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**MINISTRY OF HIGHER EDUCATION & SCIENTIFIC
RESEARCH**
جامعة ابن خلدون تيارت
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كلية الآداب و اللغات
FACULTY OF LETTERS AND LANGUAGES
قسم الآداب واللغات الأجنبية
DEPARTMENT OF LETTERS & FOREIGN LANGUAGES

فرع اللغة الانجليزية
SECTION OF ENGLISH
PEDAGOGICAL DOCUMENT

MODULE TAUGHT: DISCOURSE ANALYSIS
MASTER 2 _ LINGUISTICS STUDENTS
MR. AHMED MEHDAOUI
MAÎTRE DE CONFÉRENCES "A"

ACADEMIC YEAR: 2020-21

FACULTY OF LETTERS & LANGUAGES

**DEPARTMENT: LETTERS AND FOREIGN
LANGUAGES**

FIELD: LETTERS & FOREIGN LANGUAGES

LEVEL: MASTER 2

SEMESTERS: THREE

TIME ALLOTTED: 22.30 HRS

COEFFICIENT: 2 CREDIT: 4

TEACHING MODE: TD 1.30H/WEEK

ASSESSMENT MODE: 50% / 50%

THE TEACHING UNIT:

FUNDAMENTAL 2	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
METHODOLOGICAL:	<input type="checkbox"/>
DISCOVERY	<input type="checkbox"/>
TRANSVERSAL	<input type="checkbox"/>

SECTION: ENGLISH

SPECIALTY: ENGLISH LANGUAGE

SUBJECT: DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

SUBJECT SYMBOL: UEF2

UEF1: DISCOURSE ANALYSIS
CREDITS: 04
COEFFICIENTS: 02
LEVEL : MASTER 2– LINGUISTICS
INSTRUCTOR : AHMED MEHDAOUI

Course Description:

Discourse analysis is a 4 credits course available in the first semester for second year Master students of linguistic studies. As an important area of study, discourse analysis program has been developed out of the desire to elucidate the nature of language and how it works in the context of people and situations. That is, the program of discourse analysis attempts to clarify the true nature of social meaning and their effects in various situations.

AIMS OF THIS PROGRAMME

The main aim of this programme is to provide students with the basic theoretical knowledge and empirical tools to some of the most relevant approaches to the analysis of discourse.

The Course objectives:

The following are the general objectives that the student/reader is expected to reach after studying the material in this programme:

- ✓ Identification of the different theories and approaches to discourse analysis,
- ✓ Analysis of different types of text and discourse from different perspectives,
- ✓ A desirable and anticipated effect of the study of discourse is also the development of an open and tolerant mind which will eventually lead to a better understanding of the different and varied manifestations of language, culture and communication in human society

Units' organization

Each unit contains both a theoretical and an empirical part. Each unit is connected to the main objectives followed by the theoretical development of the topic (main ideas and concepts) in question.

A sample analysis is always provided in order to clarify the ideas and concepts explained.

Each unit contains also further references for those interested in studying the topics presented in the unit in more detail as well as useful websites which might prove useful for doing further research on the subject matter.

Why Study Discourse Analysis?

Why do we study Discourse Analysis?

1. As linguists, to find out how language works, to improve our understanding of an important kind of human activity,
2. As critical analysts, to discover meanings in the text which are not obvious on the surface,
3. As educators, to find out how good texts work, so that we can focus on teaching our students these writing/speaking strategies.

ASSESSMENT AND EVALUATION:

- **Regular attendance, meaningful participation, and in class activities (25%)**
- **Test (25%)**
- **Final Exam (50 %)**

REQUIRED TEXTS AND MATERIALS:

1. Brown, G. & Yule, G. *Discourse Analysis*.
2. Yule, G. (1996). *The Study of Language* 2nd Ed. Cambridge: CUP

OTHER USEFUL REFERENCES

- Alba-Juez, L. (2005). *Discourse Analysis for University Students*. Universidad Nacional de Educación a Distancia
- Blake, B. (2008). *All About Language*. Oxford University Press : New York
- Cruse, D.A. (2011). *Meaning in Language. An Introduction to Semantics and Pragmatics*. OUP.
- Cutting, J. (2002). *Pragmatics and Discourse: A Resource Book for Students* (Routledge English Language Introductions) 2nd Edition. Routledge

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UNIT 1: INTRODUCTION: THINKING ABOUT LANGUAGE

Learning Objectives: This introductory unit aims at helping students:

- ✓ Understand how language is constructed and how it is used.
- ✓ Gain a better understanding of how they should go about learning discourse analysis.

INTRODUCTION

Before any attempt to define or understand the scope of discourse analysis, understanding how language works can be useful when learning discourse analysis. This unit introduces students to the central elements of language analysis to enable them to identify and discuss both the language system and its diverse uses and expressions.

HOW PEOPLE COMMUNICATE: COMPONENTS OF COMMUNICATION

If we listen to the way people speak, it soon becomes apparent that there are certain activities where interaction seems to be organized in recognizable ways, with rules about what can and cannot be said. We know, for example, that there are accepted ways of issuing and accepting invitations, making a toast, making introductions, and so on. This is what lies behind the idea of a speech event, the subject of this week's sessions.

1. Linguistic knowledge

- (a) Verbal elements and their meanings in particular situations

2. Non- verbal elements

- Body language, facial expressions and their communicative roles and meanings

3. Interaction skills

- (b) Perception of salient features in communicative situations
- (c) Selection and interpretation of forms appropriate to specific situations, roles, and relationships (rules for the use of speech)
- (d) Discourse organization and processes
- (e) Norms of interaction and interpretation
- (f) Strategies for achieving goals

4. Cultural knowledge

- (g) Social structure
- (h) Values and attitudes
- (i) Cognitive maps/schemata
- (j) Enculturation processes (transmission of knowledge and skills)

(Adapted, Saville-Troike 1989: 24)

LEVELS OF LANGUAGE ANALYSIS

The system of language analysis can be seen in many branches of linguistics: semantics, sociolinguistics, pragmatics, etc.

At the Structure Level (grammar)

Syntax : Syntax comprises the study of how words combine to form phrases, clauses and sentences. It is the grammar of sentence construction.

Lexis : Lexis refers to the words that speakers use in their utterances - a description of words and word elements (or morphemes) in language.

Phonetics and Phonology: It is the scientific study of speech sounds. It studies how speech sounds are articulated, transmitted, and received (how we produce consonants and vowels).

Morphology: It analyses word parts. It studies prefix and suffix. It shows us how words inflect for tense, number, etc. (e.g. past tense 'ed', and plural 's'). It also studies how words can be derived from others by adding certain prefix and/or suffix (e.g. as in CIVIL-IS -TION, INTEREST-ING-LY)

At the Social Level (Variation)

Dialect: Dialects are language varieties where grammar and vocabulary identify the regional and the social background of the user. Some language scientists will include features of phonology in the description of a dialect. Dialect is, like many other areas of variation, subject to change over time.

Idiolect: In short, this is the language system of an individual speaker. The reasons why individuals use language as we do are many and complex. And idiolects change over time. It is relatively easy to show that people may adapt their language use to a new environment or language fashion. It is also possible to show that individual differences are marked almost as clearly as a fingerprint.

Sociolect: Sociolects are language varieties that reflect social background, in terms of such things as occupation, education and social class. You can see how any one person's idiolect might contain features of both dialectal and sociolect variation, as well as more individual differences.

At the Level Meaning

Semantics: Semantics is the study of meaning (how meanings, implicit and explicit, are constructed and understood in both spoken and written). It is a wide subject within the general study of language. The study of semantics includes the study of how meaning is constructed, interpreted, clarified, obscured, illustrated, simplified negotiated, contradicted, and paraphrased. Some important areas of semantic theory or related subjects include these:

- Symbol and referent
- Conceptions of meaning
- Words and lexemes
- Denotation, connotation, implication
- Ambiguity
- Metaphor, simile and symbol
- Semantic fields

- Synonym, antonym and hyponym
- Collocation, fixed expression and idiom
- Semantic change and etymology
- Polysemy

- Homonymy, homophones and homographs
- Lexicology and lexicography
- Thesauruses, libraries and Web portals
- Epistemology
- Colour

Pragmatics: Pragmatics is a systematic way of explaining language use in context (how social conventions and implied meanings are encoded in spoken and written language). It seeks to explain aspects of meaning which cannot be found in the plain sense of words or structures, as explained by semantics. Pragmatics includes among the things you should know about are:

- Speech act theory
- Felicity conditions
- Conversational implicature
- The cooperative principle
- Conversational maxims
- Relevance
- Politeness
- Phatic tokens
- Deixis

Aesthetic Level: Figurative Language

Figurative language uses figures of speech to be more effective, persuasive, and impactful. The term FIGURATIVE LANGUAGE covers a wide range of literary devices and techniques, a few of which include: Simile, Metaphor, Personification, Onomatopoeia, Hyperbole, Allusion, Idioms, Symbolism, Irony and etc.

TWO PARADIGMS OF LANGUAGE ANALYSIS: FORMAL LINGUISTICS AND FUNCTIONAL LINGUISTICS

Formalism/ structuralism or formal grammar, (Present 1920s – 1960s): Major Proponents are Bloomfield and Chomsky. This theory focuses on the structure of language as starting point of any language. That is its prime concern is Linguistic form – how a word is pronounced, how it is structured, and where it occurs in a sentence. However, as noted by Werlich (1976:14), sentences and grammar do not tell the whole story about communication.

- ✓ There are other norms by which people communicates
- ✓ Text cannot be studied in isolation.

Sentence grammars do not tell ...the whole story about communication by means of language” (Werlich 1976:14). “There are certain types of sentences which we cannot make sense of, either syntactically or semantically, without examining them with respect to a discourse context” (Gary 1976:1).
People communicate not by means of individual words or fragments of sentences in language, but by means of texts, which are basis of various

Functional linguistics (1970 s) is based on Prague school firth, Halliday, Grice, Austin) e author and the readers, etc. Functionalism is an approach that regards language as a social phenomenon (studying the social functions of language). From within functional perspective, language is studied in relation to society and culture.



DA researchers integrate both the formal and the functional approaches in their analysis,

REFERENCES

- Crystal, D. (1987) *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of Language*, pp. 100 - 107; Cambridge; ISBN 0-521-42443-7
- Crystal, D. (1995) *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language*, pp. 138, 156 - 170; Cambridge; ISBN 0-521-59655-6
- Potter, S. (1950) *Our Language*, pp. 104 - 116; Penguin; ISBN 0-14-02-0227-7
- Aitchison, J. (1997) *The Language Web*, pp. 61- 78; Cambridge

UNIT 2: DISCOURSE ANALYSIS: DEFINITIONS

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

- ✓ Define Discourse Analysis,
- ✓ Understand what discourse analysis does

INTRODUCTION

In this unit, we shall be looking at the concept of discourse analysis, its origin, and definition. AsDA is strongly linked to other disciplines, which affects the way DA is defined and analyzed, we shall also provide the major topics of interest related to the study of DA.

From a Sentence to a Discourse: The Emergence of Discourse Analysis

In the 1950s, linguistics was largely concerned with the analysis of single sentences. In this decade, the American structural linguist Zellig Harris (1952) published a paper with the title “Discourse Analysis”, in which he links the text and the social situation. However, Harris’ paper did not use DA in the sense that it is used nowadays. This was also coupled with the emergence of semiotics and the French structuralism approach to the study of narrative.

Later in the 1960s, the anthropologist scholar Hymes (1962) and the linguists Austin (1962) and Searle started using the term to describe language as social action. In the late 1960s and early 1970s, other scholars, who were concerned with the study of language as a social interaction, like Harvey Sacks, Emmanuel Schegloff, and Gail Jeffersons started focusing their attention on conversation and how the structure of talk is ordered. Their method is called Conversational Analysis (CA).

In the 1970s, Paul Grice (1975) was influential through his formulation of conversation maxims, which subsequently led to the emergence of pragmatics, which studied the meaning of language in the context.

In brief, DA grew through the work of different disciplines, including linguistics, semiotics, psychology, anthropology, and sociology. That is to say, this is another way to explain the difficulty of defining DA and-also to assert that DA is not concerned with the study of language in isolation, but with the study of language in use (written and spoken).

WHAT IS DISCOURSE ANALYSIS?

The way language was viewed and analyzed impacted the study and definition of discourse analysis. Thus, whatever the angle from which discourse has been approached, scholars have used

different definitions to label the concepts used in the analysis of discourse.

a) General Definition

It should be noted from the onset that the fundamental characteristic feature of DA is that it is a multidisciplinary, as Dijk (2002) emphasizes. Thus, Schiffrin (1987:1-2) stresses DA is too vast because “it has its intellectual roots not only in linguistics, but in the social science and philosophy”. It “covers a wide range of activities...used to describe activities of the intersection of disciplines as sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, philosophical linguistics and computational linguistics (Brown and Yule, 1983: viii).

According to him Dijk (2002: 10), DA is an interdisciplinary approach that embraces many theoretical and methodological approaches: linguistics (from grammar, morphology and phonology), semantics (coherence, cohesion, connectors), and pragmatics (speech acts, conversation implicature), anthropology (different speech acts in different cultures), psychology (speaker and hearer behavior), stylistics (correctness, clarity, elegance, appropriateness, style), literary studies (text types) and so on, but the most important fields are sociology (which explores conversational studies and gives way to discourse analysis).

Essentially, what one can infer from the above is that within discourse analysis language can never be 'neutral'. That is, it is clear that when analyzing discourse, researchers do not only focus on form or “purely” linguistic facts of spoken or written discourse, but they essentially pay more attention to language use in relation to its social and cultural aspects.

b) Specific Definition

The following example can best explain what discourse analysis attempts to do: “*It is hot here*” If we are concerned with “correct usage” of language and want to analyze the grammar of the phrase, we say that ‘it’ is the noun phrase subject of the sentence containing a third person singular pronoun, ‘is’ is the main verb agreeing with ‘it’, ‘hot’ is an adjectival complement, and ‘here’ is an adverb, we are analyzing *the syntax*. Syntax deals with the way the elements of a language are arranged to form the clauses, phrases, and sentences of which the actual form of the message is constructed.

If we are concerned with how the relationship between the words of the phrase, without the surrounding context, and want to analyze the meaning of the sentence, we say that ‘it’ is an impersonal verb that expresses condition without reference to the agent, ‘is’ identifies a state rather than action, ‘hot’ has a sense of synonymous with ‘heat’, ‘high temperature’ or ‘warm’, and

antonym with ‘freezing’ or ‘cold’, and ‘here’ indicates location or place, we are looking at *the semantics*. Semantics is the study of what words mean by themselves without paying attention to the context. It studies how the meanings of words can be related to each other (at the lexical level, it studies the meanings of literal meanings of words (as in the dictionary) and how they are related to each other with relation to, for instance, synonyms, antonyms, [homonyms](#), figures of speech, etc. At the phrasal level, it studies the syntactic meaning of units of the whole phrase or paragraph in terms of, for instance, contradiction, ambiguity, and mutual entailment. Does the formation of the sentences and occurrences of the words make any sense? Thus, semantically, the sentence “*it’s hot in here*” is clear and not ambiguous and can be interpreted as: the speaker feels warm, which is the literal meaning.

As can be seen, neither syntax nor semantics considers, here, the context of the statement - who said it to whom, where, when, or why. Knowing the structure of “*It’s hot in here*” does not tell us how a particular person used it on a particular occasion to do something-or even how speakers, in general, could use it for doing things. We need to understand how people use language, which is an important part of pragmatics and discourse analysis.

In *pragmatics*, we are interested in [utterances \(analyzing language beyond the sentence\)](#), [language use \(how people use language\)](#), and [language in context \(how the context impacts meaning](#), and socially and culturally organized way of speaking). We also are interested in the speaker’s intention and **implied meanings** (what the speaker means/intends to do). As Gee (2011) notes language is used not just to say things, but also to mean things and to do things, focusing on daily individuals’ principles of interaction- how language is produced by users of a language and normally implies interaction. Thus, when someone says “*it’s hot in here*” they are not only referring to the temperature, they may be also requesting someone to do something. Therefore, in pragmatics, analysts would infer that the speaker intends is to ask permission or ask someone to turn on the air conditioning, open the window or move outside the room and that his/her statement *implies* a reminder that s/he could no longer bear the heat.

Discourse Analysis shares common ground with pragmatics as it is also concerned with the study of **language use or language in context**. However, DA is broader than pragmatics which is the only subfield within DA. While Pragmatics looks at the underlying **individuals’** implicit meanings, DA looks at the whole communicative aspects (giving insights on the nature of interaction and situated language use such as how people use speech act of requesting, like “*it’s hot in here*”, in

different cultural contexts, the relationship between speakers, the way it is used, and the purpose of it) by drawing largely on many linguistic theories such as speech-act theory, conversation analysis, ethno-methodology and the like.

c) **Dynamic Definition**

Further, in its dynamic interpretation, discourse analysis views language as one of the mechanisms/strategies that speaker-members of any society use to regulate and reproduce that society, to order and control it. For example, based on the participants' power relationship and the intonation of the speaker, the utterance "*It's hot in here*" can be interpreted as indirect command used by a higher status speaker (i.e. teacher in the classroom) to regulate the behavior of the others – to order and control (a way of exercising power)– to decide what is right and what is wrong – to dictate what should be done and what should not. For instance, supposed that the utterance '*it's hot in here*' is uttered by a teacher in class. It cannot be taken simply as a direct speech act intends to make a statement about a state of affairs: 'I hereby inform you that it's hot here'. But, in other circumstances, it is *indirect command* to: '*I hereby request you open the door*'– even though the students feel cold.so it is a social practice used by the most powerful to regulate the rest's behavior, deciding what is right and what is wrong, what should and should not be done.

Therefore, as noted earlier, an important characteristic of DA is that it is essentially a multidisciplinary, which means that it crosses the linguistics border into different and varied domains, such as semiotics, psychology, anthropology, psychology, and etc. In DA the utterance "*it's hot in here*" can be analyzed *from [a] narrowly focused investigation of how words such as 'oh' and 'well' are used in casual talk to the study of the dominant ideology in a culture as represented*' (Yule, 1996: 83).

What is Discourse Analysis, then?

From various explanation of the example given above, three areas of definition can be gathered about DA:

- 1.Viewed from within linguistics, language is seen as a mental phenomenon, and therefore DA attempts to discover the linguistic regularities of discourse using grammatical, phonological, semantic in the spoken language (conversation exchanges) and written texts - text linguistics (properties of language which lend a text cohesion, inter-sentence connectivity, etc).
- 2.From within functional perspective, language is seen as a social activity, and therefore

DA is “concerned with the study of the relationship between language and the contexts in which it is used” (McCarthy 1991: 12). It attempts to analyze ‘the stretches of spoken or written language which extend beyond an utterance or a sentence’ (Holmes, 2008: 356). DA studies language beyond the sentence beyond the clause (Stubbs).

3. At its broad social theoretical context, discourse is viewed as a social practice (Foucault, 1972; Van Dijk, 1993 and Fairclough, 2012). In using the phrase “language as social practice”, discourse analysis is used “more critically to examine issue relating to power, inequality and ideology” (Baker and Ellece 2011: 32), which is the main area in Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA). Under this umbrella, interest goes beyond the language and studies other possibilities of human conflicts like ideology, power, racism or sexism. In this version:

4. Connecting it to power and truth, discourse is viewed as "a social force which ... determines how the world can be seen and what can be known and done within it... explaining how the social subject is positioned and limited." (Foucault, 1994:176).

5. As an institutionalized way of speaking that determines not only what we say and how we say it, discourses include “representations of how things are [...], of how things might or could or should be” (Fairclough, 2012: 458)

6. Discourse is viewed as “(re)production of power results from social cognitions of the powerful, whereas the situated discourse structures result in social cognitions.” (Van Dijk, 1993: 259)

In other words, this common view holds that the discourse perspective is central to understanding certain aspects of the crisis of legitimacy in the human and social sciences.

SUMMARY

- DA is an interdisciplinary approach.
- It is derived from different disciplines (linguistics, psychology, anthropology, sociology)
- It is influenced by linguistic philosophers (Austin, Searle, Grice) and functional approaches to language studies (Halliday).
- Definitions of discourse have been influenced by both the structuralism and functionalism paradigms of language analysis, as discourse analysis looks at both form and function
- It studies of the relationship between language and the contexts in which it is used (language in use)
- Meaning is conveyed not by single sentences but by more complex exchanges, in which the participants’ beliefs and expectations, the knowledge they share about each other and about the world, and the situation in which they interact, play a crucial part.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISES

Below are a number of definitions of the term discourse analyses. Read each of these definitions and summarize the main features they list as being characteristic of discourse analysis.

1. Discourse analysis is not only concerned with the description and analysis of spoken interaction...discourse analysts is equally interested in the organization of written interaction (McCarthy, 1991: 12).

2. Discourse analysis is concerned with the study of the relationship between language and the contexts in which it is used (McCarthy, 1991: 12).

3. Discourse analysis is.....the study of language at use in the world, not just to say things, but to do things. (Gee 2011: ix).

4. Discourse analystsused discourse analysis more critically to examine issue relating to power, inequality and ideology (Baker and Ellece, 2011: 32).

References and Further Reading

1. Brown and Yule (1983). Discourse analysis. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
2. Fairclough, N. (2012). Critical discourse analysis. International Advances in Engineering and Technology, 7, 452-487
3. Paltridge, B. (2012). Discourse analysis. 2nd ed., London, Bloomsbury academic
4. Van Dijk, T. A. (1993). [Principles of critical discourse analysis](#). Discourse & Society, 4(2), 249-283

UNIT 3: SCOPE AND APPROACHES OF DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

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

- ✓ Understand the origin of discourse analysis,
- ✓ Be familiar with the major approaches of DA.

INTRODUCTION

In this unit, we shall be looking at the concept of discourse analysis, its origin, and definition. As DA is strongly linked to other disciplines, which affects the way DA is defined and analyzed, we shall also provide the major topics of interest related to the study of DA.

How is discourse analysis different from other methods?

Unlike linguistic approaches that focus only on the rules of language use, discourse analysis emphasizes the contextual meaning of language. It focuses on the social aspects of communication and the ways people use language to achieve specific effects.

When you do discourse analysis, you might focus on:

- The purposes and effects of different types of language
- Cultural rules and conventions in communication
- How values, beliefs and assumptions are communicated
- How language use relates to its social, political and historical context

Instead of focusing on smaller units of language, such as sounds, words or phrases, discourse analysis is used to study larger chunks of language, such as entire conversations, texts, or collections of texts. The selected sources can be analyzed on multiple levels

Levels of Analysis

Vocabulary	Words and phrases can be analyzed for ideological associations, formality, and euphemistic and metaphorical content.
Grammar	The way that sentences are constructed (e.g. verb tenses, active or passive construction, and the use of imperatives and questions) can reveal aspects of intended meaning.
Structure	The structure of a text can be analyzed for how it creates emphasis or builds a narrative.
Genre	Texts can be analyzed in relation to the conventions and communicative aims of their genre (e.g. political speeches or tabloid newspaper articles).
Non-verbal communication	Non-verbal aspects of speech, such as tone of voice, pauses, gestures, and sounds like “um”, can reveal aspects of a speaker’s intentions, attitudes, and emotions.
Conversational codes	The interaction between people in a conversation, such as turn-taking, interruptions and listener response, can reveal aspects of cultural conventions and social roles.

Topics of Interest: What Does Discourse Analysts Do?

When a discipline is hard to delimit, as is the case with DA, we can learn a great deal about its field of concern by observing what practitioners do. If we look at what discourse analysts do, we will find they explore matters such as:

- Turn-taking in telephone conversations

- The language of humor
- Power relationships in doctor/patient interviews
- Dialogue in chat rooms
- The discourse of the archives, records or files of psychoanalysts
- The conversation at a dinner table
- The scripts of a given television program
- The discourse of politicians
- The study of racism through the use of discourse
- How power relations and sexism are manifested in the conversation between men and women
- The characteristics of persuasive discourse
- Openings and closings in different types of conversations
- The structure of narrative
- Representations of black/white people (or any race) in the written media (magazines, newspapers, etc.)
- The strategies used by speakers/writers in order to fulfill a given discourse function
- The use of irony or metaphor for certain communicative aims
- The use of linguistic politeness
- The discourse of E-mail messages
- Legal discourse used in trials
- How people create social categories like “boy” or “immigrant” or “lady” as they talk to, about, or among each other
- And a long etcetera

Major Approaches of Discourse Analysis

As DA researchers integrate both the formal and the functional approaches in their analysis, DA is used in all areas of communication, and its major approaches, as highlighted by Shifferin (1994), are:

1. Textual Analysis: ‘Textual analysis’, referred to as *text linguistics*, is used to refer to approaches to discourse which focus on written texts beyond the level of sentence. The focus is primarily on the contributions of M. A. K. Halliday to the analysis of cohesion and the organization of information in discourse.
2. Pragmatics: (Meaning in interaction: speech Acts, Conversation Implicature)
3. Interactional Sociolinguistics: It represents a variety of disciplines such as linguistics, anthropology, sociology, ethnography, conversation analysis and pragmatics. It focuses on how people from different cultures may share grammatical knowledge of a language but contextualize what is said differently to produce different messages (Gumperz, 1982). Thus, unlike pragmatics, it interprets speaker intentions not only linguistic clues/cues but also non-linguistic context (verbal

and nonverbal communication).

4. Conversational Analysis: Sequences of talk (Dialogues as they are expressed reveal the conventions in a specific social group).

5. The Ethnography of Communication: This approach holds the view that the way we communicate depends a lot on the culture we come from. Thus, the analysis concentrates on language in use in its cultural setting (Communication as cultural behavior: The speaker culture, how does discourse reflect culture?)

6. Sociolinguistic Variation Analysis: The study of the way language varies in communities of speakers. This concentrates in particular on the interaction of social factors (such as a speaker's gender, ethnicity, age, degree of integration into their community, etc.) and linguistic structures (such as sounds, syntactic forms, intonation features, words, etc.)

7. Critical Discourse Analysis: They analyze the implicit content in a text in order to define the ideological bias. They consider that ideologies are generally implicit assumptions.

Table below summarizes the major approaches to DA

Approaches to Studying DA		Focus of Research	Research Question
Structural	CA	Sequences of talk	Why say that at that moment?
Functional	Ethnography of Communication	Communication as cultural behaviour	How does discourse reflect culture?
	Pragmatics speech acts, implicature	Meaning in interaction	What does the speaker mean?

UNIT 4: DISCOURSE ANALYSING & CONTEXT

LEARNING OBJECTIVES: Upon the completion of this unit, you should be able to:

- ✓ Define context
- ✓ Understanding the importance of context in analysis discourse
- ✓ Describe the features of a context
- ✓ Differentiate between the different types of contexts
- ✓ Explain why context is an important concept in pragmatics

INTRODUCTION

As noted earlier, traditionally language analysts ignored the context in the analysis of utterances (formal analysis of language). However, later on, functionalists found that context is very important in everyday life and understanding any message requires the understanding of the context. Discourse analysis studies how language is used and of the effect of context on language. Because DA investigates context-based meaning, it will be impossible to talk about DA without reference to the context in which utterances are made. Therefore, in this unit, we shall look at the features of context as we examine the various types of contexts.

CONTEXT

By way of definition, context relates to the surrounding situation in which an utterance, spoken or written, is uttered. The most important influence on what is appropriate and how messages are interpreted in context. Talk DA, different types of context can be located.

TYPES OF CONTEXT

Context refers to the situation, within which language functions. It may be linguistic, physical/environmental, social context or institutional situation, including events, time, culture and social conventions that can influence language use.

- a) **Linguistic context**—also known as co-text.

Understanding any message requires understanding the meaning of the word. The co-text of a word is the set of other words used in the same phrase or sentence. This forms the linguistic environment that determines the sense of the words in the context.

For example, the word “shoot” is a homonym. How do we know which meaning is intended if it is put out of context? Usually, it is by means of co-text. If it appears in a linguistic context along with other words like “player,” “penalty,” or “goal”, we can immediately understand that “shoot” refers to a context of a match game. If, on the other hand, the same word appears with words like “war”, “soldier” or “kill” we make sense that it refers to war.

Similarly, take the word “bachelor” as another example. We cannot understand the exact meaning of the sentence “He is a bachelor” without the linguistic context to make clear the exact meaning of this word. If the word “bachelor” is used in a sentence together with words like “single” or “unmarried”, we have no problem deciding which type of “bachelor” is meant. On the other hand, if it is put with words like “graduation”, “degree” or “diploma” we know from this linguistic context which type of “bachelor” is intended.¹

Now consider the word “Algeria”. How we can understand the exact meaning of this utterance? It is only by linguistic context like the following:

- a) Algeria wins the 2019 African Championship cup.
- b) Algeria wins the international trade negotiation.

While, Algeria in (a) refers to the national football team, in (b), it refers to the government.

The following dialogue is written by the well-known linguist, Firth:

A: Do you think he will?

B: I don't know. He might.

A: I suppose he ought to, but perhaps he feels he can't.

B: Well, his brothers have. They perhaps think he needn't.

A: Perhaps eventually he will. I think he should, and I very much hope he will (Zhang yunfei, 2000: 245).

Without linguistic context, we can hardly guess what the speakers are talking about since there are too many auxiliary verbs and modal verbs such as will, might, have, cannot, etc.

¹ In the course of semantics, you come across them as ‘collocation’

used in the dialogue. In fact, these auxiliary and modal verbs replace the verb phrase, “join the army”. From this typical example, we can see the important role of co-text.

b) Physical Context:

Most words meaning are known on the basis of the physical or environmental context. Physical context refers to the location (the time and place, particularly), in which the given word or phrase takes place. That is, our understanding of what we hear and read is closely tied up to the physical context. For example, if we hear or see words like textbooks, teachers, and students, we may come up to think of the school or the library as the physical context. While this may seem rather obvious, understanding the relevant context relies on our mental representation of those aspects of what is physically out there that we use in arriving at an interpretation like the following:

A: forty - nine? Why do you say forty - nine?
B: cose there's another one here.
A: right we've got forty nine there, haven't we? But here there's two, okay?
Now, what is that we have got two of? Well let me give you a clue. Erm, this here is forty, that's fours ten, four tens are forty. (Cutting, 2002: 04).

Can you understand the meaning of this exchange? It seems virtually impossible to be understood unless we know who is speaking, about whom, where and when. However, through our mental presentation of physical context, we may arrive at interpreting that the situational context is obviously the classroom. This example contains a large number of expressions (numbers, there's, here) that rely on knowledge of the immediate physical context for their interpretation. The teacher and the pupil are pointing (here) to either the blackboard or an exercise textbook.

Look it the following:

“the cheese sandwich left without paying”.

Is it syntactically correct? Yes

Is it semantically correct? No, because a sandwich cannot pay a bill.

Does it refer to a sandwich? No

What is the context here? The restaurant, the sandwich, the bill, the pay, and etc (something physical).

However, sometimes it can be difficult in example like this, “you’ll have to bring them back by tomorrow, because they aren’t here now and they need them”. The sentence is ambiguous. It contains many expressions that depend on the knowledge of the physical context (the place and time), which is unclear.

Observe the following sentence: “I like Bill more than Mary”. This sentence can mean “I like Bill more than Mary does.” or “I like Bill more than I like Mary.” In such example, the physical and situational context can indicate what the sentence exactly means.

c) Socio-Cultural Context

Since language is a social phenomenon, it is closely tied up with the social structure and of any society. Cultural context refers to what is known and shared by both speaker and hearer. The context of culture includes customs, beliefs, value system, religion, conventions and background that control individuals’ behavior and their relationship with others.

These socio-cultural rules of behavior often guide its members to communicate effectively with one another. Knowledge of socio-cultural rules of behaviors brings up the idea of “communicative competence” which according to Dell Hymes (1972) is the ability of the speaker to know when to speak, when not and as to what to talk about with whom, when, where, and in what manner.

Take this example:

- a) Where is Chomsky? (Reference = Chomsky).
- b) It’s on the shelf (inference= book/ not a person).

Students of linguistics, who share common knowledge, may understand that here the speaker used the word Chomsky, which is used to refer to a person, means Chomsky as a book. Thus they understand that the physical context here is probably library.

Cross-culturally speaking, take an example like this “العين حق”

How would a non- Muslim person, though competent in Arabic, interpret it? The word “العين” can be ‘the human eye, the source of water, the eye of the needle, etc’. However, as Muslims who are familiar with the religious understanding surrounding the implementation of the “العين”, we understand the exact meaning.

SUMMARY:

In this unit, we have been able to look at the features and types of contexts namely linguistic context, physical/environmental context, and socio-cultural context. All these context types dictate meanings are paramount for understanding language.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISES

Activity 1: Explain the role of context in interpreting the meaning

Activity 2: Explain the possible meaning of the following utterances:

I like Jim more than Mary

References

1. Brown and Yule (1983). Discourse analysis. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
2. Paltridge, B. (2012). Discourse analysis. 2nd ed., London, Bloomsbury academic

UNIT 5: BASIC CONCEPTS IN DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

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

- ✓ Identify some basic concepts in DA
- ✓ Differentiate between speech and writing
- ✓ Differentiate between the different functions and purposes of discourse,

INTRODUCTION

The aim of this unit is to examine some basic concepts used in Discourse Analysis, which are considered to be the foundations for many other things related to DA. This unit begins by introducing some basic concepts related discourse analysis. It sheds light on the key differences between discourse and text and between sentence and utterance. It then provides an overview about the characteristics of spoken and written discourse as well as the classifications of discourse.

BASIC CONCEPTS RELATED TO DA

In order to offer an account of the analysis and articulation of spoken and written discourse, it is relevant to introduce first a theoretical framework which shall develop our understanding of central concepts related to their linguistic nature. So we shall review the definition of some related aspects (text vs. discourse, sentence vs. utterance and written discourse vs. spoken discourse).

a) Discourse vs. Text: Key Differences

Text and discourse create varied confusion due to the interchangeable use of these two terms in varied contexts. While some people tend to use discourse to refer to spoken language and use text to refer to written one, in DA the two terms are used in a variety of ways by different researchers (Alba-Juez 2009: 6).

Some scholars like Coulthard (1977), reserves text to any written material that can be read, whether it is a work of literature, a lesson written on the blackboard, letter, bill, postern, street sign or similar entities that contain written language while discourse is applied to spoken language.

Other scholars; however, tend to apply text for both written and spoken language. For instance, Halliday and Hasan (1976) define text as —any passage, spoken or written, of whatever length, that does form a unified whole. That is, a text could be used to refer to a statement, an utterance, a sentence,

a paragraph, a whole chapter, a news item, a conversation, and so forth. Likewise, Crystal (1992:72) maintains that text is a piece of naturally occurring spoken, written, or signed discourse identified for purposes of analysis.

Other scholars, on the other hand, distinguish between the two in terms of context. For instance, Nunan (1993) views that text is a written piece of communication whereas discourse refers to the piece of communication in **context**. Similarly, Cook (1989:158) defines text as a stretch of language interpreted formally, without context”.

However, modern Linguistics has introduced a concept of text and/or discourse that includes every type of utterance; written or spoken. In this general sense, discourse is used to refer to both written and spoken language in a social context (Widdowson, 1973; Yule and Brown, 1983; Schffrin, 1994, Cutting, 2002, among others). That is, the analysis of discourse is concerned with the study of language in both written text and conversation, in which both have their own merits and rules that are used in different contexts for different purposes (Brown and Yule 1983). The study of both written and spoken discourse is known as DISCOURSE ANALYSIS.

b) Sentences Vs Utterance: Key Differences

Parallel to the distinction between written and spoken language is that between a sentence and an utterance. It is also basic to the study of DA. The first one of the apparent differences that can be identified between the two terms is that a sentence can be in both written and spoken language, but an utterance is usually confined to the spoken language.

A sentence is the basic unit of language which expresses a complete thought. It does this by following the grammatical rules of syntax. A complete sentence has at least a subject and a main verb to state (declare) a complete thought (Simple Sentence, Compound Sentence, and Complex Sentence). Here are some kinds of sentences:

- a. Simple Sentence
- b. Compound Sentence
- c. Complex Sentence

A sentence is usually studied in semantics and syntax, isolated from the context.

Utterance

Unlike sentence, which it is reserved for units consisting of at least one main clause and any accompanying subordinate clauses, and marked by punctuation (capital letters and full stops) in

writing, according to Carter and McCarthy (2006), the term 'utterance' is used to refer to complete communicative units, which may consist of single words, phrases, clauses or even a complete sentence (formal or informal) or any sound of talk in context.

For instance, the words '*Would you please be quiet?*', spoken with a polite rising intonation, might be described as a sentence, or as a question, or as a request. However, it is convenient to reserve terms like **sentence** and question for grammatical entities derived from the language system, and to reserve the term **utterance** for instances of such entities, identified by their use in a particular situation" (Leech, 1983). That is to say, '*Would you please be quiet?*', based on the speakers' relationship, the situation in which it take place and the intonation, it can be uttered differently (taken as an utterance); whereas, it is taken as sentence when we focus on its grammatical form as a correct interrogative sentence.

An utterance does not focus on the grammatical aspect; it can be grammatical or not; it can be meaningful or meaningless; it can be a single phrase or even a single word. It can also be bounded by the speaker's silence (breaths or pauses e.g., John! –Pause- John).

Example:

1. I love pragmatics
2. It's a lovely day
3. Yes
4. Coffee? - breaths or pauses)
5. Please
6. Sure
7. Oohh

As can be seen, an utterance does not focus on the grammatical aspect; it can be grammatical or not; it can be meaningful or meaningless; it can be a single phrase or even a single word. It can also be bounded by the speaker's silence and pause. Each sentence produces a complete thought when bounded with the context in which it happens.

A SENTENCE "Coffee?" can be produced by two friends in specific TIME or on particular OCCASION. One offers a coffee and the other accepts the offer. Or they can be produced by a waiter and a customer.

this is another way to define DA as the study of utterance in context for the stretch of talk, which is stretched by some prosodic features include stress, intonation, and tone of voice, as well as ellipsis, which are words that the listener inserts in spoken language to fill gaps, and sometime stretched by other paralinguistic features such as facial expression, gesture, and etc.

Leech (1983) summarizes the idea as follow: the sentence *'Would you please be quiet?'* is a sentence when it is reserved for its grammatical entities as a correct interrogative sentence. But it is an utterance (uttered differently) when identified by its use in a particular situation such as the speakers' relationship, the situation in which it takes place and the intonation.

In brief, every sentence is an utterance, but not every utterance is a sentence.

What is highlighted above is a simple way to explain that DA is concerned with the study of:

- ✓ **Language beyond/above the sentence/ clause**
- ✓ **Language in context**
- ✓ **Language use**

c) Spoken Discourse and Writing Discourse Features

As Discourse analysis is not only concerned with the description and analysis of spoken interaction . . . discourse analysts are equally interested in the organization of written interaction (McCarthy 1991: 12).

As written discourse has certain characteristics, which make them essentially different from spoken discourse, in this section we shall regard at the features of analysis at spoken discourse and written discourse.

Spoken Language

As it is acquainted, speech is the primary means of human communication. We as human being express our thoughts, feelings, and ideas orally to each other through a series of complex articulation, respiratory, phonatory and articulatory system that is perceived by our auditory. Our speech is produced not only by words, but also by other coordinated aspects of non-linguistic behavior such as body movement and gesture. Thus, in DA, the focuses on the study of conversations, dialogues, spoken monologues, and etc. in terms of turn taking, cooperative principles, implicatures, and other non-verbal linguistic aspects. By studying spoken language, discourse analysis can discover qualities and characteristics of conversation when people interact, the kind of relationship that exists between them (i.e. social class, gender, etc.), their common grounds such as belief, culture, the way people interact in different setting (i.e. language and cultural differences), and etc.

Written Language

A written discourse is any discourse in which the thoughts of the producer are represented graphically on a surface, such as essays, newspapers, stories, letters, novels, articles in magazines, editorial in newspapers, etc. Initially in the study of written discourse, a lot of importance is given 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. One aspect of linguistics that studies written text is called 'Text linguistics'. Linguists who study text linguistics generally focus on the textuality of the discourse, by examining the patterns of information provided according to the meaning, by looking at aspects of texts like coherence, cohesion, the distribution of topics (i.e., the information grammatical devices used, structure, meaning, etc.) and comments, and how one paragraph relates to the other thematically (thematic progression). Thus, a written text is best regarded as a semantic unit and how it functions as a unity with respect to its context. An important reference to the study of text-linguistics is Halliday and Hasan (1976).

CLASSIFICATIONS OF DISCOURSE

As noted in the previous unit, discourse can be oral and written, and that discourse analysis has been based on the development of many disciplines. Thus, since discourses exist in different disciplines such as linguistics, sociology, anthropology, psychology, ethnography etc., it is important then to understand the sub-topic **classification of discourse**. Discourse can be classified according to discipline, function and its purpose.

a) Classification According To Discipline

According to the discipline, discourse can be classified as:

- ❖ **Academic discourse:** (scientific articles, dissertations, academic papers, etc.).
- ❖ **Political discourse:** (political speech, documents, etc.)
- ❖ **Religious discourse:**(
- ❖ **Medical discourse:**(medical transcripts, reports, etc.)
- ❖ **Media discourses:** (news, news papers, etc.)
- ❖ **Legal discourse:** (judiciary courts and judicial proceedings).

Such kind of discourses can be either written or spoken, and through each one, the focus will be on a theme relating to a specific area. Thus, each discourse can serve a certain function.

b) Classification According To Function

Discourse can also be classified according to its function. A piece of discourse no matter how long or how short, can serve different functions and purposes. A discourse can be:

Narrative discourse : it usually involves relating a series of event, which can be fictional or non-fictional (literary works, autobiography, biography, history or a newspaper report).

Persuasive Discourse Political discourse falls under this category. According to Wodak (1996), persuasive discourses have the ability to make people do things which they ordinarily will not do.

Descriptive discourse : such discourses usually tries to paint a vivid picture in the mind of the reader/hearer (appealing the senses or imagination).

Expository discourse: its main intention is to inform, to make things clear for the audience to be aware of the topic of a discussion.

Argumentative discourse: its purpose is to convince the audience through logical arguments. Thus, for the **argument** to be acceptable, the writer must back up with a solid argument to support their case (no ambiguity or confusion). Instructions, manuals, policies, doctors' prescription for patients all fall under this category.

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. In this unit, we have seen that discourse can be classified according to discipline and according to function, and that each type of discourse serves a specific purpose.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISES

ACTIVITY 1: In the following table list the main characteristics of spoken discourse and written discourse

Spoken discourse	Written discourse

ACTIVITY 2:

- Differentiate between sentence and utterance with illustrated examples.

- Differentiate between pragmatics and DA with an illustrated example.

ACTIVITY 3

- Try and classify the different Facebook messages or posts you receive today.

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.
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UNIT 6: COHESION AND COHERENCE IN DA

Learning Objectives

- ✓ to distinguish between coherence and cohesion
- ✓ to understand the role of coherence in discourse
- ✓ analyze a text and bring out the elements that signal cohesion and coherence

INTRODUCTION

In this Unit, we examine cohesion and coherence in English text. We shall be looking in details at the lexical cohesion at grammatical cohesion and how they are signaled in texts.

CONCEPTS AND METHODS

What makes a text cohere? What differentiates a cohesive grammatical unit from a random collection of sentences? Writing and speech need logical connections among or between sentences in order to convey meaning of writer or speaker in the best possible ways. How do these connections come in a writing or speech? These connections come through *cohesion* and *coherence*. Cohesion and coherence are terms used in discourse analysis and text linguistics to describe the properties of written texts.

Consider the following:

“My father **once** *bought* a Lincoln convertible. He did *it* by **saving** every **penny** he could. That car would be **worth** a **fortune** *nowadays*. However, he **sold** it to help pay for my college education. Sometimes I think I’d rather have the convertible.” (Yule, 2010: 143)

Therefore, **Cohesion in** discourse refers to the linguistic features that link the text together. It is the grammatical and lexical relationship of different elements which hold the text together. These elements are the glue that sticks a sentence to another in a paragraph or a paragraph to another in a text. Cohesion is achieved through lexical choices, expressions and structural organization to unify text. Halliday and Hasan (1976: 3) identify 5 main cohesive ties that create a cohesive text: reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction, and lexical ties.

1. **Reference:**reference is realized by nouns, determiners, personal and demonstrative pronouns or adverbs (*my, he, that, it, this, those, neither* etc.)

Halliday and Hasan differentiate between two types of references: Exophoric and Endophoric.

a) **Exophoric** references are situational reference (outside the text) understood only by understanding the context.

E.g, *That* (1) would be his life's work. After he had done *that* (2), he would come back and marry her. *That* (3) was the upshot of his thinking the previous night. *That* (4) started a four-hour fight”.

As readers outside of this environment, we are unfamiliar with what **that** is being referred to, but, most likely, the people involved are aware of the ‘*that*’. When the meaning is not explicit from the text itself, but is obvious to those in a particular situation. This is called exophoric reference.

b) **Endophoric** references are inside the text, and there are two types: anaphoric and cataphoric.

- *b.1. Anaphoric reference:* referring backwards; e.g. I can see John. He is running (he refers backwards to John).
- *b.2. Cataphoric reference:* referring forwards; e.g. when they finally arrived at meeting, all the participants were exhausted (they refers forwards to the participants).

Exmple1 : We went to Devon for a holiday. **The** people we stayed with had four children.**The** eldest girl was about nine.

- ☞ The first **the** is cataphoric since there is no lexical relation between people and anything in the preceding sentence.
- ☞ The second **the** is both cataphoric and anaphoric
- ☞ Cataphoric: eldest defines girl,
- ☞ Anaphoric: girl is related to children

Example 2: Bill told Amy that he had decided to spend a year in Italy to study art. **That** (1) would be his life's work. After he had done **that** (2), he would come back and marries her. **That** (3) was the upshot of his thinking the previous night. **That** (4) started a four-hour fight”.

- ☞ What does “that” refer to in each? Well, the first “That” refers to “art”. The second “That” refers to “spending a year in Italy”, the third “That” refers to “the decision made by Bill”, and the final “That” refers to “telling Amy”.
- ☞ An antecedent usually comes before its anaphor. Occasionally it follows its anaphor. An anaphor that precedes its antecedent is sometimes called a **cataphor**

2. Substitution (i.e. avoiding repetition: *one(s), do*).

- Tell me a story. I don’t know one.
- Do you want the apples? Yes, I’ll take one.
- Did you go? Yes, I did.
- Jim seems to be intelligent.–Is he really so?
- The apples are getting back. Yes, they are.
- Winter is often so damp. The same is true for the summer.

3. Ellipsis: It is omission of a structure and its content (substitution by a zero element).

- ❖ The milk couldn’t be used. All was sour (Halliday, 1976: 155). The word *all* in the second sentence refers to *all milk* in the first sentence, but the word *milk* is omitted.
- ❖ Will you be there? I will (Instead of ‘I will be there’). Do you need help? If so, I’ll stay; if not, I’ll go.
- ❖ Jim **came**, did not he? NO, but he will.
- ❖ Have you **been swimming**? Yes, I have.
- ❖ Haven’t **finished** it yet. I hope you’re going to have by tomorrow.

4. Conjunction: These are linkers used to indicate a relationship between sentences or parts of a sentence (*and, in addition, for instance, however, then, finally, etc.*)

Examples:

- I bought ten apples. However, I didn’t eat any.
- Her work was finished, so she turned off the laptop.
- I lost all my money. Then, I sold my house.

5. Lexical cohesion: It is achieved through the association of semantically related lexical devices, such as repetition of lexis, equivalence - synonymy, hyponymy, collocation etc.

- a) **Repetition:** John is in the race. I believe John will win the race.

- b) **Synonymy:** The argument between the two men lasted for hours. Their dispute accomplished little.
- c) **Superordinate:** I bought carrot. It's my favorite vegetable.
- d) **Collocation:** These lexical items or words tend to occur in similar environments. For instance, hair/comb, reader/writer, door/window, chair/table, north/south, peace/war, bee/honey etc.

6. Parallel Structure:

Parallel structure presents ideas in a series or list with the same grammatical form. Parallelism means that each item in a list or comparison follows the same grammatical pattern.

- Mary likes hiking, swimming and riding a bicycle

Consider again:

“My father once bought a Lincoln convertible. He did it by saving every penny he could. That car would be worth a fortune nowadays. However, he sold it to help pay for my college education. Sometimes I think I'd rather have the convertible.” (Yule, 2010: 143)

The cohesive ties in the text can be categorized as:

1. *Reference (co-reference):* My father – he –he –he; my –my –I; a Lincoln convertible – that car – it.
2. *Conjunctions:* However.
3. *Lexical cohesion in semantics:*
 - *Money:* bought – saving – penny – worth a fortune – sold – pay (words that tend to appear close to each other in texts are called collocations).
 - *Time:* Once – nowadays – sometimes, and grammatical cohesion ties of the past tense (did, could, would, etc.

The above text is not only cohesive, but it is also understandable, referring to one main idea, which means it is **coherent**. Therefore, **coherence** refers to the quality of being logical, consistent and able to be understood. That is to say, coherence is about the unity of the ideas (easy to interpret and understood).

Consider the following: Example of Incoherent text:

“My father bought a Lincoln convertible. The car driven by the police was red. That colour doesn't suit her. She consists of three letters. However, a letter isn't as fast as a telephone call.”
(Yule, 2010, *ibid*).

As can be seen, in the above example we find cohesive devices such as **reference** and **conjunction**, but it is difficult to make sense. This makes the text incoherent. The reader is unable to understand what the text is about, because it does not refer to the same topic. This means that the presence of cohesive links does not always guarantee the coherence of a text.

That is to say, a coherent discourse is not simply based on connections between the words. The fact we have to know is that by itself cohesion would not be sufficient to enable us to make sense of what we read or hear. It is easy to create a highly cohesive discourse but which remains difficult to interpret. It should also be noted that we can create a coherent text can be without cohesive devices.

SUMMARY

In this Unit, we have examined cohesive devices used in English text, namely: grammatical and lexical ones.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISES:

Attempt the following and try to:

- ✓ Find any markers that contribute/or do not contribute to the cohesion and coherence of the discourse in question?
- ✓ What other means are used to achieve cohesion and coherence?

1) The person I want to introduce to you died two years ago but he still lives in my memory. Perhaps all grandfathers of the world are remembered by their own children, but that one is mine. He wasn't like old people with round shoulders complaining all the time about the sadness of life. He just thought that his mind was always young and he whistled all day. The training in the army gave him a straight posture which he was very proud of. You couldn't ask him about war. He became serious, looking far away, then he would say that he forgot it all. Like a bee, he never really stopped working.

2) Late in the early morning hours, in a Spanish cafe, an old man drinks brandy. A young waiter is angry; he wishes that the old man would leave so that he and an older waiter could close the cafe and go home. He insults the deaf old man and is painfully indifferent to the older waiter's feelings when he states that "an old man is a nasty thing." The older waiter, however, realizes that the old man drinking brandy after brandy is not nasty; he is only lonely. No doubt, that's the reason why the old man tried to hang himself last week. When the old man leaves, the waiters close the cafe.

3) Taken from the exam of the subject 'language and culture': 'Language and culture are connected. It is important to study it because you cannot understand it without studying it'.

References and further Reading

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UNIT 7: TEXT LINGUISTICS

Learning Objectives: In this unit, students will be able to:

- ✓ Define and identify what a text is
- ✓ Understand text linguistics
- ✓ Understand the analysis level of text linguistics
- ✓ Applying Text Linguistics

INTRODUCTION

This Unit is a follow up to the previous 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.

MAIN CONCEPTS

Text Linguistics is a branch of linguistics, developed in the 1970s, deals with texts as communication systems. It seeks to analyze texts beyond the level of the sentence. That is to say, like spoken language, it does not concern with uncovering and describing text grammars, but looking to a text as a product or as a process.

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 listener. 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 some time ago.

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. Let us look at a stretch of sentence to explain more clearly what we mean by textuality.

Eg:

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.

SEVEN STANDARD OF TEXTUALITY (Beaugrande & Dressler, 1981:3)

One major concern in Text Linguistics is the notion of TEXTUALITY. Beaugrande & Dressler (1981:3) define text linguistics as a “communicative occurrence which meets SEVEN STANDARDS OF TEXTUALITY“. The first two are “cohesion and coherence”, which are defined as text-internal,

and the remaining five “intentionality, acceptability, informativity, situationality, and intertextuality” are defined as text-external (Tischer et al., 2000). That is to say, the text is analyzed in term of its linguistic content and the context of the world that surround it. For Beaugrande& Dressler (1981), if any of these standards are not satisfied, the text is considered not to have fulfilled its function and not to be communicative.

1. **COHESION:** the unity of text with many cohesive ties (see the previous unit).

Grammatical cohesion :

- Reference :
- Substitution
- Ellipsis
- Conjunction

Lexical Cohesion :

- Lexical Reiteration
- Lexical Collocation :

2. **COHERENCE :**The unity of the ideas

3. **INTENTIONALITY: THE TEXT PRODUCER'S** attitude and intentions (the text should be cohesive / coherent in order to reach the intended message.


4. **ACCEPTABILITY :**THE TEXT RECEIVER'S attitude (the text should have useful/relevant information in order to be worth accepting

5. **INFORMATIVENESS:** the text should be informative (not too complicated nor low informative) in order to be interesting.

6. **SUITABILITY (CONTEXTUALIZATION) :** the text should be relevant to a situation of occurrence.

7. **INTERTEXTUALITY: the** text should depend on the knowledge of other (preceding or following) texts. If text receivers do not have prior knowledge of a relevant text, communication may break down because the understanding of the current text is obscured.

Example Analysis: identify all instances of grammatical and lexical cohesion in the following speech.

 <p>“We choose to go to the moon. We choose to go to the moon in this decade, and do the other things, not because they are easy, but because they are hard, because that goal will serve to organize and measure the best of our energies and skills, because that challenge is one that we are willing to accept, one we are unwilling to postpone, and one which we intend to win, and the others, too.” (<u>U.S President John Kennedy, 1962</u>)¹</p>	<p>COHESION :</p> <p>Grammatical cohesion :</p> <p>Reference :</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - personal (we) - demonstrative (this decade, that challenge) <p>Substitution : (i.e. avoiding repetition: the <i>challenge to the <u>one</u></i>)</p> <p>Conjunction:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - - Addition (and) - Causality (because) <p>Lexical Cohesion :</p> <p>Lexical Reiteration :</p> <p>Antonymy (easy/ hard; willing/unwilling). synonyms /</p> <p>Lexical Collocation : words that share the same lexical environment (words family)</p>
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Two main semantic fields: the American people (we), space

Note: we metaphors are frequent in political discourses

The Context:

The context and circumstances of President Kennedy’s “we go to the moon speech,” delivered near the height of the Cold War and at the beginning of the “space race” between the United States and the Soviet Union. The Soviet satellite “Sputnik” had been beeping overhead for 4 years, and only one year prior Soviet cosmonaut Yuri Gagarin had become the first human being in history to enter space. The

¹The 35th President of the United States from January 1961 until his assassination in November 1963.

United States was rapidly losing the race into space, and in turn a competition in technological supremacy and prestige, to its Cold War adversary. The American public was on the verge of panic over the implications of a “Red Moon.” President Kennedy needed to forge a new direction for the United States, one that would excite and energize the American public and reestablish American eminence in global affairs. And so, on that day in September, 1962, he did just that, powerfully declaring that the United States would “go to the Moon before the decade was out.

Repetition: The phrase "We choose to go to the Moon" was repeated three times consecutively, followed by an explanation that climaxes in his declaration that the challenge of space is "one that we are willing to accept, one we are unwilling to postpone, and one which we intend to win."

1. Cohesion:

2. Coherence: The sentences in the text are related to each other. This relationship creates a scheme in the mind of reader. The text mentions what "Neighborhood Watch" and the visual mean. The elements of text are related to each other. The pattern of words and sentences constitute a meaningful whole.

3. Intentionality: The text explains clearly what "going to the moon" means and it serves the message to the audience (the Americans).

4. Acceptability: The text has an understandable message for the audience. In other words, readers can understand the message directly. Thus, text can be admitted as a communicative one.

5. Contextualization: The manner of telling is appropriate for the audience. Any ordinary American can attribute a meaning and associate with his/her environment.

6. Informativeness: The text excites attention of readers. After reading the text, readers have some historical and cultural knowledge about the Americans.

7. Intertextuality: There is probably a relationship between the previous texts and this text directly. Going moon was a national issue of the Americans at that era.

SUMMARY

In this Unit, we examined text-linguistics. We looked at text and textuality and how one relates to the other. We saw that textuality is what makes a text to be qualified to be describes 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.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISES

Use the same texts in the previous unit (cohesion and coherence) and analyze their textuality using Beaugrande and Dressler model.

REFERENCES AND FURTHER READINGS

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- De Beaugrande, R. and Dressler, W. (1981) *Introduction to Text Linguistics*. London: Longman

UNIT 8: CONVERSATIONAL IMPLICATURES

LEARNING OBJECTIVES: Upon the completion of this unit, you should be able to:

- ✓ Understanding Cooperative Principles
- ✓ Explain the various conversational maxims and differentiate them
- ✓ Interpreting Conversation Implicature

INTRODUCTION

You recall from speech acts that in an indirect or implicit speech act is what is implied by a speaker's utterance that is not part of what is explicitly said. The term is also known simply as **implicature**, which is coined by the philosopher Paul Grice (1975) to refer to what is implied in utterance. In order to better understand and explain how speakers intentionally imply something they do not say, in this unit we shall be looking at Paul Grice's theory of Conversational Implicatures which has provided linguistic analysts with an explicit account of how it is possible to mean more than what is actually "said".

IMPLICATURE ORIGINE AND DEFINITION

Implicature is a term that is coined by the philosopher H. P. Grice in 1975. An implicature refers to what the speaker suggests or implies with an utterance, even though it is not literally expressed. That is, what is meant by the speaker goes beyond what is communicated, in which the additional meaning is inferred by the listener. This idea can be well illustrated in the following conversation between a host and two guests (1):

Host: So, did you like the food?

Guest: you have made wonderful cookies

+>: the food is not delicious. The listener may infer what the speaker implies= This is called IMPLICATURE.

This symbol (**+>**) is used to show implicature (the additional implied meaning).

1. GRICE'S COOPERATIVE PRINCIPLE OF CONVERSATION

Grice (1975) states “the main purpose of conversation is to reach effective exchange of information”. In other words, we assume that in conversation the participants will cooperate with each other when making their contributions informative, truthful, relevant and clear. In such way, we adopt what Grice (1975) calls a “Cooperative Principles”. According to Grice, When people communicate they try to get along with each other and understand each other by following certain conversational rules and patterns. These rules are called “Maxims of Conversation”, which are as follow:

1. Maxim of Quantity – make your contribution as informative as required but not more than is required.
2. Maxim of Quality – be true; do not say what you believe to be false, or lack evidence
3. Maxim of Relation – be relevant - make your contribution to the point.
4. Maxim of Manner – avoid obscurity of expression, ambiguity. Be brief, orderly.

Grice introduced the maxims in order to show that for effective communicative exchange both speaker and hearer have to be collaborative. This means “observing the maxims”.

However, as seen in the example (1) above, sometimes people may not choose to co-operate in conversation (do not always follow the Grice’s maxims in everyday interaction). We choose to break deliberately or not deliberately the cooperative principle or one of its maxims in order to imply something indirectly to achieve a very specific effect and communicate a specific meaning (this is known as a **conversational implicature**: *Conveying some meaning indirectly*).

1.2. FAILURE AND VIOLATION OF THE MAXIMS

Grice (1975) describes the following types of maxims violations in ordinary conversation:

- a) Infringing the maxim (s):** It happens due to language deficiency or lack of cultural background
- b) Opting out the maxim (s):** To refuse to co-operate.

- c) **Suspending:** A natural and acceptable
- d) **Flouting/violating the maxim(s):** In flouting/violating the maxims, the speaker attempts to mislead the hearer. Speakers may flout/ violate such maxims for different reasons, whether to be sarcastic, to look clever, to appear different, or simply to show they do not care, etc. Listeners may then draw inferences from what speakers have actually said (i.e. from the literal meaning of the utterance) about what have not said (by means of implicature).

Grice argues that when speakers appear not to follow the maxims they expect hearers to appreciate implied meanings.

1.2.1. INFRINGEMENT

Within infringement the speaker has no intention to deceive or mislead the hearer. Infringement occurs as a result of an imperfect mastery of the language due to their level of language skills (child, foreigner). In addition, it can be from impaired linguistic performance brought about by (drunkenness, nervousness, excitement) or if they have cognitive problems or speech impediments (Thomas, 1995, p. 74).

Sometimes the speaker infringes the maxims because they are unable to speak clearly, and/or he does not know the culture.

1) linguistics deficiency

Someone learning English speaks to a native:

- English speaker: Would you like coffee or tea?
- Non-English speaker: "yes".

(in Paltridge, 2012, p. 46)

The non-native speaker is breaking the maxim of quantity by providing insufficient and unclear response due to linguistic deficiency.

1.2.2. OPTING OUT

Opting out occurs when a speaker show unwillingness to cooperate with listener. For example, sometimes people cannot reply in the expected way for legal or professional reasons, or for ethical reasons. Consider the following example:

A politician to a journalist: "I'm afraid I can't answer that question; I can't give you that information. No comment" (opted not to cooperate with the journalist).

This may also happen when a witness refuses to share information. For example:

Investigator: Is it true that you threaten the victim many times.

Jim: I'm afraid I have nothing to say. I need my lawyer (opted not to cooperate with the investigator).

1.2.3. SUSPENDING

Under certain circumstances, maxims violation is not only normal and acceptable phenomenon, but they are required. They include cases such as:

Funeral: In case of funeral oration/obituaries, when the orator praise the dead person and ignore the bad aspects of their life (Orators might be untruthful).

Speedy communication: (telegrams, emails, notes, SMS, etc) suspends the maxim of quantity.

Poetry: Since poetry does not aim for brevity, clarity and lack of ambiguity, poetry might suspend the maxim of manner.

Jokes: Jokes often suspend the maxim of quantity, quality, and manner because they are usually untrue and exploit ambiguity and polysemy of meaning.

1.2.4. FLOUTING/VIOLATING MAXIMS

☞ **Remember:** There is a difference between flouting and violating.

Flouting the maxims means that speaker has no intention of deceiving the hearer. In *flouting*, the speaker assumes that the hearer will get the implied meaning. However, in *violating*, the speaker tries to intentionally to mislead the hearer with the hope that the hearer will not recover the implicature.

1.2.4.1. THE FLOUT OF THE MAXIM OF QUANTITY

Flouting/violating quantity involves giving either too much or too little information.

1)

A: "Well, how do I look?"

B: "your shoes are nice" (in, Cutting, 2002, p.37)

2)

Husband: how much does the dress cost?

Wife: less than the last one. (in Cutting, 2002, p. 40)

+>:1:It is clear here that **(B)** flouts the quantity maxim because s/he provides opinion only about **(A)**'s shoes while **(A)** asks for the whole opinion of his/her appearance. In this case **(B)** gives less information than is required which lead to **(A)** to infer an implication that his/her appearance is not good enough except for the shoes.

+>:2: Here the wife violates the maxim of quality because she is not informative as required, because she is trying to mislead her husband to cover up the price of the dress by not saying real price of the dress by "less than the last one".

1.2.1.2. THE BREAK OF THE MAXIM OF QUALITY

Breaking the maxim of quality can be done in a variety of ways: Exaggeration, Sarcasm, or Irony, metaphor, and hyperbole.

1)

A student,who hates getting up earlier,to his classmates: [Sigh] You know there's nothing I love more than awaking at 6 in the morning to attend the pragmatics course.

2)

After having a terrible argument with a friend, a woman tells her friend: "You're a fine friend indeed!" (InAlba, 2015, p. 48).

+>:(1):In (1), the student flouts the quality maxim. The student gives information which does not match the actual fact, and yet the student is still cooperative because he/she expects the hearers (the classmates) to see this as a humorous attempt to show his boredom (being sarcasm).

+>: (2): Similarly, in (2), the woman **violates** the maxim of quality. According to the situation, she does not really think that her friend is a fine friend, but, rather, the opposite. Her friend should probably reach the conclusion by means of implicature.

1.2.1.3. THE BREAK OF THE MAXIM OF RELATION/RELEVANCE

As a rule, flouting/violating the maxim of relation tends to occur when the response is obviously irrelevant to the topic (abrupt change of topic).

1) A: What qualities does your friend have for this job position?

B: He has a good handwriting.

2) A: Husband: How much did that new dress cost, darling?

B: Wife: "I know, let's go out tonight. Now, where would you like to go?" (in Cutting, 2002, p. 40)

+>: 1: In the example (1) the speaker (b) **flouts** the relevance maxim, implying to (a) that his friend is not qualified for the job position.

+>:2: The wife **violates** the relation maxim, trying to mislead her husband to hide the dress' price by changing the topic which is irrelevant to her husband's question.

1.2.1.4. THE BREAK OF THE MAXIM OF MANNER

Frequently, breaking maxim of manner takes the form of obscurity or ambiguity; quite often it can be used to exclude another participant.

Husband: How much did that new dress cost?

Wife: This tiny dress bought from a wonderful new shop in the new corner, there is a discount on it.(in Cutting, 2002, p. 40)

+>:1: In this example, the wife **violates** the maxim of manner, avoiding clarity and being deliberately obscure. The husband asks a very clear question, but the wife deliberately tried to not give him the exact price, because the dress might be too expensive.

1.3. OVERLAPS BETWEEN MAXIMS

Sometimes there is overlap between Grice's maxims. For instance, an utterance that may be both ambiguous and unclear may flout the quantity and quality maxims.

1)

A: Well, how do I look?

B: Your shoes are nice... (in Cutting, 2002, p.37)

2)

A: "What do you think of my new dress?"

B: "It's interesting." (in Cutting, 2002, p. 39)

3) A professor is writing a letter of reference for a student who is applying for a job as a philosophy teacher: "Dear Sir, Mr. X's command of English is excellent, and his attendance at tutorials has been regular. Yours, etc. (Grice, 1975: 52).

In both (1) and (2), B is reluctant to give true opinion and give clear contribution as it is not informative as required. Instead, in both cases, B is offering insufficient information (breaking quantity maxims), and giving irrelevant utterance (breaking relation maxims).

In example (3), the professor breaks the quantity maxim as he/she provides insufficient information about the student's real competence. It can be said that the professor also breaks the quantity maxim for being insincere (not sure about the student), and the manner maxim for being ambiguous.

1.4. EXAMPLE OF MAXIMS OVERLAP, INFRINGEMENT AND CULTURAL DIFFERENCES

In the following dialogue, there are overlaps of maxims caused by infringement because of the lack of cultural awareness.

Chinese student: What do you do in America?

American student: I work in a bank.

Chinese student: It's a good job, isn't it?

American student: **Well, just so so.**

Chinese student: **Then, how much is your salary every month?**

American student: Oh no ...

Chinese student: What's wrong?

American student: Why are you asking that?

Chinese student: Just asking, nothing else ...

American student: **The station isn't far, is it?** (violating the Maxim of Relation)

(in Paltridge, 2012, p. 64)

As you see, the American first breaks the maxim of quantity by giving less information, “Well, just so so” and the maxim of relation, “The station isn’t far, is it?”

The Chinese student breaks the maxim of quantity by going into personal life, “Then, how much is your salary every month?” This is considered an “infringement” as well, because the Chinese lack of cultural awareness (do not ask about salary).

3. COOPERATIVE PRINCIPLES ACROSS CULTURES

Due to cultural differences, the maxims of the CP are not universal to language. The reason is that differences in language use reflect different cultural values, and consequently, according to Keenan (1985, p.179), is that “there are linguistic communities to which not all of them apply”. For instance, in comparing English to Chinese language, Yuanxiu (2012) finds that because of the high context culture, cannot be effectively used to explain Chinese language use. In his study, he finds that the Chinese people oftentimes do not follow the maxims of CP because they tend to value indirect expressions as gesture of politeness and other social convention. His study also reveals that Chinese language users only conform to the Maxim of relevance in most. This is because, as already noted, in the Chinese culture breaking the maxim of relevance may appear impolite.

Regarding Arabic, Al-Qaderi, I.A.U. (2015) found that that Grecian Theory of Conversational Implicature can be applied to Arabic language, yet unlike the Chinese culture, he found that in Arabic the maxim of manner is the least flouted.

4. CRITICISM

Grice’s Cooperative Principles attempts to explain conversational implicatures from at least two different ways of communication: obeying or disobeying the maxims. However, the maxims are not rules that people have to follow in an interaction. We do not always follow these maxims in everyday interaction. The immediate objection that is raised here is that no one in the real life situation follows these rules and principles in speaking all the time. Besides, as Leech (1983, p.80) notes, the CP in itself cannot explain why people are often so indirect in conveying what they mean. Thus, it seems to be interesting to mention that Lakoff

(1973) reduces Grice's maxims to two: be clear and be polite. For her, these two rules are sufficient to guarantee 'pragmatic competence'.

METHODOLOGIES AND DATA

- ❖ Examination of conversation in relation to cooperative principles (analysis of Arabic conversation in relation to Grice's cooperative principles).
- ❖ Analysis of instances of violating/flouting maxims in daily interaction.
- ❖ Analysis of males and females conversation differences in relation to Grice's Theory

Analysis of Cooperative principles across cultures (e.g. English and Arabic language)

SUMMARY

Remember that:

- The maxims are not rules that people have to follow in an interaction.
- People do not always follow these maxims in everyday interaction.
- Even when the maxims are violated, the hearer assumes that this is done on purpose and looks for particular inferences.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISES

1) *What maxims are broken and what implicature is produced from the picture below?*



2) *What maxims are flouted/violated in the following dialogues below? What implicature follows from it?*

(i)

A: "How did Jeff do on the test?"

B: "Well, he wrote something down for every question"

(ii)

A: "Do you know where Bill is?"

B: "Well, he didn't meet me for lunch like he was supposed to."

(iii)

Student A: Do you like pragmatics?

Student B: Well, let's just say I don't jump for joy before class.

(iiii)

Student: I was absent on Monday - did I miss anything important?

Teacher: Oh no, of course not, we never do anything important in class.

3) *Identify the maxim (s) flouted/violated from the following dialogue, and explain the reason of the violation.*

(An MA Algerian student in Britain was in queue at a store to pay for his purchases):

The cashier: How are you today?

The student: Very fine thanks, and how about you and the family? It's a nice store, ahhh.

The cashier: Yeah, OK, that's would be 21 pounds.

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UNIT 9: SPEECH ACTS

Learning Objectives: This unit will help students to:

- ✓ Recognize verbal and non-verbal acts
- ✓ Recognize different functions/acts performed by the same sentence
- ✓ See the connection between sentence types (declarative, imperative and interrogative)
- ✓ Distinguish between locutionary, illocutionary and perlocutionary

INTRODUCTION

In the course of Pragmatics, you study the concept of deixis and reference; you understand the role of context in determining the meaning of indexical references such as *here*, *there* or *now*. If your father say to you “your homework must be finished now”, the expression denotes the presence of your father at a particular time. In speech act, the expression can be interpreted as a warning or threat rather than mere giving of information description of something. Speech acts show that in order to know certain functions of the said words, instead of asking what the speaker is trying to say we should *ask* what the speaker is trying to *do*?! In this unit we shall examine in fair details how words or utterances perform actions such as requesting, ordering, warning, promising, commanding, etc.

1. WHAT IS SPEECH ACTS THEORY?

Consider someone says ‘*someone’s eaten the ice-cream*’. Herein, the speaker is not merely describing what happens. Rather, this utterance could be heard as a *complaints* (expressing annoyance that no ice-cream is left for you), or could be heard as a *request* (requesting for some ice-cream), or just as *inquiry* (asking who eats the ice-cream), or as *an accusation* (accusing someone for eating the ice-cream). This means that we use language not simply for informing or describing, rather it is used to do things (to make a request, to give orders, to warnings, to make accusation or to give advice, etc.).

This means that sentences are used to *perform various acts* (warning, mocking, complaining, inquiring, accusing, etc.), which is the core of the **Speech act theory**. This theory was first

built by John Langston Austin's (1962) and later developed by John R. Searle's (1969). In his famous work's "How to Do Things with Words", Austin (1962) pointed out that utterances are performatives (perform actions). For example (1):

a) I hereby name the ship H.M.S Titanic

This utterance is clearly an action, because once it is uttered by the person who is entitled to utter it, the ship will have been named accordingly. Thus this sentence is an action of baptism.

Here is another one (2):

a) The boss is coming

This sentence is likely to be understood as a warning.

Thus, characteristics of these sentences that they are not used to describe things (constative as Austin calls) to be true or false. Rather, they actively do things.

We realize that we indeed do things with words when we talk. We often say:

(vii) "I'm here now" to comfort someone or reassure them

(viii) "I've come again" to apologize for troubling someone

(ix) "Don't forget me" to remind someone that he hasn't done your job or

(x) "You met me well" to invite someone to eat with you

Besides the fact that utterances are used to perform actions, Austin explains that speakers are simultaneously involved in three speech acts when uttering a sentence. So what are these types of speech acts?

2. TYPES OF SPEECH ACTS

What happens when we say something? As already said, Austin (1962, pp. 101-102) states that in uttering words, three acts are performed at the same time as follow:

i) **Locutionary act:** The locutionary refers to the literal meaning of the actual words. The locutionary utterance can take different grammatical forms like:

Form	Examples
Declarative:	You are generous."
Closed- interrogative:	Are you generous?"
Open- interrogative:	Who is generous?"
Imperative:	Be generous!"
Exclamative:	How generous you are!"

It also should be noted that for a sentence to be considered locutionary, it should be meaningful and understood; that is grammatically and semantically meaningful. Besides, the hearer should understand utterance. For instance, if you are in Britain, you cannot ask someone who does not understand Arabic "أين اقرب محطة من فضلك؟" because it will have no effect on the hearer.

ii) Illocutionary act: it is the implicit meaning that refers to the speaker's intention of when uttering those words or what the speaker tries to convey with their words (to request, to offer, to blame, to complain, to promise, etc).

iii) Perlocutionary act: The effect the utterance of the speaker upon the hearer, effect upon feelings, actions, thoughts, etc, who may feel amused, persuaded, warned as a consequence.

Observe the following utterance (3):

It's hot in here

- ❖ *Locutionary act (what is said):* Imperative utterance that describes the temperature.
- ❖ *Illocutionary act (what is meant):* It is an illocutionary act, in that, indirectly Requesting someone to open the window
- ❖ *Perlocutionary act (what to be done):* The illocutionary act will lead to a certain action on the part of the interlocutor(s): Someone has to do an action by opening the window.

This means that by saying "it's hot in here?" the speaker is not only referring to the temperature. Rather he/she may request the hearer to do something (opening the window/door).

As can be seen, illocutionary acts like "it's hot in here" are often *implicit*, and since they are implicit, the hearer can sometimes become confused as he/she does not always decode the speaker's intention successfully.

Yet, this problem can easily be solved by inserting certain performative verbs or self-referential adverb that makes the illocutionary force *explicit* and thus making it enough for the hearer to understand the speaker's intention like the following (in Austin, 1962, p. 69):

- (4)
- a) I *promise* that I shall be there"
 - b) I (hereby) *order* you to stop talking.

In both example (a) and (b), the speaker uses performative verbs (promise and order) to avoid and possible misunderstanding and thus making the message clear for the hearer.

However, Austin observes, sometimes performatives can go wrong if they do not meet certain conditions or rules, which received the name of "felicity conditions". So what are these conditions?

The conditions that must be fulfilled for successful communicative purpose of a particular act received the name of FELICITY CONDITIONS.

2. CONDITIONS AND RULES FOR SPEECH ACTS: THE FELICITY CONDITIONS

In his analysis of performative sentences, Austin (1962) argues that speech act can go wrong or "infelicitous" if certain conditions are not met. The term felicity is taken from a Latin root -

Concerning performative verbs in Arabic, Kharma and Mitchell (1985) affirm that performative verbs are frequently used in legal transactions, including marriage, court declarations, and official contracts. For example, the declarations uttered in some marriages ceremony start with phrases like:
قبلت ن تزوج بيك = قبلت الزواج منك
I agree that I marry you
Likewise, in judicial and official declarations, there are common utterances to be pronounced by witnesses such as:
اشهد بصحة ما اقول
I certify that what I say is true
(Kharma & Mitchell 1985, p. 112)

“Felix” or “happy”. Felicity conditions are the conditions that are needed for success of speech act.

Consider, for instance, when an utterance, even with the use of performatives, is infelicitous (5):

[5.1]Speech act of requesting:

- a) A student to his teacher: “teacher, give me your dictionary”

Here, the speech act of requesting is infelicitous because the student uses a ‘Directive speech act of requesting’. That is, the student has no authority over his teacher to ask in such direct way. The student seems to believe that it is possible for the receiver (the teacher) to carry out the action but actually fails to understand that the receiver (the teacher), though able to do the action, is not going to receive the request in such direct way.

[5.2]Speech act of Ordering:

- a) A teacher to a student: Clean the blackboard.
- b) The student: Ok, sir.

Here, the speech act of ordering is felicitous or successfully happy, because the teacher has an authority over the student to declare the speech act of ordering in such way.

- a) A student to the teacher: Clean the blackboard
- b) The teacher: What

Here, the speech act of ordering is infelicitous or unsuccessfully happy, because the student has no authority. Usually the superior order the inferior and not vice versa.

[5.3]Speech act of Informing:

- a) A student to his/her class mates: “we do not have a class tomorrow”.

Here, the utterance can go wrong (infelicitous) because it is uttered using uncertain references. This is because the student has no authority to declare such and besides some students may not take their classmate utterance seriously. The speech act is only felicitous if performed by the teacher.

[5.4]Speech act of Declaring

Only certain people are qualified to declare war, sentence convicted persons, or pronouncing marriage.

For example: Only appropriate person (not anybody) is entitled to say to somebody:

a) I sentence you to 5 years prison.

It might be said that speakers has performed an unsuccessful speech act (infelicitous) if he/she does not have the authority to declare such decision and if the physical location is not the court (i.e., home).

In the light of this, Searle (1969: 66-67) has set some more detailed conditions or rules that have to be fulfilled for a sentence (for each illocutionary acts) to be felicitous. These rules are *propositional content, preparatory condition, sincerity condition, and essential condition*:

1. **Propositional content**, which requires participants to understand language (I cannot state something if what I utter is grammatically and semantically meaningless for the hearer), and not to act like actors, e.g. a promise or warning must be about the future.
2. **Preparatory**, where the *authority* of the speaker and the *circumstances* of the speech act are appropriate to its being performed successfully, as explained in the example above. For instance, in term of authority, only a teacher can dismiss the class, and only the judge can sentence someone the jail. In term of circumstance, the speaker is aware of the appropriateness.
3. **Sincerity**, where the speech act is being performed seriously and sincerely; for instance, in the case of apologizing or promising, it may be impossible for others to know how sincere the speaker is.
4. **Essential**, where the speaker intends that an utterance be acted upon by the addressee. For example, in making a request, the speaker is sure that the speech act be acted upon by the hearer.

In nutshell, for speech act to be successful (felicitous), there should be certain conditions to be fulfilled, according to Austin:

- ✓ the speaker should have the right to tell the receiver to do the action,
- ✓ should believe that the action will be done,

✓ and the hearer has the obligation to do the action.

However, if any one of these condition is not fulfilled, the utterance will not function as an order, for instance, if the speaker has no authority to give order or command.

Another contribution to speech act is (1976)'s classification of speech acts. So what are?

3. CALSSIFICATION OF SPEECHACTS (THE ILLOCUTIONARY FORCES)

Searle (1976, pp. 10-14) suggests that *the illocutionary of speech acts* consist of five general classifications: telling people how things are; trying to get them to do things; committing ourselves to doing things; expressing our feelings and attitudes; and bringing about changes through utterances(Searle, 1976, p. 23), as in the table below:

Searle's Classification is an attempt to refine Austin's, which was not sufficient, according to Searle.
(See Austin taxonomy)

	Class of illocutionary Forces	Examples
1. Representati ves Assertive	An utterance that describes some state of affairs (i.e., stating, telling, informing, predicting, notifying). The statement may be judged true or false. The speaker may asserts a proposition to be true, using such verbs as: believe, think, affirm, deny, report, etc.	The sky is blue/ I believe the sky is blue. There will be rain tomorrow/ I think there will be rain tomorrow. It belongs to my brother/ I affirm it belongs to my brother.
2. Directives	Utterances used to get the hearer to do (or not do) something. They express what the speaker wants (Requesting, ordering, questioning, forbidding, advising, suggesting, insisting, recommending).	Hand me your the book Would you please close the door? I order you to leave the class.
3. Commissives	The speaker commits him/herself to a future course of action (Promising, threatening, volunteering, offering, guaranteeing, refusals, and pledges).	I'll be there tomorrow. We'll tell your parents. I'm going to fix it next time/ I promise I'm going to fix it next time.

4. Expressives	The speaker expresses emotional state and can be statements of pleasure, pain, likes, dislikes or sorrow (Apologizing, thanking, congratulating, condoling, welcoming).	I'm so sorry . This is beautiful. I apologize for being late. Congratulations!, Thankyou, etc.
5. Declarations	In order to perform a declaration properly, the speaker has to have a special institutional role (power) in a specific context, Naming, appointing, resigning, firing, marrying, divorcing.	I now pronounce you husband and wife. You're out! I sentence you to 5 years' jail.

☞ **Note:** It should be noted that one utterance may express more than one illocutionary act at one time. Consider (6):

Uttered by a boss, "there is a meeting tomorrow at 9h pm!"

In different situational contexts, the speech act can interpreted as either:

- a) The boss uses a representative speech act of informing
- b) The boss uses a commissive speech act of threatening or warning
- c) The boss uses a directive speech act of ordering/suggesting/insisting/recommending

4. SPEECH ACTS STRUCTURE: DIRECT & INDIRECT SPEECH ACTS

Apart from distinguishing speech acts according to their general function, Searle (1976) has also draw a distinction between speech acts with regard to their structure: Direct and Indirect Speech Acts.

An utterance is seen as a direct speech act when its form corresponds with its function like the following examples (in Yule, 1996, p.55):

(7)

The form	The function	Examples
declarative	to make a statement	You wear a seat belt
interrogative	to ask a question	Do you wear a seat belt?"
imperative	to make order or a command	Wear a seat belt

Herein, direct speech acts illustrate explicitly the intended meaning that the speaker has behind making that utterance.

In indirect speech act, yet, the form does not correspond with the function of the utterance. Notice the following examples that show no correspondence between the form and the function (8):

- a) You are standing in front on the TV
- b) You left the door open

Notice that both (a) and (b) have declarative structures, as a direct speech act, which are used to make a statement. However, their functions are requests. Instead of using interrogative like “can you move away?” or imperative like “close the door”, the speakers use declarative structure to make their requests more politely.

Also notice (9):

- a) It’s hot in here

As can be seen, what appears structurally declarative is functionally a request, as speaker may be indirectly performing another type of illocutionary act, such as a request (e.g., would you open the window?) or an *offer* (Can I open the window?).

Interrogative utterance to make question, which is described as a direct speech act, can also perform indirect speech act like the following (10):

- a) Did you eat my ice-cream?
- b) Is not a beautiful dress?

These are not questions that look for yes/no answers. Rather, (a) can be said to be an indirect speech act of complaint, and in uttering “is not a beautiful dress?”, the speaker is not only performing a question. Rather he/she may use an indirect speech of requesting.

5. SPEECH ACTS ACROSS CULTURES

As stated in previous unit, depending on the context, *the speaker must be aware of 'who speaks what, to whom, when and where'*. In term of cross-cultural differences, this means that what works in one's first language may very well not work in the second language being learnt.

As far as speech acts is concerned, languages differ in how its people use different speech acts (requesting, apologizing, refusing, requesting, inviting, complaining, etc). This means that pragmatic strategies for illocutionary acts differ across cultures. For instance, sometimes, expressing the illocutionary act is only appropriate if we use the direct expression, and it is not if we use the indirect expression.

Speech acts difference is a hallmark in directness/indirectness. House and Kasper (1981)¹ rated "directness" in complaints and requests, comparing German and English native speakers, and found that on a scale from 1-8, English speakers most frequently were fairly indirect, while German speakers most frequently were more direct. Using a German strategy in an English environment would often be perceived as impolite.

Similarly, in speech act of refusals, which are a complex speech act because they are high-risk, and they could very easily cause offense to the hearer. Nelson et al. (1998)² found that Egyptian speakers used more direct refusals with peers than American speakers. For unequal status, Egyptian speakers mitigate then excuse, and American speakers excuse then mitigate or refuse then give reasons (depending on status balance).

In the Arabic context, cross cultural differences can be found in apologies. For instance, in his research "Apologies in Arabic and English: An inter-language and cross-cultural study", Al-Zumor (2011)³ discovers that Arabs tend to offer more intense regret and more explanations (like I am very sorry /really really/so so sorry). As reported by the author, admitting responsibility is higher in Arabic data. In contrast, in the Anglo-Saxon culture, this are discredited because people believe in "the immunity of one's private self" (ibid, p, 28).

¹House, J & Kasper. (1981). "Politeness markers in English and German." In Florian Coulmas (ed.), *Conversational routine: explorations in standardized communication situations and prepatterned speech*, 157-185. New York: Mouton.

²Nelson GL, Al Batal M, El Bakary W (1998) Refusals and communication style in American English and Egyptian Arabic. Paper presented at the 20th annual conference of the American Association for Applied Linguistics, Seattle, WA, March 14-17

³Al-Zumor, A. W. Q. (2011). Apologies in Arabic and English: An inter-language and cross-cultural study. *Journal of King Saud University –Languages and Translation*, 23, 19-28.

Equally, taking the Algerian context is concerned, in his investigation “Transfer in interlanguage requests performed by Algerian EFL learners”, Dendenne (2014)⁴ found that, through the three situations of Discourse Completion Task/Test (DCT), the Algerian use more intensifier like “aasif jiddan/I’m very sorry”.

Speech acts differences are also noticeable phenomenon in gender. It is found that males and females use different pragmatic strategies for illocutionary acts.

6. SOME LIMITATION OF SPEECH ACTS THEORY

Despite of the indubitable virtues of speech act theory, it has been criticized for many reasons. First, as already noted the theory is not universal and thus cannot be generalized to other languages and cultures. For instance, linguistic anthropologists such as Duranti (1993) and Du Bois (1993) have shown Searle’s version limited applicability to non-Western modes of communication. Second, it seems impossible to always find a match between the form and the intention of the utterance. As shown in example (1), the imperative statement “it’s hot in here” can be classified as a *request* (asking somebody to do the action: open the window) or an *offer* (you do the action). Similarly, the imperative statement “leave me do it for you” can be classified as offer or suggestion. Additionally, as Cutting (2012, p.22), “it has no provision for the messiness of everyday spoken language”. For instance, as Cutting (2002) observed, utterances like “there you are” and “you know” make it difficult to put it in classification. Equally, back channeled and feedback, which we usually use to acknowledge what the speaker is saying and encourage him/her to continue, i.e., “Oh, ‘ahah’, hmmm, I see, huh, really”.

SUMMARY

Speech acts show how speakers (and writers) “do things with words” (Austin, 1962). According to Austin, there are three fundamental acts that are performed by speakers: locutionary act, illocutionary act and perlocutionary act. Searle (1976) proposes five major acts, which are an extension to Austin’s illocutionary acts: representative, directive,

⁴Dendenne, B. (2017). “Investigates transfer in interlanguage requests performed by Algerian EFL learners

expressive, commissive and declarative. Indirect speech act is another manifestation of a speaker's illocution. A speaker may say "it's hot in here'" as an indirect way of requesting the hearer to open the door.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISES

Activity 1) Mention the illocutionary acts for the following. Then mention the perlocutionary effects for each:

- a) There's no milk in the fridge:

Illocutionary act	Speech act category	Perlocutionary effect
Informing	_____	_____
_____	Directive	_____

Activity 2) Examine the types of speech acts performed by a master student to her teacher (the first has been done for you).

(1) Thank you for your understanding. (2) Now let me explain my topic (3) the idea of our research is that currently there is a heated debate over adopting English at the primary level of education. (4) Our research is to investigate people attitude towards the matter.

- (1) Expressive speech act of thanking (2) _____

Activity 3) Indicate the illocutionary acts performed through the statements and explain the communicative intention of each one.

- a) Do you already know that we have a new Minister of Education?
- b) Of course, this seems evident.
- c) My students, this is our last class: my mission ends here.
- d) Jim, thanks for all your jokes over these three years.
- e) Nice to meet you, not forgetting those who are no longer here, like Amy, Jim, and Bill.
- f) You can count on me whenever you need me.

- g) I am glad that you have done these exercises.
- h) From today on, I will follow your academic career closely.
- i) I watch football every day.
- j) "Your illness is not fatal", a doctor to a patient.
- k) "Your behavior is fatal", a friend to a friend.

Activity 4) Identify direct and indirect illocutionary acts of the following utterance?

- a) Don't you think that dress is beautiful?
 - b) Shall we begin the lesson? - asks the teacher.
 - c) Uttered by a college dean to an applicant for a job at the college, "You might be happier at a smaller -or a larger-college, son!"
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REFERENCES AND FURTHER READINGS

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UNIT 10: POLITENESS THEORY AND DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

Learning Objectives: After this unit, students should be able to:

- ✓ Show understanding the politeness theory
- ✓ Show understanding function of politeness strategies
- ✓ Identify the politeness strategy used in various utterances

INTRODUCTION

As seen, when we communicate, we usually choose to imply rather than state an idea. For example, as discussed in “Speech Acts”, if you want someone to open the door, you may perform an indirect speech act of requesting like “it’s hot in here” instead of “open the door” in order to be less direct and thus being polite. Similarly, as discussed in “conversational principles”, you may choose to violate the cooperative maxims in order to show respect like for example (from Cutting, 2002, p. 37):

A: “Well, how do I look?”

B: “Your shoes are nice...”

B here prefers to violate the maxim of quantity rather than offend A with the truth. Therefore, the concept of politeness is important to understand why people choose to:

- ✓ Expresses an illocutionary act indirectly rather than directly.
- ✓ Flout/violate a maxim.

In this unit, we will look at the concept of politeness as a central area in the study of pragmatics, which has also added an explicit explanation of how it is possible to mean more than what is actually “said”.

1. POLITENESS THEORY¹

As its name suggests, the concept of politeness represents the act of applying good manners or showing regards towards other people. According to Grundy (2000), if we do not see the relationship between us and the persons who address us as they do, we may be upset by the strategies they use, since these strategies imply the kind of relationship we have with them, thus linguistic politeness is “the function of language to imply the most appropriate speaker-addressee relationship” (2000, p. 147). That is, politeness, according to Spencer-Oatey (2000, p. 3) is a matter of appropriateness.

Brown and Levinson (1987) are the most prominent anthropologists who talked extensively about politeness. Their basic argument can be summarized as follows:

When we enter into social relationships we have to acknowledge and show an awareness of *face*. This is very much reflected in the way we interact with one another.

This means that politeness is about showing awareness of and consideration for another person's *face* (to know how to be nice and considerate to other people) in order to maintain a social relationship. This is because, people are frequently judged to be polite or rude, depending on what they say.

2.1. The Concept of Face in Politeness

The central idea in politeness theory is the concept of ‘face’. The face, in pragmatics, is the image that a person projects in his/her social contacts with others (Yule, 1996). The notion of “face” was actually that of Goffman's, while the elaborate work on linguistic politeness was carried out by Brown and Levinson (1978/1987). They insisted that for politeness to take place, someone has recognized the other person's “self esteem” and the need to protect it. In most of our encounters with people, Brown and Levinson argue that our face is put at risk.

¹We focus on Brown and Levinson framework in this UNIT. Also See the framework of: Leech, G. (2014). *The Pragmatics of Politeness*. New York. Oxford University Press

Brown and Levinson (1987) distinguish between positive and negative face. According to them, positive and negative face exists universally in human culture. Every person has a 'negative face' and a 'positive face' (Brown and Levinson (1987, p.62) :

a) **Positive Face:** the concept of positive face describes the person's desire to be appreciated and accepted by others, i.e., socially being part of the group.

b) **Negative Face:** The concept of negative face refers to the basic personal needs to be independent, to have freedom, and not to be imposed on by others, i.e., respected by others in terms of time, privacy and possession.

In this sense, one can define politeness as the act of showing awareness toward other people's *positive* and *negative* faces. This means that to) communication is a co-operatively, follow the conversational rules (maxims), as Grice (1975) suggests, one has to be careful not to obstruct their addressees' face wants. However, as discussed previously, sometimes we need to flout or violate the maxims in order to achieve communicative purpose. This means that we need to perform acts that threaten the face (positive or negative). Such acts are referred to as "Face-Threatening Acts" or "FTA'S".

2.1.1. Face Threatening Act (FTA)

In conversation, it seems almost impossible to satisfy all face wants of either the speaker or addressee, either negative or positive. If a speaker says something that does not take into account the hearer's feelings (threatening their self-image) or his/her own (the speaker), this act is called Face Threatening Act (FTA). FTA's, then, can threat both the hearer's and the speaker's both positive and negative face.

There are two types of FTA:

- ☞ Act threatening the negative face
- ☞ Act threatening the positive face

2.1.1.1. Act Threatening the Positive Face

As you recall, positive face is the need to be appreciated and accepted by others (caring about own feelings; socially being part of the group, caring about own feelings).

Therefore, the positive face is threatened when an individual is forced to be separated from others and speakers do not care about their interlocutors' feelings.

Please note: The act of threatening the positive face can threat both the speaker and the hearer: This may include:

- a) Expressions that negatively evaluating the hearer's positive face, e.g. disapproval, accusations, accusing, contradictions, criticism, complaints, refusal, disagreements, etc,
- b) Expressions which show that the speaker does not care about the hearer's positive face, e.g. expressions of violent emotions, taboo topics, bad news, emotional topics, interruptions etc.

Examples:

1) Threatening the Hearer's Positive Face:

Refusal	'I think the second group is more suitable for you'. The hearer's positive face is threatened because he/she is rejected /not accepted in the group she/he wants.
Criticism::	"I think your research proposal was not concise enough." The hearer's self-image is negatively evaluated, and therefore his/her positive face is threatened because s/he is blamed for having done something not good.
Expression of emotions:	"You look very sad because of your parents' death, aren't you?" The speaker addresses a topic which involves a state of emotional weakness on the part of the hearer, i.e. the speaker does not care about the 'public self-image' of the hearer, thus threatening his/her positive face.

Criticizing	<p>“I think your writing needs more improvement; there are weaknesses here and there”.</p> <p>The hearer’s positive face is threatened because he/she is criticized for not doing well.</p>
Accusing	<p>“Give me my white shirt back, I know you took it”.</p> <p>The hearer’s positive face is threatened because he/she is accused of taking the speaker’s shirt without asking for his/her permission.</p>

2) Threatening the Speaker’s Positive Face:

Apology	<p>“I think I made a huge mistake.”</p> <p>The speaker makes a statement about his/her own shortcomings, thereby 'damaging' his/her own positive self-image/face.</p>
Congratulation	<p>“Congratulating for your victory.”</p>
Self-humiliating	<p>“Oh,... how stupid I am”.</p>

2.1.1.1. Act Threatening the Negative Face

Recall that negative Face is the need not to be imposed on by others and respected by others in terms of time, privacy and possession. That is to say, the negative face is threatened when the hearer’s personal freedom is restricted.

☛ **Please note:** The act of threatening the negative face can threat both the speaker and the hearer as well: This may include:

- (i) Acts of giving orders/requests, suggestions/advice, threats/warnings, etc.
- (ii) Acts of offering/promises (putting pressure on the hearer, making them indebted).
- (iii) Acts of making compliments, expressions of emotions, etc.

Examples:

1) Threatening the Hearer's Negative Face:

Order	<p>"Please hand me that book."</p> <p>The speaker expresses an anticipation of some future action of the hearer and thereby restricts his/her personal freedom.</p>
Promise	<p>"I promise I will come by tomorrow."</p> <p>The speaker states a future action in which the hearer should be involved (the hearer's freedom is restricted).</p>
Compliment	<p>"I do really like what you did"</p> <p>The speaker expresses a positive emotion towards the hearer, which may involve an anticipation of a positive reaction by the hearer (the hearer is obliged to thank the speaker).</p>
Suggest, advice	<p>Why don't you change your topic?</p>
Promising	<p>We have a meeting at nine, be there!</p> <p>The hearer negative face here is threatened because the speaker is limiting his freedom by both ordering him, and involving him in a future action. In short, the following table summarizes the FTA's of the hearer's face.</p>

2) Threatening the speaker's Positive Face

Expression of thanks:	<p>1) "Thank you so much for your help."</p> <p>The speaker expresses thanks because he/she feels obliged to do so. His freedom of action is thus threatened in the moment of speaking.</p> <p>2) "I will never forget your favor, thank you so much!"</p> <p>The addresser negative face is threatened because he/she admits a debt toward the addressee.</p>
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Accepting thanks and apologies, offers	You're welcome, it's ok Ok, thanks
--	---------------------------------------

2.1.2. Minimizing the FTAs: Face Saving Act (FSA)

To minimize these threats of the speakers and hearers' faces, one may express himself using expression with lesser threat to avoid embarrassment. Those expressions are called "**Face-Saving Acts**"(FSA's). For instance, imagine a neighbor is playing music loudly and there is a couple who is trying to sleep. The husband may do an FTA: "I will say to him to stop playing music now!" or the wife may do a FSA to make her request less threatening to the other person's face: "Perhaps we can ask him to stop playing music since it is late and we need sleeping".

This means that we often use some strategies to minimize in order to avoid the impact of FTA's, which Brown and Levinson (1987) lay down as following:

3. POLITENESS STRATEGIES

Politeness strategy is a strategy *to prevent the violation (to save) the hearer's face*, i.e., we usually try to avoid embarrassing the hearer or making him/her feel uncomfortable. There are four politeness strategies used by people to maintain a balance in protecting the positive and the negative faces of each other and acting appropriately in social interactions.

Brown and Levinson (1987) believe that participants in social interaction will try to avoid or minimize the impact of any face threatening acts, and they (1987: 91-225) offer a schema of possible strategies for FTAs aimed to prevent or repair the damage caused by FTAs = *to save the hearer's face*:

1. Off-record (Least direct-Most polite)
2. Negative politeness (More Polite)

3. Positive politeness(Less polite)
4. On record baldly (Most direct-Least polite)

Examples: If you ever find yourself in a situation where you need to borrow your classmate's pen, you may use these strategies but each is appropriate in its own context. The context of the utterance decides which of the 4 strategies is more appropriate.

3. 1. ON- RECORD BALDLY:

"Give me a pen"(Yule, p. 63)

In this context:

- This strategy is considered the least formal and polite.
- The act is mentioned explicitly and bluntly (give me the pen)
- Using the imperative syntactic structure (direct directive speech act)
- Acting like an order.
- The hearer is put in a situation where he/she feels uncomfortable.
- Threatening the negative face

When would you use such a strategy?

- The speaker has authority over the hearer
 - Used by close familiars (i.e., friends).
-

3. 2. POSITIVE POLITENESS

"Hey, buddy, I'd appreciate it if you'd let me use your pen". (Yule, p. 64)

In this context:

- This Strategy is considered the less polite.
- Linguistic features that show closeness (Hey, buddy).
- It threatens the hearer's negative face because they impose on the time.
- But, it gives importance to the positive face by showing the hearer that he/ she is liked and is treated like a friend (Hey, buddy).

When would you use such a strategy?

- a) When there is less social distance between the speaker and the hearer.
 - b) Seeking friendship.
-

3. 3. NEGATIVE POLITENESS

“ I’m sorry to bother you, but can I ask you for a pen or something? Or “Could you lend me a pen?”
(Yule, p, 64)

In this context:

- This Strategy is considered the more polite
- Using a question containing polite expressions (can/could).
- Using question to give a choice to the hearer acknowledging their right to their possession.
- Using some the prepositional hedges “I’m sorry to bother you” to minimize the imposition.
- Showing more awareness to the negative face because the speaker respects the hearer’s time and does not impose on him/ her.
- But, there is more social distance than there is in (positive politeness) which affects the positive face because the hearer is not treated as a member of their group.

When would you use such a strategy?

- a) You still want to maintain distance
 - b) observing the hearer’s right to his/her possession (i.e. his/her pen)
 - c) You may be more familiar with the hearer, but you are still not that close.
-

3. 4. OFF-RECORD STRATEGY

“”Hmm, I wonder where I put my pen. (Yule, p. 63)

In this context:

- This strategy is considered as the most formal and polite one.
- The action is performed in an indirect way.
- The need is only hinted, not mentioned: By hinting it, you are being very respectful of your friend’s autonomy.
- You are giving the hearer’s the option of not taking the hint (pretending she/he did not understand you!).
- It shows more awareness of the negative face, minimizes the threat most successfully
- However, the speaker risks being misunderstood since the hearer must infer meaning enclosed in the violation of Gricean maxims

When would you use such a strategy?

- You are not that familiar with your the addressee
-

-
- Making yourself respectful towards the hearer's possession
 - Giving the addressee the possibility to pretend that he/she did not understand the speaker's intention.
 - when you try to respect the hearer's possession and right to not being imposed
-

4. POLITENESS ACROSS CULTURES:

Due to cultural differences, politeness strategies differ across cultures. For instance, most English-speaking contexts put more emphasis on negative politeness (Yule, 1996). The British, in particular, the face saving act is more commonly performed via a negative politeness strategy (Cutting, 2002).

In analyzing politeness between Chinese and American cultures, Sing Ting Cheung (2009) revealed some instances of differences. According to his findings, because the Americans are usually open-minded, they use bald on record strategies in order to seek agreement with others, and because the Chinese people are quite conservative, they usually prefer to use silence in disagreement in order to show respect while.

Likewise, in his study, "Differences between Politeness Strategies Used in Requests by Americans and Japanese", Kitao (1987) found that Americans usually use more positive politeness than Japanese do, and Japanese tend to use negative politeness. The reason is that, according to him, the Americans usually invite others into a group by the use informal language, which is polite form of behavior; whereas, in Japanese keeping others outside the group is the polite form of behavior.

Regarding the Algerian context, in a Magister thesis entitled "Politeness strategies in requests: the case of Elfhouli speech community", Elhadj-said (2011) found that Algerian Speech Community of Elfhouli tended to use negative politeness when there is a very high social distance and power between the speaker and the hearer, and they use direct strategies and positive politeness when the social distance is low. Similarly, in "Transfer in interlanguage

requests performed by Algerian EFL learners” Dendenne (2014)² found, in Completion Discourse Test situations of request with equal social status (friend) and the high social status (a university professor), that the Algerians exhibited two types of differing politeness strategy: positive strategy (when the social distance is low) and negative politeness strategy (when the social distance is very high). In a situation of “lending a book from a university teacher”, opener like “halla samaht/do you allow=would you mind” employed from Arabic is frequently used. This indicates that the Algerians do not use off-record politeness strategy, which means that in the Algerian context applying direct request ‘can you lend me your pen?’ can be more appropriate than ‘my pen isn’t working’ (student to classmates).

In brief, what is highlighted herein suggests that that such differences in the cultural values and in the attitudes towards face may lead to misunderstandings when two different cultures come into contact. Thus, since politeness is a matter of appropriateness, this indicates that what works in one’s first language may very well not work in the second language being learnt. Accordingly, using an Algerian strategy in another environment would often be perceived as impolite.

SUMMARY

- ❖ If we do not recognize the relationship with others, they may be upset by the strategies we use and vice versa.
- ❖ Politeness is the use of language choices that is intended to establish context that match addressees on how they should be addressed. That is, politeness is a matter of appropriateness.
- ❖ The politeness strategies we use indicate the kind of relationship we have with other people.
- ❖ Since, in every communicative event we put our face or other’s face at risk, we follow some strategies to minimize the risk and save the face.
- ❖ The appropriate language use that shows politeness varies from culture to culture.

²Dendenne, B. (2014). “Could you help me with these bags brother? My shoulders are falling.” Transfer in interlanguage requests performed by Algerian EFL learners. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, 10(2), pp. 29-47

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISES

Activity 1) Given the relationship between the speaker and hearer, how would the hearer feel if negative politeness was used instead?

Activity 2) Name the type of speech act, the maxim flouted, and the type of politeness strategy used in the following examples:

a) Husband to wife: "Honey, I am wearing the last clean shirt I found in the closet!"

b) A college dean to an applicant for a job at the college: "You might be happier at a smaller - or a larger-college, son!"

c) "I don't mean to impose, but I thought, if possible, we could have lunch together next week."

d) A professor is writing a letter of reference for a student who is applying for a job as a philosophy teacher: "Dear Sir, Mr. X's command of English is excellent, and his attendance at tutorials has been regular. Yours, etc (Grice, 1975: 52)

e) A: You ate all of them!?

B No! I ate the big one. There is still some left (Laforest, 2002).

f) Students: "Give me that book on your desk."

Teacher: Is not lovely day?

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UNIT 11: CONVERSATIONAL ANALYSIS (CA)

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

- ✓ Be familiar with the fundamental units of conversation
- ✓ Identify and analyze adjacency pairs and the conditions of their use.
- ✓ Identify pre-sequence and insertion sequences and analyzing their structure
- ✓ Understand interruption/overlap and their social meaning.

INTRODUCTION

There is much that could be discussed in relation to conversation, such as how it is initiated, how it is collaboratively closed down, how topics are either maintained or changed, and similar. However, in this lesson, we will concentrate on the main central themes:

Initially, we consider a fundamental unit of conversation known as turn taking and Allocation, adjacency pair. Afterwards, we examine the phenomenon of overlapping talk. Using the rules of turn allocation, we explain why certain types of overlap are considered to be accidental whilst others are considered to be willful interruptions. We also review different ways in which conversation participants resolve the conflict of overlapping talk.

MAIN CONCEPTS AND METHODS

WHAT IS CONVERSATION ANALYSIS (CA)?

A conversation is a spontaneous everyday exchange of talk between two or more people. The participants in a conversation take 'turns,' and during their turn each makes a conversational 'move' of some kind. Conversation analysts believe that the people use the rules of conversation to jointly construct an orderly world. Thus, conversation Analysis (CA), developed in the late 1960s and early 1970s principally by the sociologist Harvey Sacks and his close associates Emanuel Schlegoff and Gail Jefferson, is an approach to the study of talk in interaction (how conversation is used in ordinary life).

In Discourse Analysis, conversational analysis studies three things:

1. The techniques that the speaker employs in deciding when to speak during a conversation, such as rules of turn-taking,
2. The ways in which the utterances of more than one speaker are related, for instance, conversational maxims, adjacency pair, inserted sequence, etc, and
3. The different functions that conversation is used for, for example, establishing roles, communicating politeness, etc.

BASIC STRUCTURE OF CONVERSATION ANALYSIS

The basic pattern of conversation is that I speak- you speak- I speak- you speak. One person speaks and another listens. Sacks et al. (1974) have provided us with precise terms to discuss the units of language that make up spontaneous conversations. The basic structures of conversational analysis they identified are:

- Turn-taking and turns allocation
- Backchannel and fillers
- Silence
- adjacency pair
- Insertion sequence
- Preference and dispreference
- Overlapping and interruption

TURN TAKING: (HOW DO WE COMMUNICATE?)

The basic structure of a conversation is composed of **TURNS** which mean that the speakers and the hearer take **TURNS** talking (two or more participants take turns to speak). One person speaks at one time and the other listens, and then they switch roles.

Exchange 1	I saw John today. Have you seen him lately?	Turn 1
Exchange 2	Not since last year. Has he changed much?	Turn 2
Exchange 3	Yes,	Turn 3

Sometimes a speaker's turn will consist of a series of statements (e.g., if they are telling a story, recounting events, etc.). The other speaker will occasionally utter a *backchannel*¹ move, e.g., 'ahah', 'oh', 'hmmm', which shows they are listening (acting as a supporting move) but without actually taking the floor.

1.1. Turn Constructional Units (TCUs)

Planned texts, especially written ones, are divided into sentences, each of which is made up of a subject, a verb and optional additional elements. Unlike in a written text, participants in conversation use shorter units of language, made up of clauses, phrases or words. Sacks et al. (1974) call them *turn construction units* (TCUs). This means in written language, we say sentences while in conversation we say TCUs. Observe the following:

¹also-called **discourse markers**, such as *oh, uh huh, mm,*

Example:(↗) the arrow signals rising intonation

Turn 1: you want the ↗ book

Turn 2: the older edi ↗ tion

Turn 3: yeah

Turn 4: sure

(Sutherland, S. 2015: 33)

Turn 01 is the only clause TCU. It is not spoken as a question grammatically, like “Do you want the book?” but we can *recognize* that it is a question from the inclusion of the question mark *signaling* rising intonation. In conversation, a question can be made without grammar (e.g. Saying “Coffee?” while holding up a pot.).

Turn 02 is a noun phrase TCU. There is no verb, but we can interpret the phrase by looking at turn 01 and guessing that B is asking “*Is it the older edi-tion?*”, and *from* the rising intonation it *can* be interpreted as a request for clarification about the question in turn 01.

Turns 03 and 04 are word TCUs .Turn 3 will be interpreted as something like, “*yeah [it is the older edition]*”. Turn 04, “sure’ and no intonation, is can be interpreted as to turn 01.

BACKCHANNELS AND FILLERS

1) Fillers are sounds or words that are spoken to fill up gaps in utterances. Different languages have different characteristic filler sounds. In English, the most common filler sounds are ‘er’, ‘erm’, ‘uh,’ ‘um’. They give the speakers:

A) Time to gather their thoughts (Willis, 2003).

B) *Hesitation* sounds that speakers employ to indicate uncertainty, or

C) *To* maintain control of a conversation while thinking of what to say next.

2) Backchannels are utterances used by the listener to acknowledge what the speaker is saying and encourage him/her to continue (you are listening and understand what someone else is saying, but without actually taking the floor.) : “Oh, ‘ahah’, hmmm, I see, huh, really”

SILENCE

It is also very obvious that conversation includes silences, which occurs when no participant self-select or the pointed participant refuses to take the turn. Silence can occur within the speaker's turn when “the speaker finds it difficult to select the appropriate word (this is called *pause*), or it can occur between the speakers’ turns (this is called *gap*).

Example of Pause:

(1) John: Peter (0.1) is something wrong?

(2) Peter: What? What's wrong?

(3) John: Never mind.

In this example there is a pause in line 1. It is a silence within the turn due to the speaker’s hesitation, or in order to keep the turn.

Example of Gaps:

(1) A: Would you hand me yours.

(1) B: (0:013) sure, I will give it to you.

(2) A: Thanks.

Here the gap occurs between the turns after the (A) speaker select the next speaker (B) or when the next speaker (B) self-selects himself/herself. So it occurs between turns.

ADJACENCY PAIRS

An adjacency pair is composed of two utterances by two speakers, one after the other, i.e. pairs of utterances consisting of an initiation utterance followed by an appropriate response (first part and a second part) (Schegloff & Sacks: 1973).

Question- Answer

Greeting – Greeting

Offering- acceptance

For example, a question such as "What's your name?" requires the addressee to provide an answer in the following turn, thus completing the adjacency pair. A satisfactory response could be 'Tim'.

Examples of Pairs:

Question-answer: A: What time's it? B: Three o'clock. Greeting-greeting: A: Hello. B: Hi. Offer-acceptance: A: coffee? B: yes, please, Or refusal: No thanks, I'm full Telling-acceptance: A: I've just finished my last exam. B: that's great (adapted: Lidicoat, A. 2007: 107) Blame – denial: A: you left the light on. B: it's not me Complaint- excuse: A: it's awful hot here. B: sorry, I'll open the window Compliment - Acceptance: A: I really like your new haircut. B:, oh, thanks. Or refusal: oh, i know you're just saying that. Assessment –Agreement: <i>Ahmed</i> : I think the Algerian people should give more importance to the issue of pollution. <i>Ali</i> : I think you are right, for once, <i>Ahmed</i> !
--

In the above sequences, we expect the first part to be followed by the second part.

☞ *How To Discuss Adjacency Pairs.....?*

<p><i>Ahmed</i>: I think the Algerian people should give more importance to the issue of pollution.</p>

<p><i>Ali</i>: I think you are right, for once, A!</p>
--

<p><i>Your Comment</i>:</p>

<p>The first participant expresses his feeling, judgment /evaluation about certain events, people or objects. It can be seen that A makes an assessment to the recent condition of Pollution in Algeria. The response to this pattern is an agreement as the second participant tells the first participant that s/he accepts or agrees what the first participant says about the condition that s/he has been thinking by saying —I think you're right//. The expression indicates that both participants agree on the topic being discussed!!!!</p>

☞ **DO WE ALWAYS TALK THIS WAY.....!!!? We may:**

A) Need to insert something before responding (inserting sequences).

B) Prefer or disprefer to respond.

INSERTION SEQUENCES

Sometimes, we need to insert something before responding. This is called INSERTION SEQUENCES.

Insertion sequences are a sequence of turns that intervenes between the first and second parts of an adjacency pairs.

☞ Notice:

Teacher: will you tell us the answer to question 4? _____ Q1
Learner: is that one page 6 or 7? Q2 _____ }insertion
Teacher: 7 _____ A2 _____ }sequence
Learner: oh, ok, the answer is... _____ A2

(Taken from Levinson, 1983).

Adjacency is delayed and replaced by ‘conditional relevance’, meaning not until the last “OK”, the expectancy of a relevant response has been fulfilled. This is an insertion sequence (or an embedded sub-dialogue).

Pre- Sequence

Before we make a request, for instance, sometimes it often to check whether the other person has the item we want or not.

The preliminary action we take before initiating the first part of an adjacency pair is called pre-sequence. They are used to prepare the ground or avoid dispreferred response to the main sequence (i.e. invitation, request, etc).

A question-answer pair prepares for a request-agreement (or request-rejection) pair.

Pre- invitation or a request for help <i>(preferred)</i>	A: "What'r you doin?" B: "no thin, what's up!! §" (answer + go ahead). A: would you like to come to ... (invitation), or can you come by and help me out with (request).
Pre-invitation <i>(dispreferred)</i>	A: What'r you doin this afternoon? B: well, i'mgoin to, Why§ (dipreferred). A: oh, I just was goin to say, but may be some other time.
preliminary to an announcement	A: Guess what! B: What!§ (answer + go ahead) A: John is goin to change school . B:conversation continues
Pre-Question (avoiding dispreferred response 'No').	1 Teacher: Mike, do you think you know the answer to question four? 2 Mike: Yes. 3 Teacher: Can you tell the class, then, please? 4 Mike: [...]

(Livinson, 1983).

PREFERENCE OR DISPREFERENCE

If you are invited for a special event, you have the option of accepting or declining. That is, you either prefer or disprefer. Other terms used in conversation analysis are *preferred* and *dispreferred* responses. For example:

- Offer/invitation followed by “acceptance” (preferred) or “refusal” (dispreferred).
- Assessment is followed by “agreement” (preferred) and “disagreement” (dispreferred).

Thus, the preferred response to a proposal/invitation/offer is acceptance, which can be performed without hesitation or elaboration. The dispreferred response is followed by refusal, which can be performed with hesitation or elaboration. (We often give reasons for a refusal).

Observe the following example:

☞ **But Please first note** : dispreferred ones are often marked (by hesitations, fillers, silence, etc.) such as:

- [↓ indicates a marked falling intonation on the following word (here expressing unwillingness).]
- (0.5) indicates brief pause
- (2.0) indicates longer pause in seconds
- (.) pause of no significant

Sara: Barbara I have to go to a lecture in a few minutes and Joan isn't back from lunch (2.0) could you take over the desk for me

Barbara: erm (0.5) (tut) well I I ↓could but it would be better if you could find someone else cos I have to leave at two (Holmes, J. 2011: 385).

The verbal hesitation, called fillers (erm), the dental click (tut), the discourse marker well, the repeated I, and the stressed could (with marked falling intonation) are classic signals that a dispreferred response is coming next.

☞ **We also choose not to cooperate – flouting the maxim(s)....**

Sometime if do not answer a question properly, you are breaching the conversational maxim (s), causing “trouble” in the conversation, that in some case we interpret it as being rude or unfriendly

☞ **Notice below how B flouts the Maxim of Relevance (intentionally) for the purpose of not answering A's question.**

A: “So tell me, do you like what I did to my hair?”

B: “Er. . . what's on TV tonight?”

OVERLAPPING TALK AND INTERRUPTION

When we talk, the ideal is that once one finishes the turn, the next speaker immediately starts. Some times in turn taking there is overlaps (when two or more speakers talk at the same time) or interruption (violation of turn-taking rules of conversation).

Example: The symbol ([) signals the occurrence of overlapping and (...) signals Pause

A: Didn't you [know wh...

B: [But he must've been there by two

A: Yes but you knew where he was going (Yule, G. 2006 : 145)

CA researchers identified 3 types of overlaps:

1. In difficult first conversation with unfamiliar person
2. As an expression of solidarity or closeness
3. When two speakers are competing for the floor

Deborah Tannen (1984) distinguishes between “Cooperative Overlap” and “Interruptive Overlap”:

Cooperative overlap (speaker talks at the same time) used to demonstrate an interest in the conversation.

Interruptive overlap is a competitive strategy in which one of the speakers attempts to dominate the conversation. Pamela Saunders (1999) adds that while an overlap may be construed as *cooperative* in a conversation between *two friends*, it may be construed as an *interruption* when between boss and employee. For example, when a teacher, a person of higher status, overlaps with her student, a person of lower status, typically the overlap is interpreted as an interruption. This means that overlaps and interrogative have different meanings depending on the speakers' ethnicity, gender, and relative status differences (ibid).

Referring to the turn-taking strategies used in all-female discourse, Coates (1993), uses the concept of the ‘positive politeness’ to explain the occurrence of overlap in all-female discourse as shows of solidarity between them. That is to say, women overlap is cooperative rather than interruptive.

TURN TAKING AND POWER

Turn taking varies according to...

- *The situation*: in a classroom for example a teacher nominates who can take a turn; a student may or may not respond....
- *The topic*: people take a turn when they have something to say, or when they want to change the topic.
- *Relationship*: a child may be instructed not to speak with adult guests unless spoken to...
- *Rank*: To some degree, turn taking is by rank, the right to talk is an indicator of the status of the speaker and the degree to which all participants are from the same rank.

The decision to interrupt has semiotic power (the very act of interruption carries meaning) (Tannen, 1984).

Someone who frequently interrupts is stating that they think they are more important, or what they have to say is more important than that of the person interrupted. An individual who interrupts may establish a reputation of being rude, someone to be avoided.

TURN TAKING VARIATION

Conversational turn-taking is greatly affected by culture. Cultural differences in ordinary conversation may include differences between:

- Nations:
- Gender:
- Individuals:

For instance, Japanese speakers make use of backchannel far more than American English speakers. In recorded conversations between pairs of same-sex college-age friends, Maynard (1990) found that English-speaking students used *backchannel* expressions such as *uh-huh* or *right*, mainly at grammatical completion

points. Less frequently, the English speakers moved their head or laughed while the other speaker paused or after an utterance was completed.

This demonstrates culturally different floor management strategies. The form of backchannels was similar: both Japanese and American subjects used brief utterances and head movements to signal involvement. The Japanese interlocutors, however, produced backchannels earlier and more often throughout conversation, while the Americans limited their responses mainly to pauses between turns.

☞ **Notice:**

Adjacency Pair of Greeting:

Hi-Hi

Hi- how'r you?

Adjacency Pair of Thanking:

Thanks- you'r welcome or

Thanks- it's my pleasure

DATA AND METHODOLOGIES: DOING CONVERSATION ANALYSIS

The Data:	- A real recorded conversation
Pose research questions	- Who speaks most? - What is the function of each speaker turns in the conversation?
Determine the overarching structure	- Number of turns - Number of turns for each - Repetitions - Fillers and backchannels - Pauses
Determine the interactional business	- What sort of interactional business may be taking place? - What topics are discussed?
Determine the Interruption	- Who interrupts more - What the interruption tells (politeness, power, etc)

SUMMARY

This unit examined some features of conversation that exist in every day conversations. This unit examined the features 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. By examining the rules of turn in talk, we explained why certain types of overlap are considered to be accidental whilst others are considered to be willful interruptions. We also reviewed different ways in which conversation participants repair or resolve the conflict of overlapping talk.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISES

Activity 1: This extract from a real world 10-minute recorded conversation between two adult males (Tom and Jim) and took place in a private workplace office, with no one else present (taken from Alba Alveraz, 2005):

- 01 Tom: it's nice though 'cause I mean I've I've
02 been various places in Spain (.) for two weeks
03 Jim: mm
04 Tom: and er: erm you know it's okay
05 Jim: yeah
06 Tom: the food's reasonable (..) the
07 things are: (.) //a li*ttle
08 Jim: mm
09 Tom: bit (.) a tiny bit more expensive (..) like they cost
10 a few pesetas //and th*at
11 Jim: yeah
12 Tom: it's like a hundred and seventy five pesetas to the
13 pound
14 Jim: yeah
15 Tom: but I mean (.) I'm sure Yvette can handle that
16 Jim: yeah
17 Tom: the things that are luxuries //like*
18 Jim: yeah
19 Tom: Kit Kats an:d //thing*s
20 Jim: yeah
21 Tom: like that (.) and cakes like that (.) //are jus*t
22 Jim: yeah
23 Tom: a tiny //bit dear*er
24 Jim: yeah

a) Determine the interactional business:

- ❖ what sort of interactional business may be taking place ?

- ❖ what topics are discussed ?
- ❖ Who speaks most?
- ❖ What is the function of Jim’s minimal turns in this conversation?

b) **Determine the overarching structure:** Pauses, repetitions and fillers

c) **Analyze the various overlaps :**

- ❖ **Are they volatile or interruption ?**

Activity 2: Select any written play by your favourite author and explain how some of the feature of conversation discussed in this Unit manifest in the conversations.

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-
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APPENDIX : TRANSCRIPTION NOTATION:

“Jeffersonian Transcription” or the “Jefferson Transcription System” is a conversational analysis code used by academics looking at speech patterns. Gail Jefferson is the main force behind the system and she developed a symbol code of which details are below :

Symbol	Description
(.)	A micropause - a pause of no significant length.
(..)	Brief pause 0.5 s <1.0 s
(...)	pause >1.0 s <1.5 s
(2.0)	longer pause in seconds
(0.7)	A timed pause - long enough to indicate a time.
[]	Square brackets show where speech overlaps.
><	Arrows showing that the pace of speech has quickened.
<>	Arrows showing that the pace of the speech has slowed down.

Symbol	Description
()	Unclear section.
(())	An entry requiring comment but without a symbol to explain it.
↑	Rise in intonation
↓	Drop in intonation
CAPITALS	Louder or shouted words.
(h)	Laughter in the conversation/speech.
=	Will be at the end of one sentence and the start of the next. It indicates that there was no pause between them.
:::	Colons - indicate a stretched sound.

UNIT 12: INTERACTIONAL SOCIOLINGUISTICS

Learning Objectives:

- ✓ To study the main concepts and methods in Interactional Sociolinguistics.
- ✓ To be able to analyze a given discourse by using some of the techniques of the methodology used by Interactional Sociolinguists.

MAIN CONCEPTS AND METHODS

Interactional sociolinguistics (IS) is a language study field developed by anthropologist John Gumperz and sociologist Erving Goffman, which examines the relationships between language, culture and society.

- ❖ IS concerns with **face- to- face interaction** : The analysis of conversation such as turn-taking behavior, hesitations, pauses and paralinguistic behavior such as sighs, laughter, in-breathe and etc. but in broader socio-cultural context (Shifferin, 1994).
- ❖ IS also considers the wider socio-cultural context in which interactions take place: The societal norms, values, ideologies and etc.
- ❖ This approach pays a particular attention to *the contextualization cues* people use to interpret conversational interaction (Holmes, 2003). Gumperz (1982) says *contextualization cues* signals not only what people mean to say, but also what speech activity they are engaged in and what speech community they belong to (diversity, identity, etc.).
- ❖ The lack of understanding some contextualization cues may lead to misunderstanding and conflict. Thus, the analysis of face-to- face interaction has not been confined to linguistic and paralinguistic feature, but also to Cross-cultural communication and how differences in communicative practices can produce *misunderstanding*.

CONTEXTUALIZATION CUES

Contextualization Cues are all the verbal and non-verbal linguistic and social features that surround the talk like intonation, accent, body language, facial expressions, code switching, back-channels and hedges, facial and gestural signs, and etc.

Observe the following example (taken from Gumperz, 1982: 133), that illustrates how misinterpretation of the typical contextualization cues can lead to a misunderstanding:

A graduate student has been sent to interview a black housewife in a low income, inner city neighborhood, in America. The contact has been made over the phone by someone in the office. The student arrives, rings the bell, and is met by the husband, who opens the door, smiles, and steps towards him:

- Husband: So y're gonna check out ma ol lady, hah?
- Interviewer: Ah, no. I only came to get some information. They called from the office. (Husband, dropping his smile, disappears without a word and calls his wife.)

According to Gumperz, the interview is unsatisfactory. Student was a black American, and then the husband, by the style of his "y're gonna check out my ol lady", expected a similar black American English style response, like "Yeah, I ma git some info" to show familiarity with local values. The student; however, was not able to understand, interpret and adapt to the husband's stylistic cues when using Standard English which was interpreted by the husband as a sign that he did not belong to his group, and therefore he was not to be trusted.

What Interactional Sociolinguistics Analyze?

Interactional sociolinguistics observes and analyses:

- ❖ Explores how language works; gains insights into the social processes through which individuals build and maintain: relationships, exercise power, project and negotiate identities and create communities.
- ❖ Contribute to larger social problems of ethnic stereotyping and differential access to information and opportunities.
- ❖ How people from different countries and cultures behave, communicate and perceive the world around them.
- ❖ What language reveals about identities
- ❖ Cross-cultural communication (at the academic setting such as schools and universities; at the work places) - how miscommunication arises.
- ❖ Code-switching and Code-mixing (what identity symbolize)
- ❖ Conflict (the exercise of power, racism and prejudice the work places, and society).
- ❖ Causes of intercultural miscommunication.

DATA AND METHODOLOGIES

To provide multiple perspectives on interaction, which can be insightful in cases of causes of cross- cultural (mis)communication, Interactional sociolinguistics Discourse Method uses a

combination of quantitative and qualitative perspectives for bringing macro level factors (the social and cultural effects) into discourse analysis.

- Ethnographic component (observations of speakers in naturally-occurring contexts and participant- observation).
- Surveys about language use and attitudes.
- Audio- and/or video-recording of interactions.
- Detailed linguistic transcription of recorded conversations.
- Careful micro-analysis of conversational features in the context of the information gained through cultural ethnography.
- Post-recording interviews.

EXAMPLE OF CONTEXTUALIZATION CUES

1. Code-switching

In multilingual contexts, code-switching may serve as a strategy or contextualization cue for conveying meaning at a covert, taken-for-granted level.

E.g:

Researcher Ana Celia Zentella offers the following example from her work with Puerto Rican Spanish-English bilingual speakers in New York City (Zentella, 1997, p.37).

Lolita: Oh, I could stay with Ana

Marta: but you could ask papi and mami to see if you could come down.

Lolita: OK.

Marta: Ana, if I leave her here would you send her upstairs when you leave?

Ana: I'll tell you exactly when I have to leave, at ten o'clock. Y son las nueve y cuarto. ("And it's nine fifteen.")

Marta: Lolita, te voy a dejar con Ana. ("I'm going to leave you with Ana.") Thank you, Ana. When Zentella changes his language from English to Spanish, this is called code-switching. This example does not only show the identity of the speakers, being Spanish, but also their age, "ask papi and mami".

2. Cross-cultural Miss-communication:

Miscommunication is possible between any two people, but the potential is greater when different sociolinguistic norms are involved. Interactional sociolinguists have made a valuable contribution to identifying potential sources of miscommunication between different socio-cultural groups.

When people from different language or even different dialect backgrounds interact, clashes between discourse norms are possible, with a risk of miscommunication.

E.g 1:The following example shows pragmatic failure in intercultural communication: *an American native Ann speaks to a South Korean origin Lily.*

Ann: “See you later”

Lily: yes at what time?

Ann: (surprised) mmm I have to leave now.

In the American context, Ann meant “I’ll see you again, sometime”. Lily misunderstood the message, thinking in a specific time. Lily may think that Ann is rude, just trying to avoid her. This may probably lead to building a prejudice- probably conflict.

This example shows how miscommunication can arise between people of different cultures.

E.g 2: The following example shows how pragmatic failure in intercultural communication between two students from different cultural background in one of the British Universities.

Jack: oh hi, nice to meet you?

Chen: nice to meet you too.

Jack: beautiful weather we’re having today, is not it?

Chen: oh Yeah.

Jack: very impressive. Anyway, nice to meet you.

Chen: what course are you doing at nmit?

Jack: oh sorry, I have to go.

In this example, when the English speaker says nice to meet you, it means I finish talking and I have to go now.

Again, the English speaker Jack may be considered as being rude by Chen.

3. Conflict (power and prejudice): Interactional sociolinguistics also concerns with the issues of Power, prejudice and racism.

E.g: Gumperz (1972, p. 218) recounts the following joke originally told by a black student to Gumperz’s colleague, Alan Dundes:

Governor W. died and went to heaven. When he knocked on the door, a voice answered: ‘Who dat?’ He said, ‘Never mind, I’ll go to the other place.’

In telling this joke, the Black student expresses the way they are treated in the American community. The black student feels that they are, the African American, considered as a burden over the American government. His reference to Governor Wis is an implication to this.

Even without previous knowing of the background of the teller, one can guess that is a black person. The phrase “who dat?” is an indication.

4. Gender Discrimination

E.g:

The adapted following example is taken from the movie “Boy Wonder”. In this example, a detective Mexican origin identity woman has just promoted to a new homicide department:
(The women in her new day at the department).

Her partner: Well, I read your resume and it is impressive. A woman and in the homicide, and a Latino too. You should be proud of yourself.

The women: what do you mean?

The partner: (walking away). To your people

This example does not show only racism against other race, but also prejudice against women. For the partner, other races should not take such position, and women are unable to take the burden of such job. From interactional sociolinguistics such behaviour of lack of tolerance usually leads to future conflict.

SUMMARY

- ✓ The interactional sociolinguistic approach to discourse analysis is multidisciplinary approach derived from other fields Anthropology, Sociology, sociolinguistics, and Linguistics.
- ✓ John Gumperz and Erving Goffman have been the main contributors to the development of the interactional sociolinguistic approach.
- ✓ It studies conversation (face-to- face interaction), but in a wider socio-cultural context. That is, it recognizes the relationship between language, culture and society.
- ✓ Contextualization cues are the central element in the analysis of discourse.

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UNIT 13: ETHNOGRAPHY OF COMMUNICATION

Learning Objectives: Upon completion of this lesson, students will be able to:

- ✓ Understand meaning of language in context from social events
- ✓ Understand the components of Dell Hymes' S.P.E.A.K.I.N.G. Model
- ✓ Using the model to examine a cross-cultural "speaking situation"
- ✓ Understanding how the S.P.E.A.K.I.N.G. model can be used to learn about different cultures, prevent misunderstandings, and avoid conflict.
- ✓ Reading about how to conduct ethnography of communication research.

INTRODUCTION

The aim of this unit is to students to learn how to study a culture or community and then extend this knowledge to cross-cultural situations by learning some terminology to explain these differences. By familiarizing students to the notion of ethnography of communication, they will be able to learn about how people come to know one another, to how they demonstrate group membership, to the norms for acting, etc. Therefore, ethnography of communication should be considered as contributing to both a theory of communication as well as a methodology for studying such communicative practices (language and culture relationship).

THEORY AND BASIC CONCEPTS

One way to assess how discourse and ethnographic perspectives are conceptually related is to understand the major areas of ethnography study, as Spindler and Spindler (1987) state,

Within any social setting, and any social scene within a setting, whether great or small, social actors are carrying on a culturally constructed dialogue. This dialogue is expressed in behavior, words, symbols, and in the application of cultural knowledge to make instrumental activities and social situations work for one. We learn the dialogue as children, and continue learning it all of our lives, as our circumstances change. This is the phenomenon we study as ethnographers--the dialogue of action and interaction. (p. 2).

That study language should not be removed from the times and places people talked. Hymes (1962) argued that language cannot be detached from the context in which it is used. Hymes thought that examining language functions should not be by just looking at the words themselves, but also with the examination of communicative behavior in the context of culture. Hymes thought that by looking at how people actually *use* language, patterns could be discovered.

In order to examine such language patterns, Dell Hymes (1962) proposed "ethnography of speaking" as a way to study how people communicate (Later the name was changed to include other symbolic means of expression and called ethnography of communication). According to Hymes, communication should be examined as a social and cultural practice and recognition should be given to the ways that people use communication:

- ✓ Identity: How people identify themselves (who I am and how I present myself to others)
- ✓ Place: How people relate to their physical surroundings and the meaning of places
- ✓ Names: How people name others and objects and the significance of naming as such
- ✓ Silence: The use of silence in conversations: when it is appropriate
- ✓ Face: How people present themselves to others positively or negatively
- ✓ Voice: who is heard and is able to speak
- ✓ Relationships: how people interact with one another and form close ties

SALIENT CONCEPTS IN ETHNOGRAPHY OF COMMUNICATION: UNITS OF ANALYSIS

Before describing Hymes's model of 'Ethnography of Communication', it is important first to discuss the fundamental concepts in ethnography. To describe how communication takes place in a given cultural setting and how this operates the way it does, Hymes (1962) proposed 'speech community, speech situation, speech events and speech acts', as the fundamental concepts in ethnography. These units are nested hierarchy in a sense that speech acts are part of speech events which are, part of speech situation, and which, in return, all are part of speech community.

1. **Speech Community:** It is the central concept in ethnography. Hymes (1972, p. 54) defined a speech community as a group of people who share a set of linguistic "rules" for what to say, and when and how to say it. For Hymes, a speech community is comprised of a group of people that often use common signs. According to him, for someone to be considered as a member of a speech community, they must share at least one "way of speaking" with others. For instance, users of a particular website may be considered a speech community if they share particular rules for speaking online. Or, perhaps those who ride skateboards may be considered a speech community if the way they communicate is distinct from how those who do not ride skateboards communicate.

Within speech communities, ethnographers must look for ‘speech situations’, ‘speech events’, and ‘speech acts.

2. **Speech situation:** The speech situation occurs within a speech community. By speech situations, Hymes means socially-contextual situations like ‘ceremonies, fights, hunts, meals, lovemaking, and the like’ (Hymes, 1972b: 56).

3. **Speech event:** Speech event refers to activities that occur within speech situations (greetings, making statements, enquiry, and promises). For example, the exchange of vows is a speech event occurring within a wedding (a speech situation). Hymes regards that the speech event is the basic unit for descriptive purposes owing to the fact that, it is after the ethnographer has identified the different speech events that occur in a specific community that he/she can analyze the language of a specific community (Cots, 1992).

4. **Speech acts:** Speech acts are the individual utterances that form the minimal unit of analysis for ethnographies of communication. Hymes offers the example of ‘a party (speech situation), a conversation during the party (speech event), a joke within the conversation (speech act)’ to illustrate the three terms ((Hymes, 1972b: 56). Another example within a speech event of checking out groceries could include requesting the price of an item and paying for the groceries. Hymes distinguishes speech acts from grammatical conceptions like sentences, because the meaning, status, and function of a speech act are not solely dependent upon grammatical form. The interpretation of speech acts is equally (at times more) dependent upon the social status and relationship of participants, as well as the immediate context of the utterance, and so ‘the level of speech acts mediates immediately between the usual levels of grammar and the rest of a speech event or situation in that it implicates both linguistic form and social norms’(57).

S.P.E.A.K.I.N.G.: A Research Tool

To help ethnographers of communications frame their investigation of speech acts and events, Hymes offers the mnemonic device of the SPEAKING grid as a heuristic.

After deciding upon one of the six basic units to observe (see Theoretical Overview: a speech community, situation, event, act, style or way of speaking) a researcher can then proceed to

analyze it by using one of the tools that Hymes developed. These tools can be remembered easily by thinking about the word, S.P.E.A.K.I.N.G. By using the tools of S.P.E.A.K.I.N.G., a researcher opens up the potential meanings of a speech community or by examining these smaller units. Your interests should help you choose which of these tools will help you with your analysis.

S-P-E-A-K-I-N-G: There are eight areas that are focused on, spelled out by the S-P-E-A-K-I-N-G acronym (Setting – Participants – Ends - Act sequences – Keys – Instrumentalities – Norms–Genres).

- a) *Setting and Scene:* it answers the question where and when, referring time and place in which communication takes place (i.e., classroom, restaurant, home, etc). Scene is the psychological setting or cultural definition (i.e., learning, meetings, eating, etc).
- b) *Participants:* Who speaks to whom is speaking: The participants' age, gender, ethnicity, geographical origin, relationships and social status (e.g. wife – husband, customer – shopkeeper, boss – worker). For example, the way we communicate to kids is different from the way we communicate to adults; the way we communicate with women is different to the way we communicate with men; the way with communicate with friends is different to the way we communicate with teachers or our boss.
- c) *Ends:*It refers to personal purposes and goals for which the speech is taking place.
- d) *Act Sequence:*It refers to order and form.What words were used? Who said them? In what order? Who spoke first? The specific utterances that people make (Commands, Excuses, Apologies, etc.)
- e) *Key:*The mood or spirit in which communication takes place(e.g. serious, humorous). For example, the appropriate behaviour in funeral or other occasions is different in different cultures.
- f) *Instrumentalities:*It refers to forms and styles of speech. There are varieties of language that are appropriate in a specific situation. (e.g., standard, non-standard, regional, scientific jargon etc.). The speaker may converse in a casual register with many dialect features or use a more formal register and careful grammatical "standard" forms. This can also include different pronunciations.
 - New York: drops r (floor sounds like flaw)
 - Southern drawl: drops g from -ing
 - Upper class vs. Lower class dialects

g) *Norms*: It answers the question how participants are supposed to act and react, referring to the social rules governing the norms of interpretation and interaction (i.e., how participants are supposed to act and react in a funeral).

h) *Genre*: The kind of speech act or event (e.g. song, myth, joke, poem, etc.)

By using these tools (S.P.E.A.K.I.N.G.) to analyze one unit, such as particular speech community, a researcher can come to learn more about how people communicate and how that communication is often patterned.

Methodology and Data for the Ethnography of Communication

As noted hereinabove, a key aspect of ethnography of communication is that it stresses a careful treatment of context. Hymes' speaking model is significant for ethnographer who wants to do ethnographic research or for someone who finds themselves interacting with people from other cultures, because of the way it helps people understand the ways that communication differs in different cultural situations.

The most important methods of data collecting for doing ethnography research are

Participant-observation and Introspection:

Participant-observation: The investigator moves into a community (typically a little-studied group in a remote part of the world), attempt to find some role to play as at least a marginal member of the community, and try to gain an intimate feel for group values and communicative patterns. The researcher is normally a participant-observer for a period of months or years.

Introspection: Introspection is used in the study of the investigator's own culture. Using introspection, the researcher tries to make explicit the rules and values unconsciously absorbed while growing up in a particular community.

Example Analysis

If you find yourself in a country like India, you would not just assume that there are the same types of speech communities as in Algeria. You would first recognize that you are among a particular group of people different from your own culture.

If you are interested in finding out more about the Indians in order to get along well, you would find answers to the following in order to act appropriately:

- Do they use first names only, as one might in Algeria, or do they use a title and last name?
- Do they use the same form of address for everyone, or are some people more likely to be called something special?

In whatever cross-cultural setting you find yourself, you should try to figure out the different behaviors that count as communication. Does everything count as communication, from eye contact to saying directly "give me that"?

When you discover the communication acts, you would think about how people communicate. Do they get all excited whenever they are speaking to you? Or, are they more reserved and quiet in their speech? Is one way more personal and another way more public or formal?

When you find yourself in another culture, it is often hard to discover different rules or norms for communicating. Is it acceptable to use eye contact at someone who is speaking to you or not? What are the consequences of breaking such norms?

These differences help you to recognize that you have certain expectations for how to communicate in a certain way and not everyone shares that knowledge or that way.

A Sample Study Using the S.P.E.A.K.I.N.G. Model

Analysis of Speech Event: Traditional Marriage Proposal in USA

Setting : Usually private but can be public

Participants: Usually man (proposer) and woman (proposee) involved in intimate relationship.

Ends : Matrimony

Acts : Often formulaic questions whose answers depend on proposee's disposition—end with acceptance or rejection

Key :serious, committed

Instrumentalities: Oral speech, symbolic ring, gestures like taking hand, kneeling, etc.

Norms :usually interpreted as serious commitment and causes strong emotion in both participants—only considered appropriate if both have expressed love to one another previously and conditions are propitious for marriage—otherwise may be rejected or taken as joke—proposee waits until proposal is complete before responding—interruptions not permitted

Genre : Proposal

Retrieved from The Ethnography of Communication

https://aliciapousada.weebly.com/uploads/.../the_ethnography_of_communication

SUMMARY

To summarize with, the goals and purpose of ethnography in this way, they place the study of "dialogue" in the center of the work, whether that dialogue be through discourse or through action. Discourse analysis, then, when guided by an ethnographic perspective, forms a basis for identifying what members of a social group (e.g., a classroom or other educational setting) need to know, produce, predict, interpret, and evaluate in a given setting or social group to participate appropriately (Heath, 1982) and, through that participation, learn (i.e., acquire and construct the cultural knowledge of the group). Thus, an ethnographic perspective provides a conceptual approach for analyzing discourse data (oral or written) from an emic (insider's) perspective and for examining how discourse shapes both what is available to be learned and what is, in fact, learned

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISES

Activity 1: Conducting Your Own Study

Now that you have learned Hymes' S.P.E.A.K.I.N.G. model, and have read one example, you should be able to apply it to a situation.

Think about any specific culture, whether within your own nationality or speech community, and carry an ethnographic study of your own.

Speech community: Identify the speech community to be studied (a particular facebook group)

Speech situation: Ceremonies, festivals, wedding, etc.

Speech event: The exchange of vows is a speech event occurring within a wedding (a speech situation).

Communicative acts: The way of requesting or apologizing, etc.

Take a look back at Hymes' units and decide which unit of analysis, from the speech community to the speech act is the best place to study this question. Then take another look at the S.P.E.A.K.I.N.G. model and decide which tool will help you to examine this question in the context you have pinpointed.

Research questions:

1. What speech events are observed in?
2. How is the SPEAKING grid identified in each speech event?

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UNIT 14: CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS: MEANING AND MAIN CONCEPTS

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

- ✓ The concept of Critical Discourse Analysis
- ✓ The main areas of interest in Critical Discourse Analysis

INTRODUCTION

So far we looked at the individuals' use of language—how they interact and how they produce meaning of what is said. However, some discourse analysts view that this is a narrow view of language. Our words are never neutral, according to them. Language is part of our social life. It often carries political and attitudes stand. Language is often 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.

WHAT IS CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS?

Notice: “*It is hot here, is not it?*”, *is nt it ?* »

a) If we are concerned with analysis of **the syntax** (“correct usage” of language) of the phrase:

The first part is imperative:

- ‘**it**’ is the noun phrase subject of the sentence,
- ‘**is**’ is the main verb agreeing with ‘it’,
- ‘**hot**’ is an adjectival complement,
- and ‘**here**’ is adverb,

The second part is interrogative (Q tag)

b) If we are concerned with **the semantics** (the relation between the words of the phrase and the meaning of the sentence without the surrounding context, of the phrase:

- ✓ ‘**it**’ is impersonal verb that expresses condition without reference to the agent,
- ✓ ‘is’ identifies a state rather than action, ‘
- ✓ ‘**hot**’ has a sense of synonymous with ‘heat’, ‘high temperature’ or ‘warm’, and antonym with ‘freezing’ or ‘cold’,

- ✓ and **'here'** indicates location or place,

Does the formation of the sentences, occurrences of the words make any sense? Thus, semantically, the sentence "it's hot in here" is clear and not ambiguous and can be interpreted as: the speaker feels warm, which is the literal meaning.

As can be seen, Knowing the structure of "*It's hot in here*" does not tell us how a particular people used it on a particular occasion to do something-or even how speakers in general could use it for doing things.

c) if we are interested in pragmatics, (how the context impacts its meaning, of the phrase:

- ✓ **speech act:** "*it's hot in here*" not only referring to the temperature, but it is an indirect directive speech act of requesting (request someone to do something: turn on the air conditioning, opening the window or moving outside the room and that his/her statement *implies* a reminder that s/he could no longer bear the heat.
- ✓ **Politeness:** *it is hot in here*, can be seen as polite expression of requesting, the least face threatening. The speaker was careful about the hearer negative face, because the need is only hinted, not imposed directly (giving the hearer the option of not taking the hint) and pretending they did not understand you.
- ✓ **Conversation Implicature**, Grice 1975: what a speaker intends to mean rather than say. The phrase, '*it's hot in here*' is not it?" can be taken ambiguous (*violate or flout the maxim of quality (being brief) and manner (being ambiguous)*). The hearer must infer meaning enclosed in the violation of Gricean maxims, which requires more effort.
- ✓ From CDA, based on the participants' power relationship and the intonation of the speaker, the utterance "*It's HOT in here*", can be interpreted as indirect command used by a higher status speaker (i.e. teacher in the classroom) **to practice his/her authority**, regulate the behavior of the others – to order and control (a way of exercising power)– the speaker of such authority is the one who decide what is right and what is wrong – dictate what should be done and what should not. For instance, supposed that the utterance '*it's hot in here*' is uttered by a teacher in class. It cannot be taken simply as a direct speech act intends to make a statement about a state of affairs: 'I hereby inform you that it's hot here'. But, in other circumstances, it is *indirect command* to: '*I hereby request you open the door*' – even though the students feel cold. that is, language here is viewed as one of the mechanisms/strategies that speaker-members of any society use to **regulate and reproduce** that society, to order and control it.

Therefore, within CDA, **discourse** is seen as a form of social practice (Foucault, 1972; Van Dijk, 1993 and Fairclough, 1995). In using the phrase "*language as social practice*", critical discourse

analysts view that language often creates change, changes behavior, and thus it is a tool of power (Fairclough (1989).

When we speak or write we always take a particular perspective on what the “world” is like. For instance, in expressing our attitude, we take perspectives on: what is “normal” and not; what is “acceptable” and not; what is “right” and not; what is “real” and not; what is the “way things are” and not; what is the “way things ought to be” and not; what is “possible” and not; what “people like us” or “people like them” do and don’t do; and so on and so forth (Gee 1999). Within this view, **discourse** is viewed as:

- ✓ “representations of how things are [...], of how things might or could or should be” (Fairclough, 2012: 458)
- ✓ "a social force which ... determines how the world can be seen and what can be known and done within it... explaining how the social subject is positioned and limited.” (Foucault, 1994:176).

That is, CDA focuses on the ways in which social and political domination is reproduced by text and talk- How sentences are used to convey information about attitudes and power relations! - How a range of properties of texts are potentially ideological, including features of vocabulary and metaphors, grammar, presuppositions and implicature, politeness conventions, speech-exchange, systems, generic structure and style (Fairclough, 1995). This is the main area in Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA).

In this version, by way of definition, CDA is concerned with:

- ✓ “how societal power relations are constructed and reinforced through language use “(Fairclough, 1995, 2010).
- ✓ ‘relations between discourse, power, dominance and social inequality’ (van Dijk, 1993: 249).
- ✓ the way social power abuse, dominance, and inequality are enacted, reproduced, and resisted by text and talk in the social and political context.” (Van Dijk, 2001, p. 352)
- ✓ How ideological bias, hidden power relations, sexism, racism, identity, etc and how these are reflected in particular text.
- ✓ “examine issue relating to power, inequality and ideology” (Baker and Ellece 2011: 32).
- ✓ How ‘language is used to construct and maintain power relationships in society; the aim is to show up connections between language and power, and between language and ideology” (Holmes, p. 393).

In short, as discourses are “always socially, politically, racially and economically loaded” (Rogers, 2004:6), the aim of CDA is to help reveal some of the hidden ideological bias, hidden power relations, values and positions, sexism, racism, identity, etc and how these are reflected in particular text. Major figures in critical discourse analysis are Norman Fairclough, Ruth Wodak and Tuen van Dijk.

➤ **CDA has the Following Principles:**

Fairclough & Wodak (1997: 271-280) listed the main principles’ of critical discourse analysis as:

- CDA addresses social problems
- Power relations are discursive.
- Discourse constitutes society and culture.
- Discourse does ideological work.
- Discourse is historical.
- The link between text and society is mediated.
- Discourse analysis is interpretative and explanatory
- Discourse is a form of social action.

CENTRAL AREAS OF CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS STUDIES

As outlined through the definition above, most discourse studies within the CDA approach deal with two main issues:

- a) Power: How relation are negotiated and performed through discourse
- b) Ideology: How ideologies are produced and reflected in the use of discourse

Within these main aspects, we may find particularly research on topics on *professional power, institutional power, gender inequality, racism, ethnocentrism, the enactment of power and ideology through media discourse or through political discourse*, among others (Alba-Juez, 2005).

a) Discourse and Power :

In a common-sense, power is associated with rank and status, and thus hierarchies are built around relative positions of political, social or professional power. That’s, power belongs to some ***particular people*** and not all people, and it is determined by their institutional role and/or their socio-economic status, ethnic identity or gender. Discourse, as regarded by many scholars, is an important site for both constructing and maintaining **power relations**. Thus, **power** (and, in particular, *the social power of groups or institutions*) is a central concern in most critical work on discourse. As Dijk (2015, p. 468) puts, “A central notion in most critical work on discourse is that of power, and more

specifically the social power of groups or institution. Dijk identified different types of power that may be distinguished according to the various resources employed to exercise such power:

- the coercive power of the military and other violent people will rather be based on force;
- the rich will have power because of their money;
- the more or less "persuasive power" of parents, professors, or journalists may be based on knowledge, information, or authority....

Van Dijk (2001) also defines power in term of **control**. Therefore, the members of a given social group will have power if they are able to control the acts and minds of members of other groups. This ability to control other people's minds and acts presupposes a privileged access to certain social resources such as force, money, status, fame, knowledge, information, etc., which are not easily available to all human beings.

However, as Van Dijk (2001) continues, power is not always exercised in obviously abusive acts of dominant group members, dominated groups may more or less resist, accept, condone, comply with, or legitimate such power, and even find it 'natural'" (2001: 355), and precisely because sometimes the enactment of power is acceptable, the power of dominant groups is integrated in laws, rules or habits, in such a way that sometimes power is taken for granted.

When a given group abuses their power and other groups accept this abuse by acting in the interest of the powerful, critical discourse analysts use the term **hegemony** (Gramsci, 1971). Through this special kind of research, CDA intends to show results that will distinguish **power abuse** from *legitimate and acceptable* forms of power.

The hegemonic groups constitute the **power elites**, and they have special access to discourse, since they are the groups who have most to *say*, in contrast to those (powerless) groups who are allowed to say little or nothing. Thus, CDA defines elites in terms of their **symbolic power**, a term borrowed from Bordieu's (1982)¹ metaphor of the symbolic capital. The symbolic power of a given group is then measured by the extent of its members' discursive and communicative scope and resources (van Dijk, 1993). Van Dijk (2015, p. 475) suggested three interrelated questions for critical discourse analysis research:

- How do powerful groups control the text and context of public discourse?
- How does such power discourse control the minds and actions of less powerful groups, and what are the social consequences of such control, such as social inequality?

¹ See Unit 9.

- What are the properties of the discourse of powerful groups, institutions, and organizations and how are such properties forms of power abuse?

Therefore, in order to analyze the power of discourse, we need to consider who has the power and who has not.

At the macro analysis level, CDA looks at the way elites enact their power by **controlling the context** of discourse, i.e. the control of the all the components of the communicative event: time, place, setting, presence or absence of the participants, and etc. These forms of **context control**, which are legally or morally unacceptable, include, for example, the exclusion of minority to have access to the press or any powerful institution, or any other kinds of communicative discrimination and marginalization (Alba-Juez, 2005). As a consequence, the less powerful become less quoted, less heard, and less spoken about as their ‘voices’ are blocked and their opinions are censored or not heard, or at some circumstances completely ignored (Alba-Juez, 2005).

At the micro-level of text and talk, very practice of power and dominance may be found at the syntactic, morphological or phonological level, as could be the case of the use of a given intonation, the use of some rhetorical figures, and, at a broad semantic (pragmatic) level, the turn-taking or the politeness strategies used by speakers, which may overtly or covertly impose the power of the ‘speaking’ groups over the ‘nonspeaking’ powerless groups.

Other linguistic strategies which are commonly used to express power directly or indirectly are the use of hedges, hesitations, interruptions, pauses, laughter, certain specific forms of address, etc.

Also, the choice of *topics* and *topic change* is crucial for all discourse. The group who decides the topic to be dealt with and when it should be changed is the group in power, as when men control the topics when in conversation with women, or when teachers decide what will be the content of their syllabi without consulting their students. Controlling the topic generally results in mind control, for topics may influence people’s views about what is important information of text or talk. This is one of the reasons why CDA focuses on how discourse structures influence mental representations: since topics influence what people see as most important, these may eventually influence how a given item is defined in terms of a preferred mental model. Thus, for instance, immigration may be restricted if it is presupposed in a parliamentary debate that all refugees are “illegal” (Wodak & van Dijk 2000).

All these strategies may, depending on the circumstances, result in more or less aggressive forms of sexism, racism or other forms of dominance.

c) *Discourse and Ideology:*

As noted earlier, critical discourse analysts view that there is a strong link between language and ideology. According to Van Dijk (1993), ideology is a set of ideas, attitudes, values and beliefs of a particular group of people, which is acquired, expressed, changed, and reproduced in the society, mainly in different forms of discourses such as texts and talks. That is, every instance of language use is produced from an ideological perspective.

For example, the ideology of a racist person is often expressed in his/her racist talk, and a feminist often reproduces their ideologies in their feminist talk. Likewise, a political party or a newspaper may reproduce one kind of thought; on the other hand, another political party or another newspaper may produce its thoughts differently. The perspectives the different political parties create the interactive situation in which they could discuss their thoughts and generate new thoughts. Therefore, many forms of interactional discourse play a vital role in communicating ideologies in the society.

Racism, class and ethnicity are big areas from ideology is discussed. Van Dijk (2015) noted that racist talk may include difference, deviation and threat and conversational features include negative description of immigrants or minorities (we Vs. They). However, though, as van Dijk (1993, p. 179) explained:

some dominants group members usually do not want to be seen as racists. When they want to say something negative about minorities, they will tend to use denials, disclaimers or other forms that are intended to avoid a negative impression with their listeners or their readers.

❖ “WE have nothing against the immigrants, THEY are part of here”

For Van Dijk, it not WE, but THEY are the real racists.

Similarly, observe how the following phrases hold hidden ideological stand, though not explicitly stated:

- ✓ We are all KhawaKhawa (Arabs, amazigh, shawiiia, etc)
- ✓ ‘I have nothing against X but all what I want to say’

Also, gender and inequalities, which much of it derives from feminist analyses, is discussed. Feminist ideology is often produced from their talk about women role in society, choices, interests, etc.

MAIN DISCOURSES STUDIED BY CDA

There are several fields of study that have been a focus for critical discourse analysis, however the most studied ones are (i) the political discourse and (ii) the media discourse

(i) *Political Discourse*

Political discourse is the most genre examined in CDA. Political discourse refers to the text or talk performed by **political** institutions, such as presidents and prime ministers and other members of government, parliament or **political** parties, both at the local, national and international levels. Fairclough, 2012) and Van Dijk (2001) view that political speech is a powerful tool for shaping the political thinking and political “mind” of a nation, that enables the actors and recipients of the political activity to acquire a certain political vision. Such discourse is usually determined by the theme of expression and asserting interests of **political** subjects considered in a situation of **political** communication, and it encompasses a multitude of stylistic strategies, tactics and linguistic devices to achieve its goal.

Norman Fairclough (2005 p. 44) more recent work on political discourse analyzed two speeches by the British Prime Minister, Anthony (Tony) Blair, given April 1999 in Chicago on 'Doctrine of international community' and April 2002 at the George Bush Senior Presidential Library. He considers in particular the following questions:

1. How does Blair narrate the world and world change—what has happened, and what is happening?
2. How does Blair narrate more particularly international security—what has happened, and what is happening?
3. How does Blair envisage—imagine—international affairs and the 'international community'?
4. How does Blair envisage—imagine—more specifically international security, and the intervention (especially military) by the 'international community' in the affairs of sovereign states?

(ii) *Media Discourse:*

Media, advertisement, news and other press or broadcast genres are the most obvious areas of using CDA. Researchers identify ways of manipulating readers and/or listeners: vocabulary choices,

pronoun uses, etc. They can be analyzed to determine the *ideological* standpoints of each source of media on some issues and events and how they cover them using some specific linguistic resources to project their ideological viewpoints and to suit the ideological expectations of their audience. For instance, the coverage of the events in Yemen by al-Arabiya is different from that of el- Jazeera. The Western media coverage of Gulf and Iraq wars and terrorism and islamophobia is ideological. 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 ideological stand of the owners of the newspaper. Though editorials try to balance issues, but at the end of the day it is still clear where the interest of the newspaper lies. For instance, biases in news reports can be identified in form of manipulation in the choice of expressions to either obscure a group or magnify another. A group may be displayed in bad image, while others are given a positive one. Women's image in the media for example, as observed by some researchers, is often painted as sex object in advertisements, while men are often portrayed as breadwinners and strong people.

The issue of *power* and media is also critically analyzed. The power of media is expressed through the choice of linguistic devices of the language. One major power expressed through media is the power of persuasion, which is often used to either spark up riots or stop them. The power of persuasion is also enacted to manipulate people mind in order to serve interests of specific elites or the government. The power of persuasion is also enacted in advertisements. Advertisers are careful to choose words that will affect people mind. The goal is to persuade people to buy their products or patronize their services.

Thus, in more discourse analytical point of view, critical discourse researchers attempt to reveal how 'the very structures of sentences, such as the use of *actives* or *passives*, may enhance the negative representation of outgroup actors' (van Dijk, 2015, p. 480). Among many linguistic devices to analyze media is "the analysis of transitivity in syntax, lexical structure, modality, and....a systematic analysis of the structures of media discourse, such as lexicon, syntax, topics, metaphor, coherence, actor description, social identities, genres, modality, presupposition, rhetorical gestures, interaction, news schemas, and multimodal analysis of images, among many other structures' (van Dijk, 2015, p. 480).

ILLUSTRATIVE EXAMPLE:

As noted, researchers employing the CDA methodology aim at discovering hidden messages and assumptions in the discourse of media.

Consider the different messages conveyed by the choice of lexical items and syntactic patterns in the following sentences reporting the 'same' incident.

- a) Police shoot eleven people dead in pro-democracy demonstration.
- b) Rioting blacks shot dead as political leaders meet.

The use of an active construction in (a) and the identification of the agent as the police convey a very different impression from the passive construction in (b) where the agents have disappeared. The use of the word rioting in (b) could be read as implying that the shooting was justified, while the choice of blacks (vs. people) objectifies those shot. Finally the inclusion of the information in (a) that the incident involved a pro-democracy demonstration communicates a very different message from the message conveyed in (b), where it is implied that the reason for the rioting is related to the meeting of political leaders. A CDA approach focuses on the ways in which lexical choices such as riot vs. protest vs. demonstration, or hooligans vs. protestors vs. demonstrators subtly convey different ideological positions and different political sympathies. CDA researchers warn that as readers we are often unaware of the effect of such choices as we read apparently ‘objective’ news reports (Holmes and Wilson, 2017: 430).

SUMMARY

In this unit, we looked at the discipline Critical Discourse Analysis: its meaning and its central areas of studies. In this unit, we viewed that language is not neutral, but it is often linked to social and cultural practices. In CDA, discourse is related to issues such as power and ideology since our attitudes, beliefs and orientation cannot be separated from the language we use.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISES

Activity1: Try to discover the hidden messages and assumptions as reporter by media in the following examples:

- a) Massacre of 25 Afghanistan villagers reported” or “25 villagers massacred”
- b) نيجيريا: مقتل 25 في هجوم جهادي، فرانس 24

Activity 2: Pick 2 different newspaper headlines on the same news event and discuss them in term of ideology and the linguistic devices being used.

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UNIT 15: MODELS OF CDA

LEARNING OBJECTIVES: This unit aims at helping students to:

- Understand the main models used in CDA
- Understand the main focus of each model

INTRODUCTION

While the previous unit is devoted to the definition of CDA and its related principles and areas of studies, this unit is predominantly devoted to the major models used in CDA. This includes Fairclough, Van Dijk and Wodak models.

/ FAIRCLOUGH'S SOCIO-CULTURAL METHOD

Fairclough regards discourse as a communicative event that consists of three dimensions:

a) Text Analysis (The description stage).

The text can be spoken, written, visual image or a mixture of all. Here, the analysis considers various aspects of linguistic analysis, for example syntactic analysis ((e.g. Use of passive as opposed to active, use of modal verbs, nominalization), lexis (the choice of words, patterns in vocabulary, words repetition, metaphor) , text structure (cohesion and coherence like the use of translational words conjunction, the use of synonyms and antonyms) and text structure (eg. Problem – solution, cause – effect, and turn-taking in conversation.

For example, as seen in the previous unit, the choice of words *use express our attitudes* (an editorial or politician may use *protesters* while another may use *rioters; or freedom fighter vs. terrorist*). In the choice of words we use, we express our attitudes.

Language is about community (a person who is not part of the community is for one group a **stranger**, for another group a *foreigner*, and for the other group a *refugee*). Language makes us feel that we are of the community.

b) Discursive Practice (interpretation stage):

The way we talk about a topic may change others' views about the topic. Language is not neutral; it often carries attitudes, values and assessments, and what *the sender* conveys to *the recipient*.

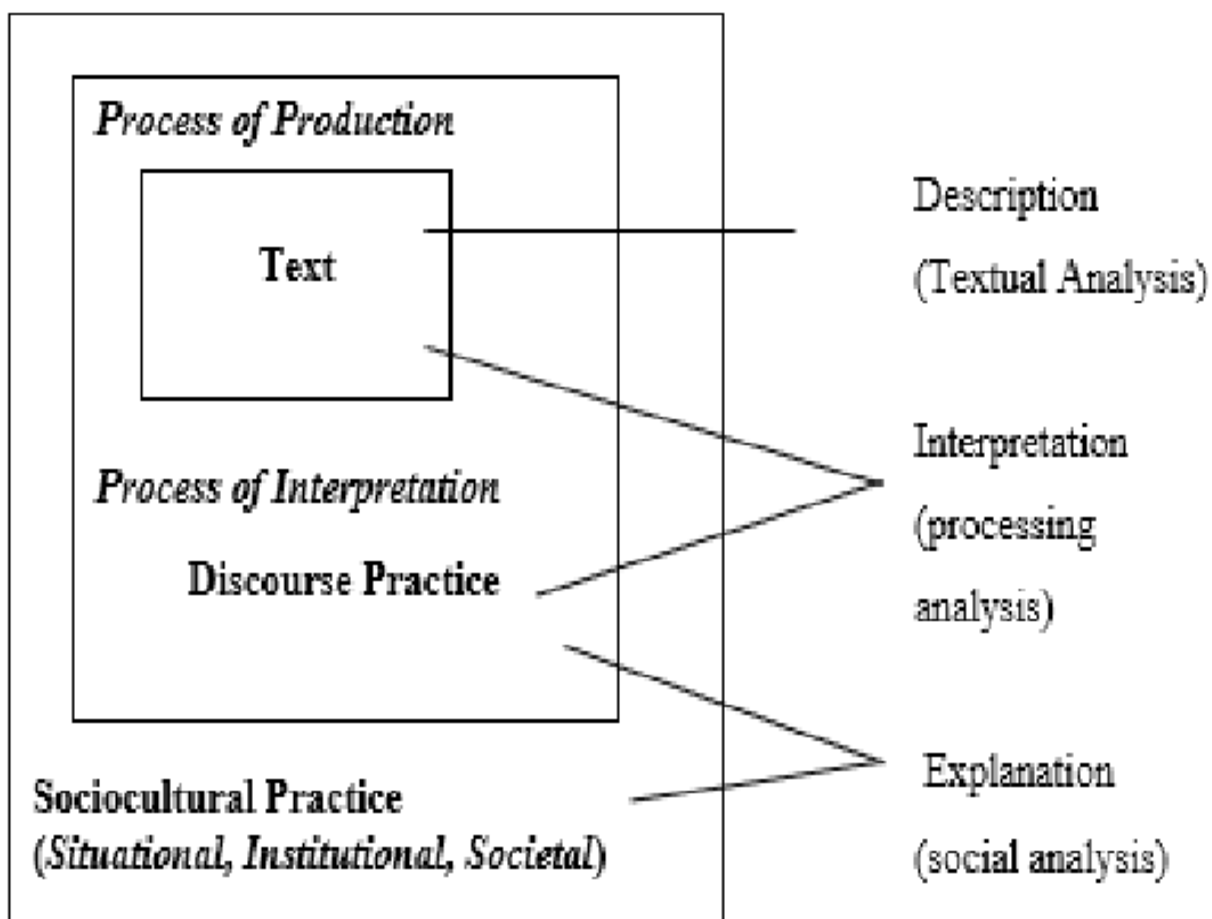
Therefore, at this stage, the analysis involves studying issues of production, distribution and consumption of the text in society. Looking at discourse in this way means paying attention to text in relation to its context, for instance,

- ✓ Which institution/individuals produced the text (producers)
- ✓ Who are the target audience (consumers)
- ✓ When the texts is made up
- ✓ What is the discourse objectives

c) Social Practice (explanation stage):

Language creates social relationships and practice. Languages and communications are closely linked to the society in which we are located. In this connection, society can be an organization where there are certain norms and traditions.

Therefore, dimension 3 is applied to the entire society (whether it is a department, a political/economic organization, etc). Social practice is about the standard of society or organization. This analysis involves the examination of the text in relation to its broad socio-cultural context, which affect the text. According to Fairclough (1995a: 9)., “should not be artificially isolated from analysis of institutional and discursal practices within texts are embedded” . Hence, this stage considers issues like power relations and ideological struggles that discourses (re)produce, the notion of hegemony, etc. Fairclough' model three dimensions can be summarized as follows:



II/ VAN DIJK'S SOCIO-COGNITIVE METHOD

While Fairclough model establishes a direct links between discourse structures and social structures, van Dijk model draws a direct link discourse structures, social structures and cognitive structures. For instance, discourse structures and social structures are linked by personal mental models and socially *shared knowledge, attitudes and ideologies*.

Hence, Dijk's approach is based on cognitive analysis as the interface between discourse and society, and cognitive interface plays a mediating role in understanding and interpreting the relation between discourse structures and social structures. Social cognition refers to 'the beliefs or social representations that they [people] share with others of their groups or community' (Van Dijk 2009: 78). These shared social representations include knowledge, opinions, attitudes, ideologies, values and norms.

Knowledge is the organized mental structure of shared factual beliefs about things (Van Dijk 2002), and that ‘what may be ‘knowledge’ for one group (period or culture) may be deemed mere ‘beliefs’ or ‘opinions’ by other groups’ (Van Dijk, 208).

Opinions, on the other hand, according to Van Dijk (2002: 220), are ‘sets of belief in social memory that are not dealt with in terms of truth criteria, but shared on the basis of evaluative criteria (good vs. bad, etc.). Within opinions, people develop their **attitudes** towards an issue. This means takes a stance or ideology.

Ideology is approached by van Dijk as being social cognition as well. Therefore, van Dijk (1995: 2) views ideologies as mental systems that govern our socially shared attitudes, and these mental systems are social representations that function as “models which control how people act, speak or write, or how they understand the social practices of others”

Within this approach Dijk’s ideology approach presented the ideological structures as follows (Van Dijk 2001b: 14):

- ✓ Membership devices (gender, ethnicity, appearance, origin, etc.): Who are we?
- ✓ Actions: What do we do?
- ✓ Aims: Why do we do this?
- ✓ Norms and Values: What is good or bad?
- ✓ Position: What is our position in society, and how we relate to other
- ✓ Resources: What is ours? What do we want to have/keep at all costs?

The pattern resulting from Van Dijk’s approach to ideology, cognition and discourse is an ideological square. The two strategies of positive self-presentation and negative other-presentation characterize interaction within and between groups in terms of presenting oneself and the others. For example, devoting major of his analysis to the narrative structure of tales about minorities, stereotypes, discrimination and prejudices, van Dijk’s approach shows the fact that mental representations are often articulated on the way people construct their own image as US (defined in positive terms) against THEM (in negative terms) to refer to immigrants or different group, for instance.

Van Dijk also provides a framework to be applied if one wish to analyze the US versus THEM or OTHERS discourse and suggests that:

- a. Analyze the historical, social background and political nature and the major participants to the conflict in order to comprehend the context of the discourse.
 - b. Inspect the groups, the relations based on phenomenon of power and study the nature of the conflicts involved.
 - c. Recognize if “Us” versus “Them” is perceived negatively or positively.
 - d. Identify and reveal what is being assumed and what is implied.
 - e. Investigate the lexicon and syntactic structure in a more formal manner to accentuate or de-emphasize the opinions of the group that exhibit partiality.
- (1998, pp. 61-63).

People stance and ideology can also be viewed through the use of specific semantic movements used by some natives. i.e., Negators of Apparent Negation (I have nothing about black people, but...) and Negators of Apparent Concession (Not all black people are criminals, but...), when they refer to immigrants. According to Dijk, these movement often enact a Positive Auto representation of *US* (*We* are not racist or *We* are tolerant) and a Negative Presentation of the Other (often expressed through the connector *but*).

The style, rhetoric and other formal properties also show the negative treatment of minorities in everyday conversation. For instance, the use of *pronouns* clearly underlines the social distance (Syrian neighbors, for instance, are referred to as *they* or *these people*, instead of more neutral expressions such as my Syrian neighbors).

Based on this idea, Van Dijk committed himself to the analysis of media texts focusing on issues like ideology, racism, and more specifically the representation of ethnic groups and minorities in media and parliamentary discourse.

TEXT AND THE ANALYSIS OF TEXTURE

According to Fairclough, text analysis should mean analysis of the texture of texts, their form and organization, and not just commentaries on the content of texts. Fairclough (1989, 1992 and 1995a) and Huckin (1997) raise several questions to guide text analysis on (adapted):

1. **Syntactic Manipulation** : syntactic manipulation can be used to convey the impression that what an agent of power says carries more weight. **Example:** A government spokesperson who says, “some of the demonstrators were a **bit more** aggressive” conveys the impression that all demonstrators are aggressive to some degree.

3. **Lexis:** Lexical words are more useful in headlines than grammatical words which may cause ambiguity in some cases.

As an example, the use of the word **protestor** instead of a **demonstrator** conveys a message. A protestor is against something while a demonstrator is trying to make something evident. The media conveys a negative image of those advocating for peace when it paints them as protesting against the government and corporate establishment (freedom fighters Vs. extremists; Refugees Vs. immigrants)

1. **Mood and Modality:** Mood “establishes the degree of authority of an utterance” (Kress & Hodge 1979:122). Which values express choices of modality or, what Hodge & Kress (1988: 123) call the degree of affinity with the proposition? Modality refers to different ways of expressing **attitudes** such as **can, could, may, might, must, should, shall, would, will, etc.** They assert or deny the possibility, impossibility, or necessity of something. The use of modal auxiliary verbs and the choice of specific adverbs allow the newspaper to present opinions and speculations that might be interpreted as actual facts by the readers.

2. **Transitivity:** *It is the process of transforming sentences from active to passive structures; it is the way the clause is used to analyze events and situations as being of certain types.* And transitivity has the facility to analyze the same event in different ways

Example :(passive Vs.; active, for instance): Omission of information about agents of power: In newspapers a phrase like “Massacre of 25 villagers reported” or “25 villagers massacred” does not say who did the killing, thanks to the nominalization of massacre. Both headlines are about the victims and not about who did the killing—a major omission of fact, done on purpose. Thus, if both nominalization and passive are used to delete agency, what is the ideological function?

6. **Register** (can be affected by choice of person—first person (I, me, my, we, our), second (you and your), and third (he, she, they, their, his, hers, him, her).

Example: WE express ideology as it opposes others

g) **Presuppositions.** Are there presuppositions or assumptions made by a speaker or writer which are not explicitly stated and which the author appears to be taken for granted? In a peace/conflict example, a demonstrator sign such as give peace a chance presupposes that the government is presently not doing so. The distinction of what is explicit and implicit in a text is of considerable importance in sociocultural analysis as it can provide valuable information about what is taken as given, as common sense, and gives a way into ideological analysis of texts, since ideologies are mostly implicit assumptions (Fairclough, 1995a: 6). Fairclough (1995b: 106-107) establishes a scale of presence in a text, running from absent to foregrounded: absent / presupposed / backgrounded / foregrounded. Thus, if something is explicitly present in a text, it may be informationally foregrounded or backgrounded.

Insinuations: it refers to the way the facts are presented. Are there ambiguities or suggestive statements carrying double meanings, so that when the statement is challenged, the speaker/writer can deny any culpability? This ability gives the originator a lot of power. Ambiguity or ambivalence can also be a useful device in the hand of less powerful participants for dealing with those with power, but those with power may respond by enforcing explicitness by asking questions such as Is that a threat? (Fairclough, 1989: 136).

SUMMARY

There are many types of critical discourse analysis but all, in one way or another, explore (i) how discourse legitimizes power and reasserts the status quo, (ii) how inequality and domination are reaffirmed by relating discourse to its historical, social and political context, and (iii) how knowledge and attitudes are reproduced and transmitted and how dominant ideology is perpetuated. This unit talked about some fundamental theories of Critical Discourse Analysis such as Fairclough and van Dijk models, in terms of similarities and differences.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Applying Fairghlough model, look how facts about Hamas is reported by the British BBC; try to make an interpretation to the image accompanied.

BBC News

Hamas: The Palestinian militant group that rules Gaza

9 May 2011 (Updated 1 July 2021)

Hamas was formed in 1988 after the outbreak of the first Palestinian uprising.

Hamas is the largest of several Palestinian militant Islamist groups.

Its name is an Arabic acronym for the Islamic Resistance Movement, originating as it did in 1988 after the beginning of the first Palestinian intifada, or uprising, against Israel's occupation of the *West Bank* and *Gaza Strip*. Under its charter, it is committed to the *destruction* of Israel.

Hamas originally had a dual purpose of carrying out an armed struggle against Israel - led by its military wing, the Izzedine al-Qassam Brigades - and delivering social welfare programmes.



Hamas set up the Izzedine al-Qassam Brigades to pursue its political goals militarily

But since 2005, when Israel withdrew its troops and settlers from Gaza, Hamas has also engaged in the Palestinian political process. It won the legislative elections in 2006, before reinforcing its power in Gaza the following year by ousting the rival Fatah movement of President Mahmoud Abbas.

Since then, militants in Gaza have fought four major conflicts with Israel, which along with Egypt has maintained a blockade on the strip to isolate Hamas and to pressure it to stop attacks.

Hamas as a whole, or in some cases its military wing, is designated a *terrorist* group by Israel, the United States, European Union and United Kingdom, as well as other powers.

Suicide bombings

Hamas came to prominence after the first intifada as the main Palestinian group opposed to the Oslo peace accords signed in the early 1990s between Israel and the Palestine Liberation Organisation (PLO), the body representing most Palestinians.

Despite numerous Israeli operations against it and clampdowns by the Palestinian Authority (the main governing body of the Palestinians) Hamas found it had an effective power of veto over the process by launching suicide attacks.



Hamas has carried out multiple deadly bus bombings in Israel

It carried out multiple bus bombings, killing scores of Israelis, and stepped up its attacks after Israel assassinated its chief bomb maker Yahya Ayyash in December 1995.

The bombings were widely blamed for turning Israelis off the peace process and bringing Benjamin Netanyahu - a staunch opponent of the Oslo accords - to power in 1996.

In the post-Oslo world, most particularly following the failure of US President Bill Clinton's Camp David summit in 2000 and the second intifada which followed shortly thereafter, Hamas gained power and influence as Israel clamped down on the Palestinian Authority, which it accused of sponsoring deadly attacks.

Hamas organised clinics and schools, which served Palestinians who felt let down by the corrupt and inefficient Palestinian Authority, dominated by the Fatah faction.

Many Palestinians cheered the wave of Hamas suicide attacks in the first years of the second intifada. They saw "martyrdom" operations as avenging their own losses and Israel's settlement-building in the West Bank, territory wanted by Palestinians for a future state of their own.

In March and April 2004, Hamas spiritual leader Sheikh Ahmed Yassin and his successor Abdul Aziz al-Rantissi were assassinated in Israeli missile strikes in Gaza.

The death of Fatah leader Yasser Arafat that November saw the Palestinian Authority newly led by Mahmoud Abbas, who viewed Hamas rocket-fire as counter-productive.

When Hamas scored a landslide victory in Palestinian parliamentary elections in 2006, the stage was set for a bitter power-struggle with Fatah.

Hamas resisted all efforts to get it to sign up to previous Palestinian agreements with Israel, as well as to recognise Israel's legitimacy and to renounce violence.

The 1988 charter

Hamas's charter defines historic Palestine - including present-day Israel - as Islamic land and it rules out any permanent peace with the Jewish state.

The document also repeatedly makes attacks on Jews as a people, drawing charges that the movement is anti-Semitic.

There was no recognition of Israel, but it did formally accept the creation of an interim Palestinian state in Gaza, the West Bank and East Jerusalem - what are known as pre-1967 lines.

The document also stresses that Hamas's struggle is not with Jews but with "occupying Zionist aggressors". Israel said the group was "attempting to fool the world".

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