”;
- illustrate the different thematic progression patterns; and
- identify any of the TP patterns when you see them in a text.

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 Thematic Progression

In the last unit, we looked at the concepts of Theme and Rheme in clauses. We did not go beyond the clause. However, in looking at Thematic Progression, we will look at how themes in different clauses associate and how the entire text becomes a meaningful whole through this interaction. Thematic Progression (TP) refers to how one theme progresses into another from clause to clause. Danes (1974) identified four types of Thematic Progression. In the following sections, we shall discuss each of these in succession.

3.2 The Constant Theme Pattern

The first kind of TP is called the **Constant Theme Pattern**. The constant theme pattern occurs when a common theme is shared by clauses that follow one another in a text. The theme of each clause either refers wholly to the first theme or partly to it. This TP pattern is common in biographical information and other narratives. Example of Constant TP is

1. Mr Sawyer *is my friend.* **2. He** *attended Kings College Lagos.* **3. After his secondary education,** **4. he** *travelled to England,* **5. where he** *was trained as a lawyer.* **6. He** *was one of the foremost lawyers in Nigeria.*

You will see that in all, the six clauses in this short text, the themes have something to do with *Mr. Sawyer* either directly or indirectly through the use of first person pronoun *he*. In the third clause, the expression, *his secondary education* still refers to *Mr. Sawyer*.

3.3 The Linear Theme Pattern

The Linear Theme Pattern is a pattern in which a rheme is taken up as a theme in a subsequent clause. In other words, the rheme of the last clause becomes the theme of the following clause. An example of this is produced below.

1. The president of the Federal Republic of Nigeria *is Umaru Yar'Adua.* **2. Umaru Yar'Adua** *was the last Civilian governor of Katsina State.* **3. Katsina State** *is one of the states in the North Central Nigeria.* **4. The North Central Nigeria** *is regarded as the power base of most politicians in the Northern Nigeria.*

In the text above, part of the rheme of the first clause (*Umaru Yar'Adua*) is taken up as the theme for the second clause. Likewise, the nucleus of the rheme for the second clause (*Katsina State*) is taken up as the rheme for the third clause, and so forth.

3.4 The Split Rheme Pattern

The third type of TP is called the Split Rheme Pattern. The split Rheme TP is the type in which the Rheme of the clause has two components and each of the components is taken in turn as the theme of subsequent clause. So, the idea is that the components of the rheme are split and elaborated upon in subsequent clauses. An example of the Split Rheme TP is produced below.

1. Nigeria can be conveniently divided into three major regions: the Northern, Western and the Eastern regions. **2. The Northern Region** is mainly populated by Hausa speakers and they are mostly Moslems. **3. The Western Region** has mainly Yoruba people who are well-exposed to Western education and it has a mixture of Islam and Christianity. **4. The Eastern Region** is inhabited mainly by the Igbo speakers, who can be described as the economic livewire of the nation.

This text shows clearly that the rheme of the first clause is what is split to develop the text. The rheme has three major components and each of these components was taken in turn to develop each of the subsequent clauses.

3.5 The Derived Theme Pattern

This kind of TP is a feature of longer text with a variety of topics for discussion. The author may pick any of the topics earlier mentioned and use it as the theme for a clause. An example is given below.

1. Lion is one of the most dreaded animals. **2. The large cat** is fierce-looking and always looking ferocious. **3. Its cubs** are just like domestic cats. **4. The mane of male lions** makes them look dreadful. **5 Its powerful claws** can tear even the hardest skin **6. and its canines** are equally very strong.

The text contains some derived items that have been give thematic positions. They include *its cubs, the mane of the male lion, its canines*. All these are themes derived from the hypertheme *lion*.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Use your own texts to illustrate the four Thematic Progression Patters discussed in this Unit.

3.6 Identifying Themes in Discourse

There are some specific ways a theme can be identified in a clause. We have seen that themes are not just chosen. They are chosen to agree with the message and they are chosen so that the entire text can be seen a unified whole. One major way a theme can

be identified is through identical wording. This means, the writer of speaker simply repeats the same word as theme in subsequent clauses. For example:

Mr. Brown *is my boss.* **Mr. Brown** *is a very nice man.*

In the sentence above, the theme *Mr Brown* is repeated in the second sentence.

Another way is through the use of synonymous expression, *i.e.* occurrence of an element which communicates information similar in meaning to an expression in the preceding context, e.g.:

My little boy *came home from school weeping.* **The lad** *was beaten by a bully.*

The theme can also be identified by semantic inference. Words that are related to the ones used earlier can still be used as themes of subsequent clauses (see the example under split rheme)

5.0 CONCLUSION

The organization of information in any text is essential because it determines the kind of meaning being communicated. The choice of what element to start with and which ones to come later shows what a writer places emphasis on. Equally important is the way one theme progresses into another within a larger text, that is texts that flow from one paragraph to another. Different kinds of Thematic Progression patterns have been identified to be peculiar to different kinds of writing. For instance, stories will naturally choose the constant theme pattern, since they are about some individuals or a particular event. This is to ensure that the story is followed by the listener or reader, as these persons or events keep recurring in the text.

6.0 SUMMARY

In this Unit, we have looked at Thematic Progression. It is a follow-up to the last unit, where we looked at the Information and Theme distribution in texts. We observed that it is important to know how themes progress in larger texts. The progression of themes has implications for meaning. As we have observed, in some texts, the same theme dominates the clauses, while in others, the themes are varied. An instance is the Derived Theme pattern, where other themes are derived from a hypertheme. The rheme can also be split in such a way that they will lead to the formulation of subsequent themes in the text, as we saw in the Spilt Rheme pattern.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- (i) Using Chapter One of *Things Fall Apart* by Chinua Achebe, identify and describe the thematic progression pattern in the chapter.

- (ii) Pick an editorial in any Nigerian newspaper and identify and discuss the thematic progression patterns in it.
- (iii) Compare the TP patterns in *Things Fall Apart* and the Editorial you selected.

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UNIT 3 THE BIRMINGHAM SCHOOL APPROACH

CONTENTS

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

In this unit, we shall be examining the trends in the study of discourse that was introduced by a group of scholars in the University of Birmingham in the early 1970s. The idea started with the study of classroom discourse and later became a possible theory for the study of any human interaction. The study undertaken by John Sinclair and Malcolm Coulthard proposed a scale for the study of the structure of discourse in the classroom.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

By the end of this Unit, you should be able to do the following:

- explain the Birmingham School Approach to Discourse Analysis;
- use these units to attempt analyses of instances of discourse;
- write a classroom lesson showing different classes of acts used by the teacher and the students; and
- differentiate the differences between the units of discourse.

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 Classroom discourse

Classroom discourse is an institutional discourse that involves the teacher and pupils interacting and exchanging ideas. The teacher initiates the discourse and ensures that it follows a particular course, which he/she has pre-determined. The typical structure of the classroom discourse identified by Sinclair and Coulthard is IRF (Initiation, Response and Follow-up). This means that the teacher initiates the discourse while the students supply response to the initiation and the teacher typically gives the feedback. Though, there are several ways teacher and students exchange ideas, the teacher is the one saddled with the responsibility of controlling the discourse and determining the direction it goes. The teacher has a role that is described in discourse as [+ HIGHER ROLE], while the students have the [- HIGHER ROLE]. With this tenor relationship between the teacher and the pupils, the classroom discourse is able to run smoothly. In the next section, we will discuss the features of classroom discourse as observed by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975).

3.2 Discourse Structure

Sinclair and Coulthard's (1976) work represents one of the earliest descriptive work on classroom discourse as an institutional discourse. The work was based on Halliday's scale and category. Discourse was seen by them as a level of language higher than grammar. They did an extensive study of the language used by teachers and pupils in classroom in Britain and proposed a five scale category of discourse, namely: lesson, transaction, exchange, moves and acts. These are discussed in the next section.

3.3 Lesson

Lesson is the highest unit in the discourse rankscale. It is everything that happens in the classroom from the point the teacher enters till he/she leaves. The structure of a lesson is determined by several factors. These include pupils' responses to the teachers' instructions and the teachers' ability to respond to the pupils' responses. For instance, a teacher may initiate a discussion that the whole class would be on for the entire lesson. Good teachers do not rush their lessons with the aim of finishing everything they set out to do. As they teach, they monitor pupils' responses and sometimes repeat and go over a lesson they had taught earlier.

3.4 Transaction

Transaction is next to lesson. It is the basic unit of interaction. It has to do with minimal contribution made by the participants in a discourse. Every transaction has an opening, which is usually a greeting and it possibly closes with a greeting as well.

3.5 Exchange

An exchange is the whole dialogue between the teacher and the pupils. It is the fundamental unit that realizes social interaction (see Taiwo and Salami, 2007: 29). The structure of a typical exchange is an initiation followed by a response and followed by a follow-up. Initiation simply refers to the starting up of a topic by the teacher when he enters the classroom. The teacher expects his/her initiation to elicit a kind of response from the students. An initiation is usually a question or a comment. Teachers use questions a lot for initiating responses from their pupils. Then the response will come in form of an answer to the question. The exchange will not be complete without the teacher responding as a follow-up to the pupils' response. A follow-up may be a commendation for a good answer, a rejection of the answer, and so forth.

3.6 Move

Move refers to the contribution made by one of the participants in the discourse at a point in time. Speakers take turns in conversation and when they have the floor, they speak for a specific period of time before another speaker takes over.

3.7 Act

Act is the smallest unit of the discourse structure. According to Sinclair and Coulthard (1992: 4), "discourse acts are typically one free clause plus any subordinate clauses, but there are certain closed classes where we can specify almost all the possible realizations which consist of single words or groups." Acts are defined principally by their functions. Sinclair and Coulthard recognized 22 classes of act in the classroom discourse, while Olateju (1998) recognized 24 classes of act. Later in the Unit, we shall discuss the nature of the classes of act in details.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Explain how classroom discourse different from any other kind of institutional discourse?

3.8 Classes of Acts

To discuss the classes of acts, the table below is presented showing them, how they are realized and their functions in discourse.

SN	CATEGORY	REALIZATION AND FUNCTION
1	Elicitation (elc)	This is realized by a question. Its function is to request a linguistic response
2	Directive (dir)	This is realized by a command. Its function is to request a non-linguistic response
3	Informative (inf)	This is realized by a statement. The function is to provide information. The only response is an acknowledgement of attention or understanding
4	Prompt (prm)	This is realized by a closed class of items – ‘go on’, ‘come on’, ‘hurry up’, ‘have a guess’, etc. Its function is to reinforce a directive or elicitation by suggesting that the teacher is no longer requesting a response but expecting or demanding one
5	Bid (bid)	This is realized by a closed class of verbal and non-verbal items – ‘sir’, ‘miss’, teachers name, raised hand, ‘finger clicking’, etc. Its function is to signal a desire to contribute to the discourse
6	Re-state(res)	This is realized by statements that tend to repeat a point or an idea that had earlier on been mentioned
7	Focus (foc)	This is realized by statements which are not strictly part of the discourse but inform us about what the topic is all about
8	Frame (frm)	This is realized by words that indicate the boundaries in a lesson, such as ‘right’, ‘today’, ‘good’, ‘well’, etc.
9	Repetition (rpt)	This is realized by statements that are repeated to emphasize the importance of the message in the discourse
10	Demonstration (dem)	This is realized by statements showing that the teacher is giving a practical illustration of what is being presented to the pupils
11.	Contrastive (con)	This is realized by a statement that are opposite of what had earlier been said. They are usually marked by expressions such as, in contrast to...’, ‘on the contrary’, etc.
12	Illustrate (ill)	This is realized by a statement that further explains a point being discussed
13	Expatriate (exp)	This is realized by a statement that adds to the information that had already been given
14	Additive (add)	This is realized by a statement, which gives additional information to the discourse. It is realized typically by words such as, ‘and’, ‘in addition’, etc.

S/N	CATEGORY	REALIZATION AND FUNCTION
15	Hearing/check (h/c)	This is realized by words such as 'hen', 'abi', (Yoruba expressions for 'is it so?') or any local language equivalent, which are meant to check whether the pupils are following the discourse.
16	Accept (acc)	This is realized by a closed class of items such as 'yes', 'no', 'good', 'fine', and a repetition of pupil's reply, all with neutral low-fall intonation. Its function is to indicate that the teacher has heard or seen and that the information, reply, or react was appropriate.
17	Comment (com)	This is realized by a statement or a tag question. It is subordinate to the head move. Its function is to expand, justify, and provide additional information.
18	Evaluation (eva)	This is realized by statements and tag questions including words and phrases such as 'good', 'fine', with high-fall intonation and repetition of pupil's reply with either a high-fall (positive evaluation) or a rise of any kind (negative evaluation).
19	Causative (cau)	This is realized by a statement showing that what is about to be said is as a result of one thing or the other. It is typically realized by words such as , 'so', 'therefore', 'as a result' <i>etc.</i>
20	Reply (rep)	This is realized by a statement, question or moodless item and non-verbal surrogates, such as nods. Its function is to provide a linguistic response, which appropriates elicitation.
21	React (rea)	This is realized by a non-linguistic action. Its function is to provide the appropriate non-linguistic response, which is appropriate to the directive
22	Nominate (nom)	This is realized by a closed class consisting of names of all students. You, anybody, 'yes, etc.. The function is to give permission to a student to contribute to the discourse

We can then illustrate each of the classes of act, using possible excerpt from a classroom exchange. Note: T = Teacher, while S = Student(s).

Elicitation (el)

T (I): Who can tell me the first civilian president of the Federal Republic of Nigeria?

(el)

S (R): Dr. Nnamdi Azikiwe

T (F): That's not correct. Can somebody else try?

Directive (dir)

T: *Class monitor, can you get me a piece of chalk from the staff room (dir)*

S: *(runs out to go and pick the pieces of chalk)*

Informative (inf)

T: *Bilabial plosives are produced using the two lips: the upper and the lower lips.
In*

The production of such sounds, the air stream from the lungs is block with the closure of the two lips and thereafter there is a release of the air, which is called a plosion. This is why the sound is also called a plosive. (inf)

Examples of bilabial plosives are /p/ and /b/

I hope that is clear to you

S: *Yes.*

Prompt (prm)

T: *Can you give me an example of a word in English with the bilabial plosive.*

S: *(raising up their hands)*

T: *Yes, Daniel*

S: *brain, ... (hesitation)*

T: *Yes go on (prm)*

Bid (bid)

T: *Yes does anybody want to try to answer that question*

S: *(raised their hands) Yes ma (bid)*

Re-state

T: *The lungs have very important function in the production of sounds. Why? Because the air that comes from the lungs are used to shape the quality of sounds that are eventually produced. Is that clear?*

S: *Yes sir (chorus answer)*

T: *The lungs perform a very crucial function in shaping the kind of sound we produce. This is what enables us to classify the sounds (res)*

Frame

T: *Today,
We shall be looking at the topic manner of articulation of English consonant sounds*

Focus

T: *Now,
Let us stand up and move to the language laboratory for our drills (focus)*

S: *(the students filed out of the class)*

Note that frame always precedes focus. A frame indicates the boundary in a lesson, while a focus starts off on what the speakers is about to do.

Repetition

T: *Please note that the most important articulator in the production of speech sound is the tongue.
Again, the most the most important articulator is the tongue.(rep)
I hope you noted that.*

S: *Yes sir (chorus answer)*

Demonstration

T: *Now, look up. I want you to see how I will produce the bilabial sound /p/. (the teacher pronounced the sound). Can you all repeat after me /p/ (dem)*

S: *(the students repeat the sound)*

T: *Thank you. Let us move on to the next sound*

Contrastive

T: *I told you that when producing a stop sound, there is a total blockage of the air from the lungs.
In contrast to this, when producing fricatives, , there is a partial blockage of the air form the lungs and this produces a type of hissing sound (con)
Let's try to produce the fricative sound /s/ (con)*

S: *sssssssssss.*

T: *Thank you, let us move on.*

Illustrate

T: *We have just talked about manner of articulation. This helps us to describe the sound produced.
In addition to this, we also want to look at another way we can describe sounds and that is the place of articulation or the point of articulation. This refers to those places in our vocal cavity where our articulators contact before sounds are produced. (Ill)
Bola, stand up and tell me what I have just said. I noticed you were busy discussing with your friend.*

S: *(Bola stood up and could not talk)*

T: *You see what I keep telling you? While I was busy explaining, she was talking.*

Expatriate

T: *I earlier said some sounds are produced with a plosion and they are called plosive sound.*

What then is a plosion?

A plosion is a forceful sound. It comes out with some force, because there is an obstruction prior to its production.(exp)

Additive

T: *To describe any consonant, you have two ways: the place of articulation and the manner of articulation*

S: *In addition to this, we can also describe a consonant using voicing, which is the vibration or non-vibration of the vocal cord.(add)*

Hearing/Check

T: *In this course, you will do a lot of drills, to help you perfect your production of the sounds. Who can tell me the classes of phonetic sounds we have in English?*
Yes,

S: *consonants and vowels*

T: *very good, you know we have consonant and vowel letters, hen (h/c)*
Or you don't know. Please don't confuse one for the other. Okay (h/c)

Accept

T: *Who can tell us the basic difference between consonants and vowels?*

P: *In the[production of vowels, there is free flow of air from the lungs, while in the production of consonants, there is either a total or partial obstruction of the air at a point in the vocal cavity.*

T: *Excellent! (Acc)*

Comment

T: *I taught you about the syllable in the last lesson. Did I? I think I did and maybe we should revise that before going on to today's topic. (com)*

Who can give me a n English word with CCCVCC

P: *Stretched*

T: *Good! Can you transcribe this on the board and showing the consonants and vowels. (Hands over the chalk to the student to write)*

Evaluation

T: *How many English vowel, letters do we have?*

S: *five*

T: *Five, good (eva)*

Causative

- T: *The tongue is the most important articulator.
Therefore, without a tongue we cannot speak (cau)*
- S: *(listening)*

Reply

- T: *What did I just say about the tongue?*
- S: *Sir,*
- T: *Okay, Bridget*
- S: *You said it is the most important articulator (rep)*

React

- T: *(Seeing that a student is sleeping while the lecture is going on, signals that the student should stand up.*
- S: *(student stand sup)*

Nominate

- T: *Tell me, what do you call a sound produced with a plosion?*
- S: *Sir*
- T: *Yes, Angela (nom)*
- S: *A plosive sound*
- T: *Very good, let's clap for her*

4.0 CONCLUSION

The study of classroom discourse marked the beginning of how discourse is structured and organized, especially in an institutional setting. Sinclair and Coulthard proposed what they believe constitute discourse structure, using a rank scale similar to Halliday's grammatical rank scale. Their study further opened up several attempts on the study of how the discourse is organized.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this Unit, we have seen an attempt by two scholars to produce a structural analysis of naturally occurring discourse, drawing a lot of ideas from Halliday's Scale and Category Grammar. In their observation, discourse is higher than grammar and just like grammar; it has its own rank scale, which consists of five units: Lesson, Transaction, Exchange, Move and Act. We have discussed each of these units and given you the appropriate examples. The importance of this is that you should be able to analyze a classroom interaction using the method we have outlined in this Unit.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Imagine you are to teach a class for about 40 minutes. Construct a classroom discourse that has 10 of the classes of act discussed in this unit.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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MODULE 4 APPROACHES TO DISCOURSE ANALYSIS II

Unit 1	Text Linguistics
Unit 2	Grammatical Cohesion
Unit 3	Lexical Cohesion

UNIT 1 TEXT LINGUISTICS

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4.0	Conclusion
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

In this Unit, we shall be looking at the practice in a school of thought within Discourse Analysis called *Text linguistics*, whose sole aim is to examine written texts and how such texts are meaningful, and the linguistic resources used by writers to achieve meaning in written texts. With these in view, of central concern to us in this Unit are the concepts of text, textuality and cohesion and coherence in text.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this Unit, you should be able to do the following:

- define and identify what a text is;
- explain what it means for the sentences in a text to be connected;
- discuss the concepts of cohesion and coherence in written texts; and
- identify texts that are coherent and the resources that are used for such coherence.

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 Text?

A text can simply be described as a type of written or spoken discourse or a sequence of paragraphs that represents an extended unit of speech. A text is not just a random collection of sentences. A text must be meaningful, in the sense that the ideas of the communicator of the text must be understood by the communicatee. A text must be seen as a unified whole, whose meaning can be summarized. Halliday and Hasan (1976) describe a text as “a semantic unit.” Typically in any text, every sentence except the first exhibits some form of cohesion with the preceding (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 292).

Texts are classified into genres on the basis of the intent of the communicator. Although there are different ways of classifying texts, six text types are generally recognized, and they are: recount, report, procedure, explanation, exposition, and experimental report. Each of these text types has different linguistic structures and features. For instance, a report is written in the past tense since it is an account of something the communicator had experienced sometime ago.

3.2 Textuality

A text is said to have textuality if it has unity with respect to its context. What distinguishes a written text from a random collection of sentences is the quality of textuality. It is also referred to as **connexity** or **connectivity**. Every text has certain resources that enable the reader/listener to identify that it is a text with respect to the context in which it is produced. Look at a stretch of sentence below to explain more clearly what we mean by textuality.

I bought two pairs of shoes when I went to Lagos yesterday. They were both black. One was made in Italy, while the other was made in England. I hope to wear both on alternative days to work.

Any good speaker of English should not have any problem with the stretch above. There are some elements in the four sentences that signal meaning and unity.

- The word *they* refers back to the another group of words *two pairs of shoes*.
- *One* refers implicitly to a pair of the shoes.
- *The other* refers the other pair of shoes.
- The word *both* refers to the two pairs of shoes.

It is not difficult to identify all these references in the text. That is why we can easily say there is texture because those items signify that we have a text before us and not just a collection of unconnected sentences. Textuality therefore is those things that make a collection of sentences to qualify as a text rather than just a collection of sentences. Shortly, we shall look in details into the technicalities involved texture.

3.3 Sentence Connection

Sentence connection is a term used to describe how sentences are connected in larger texts and the resources used to signal such connection. Every collection of sentences cannot be seen as being connected unless they possess some elements that signal their connection. Sometimes, the term is referred to as inter-sentence connection to differentiate it from intra –sentence connection – the way words in a sentence are connected as opposed to the way sentences in a text are connected. The whole of this Unit and two others that will follow are all about sentence connection.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Select a short story and discuss how the text is connected.

3.4 Cohesion and Coherence

Cohesion is a term used to describe the relation of meanings that exist within a text. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976: 4), “cohesion occurs where the interpretation of some element in the discourse is dependent on that of another.” They went further to define cohesion as:

A set of possibilities that exists in the language for making text hang together: The potential that the speaker or the writer has at his disposal... Thus, cohesion as a process always involves one item pointing to another; whereas, the significant property of the cohesive relation... is the fact that one item provides the source for the interpretation of another. (P.19).

This happens in the sense that the occurrence of one element presupposes the other. That is, that element cannot be effectively decoded without recourse to the other element. For instance, in the text we looked at earlier in Section 11.4, the words *they*, *one*, *the other*, *both* are elements that one cannot effectively interpret without recourse to the text that has gone before them. Cohesion in the text is expressed through the ties of reference. Items referring to others are used to signal cohesion in a text. The interpretation of these words cannot just stop by looking at them, but by looking beyond them to other words in the text. This may not be the case with some other words in the text, such as *shoes*, *black*, *days*, and so forth whose meanings are completely interpreted by just looking at them. Cohesion is signalled both by grammatical and lexical items in a text.

Coherence works together with cohesion. Coherence refers to the continuity of ideas in a text and the relations between them. When sentences, ideas, and details fit together clearly, readers can follow along easily, and the writing is coherent, i.e. the ideas tie together smoothly and clearly. A text is coherent when the ideas are seen to hang together and present the text as a united whole. Coherence goes beyond just the connection of the sentences, but that of the whole idea. The two terms, cohesion and coherence are the two primary ways of signaling textuality. Some ways of signaling cohesion in a text are through the use of pro-forms that indicate co-reference, definite articles, ellipsis, repetition, connectives or conjunctions, substitution and so forth. In the next two units, we shall examine these.

4.0 CONCLUSION

A collection of sentences that are well connected are said to be cohesive and coherent. Textuality is a property of such collection because it is what shows that what we have is not just a random collection of sentences, but a well-connected piece. Cohesion and coherence are the two technical terms used to describe the connectedness of sentences and ideas in a text. Cohesion is signaled by the use of certain items that cannot be decoded without recourse to what had gone before them.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this Unit, we examined text and textuality. We looked at the concepts “text” and “textuality” and how one relates to the other. We saw that textuality is what makes a text to be qualified to be described as one and it is signaled by the use of items within the text. We looked particularly at cohesion and coherence and how these two essential qualities determine textuality.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- (i) Explain the terms “Cohesion and Coherence.”
- (ii) Use the text in the first page of Elechi Amadi’s *The Concubine* to explain the concepts of cohesion and coherence.

7.0 REFERENCE/FURTHER READING

Halliday, M. A. K. and Hasan, R. (1976). *Cohesion in English*. London: Longman.

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UNIT 2 GRAMMATICAL COHESION

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
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 - 3.1 What is Grammatical Cohesion
 - 3.2 Reference
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 - 3.5 Identification
 - 3.6 Conjunction
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 - 3.6.2 Adversative Conjunction
 - 3.6.3 Temporal Conjunction
- 4.0. Tutor-marked Assignment
- 5.0. Conclusion
- 6.0. Summary
- 7.0. References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

This Unit is a follow up to the previous unit, which was its introduction. In this Unit, we shall be looking, at in greater detail, at cohesion at the grammatical level and how it is signaled in texts. We shall examine the devices used for grammatical cohesion, such as Reference, Ellipsis, Substitution, Identification, and Conjunction.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- define each of the grammatical cohesive devices to be treated;
- analyze a text and bring out the elements that signal grammatical cohesion; and
- differentiate between substitution, ellipsis and identification as grammatical cohesive devices.

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 Grammatical Cohesion?

Grammatical cohesion is a means of creating links between sentences in a text through the use of the grammatical resources of the language, i.e. items that are grammatical in nature, as opposed to the ones that are lexical in nature, such grammatical resources include: Reference, Substitution, Identification, Conjunction, and Ellipsis.

3.2 Reference

Reference is a grammatical device commonly used for cohesion in texts. A reference item is an item that cannot be interpreted semantically in its own rights. It has to be interpreted by looking at other elements that have been used before it or the ones that will be used after it. Reference is typically signified through the use of pronouns, such as personal pronouns (*he, she, it, they, them, we, etc*) and comparative pronouns (*this, that, these, etc*). Reference is typically signified through phoric relations. Reference can generally be divided into two different types:

Endophoric (Textual) Reference

Exophoric (Situational/Contextual) Reference

Endophoric Reference is also known as Textual Reference. It is a kind of reference that is within the text. For endophoric reference, we can find the referent (what it refers to) within the text. Such a referent can either be anaphoric or cataphoric.

An anaphoric reference is a reference; whose referent precedes it, *ie*, the reference is to the preceding text. This kind of reference is the most common in any form of text. For example

3.1 *The man came yesterday, but he did not meet me.*

In the text above, the pronoun *he* is anaphoric in nature because it refers back to another item in the text – *the man*. Pronouns are typically anaphoric in English. However, sometimes, they could be cataphoric, when the referent precedes the reference, *i.e.* the item that refers comes before what it refers to, *e.g.*:

3.2 *He walked into the room looking haggard. The man stood by the door to my living room and I was wondering who he was. His look was expressionless, so I kept looking at him. I later beckoned to him to come in. It took me some time to recognize Mr. Adams. But much later, I was able to identify some of his old features that I used to know when we were at the Teachers' College. I quickly embraced him. "Sit down Mr.*

Adams, I am sorry, I did not quickly recognize you”, I said. He sat down and we started talking.

The first sentence in the text starts with a third person personal pronoun *he*, and continues using pronouns to refer to somebody not identified until the fifth sentence and seventh clause. By the end of the text, we can see clearly that the pronoun refers to *Mr. Adams*, who was an old classmate of the writer at Teachers’ College. This is a cataphoric reference. Cataphoric references are sometimes employed for literary effects to create suspense in the mind of the reader as you can observe in the text. If you will notice, you will realize that anaphoric references are also used to refer to the same person in sentences six, seven and the last sentence.

We also have Exophoric Reference, which is a reference to the context of situation and not any element within the text. An example of Exophoric Reference is produced below.

3.3 *Will you come here and let me have that.*

In the text above, the words *here* and *that* are exophoric items. We can only get their meanings by looking at the context in which they are produced. For instance, *here* will refer to somewhere close to the speaker and *that* will refer to something with the addressee.

Halliday and Hasan (1976) recognized three types of reference: Personal Reference, Demonstrative reference and Comparative Reference. Each of these are discussed below.

3.2.1 Personal Reference

This is defined by its function in the speech situation.

3.4 *The girls just returned from the party. They are all very tired.*

3.5 *My father is a consultant to many oil companies in Nigeria. He will be returning from Denmark where he went to represent one of his clients.*

3.6 *Bola just came back from the youth camp. I saw her yesterday.*

The Personal References are: *they* in 3.4; *he and his* in 3.5; *I and her* in 3.6.

3.2.2 Demonstrative Reference

This is reference by means of location. The writer or speaker locates this kind of reference along a scale of proximity defined in terms of selective participation and circumstances that define the textual occasion (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 37). Examples are:

- 3.7 *Leave the book on the table and come here.*
- 3.8 *Please bring the red apples. Those are my favourite.*
- 3.9 *He said something just before we left his office. That I can't remember.*

The Demonstrative References are: *her* in 3.7; *those* in 3.8 and *that* in 3.9.

3.2.3 Comparative Reference

This is a form of indirect reference that is established by means of identity. Examples are:

- 3.10 *I love those oranges. Can I have more?*
- 3.11 *The little cats are very playful. But one is not as playful as others.*
- 3.12 *You have taken enough apples. Other people will also need some.*

The Comparative References are: *more* in 3.10; *one* and *others* in 3.11; *some* in 3.12. Halliday and Hasan emphasize the uniqueness of reference by pointing out that:

What distinguishes reference from other types of cohesion is that it is overwhelmingly nominal in character. With the exception of demonstratives and some comparative adverbs, all reference items are found within the nominal group. (p. 43)

3.3 Substitution

Substitution simply refers to the replacement of one item by another in a text that has the same meaning. Initially, Substitution and Reference may appear to be similar but they are not. Reference is a relation between meanings. For instance, the reference items *he*, *she*, *they* are related to some nouns in terms of the meaning connections they have. The relationship between these reference items and their referents lies in the semantic identity between the reference and the referent. Substitution however is a relation in wording, between linguistic items such as words and phrases. A substitute is a sort of counter used in place of repetition of a particular item. Examples of substitute are given below:

- 3.13 *My notes are not complete. I need to get an up to date one.*
- 3.14 *You don't seem to like bread, but I do.*
- 3.15 *Many people think reducing your age gives you the advantage of more time in the civil service. But I don't think so.*

In 3.13 – 3.15, we have words that are used as substitute for others – *one* in 3.13; *do* in 3.14, and *so* in 3.15. These substitutes represent the three types of substitute recognized in Halliday and Hasan (1976) – Nominal, Verbal and Clausal Substitution respectively. Nominal substitution refers to the use of a nominal substitute to replace a nominal item. Verbal substitution is the use of a verbal substitute, typically *do* to replace a verbal item and clausal substitution is the use of a substitute to replace an entire clause. Other items used as substitute are cardinal numerals, as in the text below.

3.16 *There are seven oranges in the bowl. Can I have two?*

Here the word *two* is a cardinal numeral used as a substitute for *orange*.

3.4 Ellipsis

Ellipsis is the omission of a lexical item, which is usually easily recoverable from the linguistic context of the text. Halliday and Hasan define ellipsis as “substitution by zero” (p. 89). This means Ellipsis a kind of Substitution. Unlike in Substitution, where something is used to replace an item, in Ellipsis, nothing is used to replace the item, yet the reader or hearer is able to identify the zero elements. In Ellipsis, something is not said, yet it is understood. In Ellipsis, there is a structural slot with missing information, which is not misunderstood in spite of the missing information. It is important to note that by Ellipsis, we are not referring to every instance in which something is not said. If this were to be so then that would apply to every sentence ever spoken or written. We are referring here to only instances of sentences, clauses, etc, whose construction leaves us to presuppose some missing items.

Just like Substitution, there are three types of Ellipsis: Nominal, Verbal and Clausal. In Nominal Substitution, there is an ellipsis within the nominal group, e.g.:

3.17 *He came in quickly had his bath and rushed out.*

In the text above, the pronoun *he* is conspicuously missing, but we are still able to understand that it is the same person who *came in quickly*, who *had his bath* and *rushed out*. We do not have to keep repeating the pronoun *he* to communicate meaning in the text.

Verbal Ellipsis is ellipsis within the verbal group, e.g.:

3.18 *He may come or may not.*

3.19 *Some were sweeping and others mopping the floor.*

In 3.17 and 3.18, we can see two different types of Verbal Ellipsis. In 3.17, the ellipsis affected the lexical verb *come*, hence it can be tagged lexical verb ellipsis. In 3.18, the

ellipsis affected the operator, which is an auxiliary verb *were*. This may be regarded as operator or auxiliary ellipsis.

There is also clausal ellipsis, i.e.: the omission of a whole clause or at least a substantial portion of the clause. This is very common in conversation, where there are enough contextual clues to help in the comprehension of meaning, *e.g.*,

3.19. A: *What are you doing Cynthia?*
B: *Reading.*

3.20. A: *Will you go home now?*
B: *Yes.*

In 3.19, a substantial part of the clause is omitted, yet the meaning is not lost. In 3.20, the whole clause is omitted. The word *yes* has rendered redundant any other thing B may want to say.

3.5 Identification

Identification is the use of determiners to point out that their noun phrase is co-referential with some earlier item, usually a noun or noun phrase (Aremo, 2004: 629). Identification is different from Reference, because reference makes use of pro-forms, while Identification, as the name goes, identifies a nominal item/group through the use of determiners and a nominal item. Determiners used include the definite article *the* and demonstrative adjectives, such as *this*, *that*, *those*, *etc.* Examples of texts with Identification are given below.

3.21 *A man came to my office yesterday. The man was sent by my uncle.*

3.22 *I have heard a lot of terrible stories about kidnapping in Lagos. Those stories made me afraid whenever I visit the city.*

3.23 *She is married to a well-respected man in the country. That man is generous and humble.*

3.24 *When he came yesterday he asked me where he could get a young girl to play with. The question keeps bothering me because I do not consider him that irresponsible.*

In the three texts above, the nominal groups *the man*, *those stories*, *that man* and *the question* are elements signifying identification, because they identify the nominal groups in the clauses that precede the ones in which they occur. Sometimes, the identifying element may be more complex than just a determiner and a noun. It may include some adjectives, as in the example below:

- 3.25 *You walked out on me yesterday because I called you to order at the meeting. Your irresponsible behaviour may get you sacked if you don't exercise some caution.*

The expression *your irresponsible behaviour* is an identification of what the addressee did to the speaker the previous day. The word *irresponsible* is used to qualify the addressee's behaviour.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Using your own adequate and copious examples, explain the differences between Reference, Substitution and Identification.

3.6 Conjunction

Conjunction is an explicit marker of meaning connection between two clauses. Though the term is used generally to include any linker or connector, in this Unit, we are using it in the sense of items used to link clauses and sentences together. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), conjunctive elements are not cohesive in themselves but by virtue of their specific meanings; they are not primarily devices for reaching out into the preceding (or following) text, but they express certain meanings, which presuppose the presence of other components in the discourse (p. 226). There are several conjunctive items for signaling meaning in sentence connection.

Halliday and Hasan (1976) identify four categories of conjunctive relations. They are Additive, Adversative, Causal and Temporal. We shall discuss each of them below.

3.6.1 Additive Conjunction

This is a conjunction that introduces an addition to the erstwhile clause. The most prominent Additive Conjunction is *and*. Other Additive Conjunctions are *yet*, *so*, *further*, *moreover*, *etc.* Examples of texts with Additive Conjunction are:

3.26 *He drove 800 kilometres, and he was very tired after his arrival.*

3.27 *The thieves were caught, yet they denied being thieves.*

3.28 *I was so tired last night, so, I could not visit Gbade as promised.*

3.29 *Bisola does not need the scholarship. Moreover, she is got full sponsorship for her PhD.*

3.6.2 Adversative Conjunction

This signals a relationship contrary to expectation. The proposition expressed in the second clause is contrary to what is stated in the preceding clause. Adversative

Conjunctions are signaled by words such as; *but, however, instead, rather, etc*, as can be seen in the following example:

3.30 *He took the money, but he denied it.*

3.31 *The bus broke down somewhere very lonely. However, we miraculously found a mechanic to fix it before we continued with the journey.*

3.32 *You were planning to go to Lagos before. Instead, please go to Abuja as I would need something urgent from our client there.*

3.6.3 Causal Conjunction

Causal relation expresses that something caused another to happen. It signifies, result, purpose or reason for the erstwhile proposition. It is signaled by words such as: *so, hence, therefore, consequently, etc*. Examples are seen in the following texts:

3.33 *He lost his money, so he could not travel again.*

3.34 *She got late to school. Consequently, he was punished.*

3.35 *The Lord is my Shepherd, therefore, I shall not want.*

3.6.4 Temporal Conjunction

Temporal Conjunction is a relation between two successive sentences in sequence of time. This could be sequential (*then, next*), simultaneous (*simultaneously, at the same time*), preceding (*earlier, previously*), immediate (*at once, immediately*), durative (*meanwhile*). Examples:

I found the money on the grass. Then I reported to the police.

My father died in June last year. Earlier he had been in and out of the hospital.

He got the news of his shortlisting for the interview. Immediately, he started preparing for it.

I was busy planning for my wedding. Meanwhile, my mother-in-law was busy arranging for how my fiancé would travel to go and meet a boy she would prefer her to marry.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Grammatical cohesion is one of aspects of cohesion important for signaling text connectedness. It includes the use of Reference items,, such as pro-forms that serve

the purpose of coreferentiality. It also includes the use of substitution, replacing a word with another, and ellipsis. Ellipsis is particularly interesting because it is a kind of substitution in which there is no explicit element. Identification is like Reference in the sense that a combination of determiner and noun refers to a nominal item/group. Conjunction is also the use of explicit conjunctive items to signal meaning relations between clauses that are related. It is important to be able to identify these devices discussed in any text and explain how they signal the connectedness of the text. It is also important to identify how Reference, Substitution and Identification differ from one another.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, we have examined the grammatical cohesive devices used in English to signal text connection. We examined five cohesive devices, namely: Reference, Substitution, Ellipsis, Identification, and Conjunction. We also gave adequate examples to illustrate these different categories and sub-categories of grammatical cohesive devices. We expect that you will be able to produce your own examples and identify instances of these devices when you come across them in any written or spoken text.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Select a Nigerian newspaper editorial and discuss the different kinds of conjunction used to achieve cohesion in the editorial.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 3 LEXICAL COHESION

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 - 3.2 Reiteration
 - 3.3 Synonymy
 - 3.4 Antonymy
 - 3.5 Hyponymy
 - 3.6 Meronymy
 - 3.7 Collocation
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

This unit is a continuation of what we started in Unit 11. In Unit 1, we started looking at the idea of a text and the properties of a text. You learnt about the textuality, which is what makes a text not just a random collection of sentences, but a collection of related ideas and, which has meaning as a whole. The two most important properties of a text we examined are cohesion and coherence. In Unit 12, we looked at the five grammatical cohesive devices. In this Unit, we shall be looking at the lexical cohesive devices, which are six in number.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

Since this Unit is all about lexical devices used for achieving cohesion, by the end of it, you should be able to do the following:

- explain clearly what is meant by the term lexical cohesion;
- make a clear distinction between grammatical and lexical cohesion;
- identify any instance of lexical cohesion in a written or spoken text; and
- analyze a text to bring out and explain the lexical cohesive devices.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 What is Lexical Cohesion?

Lexical cohesion is the use of lexical items to connect and unify a text. The connection of a text through the use of lexical items is sometimes referred to as a **lexical chain**. A lexical chain is a sequence of related words in the text, spanning short (adjacent words or sentences) or long distances (entire text). A chain is

independent of the grammatical structure of the text and in effect it is a list of words that captures a portion of the cohesive structure of the text. A lexical chain can provide a context for the resolution of an ambiguous term and enable identification of the concept that the term represents.

Lexical cohesion involves the selection of a lexical item that is in some way related to one occurring previously. It is established through the structure of the lexis or vocabulary. Lexical cohesion or chain may be achieved by repetition of the same lexical item or reiteration. It could also be achieved through the use of lexical items that are similar or nearly similar in meaning. Other ways of achieving cohesion through the selection of lexical item are hyponymy (use of general and specific items), meronymy (part-whole relationship), and collocation (habitual lexical co-occurrence). We shall be discussing each of the lexical devices, one after the other in the following sections of the Unit.

3.2 Reiteration

Another word for reiteration is **repetition**. Reiteration is the clearest way to show that two lexical items are related. The whole idea is that the writer or speaker keeps repeating a particular word each time he needs to make reference to it in a text. Sometimes, Repetition can be boring to the reader and the listener; therefore, some scholars do not see it as a very effective means of signaling lexical connectedness. Examples of texts with lexical reiteration are:

***Kunle** is my friend. **Kunle** and I attended the same primary and secondary school. **Kunle** was the best student in my set in the secondary school.*

***Man** is a social animal. The biblical account spells it out that **man** was created to have dominion over all other animals. **Man** in the 20th century has really maintained dominion over the world. One significant thing that has happened to **man** in the century is the invention of computer.*

From the two text produced above, we can see clearly instances of repetition. In 13.1, *Kunle* is repeated in the three sentences in the text. Likewise in 13.2, *man* keeps recurring in each of the sentences. These are clear instances of use of reiteration or repetition to achieve cohesion.

3.3 Synonymy

We mentioned earlier that Repetition sometimes can make a text boring. As a result, sometimes, rather than repeating the same word, a writer/reader may vary his/her use by selecting a synonymous item to replace the one being referred to. Synonymy as a lexical device is a device that employs the use of words that have similar meaning interchangeably in a written or spoken text. It is also referred to as **Equivalence Relation**. Sometimes, writers or speakers create synonymy rings (a list of synonyms

or near synonyms that are used interchangeably. For example, a writer may use any of the following terms interchangeably:

Speech disorder, speech defect, defective speech, speech problem, disorder of speech, etc.

Mundane, earthly, secular, temporal, worldly, etc.

Energy, drive, strength, vigour, stamina, zeal, power, etc.

Flimsy, shallow, superficial, weak, trivial, etc.

Ancient, primitive, archaic, obsolete, pristine, antiquated, old, etc.

Now, let us look at instances in which synonymy is used to achieve lexical cohesion in texts, using some of the synonyms we have identified above.

*When asked why he came late, he gave a **flimsy** reason. His **weak** reason did not in any way absolve him from punishment.*

*Christianity discourages adherents from engaging in **worldly** pleasures, as such **earthly** practices will perish with the world. They are **temporal**.*

*His ideas are always **archaic**. I guess he got such **obsolete** ideas from his grandfather, who brought him up. He grew up in the village, where **primitive** ideas are still celebrated in the name of culture and tradition.*

*My children are always full of **energy**. Sometimes I wonder where they get the **strength** from. They play with so much **vigour** during the day that when they sleep, they sleep like log of wood.*

3.4 Antonymy

Antonymy as a lexical device is the use of relationship of oppositeness to signal cohesion in a text. Examples of antonyms are listed below:

quick, fast and slow, sluggish

big, large, enormous, mighty and small, little, tiny, petit

happy, glad, joyful and sad, dejected, unhappy

rich, affluent, wealthy and poor, indigent,

strange and familiar

Now, let us construct texts that portray the use of antonymy as lexical device for connection.

Note: That no two words are absolutely synonymous in every context of use, likewise, no two words are absolutely antonymous.

*Goliath was a **mighty** man. Despite that David was a **little** shepherd boy, he was not intimidated by Goliath's enormous size.*

*The man was so **unhappy** when he got sentenced to six months imprisonment. However, a few weeks later, when he was set free he was so **joyful**.*

*In Lagos, the places where you find the **affluent** are Ikoyi, Victoria Island, Victoria Garden City, Ikeja GRA, and so forth. The **indigent** are found in parts of Ajegunle, Mushin, and Agege.*

*The twins have different traits. Taiwo is **fast**, though oftentimes **shoddy** in doing things. However, Kehinde is **sluggish**, but always comes out **perfect** in most of the things he does.*

3.5 Hyponymy

Hyponymy is a relationship of inclusion. In Hyponymy, the meaning of a lexical item includes in the meaning of another one. Hyponymy operates in such a way that there is an item regarded as the general item, also technically called the **superordinate**, which subsumes other words, which are the **hyponyms**. Readers/listeners are able to connect hyponyms and superordinates in texts, even when there is no proximity in their occurrence within the text. Examples of some English words that have relationship of hyponymy are listed below:

***Vegetable** – lettuce, okra, cabbage, water leaf, beans, potato, carrot.*

***Insect** – grasshopper, cockroach, termite, praying mantis.*

***Computer** – laptop, desktop, palmtop, digital wrist watch, mobile phone.*

***Cat** – pussy cat, tiger, puma, leopard, lion, cheetah.*

***Clothes** – shirt, trousers, blouse, skirt, coat, cardigan.*

***Flower** – hibiscus, rose, daffodil, rose periwinkle, lily.*

Now, let us use some of these hyponyms in text to signal cohesion.

*My mother loves **flowers**. Her favourite ones are **rose** and **lily**.*

*A **lion** is such a fearful animal. Nobody dares to stand without shaking at the first sight of the big **cat**.*

*Most of my **clothes** are now dirty. I hardly get a clean **shirt** to wear to work. I still manage the **trousers** because of their dark colours. The cold weather has really helped me, as I often put on **cardigans**. They help to cover my dirty shirts.*

Computers are indispensable for every average person. One needs a **desktop** for the home and possibly the office. You also need a **laptop** to help you work anywhere you find yourself. And of course, our **mobile phones** are needed for communication without boundary.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Identify and discuss the lexical cohesive devices used in Scene One of *The Trials of Brother Jero* by Wole Soyinka.

3.5 Meronymy

Meronymy is the technical name coined by Raquiya Hasan to refer to a Part-whole relationship. In this kind of relationship, a lexical item represents the part and the other or others represent the whole. Just like Hyponymy, it is a relationship of inclusion. However, while Hyponymy involves general items and specific ones, Meronymy involves whole items and part ones. Below are some examples of Part-whole relationship.

***Car** – dashboard, fender, rear light, bonnet, boot, tyre, radiator, throttle.*

***Computer** – monitor, CPU, keyboard, mouse.*

***House** – living room, bedroom, kitchen, bathroom, toilet, pantry, balcony.*

***Tree** – trunk, leaves, branch, stem.*

***Book** – preface, foreword, chapter, index, cover, contents.*

Examples of lexical cohesion, using meronymy in texts:

*My driver took the **car** out yesterday. After his return, I discovered that the **bumper** had been dented and the **mirror** at the passenger's side had cracked.*

*When I checked the **computer** supplied by the company yesterday, I discovered that the **mouse** was missing. The **keyboard** was also defective, because it is very stiff. However, the **monitor** met our specification.*

*The **house** is quite a big one. Each of the **bedrooms** has its **toilet** and **bathroom**. The **living room** is massive. I also love the design because of the **courtyard**.*

*Our new **book** came out yesterday. We were commended for the **contents**, which covers a wide range of issues in the discipline of Discourse Analysis. A renowned professor of English at the University of Lagos wrote the **foreword**. It has all together twenty **chapters**.*

3.6 Collocation

Some words frequently occur together than others. Most times, when you mention a particular lexical item, another one usually associated with it comes to the mind of your listener. This shows that words keep company of one another. This habitual co-occurrence of words is generally referred to as **Collocation**. According to J.R. Firth, who first talked about collocation, “you know a word by the company it keeps.” Collocation is one of the most important lexical devices used for cohesion. Any good text can be said to reflect the writer’s/speaker’s choice of the right kinds of words – words that collocate. Only such combinations can form a unified text. The following pair of words are said to collocate in English:

<i>shoulder – shrug</i>	<i>pharmacy – drug</i>	<i>hospital – doctor</i>
<i>car – accident</i>	<i>class – teacher</i>	<i>fish – swim</i>
<i>bed – sleep</i>	<i>wardrobe – clothes</i>	<i>zoo – animal</i>
<i>sports – stadium</i>	<i>king – palace</i>	<i>book – read</i>
<i>dark – night</i>	<i>fan – air</i>	<i>key – door</i>

One can go beyond the pairs we have above to provide a range of words that a particular word will naturally co-occur with in English. Find the examples below.

Library – *read, silent, borrow, catalogue, book, shelves.*

Car – *drive, road, engine, garage, mechanic, highway, seat belt, petrol.*

Hospital – *patient, doctor, ward, out-patient, theatre, nurse, casualty, diagnose.*

Computer – *program, word-process, Internet, document, Microsoft, flash drive, CD, type.*

Newspaper – *headlines, editor, advert, editorial, news, report, beat, proof-read, vendor.*

Language – *tongue, speak, write, conversation, communication linguist.*

4.0 CONCLUSION

This unit is the conclusion of what we started in Unit 11. Apart from the grammatical devices used for achieving cohesion in texts, which we discussed in Unit 12, we identified also the lexical devices in this Unit. Six lexical devices were discussed in this Unit – Reiteration, Synonymy, Antonymy, Hyponymy, Meronymy, and Collocation. Any good text is made up of a carefully chosen series of lexical items that are related in any of the ways we have identified. It is the relatedness of the items in meaning that makes a text to be cohesive and coherent.

5.0 SUMMARY

Cohesion is a very important attribute of any well-constructed text. Cohesion is achieved either through the use of any of the grammatical or lexical devices we have discussed in the unit. It is important that you are able to identify in any text – written or spoken, any of the following devices we have discussed and explain how you have come to recognize the link.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- (i) Explain the difference between Meronymy and Hyponymy.
- (ii) Select a feature article in a newspaper and discuss the lexical cohesion in the feature article.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Halliday, M. A. K. and Hasan, R. (1976) *Cohesion in English*. London: Longman.

MODULE 5 APPROACHES TO DISCOURSE ANALYSIS III

Unit 1	Pragmatics: An Introduction
Unit 2	Speech Acts
Unit 3	Grice's Cooperative Principles
Unit 4	Politeness Principles

UNIT 1: PRAGMATICS: AN INTRODUCTION

CONTENTS

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2.0	Objectives
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3.2	Some Basic Pragmatic Principles
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

The use of language in a social situation is a major concern of linguists in contemporary times. This is a departure from the earlier practice that concentrated so much the forms of language and neglects the functions the language performs in the social context in which it is used. Our concern in this Unit will be on the functions that language performs when it is used. A discipline emerged in the 1970s to adequately account for this, and it is generally referred to as Pragmatics. Pragmatics looks at the aspect of meaning and language use that are dependent on the speaker and the addressee. It focuses on the context of the utterance, and the generally observed principles language users obey to be able to cooperate in any speech situation. The major focus of Pragmatics is to examine how language functions in the social situations in which it is used.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this Unit, you should be able to do the following:

- explain clearly what Pragmatics is;
- identify the basic principles of Pragmatics in any natural conversation; and

- show how utterances can be explained with reference to the context in which they are produced.

HOW TO STUDY THE UNIT

- Read this unit as diligently as possible.
- Find meaning of unfamiliar words in the unit using your dictionary.
- As you read, put major points down in a piece of paper or jotter.
- Do not go to the next section until you have fully understood the section you are reading now.
- 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 Pragmatics?

Pragmatics is a sub-field of Linguistics, which, as mentioned earlier, emerged in the 1970s. The major proponents were philosophers, who took the position that when we make utterances, such utterances are used to perform certain acts (See Austin, 1962 and Searle, 1969). They also believe that since our utterances are situated in a particular context, such context affect what we produce. We can only produce utterances that obey the principles that guide speech behaviour in the context of our speech. As we will soon see in this module, there are principles that guide our cooperation with other users of language when we use language. Such principles help us to produce relevant utterance to the situation. We can only be understood if our utterances are relevant to the situation.

Pragmatics distinguishes two intents or meanings in each utterance or communicative act of verbal communication. One is the **informative intent** or the **sentence meaning**, and the other the **communicative intent** or **speaker meaning** (Leech, 1983; Sperber and Wilson, 1986). Speakers of any language possess what is called **pragmatic competence**, *i.e.*, his/her knowledge of the social status of the speakers involved in an utterance, knowledge of the social distance between the speakers, knowledge of the culture, such as politeness, knowledge of how one can infer from an utterance the intended meaning of the speaker as opposed to the surface form produced, and so forth. Pragmatics is the study of how contextual factors interact with linguistic meaning in the interpretation of utterances.

As we mentioned earlier, the whole idea of Pragmatics has philosophical origin. One of the earliest references to Pragmatics in Philosophy can be found in the work of Charles Morris (1938), who defined it as the study of the relations between signs and their interpreters; however, it was the philosopher Paul Grice's William James lectures at Harvard in 1967 that led to the real development of the field. Grice introduced the notion of **implicature**. According to *Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy*, an

implicature is something meant, implied, or suggested distinct from what is said. Implicatures can be part of sentence meaning or dependent on conversational context, and can be conventional or unconventional. Conversational implicatures have become one of the principal subjects of Pragmatics. We will discuss more on this in the sections that follow.

3.2 Some Basic Pragmatic Principles

In this section, we shall be looking at some basic concepts in Pragmatics. These concepts are so central to Pragmatics that they represent the foundations for the study of Pragmatics. They are the basic issues that underlie the study of Pragmatics. They include concepts like utterance, context, entailment, implicature, deixis and presupposition. They are discussed in the sub-sections below.

3.2.1 Utterance and Context

An utterance is a unit of speech generally but not always bounded by breaths and pauses. It may also be described as a complete unit of talk, sometimes bounded by the speaker's silence. Every utterance is made within some specific context. By context, we do not just refer to the **physical context**, but to everything that surrounds the making of the utterance. These include what is going on in the place where the utterance is made, the knowledge of the speaker and the addressee of the culture in which they are operating (**cultural context**), knowledge of the expectations and discursive practices of the people among whom the utterance is being made, especially as it relates to the social roles and relationships (**social context**). Context also includes the knowledge of the world of the speaker (**epistemic context**) and the utterances that precede and follows the one under consideration (**linguistic context**). According to Taiwo (2007: 2), studying an utterance without consideration for the context in which it is produced is like studying the cardio-vascular system as a complete separate entity from any other part of human or animal anatomy. Language creates contexts and contexts create the possibilities for interpretation and remove multiple ambiguities that utterances would have had if they had occurred in isolation.

3.2.2 Entailment

Entailment is also known as logical implication. For most utterances we made to be properly interpreted, we need the knowledge of entailment. Entailments are deductions and inferences we have about particular utterances that make us to interpret them appropriately. For instance, two sentences are related in the sense that the truth of one requires the truth of the other. For instance, utterance:

1. *The President was assassinated yesterday.*

entails that:

2. *The President is dead*

If 1 is false, then 2 will necessarily be false and *vice versa*. So, the addressee will know that the fact that somebody was assassinated means that the person is dead.

3.2.3 Implicature

An implicature is something meant, implied, or suggested as distinct from what is said. Implicatures can be part of sentence meaning or dependent on conversational context. The term “implicature,” was coined by Paul Grice, one of the earliest scholars of Pragmatics. An implicature is anything that is inferred from an utterance, but is not necessarily a condition for the truth of the utterance. This is where implicature differs from entailment. For an entailment, what is inferred must be a condition for the truth of what is uttered. But in implicature, the truth of a statement only suggests that of the other and does not necessarily require it.

Let us look at an utterance, such as this:

3: *Have you got some cash on you?*

The conversational implicature is not found in the plain message before us. Rather, the speaker possibly implies that he would want the addressee to lend him/her some money because he/she does not have enough at the time of uttering the statement. Implicatures are arrived at by looking at the following:

- the usual linguistic meaning of what is said;
- the shared or general knowledge; and
- the assumption that the speaker is obeying what Grice calls the **cooperative principle**.

We shall look at what we mean by the cooperative principles in units that follow.

3.2.4 Deixis

Deixis simply means the use of reference items in utterances. Such reference items depend greatly on the context of the utterance (the extralinguistic context). Words that are considered deictic include *I, you, now, here, that, there, etc.* There are different kinds of deixis:

Discourse Deixis: A discourse deictic refers to a portion of the discourse relative to the speaker’s current location in the discourse. Example:

*I hope you enjoyed **that** story.*

*The vocal cord vibrates when some vowels are pronounced. **These** are called voiced sounds.*

Personal Deixis: Personal Deixis are used to refer to the participant roles of the referent in a discourse, such as speaker and addressee. Personal deixis include first person deixis (*I, me, we, us, mine, myself, ourselves, etc*), second person deixis (*you, your, yours, yourself, yourselves*), third person deixis (*he, she, they*)

*Tola can come this evening. She must make sure **she** sees me before leaving.*

*Can you see that book with him? The book is **mine**.*

Place Deixis: Place deixis is deictic reference to a location relative to the location of a participant in the speech event, typically the speaker, e.g.: *this, that, here, there*.

*Please bring the box **here**. (the location of the speaker).*

*Once I was blind, but now I see. **This** is my story.*

Time Deixis: This is a deixis that refers to time relative to a temporal reference point. It typically points to the moment of the utterance. Examples are *now, then, tomorrow, yesterday, etc*. These are also called temporal adverbs.

*In 1969, my uncle graduated from the university as a medical doctor. I was very young **then**.*

*Please come to my office **tomorrow**. (determined by the time the speaker uttered the statement).*

Social Deixis: Social deixis refers to the social characteristics or distinctions between the participants in a discourse. Examples are *Your Highness, Mr. President, His Excellency, His Royal Highness, our mentor, etc*.

***Your Excellency**, we welcome you to this historic occasion.*

*Today, we are honouring a man who has helped to shape our destiny, **our mentor**, Prof. Promise Brown.*

3.2.5 Presupposition

A presupposition is background belief relating to an utterance. A presupposition must be mutually known or assumed by the speaker and the addressee for the utterance to be considered appropriate in the context in which it is uttered. A presupposition is generally based on implicit assumptions, which are arrived at through the process of inference. Presupposition is a common daily occurrence in language use. It is the mechanism used implicitly to make assumption in day-to-day language. Let us look at some English utterances and the possible presuppositions they have.

UTTERANCE	PRESUPPOSITION
<i>Nobody in their right senses would talk that way</i>	1. The utterance of someone is bad 2. Anyone who disagrees in the speaker's opinion is not in his right senses
<i>I want to tell you more about poultry farming.</i>	1. The addressee knows some things about poultry farming 2. The speaker is more knowledgeable in poultry farming than the addressee
<i>I will arrange for some extra money for your expenses.</i>	1. Some money has already been arranged for the addressee's expenses. 2. The money arranged was not sufficient. 3. The speaker has control over the money being spent.
<i>How close are you to Lagos?</i>	1. The addressee is close to Lagos. 2. The addressee is on his way to Lagos.
<i>Bola has lost her enthusiasm for the less privileged.</i>	1. Bola used to have enthusiasm for the less-privileged. 2. Something made Bola to lose her enthusiasm
<i>I am making a lot of progress on the project. You need to come and see it.</i>	1. The speaker has an ongoing project. 2. The addressee knows what the project is. 3. The progress the speaker is making is beyond the ordinary one.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- (i) Select any of Obasanjo's speeches when he was the president of the nation and discuss the presuppositions in the speech.
- (ii) Also discuss the use of deixis in the speech.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Utterances are made by language users with a lot of assumptions, yet communication goes on smoothly, because there are some naturally designed means by which utterances are understood. Through these means, people can understand even what is not said by using contextual cues, relying on their shared knowledge with the speaker(s) and their general world view. Pragmatics has made us to understand how we arrive at meaning of utterances by relying on the context of such utterances.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, we have been able to look at an introductory aspect of Pragmatics. Through our study in this unit, we have been able to lay the foundations for the other

concepts we shall be examining later in the module. One key concept in Pragmatics is context. It underlies every other concept that we may want to examine. It is the basis for arriving at any presupposition, entailment, and implicature. It is also the basis for the effective use of deixis in discourse.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- (i) Discuss what you understand by the term “Pragmatics.”
- (ii) Differentiate between, Implicature, Entailment and Presupposition using adequate examples.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Austin, J. L. (1962) *How to Do Things with Words*, Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press.

Leech, G. N. (1983) *Principles of Pragmatics*. Longman.

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UNIT 2 SPEECH ACTS THEORY

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Speech Acts: An Introduction
 - 3.2 Performative Verbs
 - 3.3 Locutionary, Illocutionary and Perlocutionary Acts
 - 3.4 Self-assessed Exercises
 - 3.5 Felicity Conditions
 - 3.6 Direct and Indirect Speech Acts
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The Speech Act Theory is one of the earliest theories proposed in Pragmatics. J.L. Austin in his popular book *How to do Things with Words* observes that whenever we make any utterance, we are performing an act. Such acts may include requesting, questioning, commanding and so forth. In general sense, we can know the act performed by a sentence when it is uttered. In this Unit, we shall be looking at how we perform acts through our utterances. We shall also look at some types of Speech Act.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- explain what we mean by ‘Speech Act’;
- identify performative verbs when you see them in an utterance; and
- differentiate between direct and indirect Speech Acts.

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 Speech Act

Every sentence we make is designed to perform certain functions. Such functions include, just informing people about something, warning, ordering somebody or a group of people to do something, questioning somebody about a fact, thanking somebody for a gift or an act of kindness, and so forth. When we utter statements, we expect our listeners to recognize and understand the functions such statements are meant to perform. For instance, when we ask a question, we expect our addressee to realize that we are requesting for information. If they failed to appreciate our intention, then we can say they have ‘misunderstood’ us. This is what is termed as **Speech Act**. The theory of Speech Act therefore states that whenever we utter a statement, we are attempting to accomplish something with words (see Austin, 1962 and Searle, 1969). Below, we have a table indicating some utterances and their forms and their functions.

Utterance	Form	Function
<i>Did you see him yesterday?</i>	Interrogative	Question
<i>My son is a medical doctor</i>	Declarative	Statement
<i>Shut the door please</i>	Imperative	Command

Other examples of utterances that perform some Speech Act:

I pronounce you husband and wife (uttered by a pastor when joining a couple together).

I hereby sentence you to ten years in jail (uttered by a judge in a court).

I promise to pay you by month end (uttered by a debtor to a creditor).

3.2 Performative Verbs

Performative verbs are verbs used to indicate that certain acts are meant to be performed by the utterance. For instance each of utterances 15.1 – 15.3 above has a performative verb – *pronounce* (15.1); *sentence* (15.2), and *promise* (15.3). There are several other verbs in English that can be considered as performative verbs. They include the following:

- Appoint** - *I appoint you as the director of the institute.*
- Thank** - *I thank you for you kind gestures.*
- Warn** - *I warn you to desist from that act.*
- Congratulate** - *I congratulate you on call to the Bar.*
- Announce** - *We hereby announce the death of our grandfather.*
- Guarantee** - *I guarantee you that the product will last.*

- Request* - *I hereby request for my transcript.*
Offer - *I offer you the job on a monthly salary of N10,000.*

Looking at the structural pattern of these utterances, you can see that the performative verbs have a special place in the utterances fitting into the sentence frame like this

I (hereby) [verb] you [complement].

Such utterance we have above are also referred to as **performative utterances**.

3.3 Locutionary, Illocutionary and Perlocutionary Acts

Austin identifies three kinds of acts that are performed when a language is used. He made a distinction between **locutionary act**, **illocutionary acts** and **perlocutionary acts**. Locutionary acts are considered as acts of speaking – acts involved in the construction of speech. They include using particular words in conformity with the particular rules of a language and with certain senses and references as determined by the rules of the language from which they are drawn. (Sadock, 2006:54).

Illocutionary acts are acts done in speaking – acts that are the apparent purpose for using a performative utterance, such as promising, sentencing, guaranteeing, thanking, and so forth.

Perlocutionary acts are the consequences or the by-product of speaking. They produce some effect upon the thoughts, feelings and actions of the addressee and the speaker.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- (i) What is Speech Act?
- (ii) Select a written short play and discuss the use of speech acts in it.

3.5 Felicity Conditions

Felicity conditions are the conditions that have to be fulfilled before an utterance can be said to be successful. They are the conditions that have to be met before one can say that a speaker has made a sincere statement. For instance, for A to request B to shut the door, the following conditions must be met:

- a. A must believe that B has the ability to shut the door.
- b. A must have the desire that B should shut the door.
- c. A must believe that B will shut the door, if requested.
- d. A must have good reasons for B to shut the door.

3.6 Direct and Indirect Speech Acts

A direct speech act is one whose proposition is clearly represented in the utterance and understood by the addressee. For instance, the statement:

Please put on the fan.

Is a direct speech act because it is clearly seen as a request that the addressee do something – *put on the fan*. Some speech acts are not this direct in their proposition, yet the addressee will still through inference and implicature understand the intention of the speaker. For example, the statement:

It's hot in here.

May be an indirect counterpart of 15.4. The addressee will by inference understand that being hot is uncomfortable. So the addressee will recognize the utterance as an indirect speech act that is making a request of him to put on the fan. Even though the utterance is a statement, its function is that of a command. It is also possible for the speaker to accomplish his intention by using the utterance:

Do we have to stay in this heat all day?

which is a question, but still achieving the same purpose of indirectly requesting the addressee to put on the fan. The addressee would not have understood the speaker's intention if he/she had taken 15.4 as a mere statement of fact or 15.6 as a Polar or Yes/No question.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Each time we make an utterance, we are using them to perform certain acts. Such acts may be directly stated by the speaker or indirectly stated. Certain verbs are used to explicitly signal that an utterance is meant to perform an act. They are referred to as performative verbs, while the utterances in which they occur are called performative utterance. For any utterance to be judged as sincere, it has to fulfil certain felicity conditions. The meaning of utterances is not always directly reflected in their surface forms. Some utterances have surface forms that differ from the intention of the speaker. These are called indirect speech acts.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, we looked at the theory of speech act as proposed by J.L. Austin and .R. Searle. We examined performative verbs used in performative utterances, the types of speech act, and the felicity conditions that have to be met before a speech act can be successful. Lastly, we looked at direct and indirect speech acts. Indirect speech acts are particularly considered as being important because their meaning is arrived at through inference, since the surface form does not indicate the meaning.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Record a casual conversation and discuss the speech acts used in it.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Austin, J. L. (1962) *How to do things with words*. Claredon Press.

Searle, J. (1969) *Speech Acts*. Cambridge University Press.

UNIT 3 GRICE'S COOPERATIVE PRINCIPLES

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
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 - 3.1 Cooperative Principles: General Formulation
 - 3.2 Maxims of the Cooperative Principles
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- 5.0 Summary
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- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In this unit, we shall be learning about the principle that H.P. Grice identified as what we follow whenever we are engaged in a conversation. When we are engaged in any conversation, there is a basic underlying assumption we make in the sense that we try to cooperate with one another to construct meaningful conversation. This assumption is known as **Cooperative Principle**. This assumption is what will be our concern in this unit. Within the assumption, Grice identified four maxims that we try to observe. We will also discuss these maxims.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this Unit, you should be able to do the following:

- explain what is meant by Cooperative Principle; and
- identify in any conversation the observation of any of the maxims of the cooperative principle.

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 Cooperative Principle: General Formulation

Speakers try to contribute meaningful, productive utterance to further whatever conversation they are involved in. Listeners also assume that their conversational partners are doing the same. The summary of cooperative principle according to Grice (1975) is:

Make your conversational contribution such as is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which you are engaged.

Speech errors are often ignored in conversation as long as the meaning the speaker is trying to get across is clear. Likewise, we often find that meaning in some statements on the surface seem ridiculous and unrelated, *eg.* sarcasm, metaphors, hyperbolic statements and so forth, because we assume that speakers who use them are trying to get across some meaning. This is what the whole idea of cooperative principle is all about.

3.2 Maxims of the Cooperative Principle

Grice came up with four general maxims that speakers and listeners obey in conversations. The maxims are like a rule of thumb. They are not hard and fast rules, but speakers try to observe them in most conversations. The observance of Cooperative Principle allows for the possibility of implicatures. Implicatures as treated earlier are meanings that are not explicitly conveyed in what is said, but they can still be arrived at through inference.

3.3 Maxim of Quantity

- Make your contributions as informative as required.
- Do not make your contribution more informative than is required.

This is what language users do in conversations when they make sure that they go straight to the point by providing only the necessary information. People who provide too much detail than necessary in conversation end up discouraging other speakers because they would have taken too much time saying what they would have said in a short period. Most people will frown at such things in conversation. This shows that we are always conscious of this maxim.

3.4 Maxim of Quality

- Do not say what you believe to be false.
- Do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence.

People who always provide false and unsubstantiated information in conversation are not usually liked. This is why lying is not an acceptable speech behaviour in any human culture. In any normal conversation, people try to provide truthful information to maintain their integrity. Once a person is known to be a liar by people around him/her, people will not always believe his/her utterances.

3.5 Maxim of Relevance

- Be relevant.

Every utterance in any conversation is meaningful only in relation to other utterances made earlier before it. Those who make statements that are not relevant to the conversation are either seen as not following the conversation well enough to make meaningful contributions or they are, in extreme cases, seen as people who need to have their head examined. It is generally believed in most human cultures that it is better to keep quiet and follow a conversation than to make irrelevant utterances.

3.6 Maxim of Manner

- Avoid obscurity of expression.
- Avoid ambiguity.
- Be brief.
- Be orderly.

The maxim of manner is one of the ways people collaborate to build an intelligible conversation. Utterances must not be obscure, that is, as much as possible, the meaning should not be hidden to the extent that the addressee would not be able to decode it. Likewise, ambiguous statements are always avoided. It could be frustrating listening to people whose utterances are full of ambiguous expressions.

It is also important for our utterances to be brief and orderly. Brevity is one of the skills we try to acquire whenever we converse with others. We will not always have all the time to say all that we need to say. Since we know we have limited time to speak at any time, we organize our speech in such an orderly manner that we are still able to capture everything we need to say within the limited period available to us.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

1. Discuss Grice's Cooperative Principle.
2. What do you think are the limitations of this Principle?

4.0 CONCLUSION

Whenever people are engaged in a conversation, they are engaged in a cooperative venture. They have a sense of how long they should talk and the kind of things they should say that will make their speech meaningful to their addressee. They also know what is meaningful to say in any context and how they should say it. These are the things H.P. Grice summarized under his Cooperative Principle. Cooperating in conversation is done naturally as part of an average speaker's competence.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, we have examined the Grice's Cooperative principle. The principle comprises of four maxims, which state how we cooperate whenever we are engaged in a conversation. For instance, we do not say more than we ought to say. We also ensure that what we say is informative. We try to say only what is true and we ensure the relevance of our speech to the ongoing situation.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Using Grice's Cooperative Principle, discuss the conversations in Scenes 1 and 2 of *The Trials of Brother Jero* by Wole Soyinka.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Grice, H. P. (1975) "Logic and Conversation" In Cole, P. and Morgan, J.P. (Eds.) *Syntax and Semantics 3: Speech Acts*. Academic Press.

UNIT 4 **POLITENESS IN CONVERSATION**

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 What is Politeness?
 - 3.2 Face and Politeness
 - 3.3 Politeness Strategies
 - 3.4 Politeness Principle
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 **INTRODUCTION**

Politeness is one of the most important factors in language use. Users of every language practice politeness in one form or the other. In our daily interactions, we have ways of speaking to and addressing people that shows that we have some form of respect for them. There are ways we speak to our friends and there are ways we speak to people we are not familiar with. We are more polite in our use of language in informal settings than in formal settings.

This unit looks at the whole idea of politeness in conversations. The idea of politeness in the study of Pragmatics is closely tied to the concept of face. Some scholars have identified some politeness strategies and maxims generally used by speakers. We shall be examining these and other issues connected with politeness in conversation and writing.

2.0 **OBJECTIVES**

By the end of this Unit, you should be able to do the following:

- explain the whole concept of politeness in discourse;
- show how politeness and face relate; and
- use the politeness principles identified to analyze a text for occurrences of politeness or otherwise.

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 Politeness?

Politeness is a kind of disposition we have towards other people that makes us not to want to hurt their feelings or do things that we know will make them feel unwanted. When we speak to others, we try to be polite in the kinds of things we say to them by carefully choosing our words. We are tactful and nice in what we say, even when we do not sometimes mean it. We choose our words to fit the different occasions we experience everyday. Even when we say things that are not too polite, especially when they are not said deliberately, we try to apologize. We are quick to recognize it when people are not polite in their speech because we have a sense of what it means to be polite when we address other people. For instance, respect is a form of politeness. In the Yoruba culture, greeting is considered as part of politeness, especially when we are meeting people for the first time in a day or after a very long time, or even people we have never met before. We are more polite with people we are meeting for the first time than we are with people we are familiar with. We are also more polite in formal situations than in informal ones. We are more polite when we speak with people older than us than we are with people who are our contemporaries or people who are junior to us. It is important to note that what constitutes politeness differs from one culture to another. For instance, it is impolite for a child to speak where adults are speaking in the Yoruba culture unless such a child was permitted to do so. However, in the English culture it may not be necessarily seen as an impolite act.

3.2 Face and Politeness

The most relevant concept in politeness is **face**. Face refers to the respect an individual has for himself or herself. According to Brown and Levinson (1986), speakers develop politeness strategies to maintain their self esteem. One's face is one's public self-image. Every person has an emotional sense of self that they want every other person to recognize. So when we are polite, we have shown awareness of another person's face.

If you say things that make people embarrassed or uncomfortable, or something that threatens another person's self image, you are said to have employed a **face threatening act (FTAs)**. Politeness strategies are developed to deal with FTAs. For instance, if one uses a direct imperative to demand something from somebody, the impression you are creating is that you are better placed socially than the person, ie, you have a more superior social power than the person. It is alright to use direct imperative for people who have lower social power than to use the same for people

one is not socially superior to. To do the later is to use a FTA. On the other hand, when you say something that lessens possible threat to another person's face, you are said to be performing a **face-saving act**.

Everybody has what Brown and Levinson call a **negative face** and a **positive face**. A negative face is the tendency in a person to be independent and have freedom from imposition. When a speaker says *I am sorry to bother you* for instance to someone he is trying to make an enquiry from, then he/she has used a face-saving act that emphasizes the addressee's negative face. A face-saving act that emphasizes the addressee's positive face draws attention to a common goal, e.g. such a person is likely going to make a statement such as: *You and I have a common problem* or *We can do it together*.

3.3 Politeness Strategies

Brown and Levinson (1987) identified four major types of politeness strategies, namely

- bald on record,
- negative politeness,
- positive politeness, and
- off-the-record or indirect strategy.

Bald on record strategies are strategies that do not attempt to minimize the threat to the hearer's face. It is commonly used by speakers who know their addressees very closely. With the bald on record strategies, there is a direct possibility that the audience will be shocked or embarrassed by the strategy. For instance, a bald on record strategy might be to tell your brother to wash the car, by saying "it's your turn today."

Positive politeness will attempt to minimize the threat to the hearers face. This strategy is most commonly used in situations where the interlocutors know each other fairly well. In many instances attempts are made to avoid conflicts. For example, a positive politeness strategy might be the request such as, "I know you are very busy now, but could you please spare me five minutes."

Negative politeness presumes that the speaker will be imposing on the listener. It is the desire to remain autonomous. For Instance, a speaker may request this way "I know you just paid your children's school fees, but please can you lend me N1, 000 till the weekend?" The addressee is likely to accede to the request if he/she has the means because the request shows a respect for their ability to maintain autonomy.

The final politeness strategy outlined by Brown and Levinson is the **indirect strategy**. Here the language is indirect, but the intention is usually clear from the context. For instance, a request can be made this way "Is there any eatery und the corner?" by someone who is hungry and wants to eat. This question insinuates that the speaker is hungry and would want to go and eat, but it is not put so directly.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

- (i) Discuss in details how the concept of face is related to politeness.
- (ii) Describe how you would politely make at least ten different requests.

3.4 Politeness Principle

Politeness Principle is a set of maxims, just like the Cooperative Principle discussed in the last unit. These maxims were proposed by Geoffrey Leech. Leech observes that participants in social interactions try to interact in an atmosphere of relative harmony. Below are the maxims.

Tact Maxim: minimize cost to other, maximize benefit to other. The first part of this maxim aligns with Brown and Levinson's strategies of minimizing imposition, while the second part reflects the positive politeness strategy of attending to the hearer's interests, wants, and needs. For example: "Can you spare me just two minutes please."

Generosity Maxim: Minimise benefit to self; maximize cost to self. This maxim makes it clear that to really express politeness in conversation, the speaker should put others first before him/her. For instance: "Don't worry, it's my pleasure to serve you." Or "Never mind, I'll do it."

Approbation Maxim: Minimise dispraise of other; maximize the expression of beliefs which express approval of others. This maxim implies that we should make others feel good by giving those complements and we should not praise ourselves, but rather allow others to do so. This also implies that we should as much as possible avoid disagreement with others. For instance: "I know you are good at electronics, can you check what the matter is with this tape recorder?"

Modesty Maxim: Minimise praise of self; maximize praise of others. We should find opportunities to praise others, while we dispraise self. For example: "I'm so stupid, can you imagine that I forgot my pen. Do you have an extra one for this exam? I will get one immediately after the paper"

Agreement Maxim: Minimise disagreement between self and other; maximize agreement between self and other. This is in line with Brown and Levinson's positive politeness strategy. In expressing politeness in conversation, we should avoid disagreement with other people. For example: "I thought we agreed that you would have to call before setting out to see me."

Sympathy Maxim: Minimise antipathy between self and other; maximize sympathy between self and other. One way of expressing politeness is to identify with people by congratulating them, commiserating with them or expressing condolences when they are bereaved. These, according to Brown and Levinson, show that we are interested in the welfare of other people. For example: "I am sorry to hear about your mother's demise."

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

Visit any shop where there is service-encounter, like a post office or restaurant and observe how the people at the counter observe or disregard politeness principle.

4.0 CONCLUSION

It is natural for us as we interact with people to be sensitive to the social situation in which the interaction takes place. One way of being sensitive to the social situation and cultural practices is to be polite in our interaction. Politeness is one phenomenon we observe in our daily interactions. Pragmatists have identified the strategies we use when being polite and the maxims we observe in the process. Some of such pragmatists include Brown and Levinson and Leech.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this Unit, we examined politeness in conversation. Politeness is a form of behaviour that helps us to establish and maintain comity and engage in actions in an atmosphere of harmony. We examined the concept of “face” and how it relates to politeness. We also looked at four politeness strategies identified by Brown and Levinson (1987). Lastly, we learnt that politeness principle has a set of maxims we adhere to when we are being polite in conversation.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Watch a “home video” and discuss the politeness principle and strategies used in the conversations.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Brown, P. & Levinson, S. (1987). *Politeness: Some Universals in Language Usage*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Goffman, E. (1967). ‘On facework: an analysis of ritual elements in social interaction’, in Jaworski, A., and Coupland, N. (eds.) *The Discourse Reader*, London, Routledge, pp. 306-321.

Leech, G. N. (1983). *Principles of Pragmatics*. Arnold.

MODULE 6 LATER APPROACHES TO DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

Unit 1	Critical Discourse Analysis
Unit 2	Discourse in Use (Discourse and the Media)
Unit 3	Discourse in Use (Discourse and Society)
Unit 4	Discourse and Other Disciplines

UNIT 1 CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

CONTENTS

1.0	Introduction
2.0	Objectives
3.0	Main Content
3.1	What is Critical Discourse Analysis?
3.2	Critical Discourse Analysis and Critical Linguistics
3.3	Language and Ideology
3.4	Conducting Critical Discourse Analysis Research
4.0	Conclusion
5.0	Summary
6.0	Tutor-marked Assessment
7.0	References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Our speeches and writings are not always neutral. They are products of our social identities, relationships and ideologies leanings. Language is not an abstract entity. It is related to the world in which it is produced in the sense that meaning is derived from the historical, social and political contexts in which a text is produced. The discipline we shall be looking at in this unit, looks at language beyond the surface text. Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA), as it is referred to draws attention to power imbalances, social inequities and the manipulative tendency people have in discursive practice. In this unit, we shall examine what CDA is, how language is related to ideology and how we can conduct research in CDA.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- discuss explicitly what we mean by Critical Discourse Analysis;
- identify the link between language and ideology; and
- describe how we can conduct research using Critical Discourse Analysis.

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 Critical Discourse Analysis?

Critical Discourse Analysis is an approach to doing Discourse Analysis that emphasizes the study of language and discourses in social institutions. It draws on post structuralist discourse theory and critical linguistics to focus on how social relations, identity, knowledge and power are constructed through written and spoken texts in different linguistic contexts. CDA is founded on the idea that there is unequal access to linguistic and social resources. The discipline developed within several disciplines in the humanities and social sciences, such as Pragmatics, Linguistics, Sociolinguistics, Sociology, Psychology, Stylistics, Anthropology and Ethnography. CDA produces insights into the way discourse reproduces (or resists) social and political inequality, power abuse or domination. CDA focuses on the ways discourse structures enact, confirm, legitimate, reproduce or challenge relations of *power* and *dominance* in society. Several scholars have worked within the CDA framework on areas such as media discourse, political discourse, gender discourse, and various institutional discourse, such as hospital discourse, office discourse and so forth. Later in the course of this module, we shall look at how to conduct a research using the CDA theory.

3.2 Critical Discourse Analysis and Critical Linguistics

CDA has a strong historical link with an approach developed by a group based at the University of East Anglia in the 1970s (Fowler, 1981; Fowler, *et al*, 1979) led by Roger Fowler. This group was strongly influenced by the work of Systemic Linguistics, combined with stylistic approaches borrowed from Chomskyan Transformational Generative Grammar and the works of Roland Barthes and early French Semiotics. The earliest and one of the most influential linguistically-oriented critical approaches to Discourse Analysis is called **Critical Linguistics**. It was concerned with reading the meanings in texts as the realization of social processes, seeing texts as functioning ideologically and politically in relation to their contexts. This was very much an approach in which discourse was text, but there was little emphasis on the production and interpretation of texts, a too ready assumption of the transparent relationship between textual features and social meanings and a neglect of discourse as a domain of social struggle or of the ways in which changes in discourse might be related to wider process of social and cultural change (Threadgold, 2003).

CDA therefore, draws on poststructuralist discourse theory and Critical Linguistics. It focuses on how social relations, identity, knowledge and power are constructed through written and spoken texts. The techniques of CDA are derived from various disciplinary fields, such as Pragmatics and Speech Acts theory, Systemic Functional Linguistics and Critical Linguistics. Pragmatics and Speech Acts theory see texts as forms of social action that occur in complex social contexts. Systemic Linguistics shows how linguistic forms can be systematically related to social functions. CDA uses analytical tools from these disciplines to address issues on class, power, gender, race and culture.

3.3 Language and Ideology

Scholars working within the field of CDA see a very strong relationship between language and ideology. The word Ideology is used in many disciplines with different, but overlapping shades of meaning. Ideology simply refers to attitudes, set of beliefs, values and doctrines with reference to religious, political, social and economic life which shapes the individual's and group's perception and through which reality is constructed and interpreted. It is the belief of scholars in CDA that every instance of language use is produced from an ideological perspective. According to Taiwo (2007), in most interactions, users bring with them different dispositions towards language, which are closely related to their social positioning. Kress (1990) also stresses that the defined and delimited set of statements that constitute a discourse are themselves expressive of and organized by a specific ideology.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

- (i) Discuss extensively what you understand by the term “Critical Discourse Analysis.
- (ii) In what way is Critical Discourse Analysis different from Discourse Analysis?

3.4 Conducting Critical Discourse Analysis Research

Conducting a research in CDA is not exactly like conducting a research in other disciplines. One thing that should always be behind the mind of a CDA researcher is that a text, either spoken or written is not neutral. What the CDA researcher seeks to unveil is the ideology behind every text.

A researcher doing a CDA research is also concerned with the way social power is used in interactions. Generally, the research is concerned with the way social power is abused to reflect dominance, manipulation, discrimination and every form of inequality. They are also concerned with how the dominated resist dominance linguistically. The enactment and resistance of power is central to any research in CDA.

Data collection in CDA research follows the ethnographic methods - the use of tape recorder and participant observation. For spoken discourse, the tape recorder is used to

collect utterances, which will later be transcribed for the purpose of the research. It is important for the researcher to observe the interaction. This will enable them to take observational notes, which would normally help in the interpretation of the data.

CDA researchers always focus on areas such as feminist discourse, which they have observed reflects gender inequality. One of the key areas to focus on are power differences in everyday conversation between interactants of different gender, verbal sexual harassment, stereotype and sexual representations of women in male-dominated discourse, gender inequalities in bureaucratic and professional talk, the representation of women in the press, and so forth.

Another area is political discourse. Scholars have observed that political discourse, such as campaigns, parliamentary debates, speeches are full of expressions that show the enactment, reproduction and legitimization of power and domination. Interactions that reflect inter-ethnic relations are also studied. Scholars, such as Teun van Dijk have done a lot of empirical work on discourse and racism showing how discourse shows one form of resentment or another against racially or ethnically defined Others.

Other discourse genres that have been studied from a critical point of view are medical discourse, courtroom exchange, education and science, and corporate texts.

Data for any CDA study is subjected to critical analysis looking beyond the words used to see how the text reflects power dynamics in the society. The researcher, using the utterances looks at the context that produces the text. The context includes the historical dimension and the cultural practices that are typically associated with that form of social action.

4.0 CONCLUSION

The enactment of power in discourse is considered very important as it has implications for the participants and the interpretation of the discourse. CDA recognizes that those who are privileged to have access to social power through their wealth, status, knowledge, age, gender often abuse it in discourse when they interact with people without such power. This has been shown in gender, political, racist, legal and medical discourse. The goal of CDA is to establish this fact in discourse.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, we have examined the discipline Critical Discourse Analysis. We looked at how it originated and the practices. Tracing its origin to the Systemic Functional Linguistics, we identified CDA as having a very strong link with Critical Linguistics. The concept of 'ideology' is very important in CDA because texts are linked to the ideology behind their presentation. We also looked at the various areas that CDA has employed over the years and how to conduct research in CDA.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSESSMENT

Pick 5 different newspaper headlines on the same news item and discuss them using the Critical Discourse Analysis method.

7.0 SUMMARY

In this Unit, we examined CDA, a sub-discipline of Discourse Analysis. We started by examining what is meant by CDA. We traced the origin to Critical Linguistics, which started in East Anglia and other disciplines that use the social approaches to analysis. The relationship between language and ideology was looked at, since our attitudes, beliefs and orientation cannot be separated from the language we use. A very important aspect of this unit is the one that outlined how to do a research using the CDA approach.

8.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Luke, A. Theory and Practice in Critical Discourse Analysis. In L. Saha (ed) *International Encyclopedia of the Sociology of Education*, Elsevier Science Ltd.

UNIT 2 DISCOURSE IN USE (DISCOURSE AND THE MEDIA)

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 CDA and Written Discourse
 - 3.2 Newspaper Discourse
 - 3.3 Ideology in Newspaper Discourse
 - 3.4 Discourse and Power in Newspaper
 - 3.5 Applications of CDA to Newspaper Reports
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The last unit was a kind of introductory one on Critical Discourse Analysis. This unit builds on the last one by examining in details an aspect of CDA, which focuses on written discourse, specifically newspaper discourse. A newspaper is a product of the social system in which it is published. It is therefore expected to mirror the societal values. Despite the claims of objectivity by journalist, news items are known to be written from the writer's angle of judgement. In this unit, we shall see how news also reflects the enactment and reproduction of social power.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- explain the whole idea of newspaper discourse;
- show how ideology is reflected in newspaper discourse;
- discuss how women are represented in the Media; and
- identify how power is enacted in newspaper discourse.

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 CDA and Written Discourse

Discourse Analysis generally is sometimes associated with speech. But this should not be so, since language is not just speech. It is also writing as well as non-verbal. Discourse Analysis takes care of everything significant both linguistically and extra linguistically. Written discourse as we earlier observed is more carefully constructed. Critical Discourse analysts are interested in written discourse such as newspapers, other literature and electronic discourse, such as e-mail, chats, text messages, and so forth. Power is not only enacted in spoken discourse. Written discourse also reflects the societal power structure. Since writing is meant for others to read, and in most cases, the writer may not be with the reader, writers try to be explicit. Writing reflects the mind of the writer and this is not always neutral, because every writer writes from a point of view, which may not be obvious unless a critical analysis is done. In this unit, we are concentrating on newspaper discourse, which critical discourse analysts have found to be a genre rich in what they look for in texts.

3.2 Newspaper Discourse

Newspaper discourse covers a wide range of issues that are connected with newspaper. It includes such aspects of newspapers as headlines, news reports, editorials, advertisements, announcements, features and so forth. Any of these aspects can be subjected to a critical analysis with the view to knowing how much they reflect the use of social power and the ideologies that underlie their construction.

Newspaper headlines are particularly of importance to critical discourse analysts. Headlines are constructed to catch the attention of readers, so they employ the use of catchy lexicon selected to arouse the emotion of the reader to read the news. Any study of different newspaper headlines on a particular issue in the news will note that each newspaper constructs headlines from different points of view. For instance, let us see the following likely newspaper headlines on an issue:

Kano boils again! Twenty killed in Religious Riots

Religious Riots Erupts in Kano

Twenty killed in Religious Riots in Kano

Panic Among non-indigenes in Kano as 20 died in Religious Riots

A critical analysis of these headlines shows that all of them set out to arouse the attention of readers, but with focus on different aspects of the news. 19.2 will not arouse much emotion as the other three because it is silent on the number of casualties. In 19.1, the use of the word *again* is an indication that riots are regular features in Kano. Note the use of dramatic expressions like *boils*, *erupts*, *panic*, *etc.*

19.4 has another dimension to it by focusing on *non-indigenes* who are typically the targets of religious riots. This kind of headline may evoke retaliation in other parts of the country by a people against the group perceived to have attacked their own people in Kano.

In news reports, biases can also be identified, such biases may be in form of the manipulation in the choice of expressions to either obscure a group or magnify another. A group may also be painted in bad light, while others are given a positive image. For instance, some scholars have observed that women's image in the media is not always as positive as that of men. For instance, women are said to be portrayed more as sex objects and dependants in advertisements, while men are often portrayed as breadwinners and strong people.

Newspaper editorials are the opinions of the newspaper on happenings in the location where the newspaper is published. They are written with some form of bias, which shows the ideological stand of the owners of the newspaper. An editorial tries to balance issues, but at the end of the day, it is still clear where the interest of the newspaper lies. Just like headlines, editorials on the same issues can be critically analyzed to determine the ideological standpoints of each newspaper on such issues and how they have been able to pass across these using some specific linguistic resources.

3.3 Ideology in Newspaper Discourse

Every instance of language is a reflection of the prevailing discursive and ideological systems in the society where it is used. Newspaper editors use different linguistic devices to project their ideological viewpoints and to suit the ideological expectations of their audience. What then is ideology? Ideology in this context will be defined as a set of ideas or beliefs, which are held to be acceptable by the creators of a media text. Ideologies are based on a set of beliefs and attitudes shared by a group, class or society. Such ideologies can be projected in the media through news, advertisement, editorials and features. For instance, some writings are regarded as expressing gender imbalance since they tend to portray the female gender in the negative light.

3.4 Power in Newspaper Discourse

Power in newspaper is expressed through the news writer and the editorial board. The news writer expresses his power through their choice of linguistic resources of the language. One major power expressed through newspaper is the power of persuasion, which is often used in the construction of headlines. Some headlines are so emotionally-laden that they could spark up riots as soon as readers set their eyes on them. Editorials also express some form of power as the board of the newspapers view their opinion on public issues and debates. Some newspapers are considered elitist, that means they represent the interest of the elites. Others are considered populist newspapers, representing the interest of the general public, particularly the less-privileged. Some are pro-government, while others are considered anti-government. Most anti-government newspapers will always carry headlines that are anti-

government. While pro-government newspapers will carry only news that will paint the government in positive light.

The power of persuasion is also enacted in advertisements. Advertisers are careful to choose words that will portray their mind set. Their goal is to persuade people to buy their products or patronize their services. Due to competition, they either emphasize what makes their products preferable or what makes other products less preferable. When advertisers focus on ‘Others’, their aim is to ensure that the image of others diminishes while that of theirs increases. This is clearly an enactment of power to show superiority over Others.

Paid advertisements are particularly known to struggle for the expression of power. This is particularly striking in obituaries and remembrance adverts. Since the media space is open to all those who can afford to pay for its use, some advertiser want to show that they are different from Others, by looking for striking status symbols. For instance, it is common in Nigeria to see obituaries that will list all the children of the deceased and their locations, usually outside Nigeria., such as UK, Germany, Australia, USA, and so forth. Colour may also be used to portray power. Full colour advertisements are costlier than black and white ones. Glossy pages are costlier than newsprint pages. Some Nigerian magazines like *Ovation* are published in glossy pages with full colour making them affordable to only the Rich. The news focus is also the Super Rich. Such magazines are published to celebrate the affluent.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Select 5 newspaper headlines on similar theme and identify how they differ in their reflection of the ideological stands of the writers.

3.5 Gender Representation in the Media

Scholars in Media Studies have identified the typical ways women are represented in the Media. Women are often represented as being part of a context (family, friends, and colleagues) and working/thinking as part of a team. In drama, they tend to take the role of helper or object, passive rather than active. Often their passivity extends to victimhood. In addition, representation of women across the Media tends to highlight the following: beauty, sexuality and emotion. Discussion of women in the media tends to focus a lot on physical beauty to the near-exclusion of other values. This is clearly seen as stereotyping women in the media, while the male gender is portrayed in positive light. There is a general belief that the society is largely patriarchal in nature and until in the recent times, women have been marginalized in everything, including their representation in discourse.

When compared with the representation of women, representation of men in the media seems to be more positive. Representations of men across all media tend to focus on the following: strength, power, sexual attractiveness, physique and independence. Male characters are often represented as isolated, as not needing to rely on others (the lone hero).

Though our focus in this section is on the representation of gender, it is important to mention that there are other groups represented in the media, which have caught the attention of scholars. Some other focus on representation in the media in addition to gender is class, age, race or ethnicity, religion, ability, and so forth. For instance, media scholars believe that the entertainment industry tend to exaggerate affluence and under-represent the working class. Likewise, ethnic minorities are often stereotyped, while the majority is more favoured in media reports.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Research into the discourse of newspaper has shown that the written discourse is also one area well explored by scholars. Written discourses are not ideologically neutral. Newspaper discourse ranges from headlines to news and advertisements which have their features that make them to be labelled sometimes as stereotyped discourse against a particular social group. Groups that have been found stereotyped in the media are women, ethnic minorities, and people of a particular religious belief, the physically challenged, such as the blind, the deaf, the lame, the uneducated, and so forth.

5.0 SUMMARY

This unit examined how the newspapers, just like any other form of discourse is used as a forum for enactment of social power in the society. We examined the different aspects of newspaper where such power imbalances are expressed, such as in advertisement, news reports, editorials, and features. We particularly focused on gender representation in the media to show the way the media portray men and women in newspapers.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Identify and select two newspaper features that you think are biased in their representation of the female gender. Discuss the linguistic features that portray the writings as gender-biased writings.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 3 DISCOURSE IN USE (DISCOURSE AND SOCIETY)

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Discourse and Culture
 - 3.2 Discourse and Gender
 - 3.3 Discourse and Racism
 - 3.4 Discourse and Conflict
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In Unit 19, we looked at discourse in newspapers and how it is used to represent the imbalance of power in the society. Discourse is a social phenomenon, so the meaning of any form of discourse can only be traced back to the society in which it evolves. This unit will examine the various ways discourse is used to reflect and discriminate against the people who belong to the same culture, gender and race. In addition, we shall also see how discourse is used to engage in conflict and how it can be used to resolve conflict.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- show how discourse is used to reflect gender and how it is used to discriminate against a particular gender;
- identify the link between discourse and gender;
- explain the use of discourse to show bias for people of different race; and
- discuss the relationship between discourse and conflict.

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 Discourse and Culture

Discourse and culture are very close in terms of relationship, because discourse is used to express culture in so many ways. It is always the case that a group of language speakers constitute a discourse community and their discourse reflects their agreed ways of life. This is why discourse varies for instance with the context in which it is practiced. We can therefore on the basis of this identify various kinds of discourse. The classroom discourse, which takes place between the teacher and the pupils is characterized by certain discursive practices that set it apart from other kinds of discourse. For instance, the classroom culture demands that the teacher initiate the lesson and the pupils respond to their initiation, while the teacher gives the feedback (see Unit 10). The culture of some discourse types demands strictly that turns are properly taken, while others do allow interruption.

A group of people who have the same ethnic background share and express the same culture when they participate in discourse. That is why the Yoruba culture constrains the speaker to behave in a particular way when they practice their discourse. For instance, the norms for greeting differs from one language to another. In Yoruba, the norm is that a younger male person prostrates when greeting adults, while a younger female person kneel when greeting adults.

From our discussion so far, we have seen that cultural practices are closely intertwined with discursive practices. Cultural practices are sometimes expressed verbally, like in the Yoruba use of the honorific forms *é* or *èyin* for adults or people they are not too familiar with. Culture can also be expressed in discourse non-verbally through gestures. For instance, gaze direction. In the Yoruba culture, young persons being scolded are not expected to look straight into the eyes of the adult who is scolding them. Likewise, young children are not expected to stay where adults are discussing or even contribute to the discussion.

3.2 Discourse and Gender

The study of discourse is oftentimes not complete without examining how Gender affects discourse and how discourse is used to portray gender (representation of gender in discourse). Scholars on Feminist Discourse and Gender Studies have identified different ways Gender shapes discourse.

One way of looking at Gender and discourse is to look at the speech of men and women. Women and men do not speak the same way in the sense that what they talk about is different. For instance, women often talk about feelings and relationships, their work, and their family. On the other hand, men talk most often about practical matters, like their latest computer update, how to repair their car, or even business.

Another way is to look at how women are represented. The general feeling of scholars on Media and Gender Studies is that women are stereotyped in discourse especially in the Media. Oftentimes, they are presented as sex symbols with the display of sensitive

parts of their bodies like their busts, thighs in adverts. Representations of women across all media tend to highlight the following: beauty, sexuality, emotions and relationship. Women are often represented as being part of a context (family, friends, colleagues) and working/thinking as part of a team. In drama, they tend to take the role of helper or object, passive rather than active. Often their passivity extends to victimhood.

Men on the other hand are represented with focus on the following aspects of masculinity: sex, power, physique and independence. With these stereotyping, Feminists scholars believe that women are most times misrepresented and this amounts to discrimination against the female gender. Men are provided with a larger number of opportunities to present their viewpoints and shown in diverse role in all areas like administration, law, business, science and technology. Representation of women varies from negligible to total exclusions and women in certain accepted professions are interviewed and talked about in the Press; for example, women educationists or women doctors. If they are interviewed for achieving success in a 'male' profession, then the article often goes to great pains to point out her 'femininity'.

3.3 Discourse and Racism

Racism is the expression of any form of prejudice, denial or discrimination against a person or a group of people on the basis of the colour of their skin, language, customs, place of birth or any factor that supposedly reveals the basic nature of that person. Racism is also seen as a belief that race accounts for differences in human character or ability and that a particular race is superior to others. Racism is often expressed by discriminatory or abusive behaviour and practices towards the members of the supposed inferior races or denial of certain rights to them on the basis that they are inherently inferior to another or other races.

Though racism is often expressed through actions, such as violence, oppression and denial of legal rights, it has been observed that racism is also expressed through discourse. Critical discourse analysts have labeled any discourse that has discriminatory tendencies towards people of other race(s) as 'racist discourse.' Racist discourse is not only practised by individuals. It is practised by institutions, such as government, corporations and educational institutions, which have power to influence the lives of many individuals. Scholars like Teun van Dijk have been working extensively on Racism and discourse since 1981. His focus has been on the reproduction of Racism in the Media, representation of immigrants, racism in elite discourse, the representation of ethnic minorities in the Press, and so forth.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Discuss at length the relationship between Discourse and Culture.

3.4 Discourse and Conflict

The relationship between discourse and conflict is considered to be very important mainly because conflicts are better managed when discourse is tactically used by those involved in it and the mediators. On the other hand, conflicts get out of hand when tact is not employed in the use of discourse for resolution. A major focus of CDA is the enactment of power in discourse. Since words are said to be very powerful, they could be used to change behaviour and societal orientation towards issues.

Conflicts arise from time to time among individuals and groups of people. For instance, ethnic conflicts are quite rampant all over the world. Conflicts arise in the face of perceived opposition of needs, values and interest. The idea of conflict ranges from minor disagreement over issues to conflicts that involve the use of force, termed “armed conflict.” Though scholars in the area of conflict studies have identified some possible ways of handling conflicts, such as collaboration, compromise and accommodation, none of these can be done without the use of discourse. Engaging in dialogue and negotiation around conflict is a major way of resolving conflicts. To dialogue means to tactically use language or discourse to resolve issues.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Discourse is a very powerful tool for individuals and the society. It is the means by which we engage in all forms of social practices. Our discourses represent our individualistic tendencies and they help us to shape our society. The use of discourse involves the use of different tact to manage our feelings and those of our listeners.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, we have examined how we use discourse in the society. Some of the issues addressed are the ways we use discourse to express our culture, how our gender feature in our discourse, how gender is represented in discourse, how our prejudices about others who belong to another races are expressed in discourse and how discourse is used to handle different kinds of conflicts.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

How can discourse be used to resolve conflicts?

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 4 DISCOURSE AND OTHER DISCIPLINES

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Discourse and Sociology
 - 3.2 Discourse and Philosophy
 - 3.3 Discourse and Medicine
 - 3.4 Discourse and Literature
 - 3.5 Discourse and Politics
 - 3.6 Discourse and Education
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

We will not have done justice to this course without looking at how discourse relates with other disciplines. As we noted earlier in the course, Discourse Analysis, though recognized as a branch of Linguistics has its origin in the social sciences. Discourse Analysis encompasses a wide range of activities. It is at the intersection of discipline as diverse as Sociolinguistics, Psycholinguistics, Philosophical Linguistics and Computational Linguistics. We shall look at the interplay between Discourse Analysis and some of these allied courses. Also of particular interest is the interplay between Discourse and Medicine, Literature, Politics, and Education.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- show how discourse relates with Sociology;
- identify some features of discourse in medical interactions;
- explain the role of discourse in Education practice; and
- show the relationship between discourse and literature.

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 Discourse and Sociology

Discourse has a great deal in common with Sociology. Sociology is the study of human behaviour as they interact in the society. The society helps to shape human behaviour. Sociologists study every aspect of human behaviour in the society, including linguistics behaviour. However, their goal is to be able to describe the role the society plays in the observed behavioural patterns. Linguists however study human language and explain how the society shapes the language. The field of Sociolinguistics is a hybrid discipline that brings together the methods of linguists and sociologists. The focus is to study how language is used in the society for social interaction (Hudson, 1980:1). It will be right to say that Discourse Analysis as a discipline originates from Sociolinguistics, whose major concern is language in use.

The whole idea of discourse is a societal phenomenon. Discourse is a social practice, therefore the methods of investigating it is closely related to those of investigating Sociology. The approach is such that the investigator takes the context as a very important factor therefore the researcher must be present in the field for observation and data collection. The field method is common to both disciplines.

3.2 Discourse and Philosophy

Discourse and Philosophy are also very much related. As we have seen earlier in the course in Module Five in the approach of Pragmatics. Philosophy is a discipline that enquires about such issues as life, knowledge and beliefs and discourse cannot be separated from these issues.

Linguistic philosophers have seen the connection between our words and our acts in the Speech Acts Theory. Whenever we utter a statement, we are performing an act, especially when we use performative verbs such as *pronounce*, as the priest will use while conducting a wedding: *I pronounce you husband and wife from this day..* They also try to explain the logic of language use, for instance, how we come to interpret utterances that do not have direct meaning. Philosophers also explain how we cooperate in ensuring that our discourse is successful.

Our knowledge of culture, norms and beliefs, especially as they relate to our language is explained by philosophers. We usually take these things for granted when we use language, this means that they are presupposed, and most times we have to derive meaning by entailment and inference.

3.3 Discourse and Medicine

The use of language in medical practice is one area that discourse analysts have investigated extensively. Medical interactions as they take place between doctors and patients during consultation period, interaction with pregnant women during the antenatal and postnatal clinics, and medical classroom interactions have been studied by various scholars (Coulthard and Ashby, 1976; Taiwo and Salami, 2007; Odebunmi, 2005) and so forth. Some other scholars have presented their observations on the broad topic discourse and medicine (Ainsworth-Vaughn, 2003; Fleischman, 2003).

Since medical practice involves a lot of interaction between the practitioners, who are the experts and the non-practitioners, the non-experts, such interactions have relevance for discourse analysts. Discursive practices, such as turn taking, turn allocation, elicitation techniques in clinical interviews have revealed a lot about the nature of medical discourse when compared with other forms of discourse. For instance, medical practitioners by virtue of their [+HIGHER] role will dominate any encounter with non-medical people.

3.4 Discourse and Literature

Discourse and Literature are allied disciplines in the sense that language is the vehicle for literature and every literary work is seen as a form of discourse. Stylistics is an area of language study where Literature and language meet. Any of the genres of literature is seen as a form of discourse, which can be analyzed using discourse analytic approach.

Critical Linguistics, introduced by Roger Fowler, is a critical linguistically-oriented examination of literary texts. It was concerned with reading the meanings in texts as the realization of social processes, seeing texts as functioning ideologically and politically in relation to their contexts.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Explain how Philosophy is related to Discourse.

3.5 Discourse and Politics

Politics is strongly associated with language. Language plays a central role in politics. Politicians interact with the people in various ways before they are elected and when they have taken up political post. According to Schaffner (1996), “any political action is prepared, accompanied, controlled and influenced by language” (p. 210). Aspects of political communication include (but is not limited to) statements made by politicians, writings of politicians, political speeches, election campaigns, parliamentary debates, and political interviews.

One aspect of political language use that scholars have studied is the use of deixis in political speeches. Deixis are reference items used in speech and writing. How politicians refer to themselves and others in their speeches is very important. It goes a long way to show how they enact power in discourse.

In politics, words are very powerful and politics is concerned with power – the power to control other people’s behaviour, influence their thought and determine their values. Discourse analysts study how politicians produce, and maintain social power in discursive practices. For instance, how effectively a politician can persuade the electorate, to large extent, determines how successful he/she will be in controlling or keeping power. Politicians also use discourse to coerce their opposition and legitimize their positions. Politicians explore the creativity nature of language by making use of metaphors, and specific lexis that will drive home their points.

3.6 Discourse and Education

Apart from language being the tool for instruction in schools, different languages are also studied as school subjects at various levels of education. Language plays a very important role in education. The use of the appropriate language at different levels of education will determine the success of learning. For instance, the mother tongue has been recognized as the most appropriate medium of instruction in the early childhood education, i.e., the primary school (Afolayan, 1976; Fafunwa, 1977). The argument is that concepts are better formed in the mother tongue than in a foreign or second language. At the higher levels, English can be used in a country such as Nigeria. Since English is the official language, it plays a vital role as the medium of instruction in schools. It is also a compulsory school subject at every level of education.

One other aspect of relationship of discourse to education is in the area of classroom discourse. Classroom discourse has been studied by scholars and according to Sinclair and Coulthard (1975), it is well structured in such a way that the scholars proposed a rank scale that can be used to describe what is happening in classroom discourse (for details on this, please refer to Unit 10). Teachers and pupils obey some basic rules of interaction in their discourse, for instance, in a typical classroom exchange there is an initiation by the teacher, a response from the students and a follow-up by the teacher. There are also different classes of act used by the teacher and the pupils in the course of classroom discourse.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Discourse Analysis is not an isolated discipline. Its origin and its current practice show that it is connected in an intricate way with several other disciplines. The discipline originated from the work of ethnographers and later became a discipline in language and social sciences. Now, scholars have shown the relevance of discourse to other disciplines by demonstrating how discourse is used in these disciplines.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this Unit we examined the relationship of Discourse with other disciplines. We specifically looked at Sociology and Discourse. We noted that they have similar approach to analysis. Language being a social phenomenon, it is governed by social norms that guide the general human behaviour. We also examined Discourse and Philosophy, and we saw that Philosophy probes into how we understand language and

interpret meaning in discourse. Discourse and Medicine was also examined, looking at how Discourse is used in medical interaction.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. “Any political action is prepared, accompanied, controlled and influenced by language.” Discuss this statement using adequate examples of the language of politics to justify your stand.
2. Discuss the interface between language and Education.

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