



ENG523

Treasure for Final-Term

ABSTRACT

This comprehensive collection of notes is accurately crafted to empower students to excel academically, ensuring they achieve a minimum of 80% marks in their examinations. The content is organized with clarity and precision, focusing on key concepts, critical analyses, and practical applications tailored to the syllabus. These notes serve as a reliable resource for both thorough preparation and last-minute revision. Designed to inspire confidence and mastery, this guide is an essential tool for students striving for academic excellence.

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Discourse Analysis

Lecture-08 Political Discourse and the Role of Multimedia in Discourse Analysis

POLITICAL DISCOURSE

Representation: Metaphor

An interesting view has recently arisen in cognitive science concerning the nature of mental representation. This view is exemplified by the following passages:

- Most people think they can get along perfectly well without metaphor. We have found, on the contrary, that metaphor is persistent in everyday life, not just in language but in thought and action. Our ordinary conceptual system, in terms of which we both think and act, is fundamentally metaphorical in nature.
- The basic-level metaphors allow us to comprehend and draw inferences about these [emotion] concepts, using our knowledge of familiar, well-structured domains. In short, the locus of metaphor is not in language at all, but in the way we conceptualize one mental domain in terms of another.
- Human cognition is fundamentally shaped by various poetic or figurative processes.

One **disadvantage** in discussing metaphoric representation is that it is necessary to discuss verbal metaphor. And as is well known, metaphor is one of the most difficult and intransigent problems in language. In **verbal metaphor**, there are usually two explicit parts: a topic, which is the entity being talked about, and the vehicle, which is the metaphoric material being predicated of the topic.

DISCOURSE AND MEDIA

Approaches to Media Discourse

Media discourse refers to interactions that take place through a broadcast platform, whether spoken or written, in which the **discourse** is oriented to a non-present reader, listener or viewer.

The three main approaches to the study of media discourse can be characterized as

- Discourse analytic
- Sociolinguistic
- Nonlinguistic

Discourse **analytic approach** is the primary focus of scholars in the study of media discourse. Discourse analytic approaches that underlie a great deal of the research on media can be characterized as hybrids of existing frameworks of pragmatics, conversation analysis, variation, narrative analysis and interactional sociolinguistics optionally interlaced with sociological content analysis. For example, the approach can be “critical” in the sense of looking at social impact or inequality or concern political economy in the sense of the social value of language without

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necessarily bring into line with a major tradition, such as discourse analysis or media studies. “**Discourse analytic**” paradigm, which addresses discourse-level matters related to larger stretches of talk and text beyond the word or sentence level, including questions of participant, topic, function, and discourse structure, as well as a range of topics that includes news interviews, quotation and reported speech, register issues, politeness, positioning and framing.

The term “**sociolinguistic**” for work that involves variation and style in the media or a similar close analysis of language. Sociolinguistic insights, either to characterize some dimension of media language, such as variation and style, or to inform related discourse level work, such as genre and register. The “**nonlinguistic**” research involves work in political science, media studies, or communication studies paradigms and, to some degree, in cultural studies. Nonlinguistic domains are referred to by media discourse researchers perhaps more than in any other topical area of discourse analysis.

ADVERTISING AND DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

Advertising Messages as Samples of Social Interaction and Activities

Advertising is a means of communication with the users of a product or service. Advertisements are messages paid for by those who send them and are intended to inform or influence people who receive. **Ads** are wonderful examples of the diverse roles discourse can fulfill in society. To consider them as discourse types can prove very enlightening about the ways people communicate and relate to each other within the different spheres where they perform their daily activities. This exemplary character is basically connected with the very nature of ads: **advertising** is one of the liveliest and most representative forms of discourse when it comes to displaying its own inner functioning, since it not only enhances its status as a linguistic form of communication but also foregrounds the need for context when it comes to the full understanding of the overall message which is the cornerstone of discourse analysis as a method of discursive interpretation (Cook, 1992).

A possible way of undertaking the analyses of such a campaign is by bearing in mind a number of building tasks and discourse analysis questions that are at pale when we assess any sample of ‘language in use’: they have to do with

- (1) the significance that a piece of language can lend to certain situations and the way this happens;
- (2) what situations this piece of language is creating in such a way that they are recognized by the others. Another important issue is related to the establishment of
- (3) specific identities and
- (4) relationships by means of this language sample (Gee, 2005). A given piece of language will also indicate some sort of
- (5) assessment on social values, will
- (6) establish connections with other utterances, making them relevant to the present one, as well as
- (7) attribute prevalence to a given sign system over others (Gee, 2005).

Compilation



Discourse Analysis of Telecom Ads:

It can be seen that the ad has used different font sizes and colors to grab the attention of the audience. It is also noticed that the information regarding the conditions that apply in availing the promoted product or services are given at the bottom of the layout in fine prints. People hardly read that part because it is written in very small fonts. People tend to ignore the information not deliberately but unconsciously, which are written in small font as it does not attract people as much as the big colored fonts. It is tactics followed by the ad makers to make the audience not to notice all the written information.

Lecture-09 Approaches and Methodologies in Discourse-I

DISCURSIVE PSYCHOLOGY AND DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

Principals of Discursive Psychology

Discursive psychology is usefully understood as working with three fundamental observations about the nature of discourse. Discourse is:

- Oriented to action

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- Situated sequentially, institutionally and rhetorically
- Constructed and constructive

Discourse is situated

A central recognition of DP is that actions are **situated**. The most profound way that action is situated is in terms of the here and now of conversational sequence.

A **second** major way in which an action is situated is **institutionally**.

A **third** major way in which an action is situated is **rhetorically**.

Discourse is constructed and constructive

Discourse is constructed from a range of resources words, categories, rhetorical commonplaces, grammatical structures, repertoires, conversational practices and so on, all of which may be delivered in real time, with prosody and timing, or is built into documents with specific layouts, fonts and so on. These resources, their use and their conditions of assembly can become topics of DP study. They are both resources for action and challenges that may require management in order for one to work round their specific affordances.

Methodological Procedures of Discursive Psychology

Heritage (2004) suggests that participants turn towards interaction in at least three ways. **First**, they address themselves to immediately preceding talk. **Second**, they set up the conditions for the action or actions that will come next. **Third**, in the production of next actions, participants show a set of understandings of the prior action: that it is complete, that it was addressed to them rather than someone else, what kind of action it was and so on.

Studies in Discursive Psychology

Intention: institutions and practices

Ideas of intention have had a range of different roles in the social sciences. One of the most influential is probably in the field social cognition, where the theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991) has been associated with more than a thousand articles in the last two decades. This theory treats intentions as the product of a number of different elements, which work in combination to affect behavioural outcomes. Intention is treated as a kind of mental push that will result in the person engaging in the actual behaviour, unless something intervenes to prevent it.

Attitude: caring and closing

One of the major areas of historical and contemporary social psychology is the study of attitudes. Indeed, attitudes are a commonplace of work from across the social sciences. The discursive psychological critique of the way attitudes was conceptualized was developed right from the start (Potter and Wetherell, 1987, 1988; Potter, 1998). It emphasized that evaluations were part of practices embedded in interaction, where they played particular roles. And it emphasized that evaluations are often produced by constituting the 'attitudinal object' in particular ways rather than by claiming a personal psychological position.

Another feature of this developing critique of attitude work is that it starts to break up the idea of a single underlying attitudinal dimension in favor of considering the way different kinds of evaluations

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can be produced for different purposes. **For example**, Wiggins and Potter (2003) highlighted the different roles of 'objective' and 'subjective' food evaluations – 'that pasta is lovely' vs 'I love that pasta.'

INTERACTIONAL SOCIOLINGUISTICS AND DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

What is Interactional Sociolinguistics?

Interactional sociolinguistics (IS) studies the language use of people in face-to-face interaction. It is a theoretical and methodological perspective on language use with eclectic roots in a wide variety of disciplines such as dialectology, ethnomethodology, conversation analysis, pragmatics, linguistic anthropology, micro-ethnography and sociology. Basically, IS starts from the finding that, when people talk, they are unable to say explicitly enough everything they mean. As a result, to appreciate what is meant, they cannot simply rely on the words that are used but must also depend on background knowledge, to discover what others assumed the relevant context was for producing words in.

How do you make an IS analysis?

If you want to make an IS analysis, you will need first-hand data that are as rich as possible. This usually implies doing long-term ethnographic fieldwork in one setting during which you familiarize yourself with the local communicative ecology, appreciate how it is related to broader social structures and assemble as much commentary from participants as possible. Without this ethnographic knowledge, it will be difficult to pick up the background knowledge that interactants in that setting only display via subtle references. Recordings (digital or otherwise) of naturally occurring speech are a must-have, since it is next to impossible to reconstruct interactions from memory in the amount of detail you need in order to discover their moment-to-moment organization. It is not always easy to make recordings, but, once you have them, they will allow you to revisit the recorded scene as much as you like so as to check hypotheses. Making a transcript of your recordings is the following indispensable and quite time-intensive step.

Why is Interactional Sociolinguistics important?

Interactional Sociolinguistics is important because it draws our attention to the existence of subtle cultural differences in the systematic combination of verbal and non-verbal signs which signal contexts and construct meaning, differences that are often hard to pin down by those who use them. IS can claim credit for having shown in great detail that disastrous consequences may follow if such different styles remain hidden and lead to miscommunication in gatekeeping encounters: applicants do not only fail to get a job or admission to a course, but often find their personal and ethnic background targeted as the cause for communication failure. IS has thus managed to uncover meaning and reason behind communicative styles that are regularly identified as inarticulate and incoherent, and the social relevance of this cannot be underestimated. It has shown that seemingly unintelligible job applicants or uninterested children are in fact sensible and involved if you (are willing to) read their contextualization cues in an appropriate way or you are prepared to accept their different cueing habits.

DISCOURSE ANALYSIS AND LINGUISTIC ANTHROPOLOGY

Physical Anthropology

Anthropology is a unique academic discipline that operates at the crossroads of the physical sciences, social sciences and humanities to examine the diversity of human experience across cultures and over time. Anthropologists in our department study everything from human evolution to prehistory to life in a globalizing world. Because of this breadth of focus, anthropology is highly relevant to understanding and living in a rapidly changing world.

Basic tenets of physical anthropology:

Holism: Holism means that a part of something can only truly be understood if examined within relation to the whole of it. For anthropologists, this means that they try to understand humankind through the interrelationships of all aspects of human existence for example, human biology has to be examined within the context of human cultures and vice versa.

Relativism: Relativism means that judgments, truths, or moral values have no absolutes, and can only be understood relative to the situation or individuals involved. For anthropologists, this means that they accept that all cultures are of equal value and must be studied from a neutral point of view.

A good anthropologist must disregard their own beliefs, morals, and judgments when examining another culture. They must, instead, examine each culture within the context of its own beliefs.

Universalism: Universalism means that whatever the theoretical principle is, it's equally applicable to all.

Culture: All humans have culture. Culture is the set of learned behaviors and knowledge that belong to a certain set of people.

Cultural Anthropology

Culture is the patterns of learned and shared behavior and beliefs of a particular social, ethnic, or age group. It can also be described as the complex whole of collective human beliefs with a structured stage of civilization that can be specific to a nation or time period. Humans in turn use culture to adapt and transform the world they live in.

Cultural anthropologists study the diversity of human cultures and societies around the world and the processes by which people construct local, regional and global forms of social relationships. Several anthropologists in our department study the processes by which people construct particular social identities, worldviews, and forms of community in a changing, globalizing world. In the contemporary world, much ethnography addresses the manner in which people in local communities orient themselves to global networks and institutions.

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Anthropologists, in general, are more concerned with what discourse structuring might reveal about culture at large: 'In every moment of talk, people are experiencing and producing their cultures, their roles, and their personalities'

Cultural anthropology maintains relations with a great number of other sciences. It has been said of sociology, for instance, that it was almost the twin sister of anthropology. The two are presumably differentiated by their field of study (modern societies versus traditional societies). But the contrast is forced. These two social sciences often meet. Thus, the study of colonial societies borrows as much from sociology as from cultural anthropology. And it has already been remarked how cultural anthropology intervenes more and more frequently in urban and industrial fields classically the domain of sociology.

Linguistic Anthropology

Linguistic anthropology is the interdisciplinary study of how **language** influences social life. It is a branch of **anthropology** that originated from the endeavor to document endangered languages, and has grown over the past century to encompass most aspects of **language** structure and use. As a field of **anthropology**, **linguistic anthropologists** are concerned with how language influences culture. This can include how **language** impacts social interactions, beliefs, cultural identity, and other important aspects of culture.

Linguistic anthropologists have ventured into the study of everyday encounters, language socialization, ritual and political events, scientific **discourse**, verbal art, language contact and language shift, **literacy** events, and **media**.

Lecture-10 Approaches and Methodologies in Discourse-II

ENGLISH FOR ACADEMIC PURPOSES AND DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

What is EAP?

English for Academic Purposes (EAP) is usually defined as teaching English with the aim of assisting learners' study or research in that language. In this sense it is a broad term, covering all areas of academic communicative practice such as pre-tertiary, undergraduate and post-graduate teaching, classroom interactions, academic publishing and curriculum issues, as well as research, student and instructional genres (e.g., Hyland, 2009a).

The **role** of EAP has therefore changed in response to changing conditions in the academy. The huge expansion of university places in many countries, together with an increase in full fee-paying international students to compensate for cuts in government support, has resulted in a more culturally, socially and linguistically diverse student population than ever before. **In addition**, students now take a broader and more heterogeneous mix of academic subjects. In addition to traditional single-subject or joint-honors degrees, we now find complex modular degrees and emergent 'practice-based' courses such as nursing, management and social work. These new course

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configurations are more discursively challenging for students who have to move between genres, departments and disciplines. Further, while in the past the main vehicles of academic communication were written texts, now a broad range of modalities and presentational forms confront and challenge students' communicative competence.

Current EAP **aims**, therefore, at capturing thicker descriptions of language use in the academy at all age and proficiency levels, incorporating and often going beyond immediate communicative contexts to understand the nature of disciplinary knowledge itself. It employs a range of interdisciplinary influences for its research methods, theories and practices to provide insights into the structures and meanings of spoken, written, visual and electronic texts, into the demands placed by academic contexts on communicative behaviors, and into the pedagogic practices by which these behaviors can be developed. It is, in short, specialized English language teaching grounded in the social, cognitive and linguistic demands of academic target situations and informed by an understanding of texts and of the constraints of academic contexts. Discourse analysis is a key resource in this research agenda and has made an enormous contribution to our understanding of academic communication.

What has discourse analysis told us about EAP?

Discourse analysis is a collection of methods for studying language in action, looking at texts in relation to the social contexts in which they are used. Because language is an irreducible part of social life, connected to almost everything we do, this broad definition has been interpreted in various ways across the social sciences. In **EAP** it has tended to be a methodology which gives greater emphasis to actual texts than to institutional social practices, and has largely taken the form of focusing on particular academic genres such as the research article, the conference presentation, and the student essay.

Genre analysis can be seen as a more specific form of discourse analysis, which focuses on any element of recurrent language use, including grammar and lexis that is relevant to the analyst's interests. As a result, genre analysis sees texts as representative of wider rhetorical practices and so has the potential to offer descriptions and explanations both of texts and of the communities that use them. Genres are the recurrent uses of more or less conventionalized forms through which individuals develop relationships, establish communities and get things done using language.

CORPUS APPROACHES TO DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

What is corpus and design of Corpora

A **general corpus**, thus, provides sample data from which we can make generalizations about spoken and written discourse as a whole, and frequencies of occurrence and co-occurrence of particular aspects of language in the discourse.

A **specialized corpus**, as Hunston (2002) explains is:

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“A corpus of texts of a particular type, such as newspaper editorials, geography textbooks, academic articles in a particular subject, lectures, casual conversations, essays written by students etc. It aims to be representative of a given type of text. It is used to investigate a particular type of language.”

Specialized corpora are required when the research question relates to the use of spoken or written discourse in particular kinds of texts or in particular situations. A specialized corpus might be used, for example, to examine the use of hedges in casual conversation or the ways in which people signal a change in topic in an academic presentation.

Issues to Consider in Constructing a Corpus

There are a number of issues that need to be considered when constructing a corpus.

- The first of these is what to include in the corpus; that is, the variety or dialect of the language, the genre(s) to be included, whether the texts should be spoken, written or both and whether the texts should be monologic, dialogic or multi-party.
- The next issue is the size of the corpus and of the individual texts, as well as the number of texts to include in each category. The issue is not, however, just corpus size, but also the way in which the data will be collected and the kinds of questions that will be examined using the data (McCarthy and Carter 2001). Even a small corpus can be useful for investigating certain discourse features.
- The sources and subject matter of the texts may also be an issue that needs to be considered.

Authenticity, representativeness and validity of the corpus

Authenticity, representativeness and validity are also issues in corpus construction, as well as whether the corpus should present a static or a dynamic picture of the discourse under examination; that is, whether it should be a sample of discourse use at one particular point in time (a static, or sample corpus) or whether it should give more of a ‘moving picture’ view of the discourse that shows change in language use over a period of time (a dynamic, or monitor corpus) (Kennedy 1998 ; Reppen and Simpson 2002).

Kinds of texts to include in the corpus

A key issue is what kind of texts the corpus should contain. This decision may be based on what the corpus is designed for, but it may also be constrained by what texts are available. Another issue is the permanence of the corpus; that is, whether it will be regularly updated so that it does not become unrepresentative, or whether it will remain as an example of the use of discourse at a particular point in time (Hunston 2002).

Size of the texts in the corpus

The size of texts in the corpus is also a consideration. Some corpora aim for an even sample size of individual texts. If, for example, the corpus aims to represent a particular genre, and instances of the genre are typically long, or short, this needs to be reflected in the collection of texts that make up the corpus.

The **representativeness of the corpus** further depends on the extent to which it includes the range of linguistic distribution in the population. That is, different linguistic features are differently distributed (within texts, across texts, across text types), and a representative corpus must enable analysis of these various distributions.

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The discourse-historical approach

DHA provides a vehicle for looking at latent power dynamics and the range of potential in agents, because it integrates and triangulates knowledge about historical, inter-textual sources and the background of the social and political fields within which discursive events are embedded. Moreover, the DHA distinguishes between three dimensions that constitute textual meanings and structures: the topics that are spoken/ written about; the discursive strategies employed; and the linguistic means that are drawn upon to realize both topics and strategies (e.g. argumentative strategies, topoi, presuppositions – see below for an extensive discussion).

Systematic qualitative analysis in the DHA takes four layers of context into account: the intertextual and inter-discursive relationships between utterances, texts, genres and discourses; the extra-linguistic social/sociological variables; the history and archaeology of texts and organizations; and institutional frames of the specific context of a situation (the specific episodes under investigation). In this way we are able to explore how discourses, genres and texts change due to socio-political contexts, and with what effects (see Wodak, 2001).

Lecture-11 Discourse and Phonology

DISCOURSE ANALYSIS AND PHONOLOGY

Pronunciation and rhythm

Traditional pronunciation teaching has found its strength in the ability of linguists to segment the sounds of language into isolated items called phonemes which, when used in the construction of words, produce meaningful contrasts with other words (e.g. the phonemes /p/ and /b/ in English give us contrasts such as pump and bump, pat and bat, .etc.), The position and manner of articulation of phonemes in a language like English are well described and can be presented and practiced in language classes either as isolated sounds, in words, in contrasting pairs of words or in minimal contexts.

When we listen to a stretch of spoken English discourse, we often feel that there is a **rhythm** or regularity to it, which gives it a characteristic sound, different from other languages and not always well-imitated by foreign learners. The impression of rhythm may arise out of a feeling of alternation between strong and weak 'beats'. **Traditionally, rhythm** has been considered an important element in the teaching of spoken English. This is probably due to two main factors.

Firstly, there does seem to be rhythmically in varying degrees in long stretches of speech, especially carefully considered deliveries such as broadcast talks, fluent reading aloud, speeches and monologues, as well as some ordinary conversation. Secondly, the concept of English as a stress-timed language, deeply rooted in theoretical and applied linguistics, has dominated approaches to the teaching of rhythm.

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Word stress, as it is traditionally understood, and **prominence**, as we shall use it here, are two distinct levels. Where they overlap, of course, is in the fact that prominences may not be distributed just anywhere in the word, but may only fall on certain syllables. Where two prominences can occur in the same word, as is often the case with a whole class of words such as IAPANESE, UNIVERSAL, CONGRATULATIONS, etc., the second will always be the stronger.

Intonational units

Intonation units are an important component of American English pronunciation and speech. An **intonation unit** is a segment of speech. It can be as small as a single word, or as long as a sentence.

Generally, intonation units:

- begin with faster speech, and end with slower speech
- include a single pitch word
- end with a pitch boundary

Intonation units and emotion

Individual speakers alter the number of intonation units they use. Some of this is based on individual patterns and habits, but speakers also alter intonation units based on emotion. A faster speaker will generally use fewer intonation units and may be seen as being more urgent, frantic, excited, and anxious. A slower speaker may have more intonation units and may be perceived as being more emphatic, determined, and insistent. Of course, these are the extremes, and most people normally speak somewhere in the middle range.

Elements of intonation units

Sentences can often be broken up into multiple intonation units. Each intonation unit usually has a single pitch word and ends in a pitch boundary. Each pitch word conveys information to the listener, and each pitch boundary helps organize how speakers take turns speaking.

Turn-taking is another important aspect of pitch level in this view of intonation. The speaker can signal a desire to continue a speaking turn by using non-low pitch, even at a point where there is a pause, or at the end of a syntactic unit, such as a clause. Equally, a down-step in pitch is often a good turn-yielding cue. The intonational cues interact with other factors such as syntax, lexis, non-verbal communication and the context itself, and are typical of how the different levels of encoding have to be seen as operating in harmony in a discourse-oriented view of language (Schaffer 1983).

HALLIDAY'S SIX IDEATIONAL METAFUNCTION

Michael Halliday, the founder of systemic functional linguistics, calls these three functions the **ideational**, **interpersonal**, and **textual**. The **ideational** function is further divided into the experiential and logical. For this reason, systemic linguists analyze a clause from three perspectives. In Halliday's SFL, language as a social phenomenon is functional .i.e. it is concerned with the

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mechanism of text structure, function and meaning of language. It begins an analysis of language in social context where a particular lexico-grammatical choice is constructed under the influence of the social and cultural context.

Ideational and Experiential Function

Ideational Meta-function: Ideational meta-function provides grammatical resources at clause rank to construe the inner and outer experience or 'goings-on' of the world, as the domain of functions and meanings of the world through the systems of transitivity. It has two components of logical and experiential functions.

□ **The concept of Transitivity:**

In traditional grammar, transitivity was developed as the concept of transitive or intransitive verb (Halliday, 1976) whether the verb takes an object or not, but in SFL it functions to link grammar to the meta functions; however, in Halliday's terms, transitivity as a major component in experiential function of the clause deals with the "transmission of ideas "representing 'processes' or 'experiences': actions, events, processes of consciousness and relations" (1985).

Transitivity with inter-related options to represent different types of process or experience investigated from above, below, and around consists of process, participant with different labels such as Actor, Goal; Sensor, Phenomenon; Carrier, Attribute; and circumstance including Cause, Location, Manner, Means and Instrument. Process refers to a semantic verb (doing, happening, feeling, sensing, saying, behaving, and existing) and anything that it expresses like event, relation, physical, mental or emotional state when sorted in the semantic system of the clause is classified into material, relational, mental, verbal, behavioral, and existential processes. (Halliday, 1976)

□ **Material Process**

Classified into intentional or spontaneous performance of an animate or inanimate, material processes, externalized and concrete embody an action verb of doing or happening, a doer is labeled as Actor and optional Goal, affected by the process and circumstance that provides details of the verb in terms of place, time, manner, condition, etc.

□ **Mental Process**

Classified into three categories of cognition, perception and affection, mental processes, internalized and consciousness type, are concerned with participants labeled as Sensor and Phenomenon. Mental processes can be viewed from:

'From above', it construes perception, cognition and affection

'From below', it includes Process + Sensor + Phenomenon

'From around', it manifests the content of consciousness such as a thought

□ **Relational Process**

Classified into intensive, attributive, identifying, circumstantial, and possessive, Relational processes are concerned with the processes of description regarding the abstract relations. Irreversible attributive process assigns a quality, or adjective to a participant titled as Carrier realized by a noun or a nominal phrase. Reversible Identifying process consists of two nominal phrases as participants, a Token holder and a Value meaning, referent, and status (Halliday, 1985) that can be turned into passive voice.

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□ Verbal Process

5th Slide: A verbal process of direct or indirect report, standing on the border of mental and relational processes, relates “any kind of symbolic exchange of meaning” (Halliday, 1985:129) or the ideas in human consciousness with their linguistic representation of Sayer, the addressee labeled as Target, and Verbiage.

□ Behavioral Process

The behavioral Process standing between material and mental processes relate the physiological and psychological behaviors such as ‘breathing; coughing; smiling; dreaming; and staring.’ (1985)

□ Existential process

These processes are processes of existing with a there and to be with no representational function. An Existent can be an entity, event or action.

Impersonal and Logical Function

Grammatically, **interpersonal meta-function** at the clausal level enjoys Mood. Mood is concerned with the topic of information or service and whether it is giving or demanding and the tenor of the relationship between interact ants. Tenor deals with gender or status-based power.

In interpersonal meta-function, the degree of intimacy or distance and the type of the relationship between the writer and reader or participants in a text through the type of modality can be explored; besides, the system of pronominal determination describes how a referent can be recognized through the stances of the referent regarding the speaker and listener.

Textual function and References

□ Cohesion:

Cohesion, the “non-structural text-forming relations” (Halliday and Hasan 1976) relates to the “semantic ties” or relations of meaning within text. The cohesive devices of referencing, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction, and lexical cohesion were presented by Halliday and Hasan (1976) and Bloor and Bloor (1995)

□ Referencing

Classified into homophoric, exophoric and endophoric categories respectively referring to cultural shared information, immediate situation context, and textual information, referencing identifies presupposed information throughout the text. (Eggins 1994) Endophoric referencing divided into anaphoric, cataphoric, and esphoric respectively refers to the previously mentioned (preceding) information in text, information presented later in the text, the same nominal group or phrase following the presupposed item. (Halliday and Hasan 1976). There are also personal, demonstrative, and comparative references referring to speech situation noun pronouns like he, him or possessive determiners like mine and yours, this, here, there, then, same, equal, so, similarly, and otherwise.

□ Substitution and Ellipsis

In Bloor and Bloor (1995: 96), substitution and ellipsis are used to avoid the repetition of a lexical item through grammatical resources of the language. The substitution and ellipsis can be nominal, verbal and clausal. Substitution words have the same function such as “one and ones” for nouns and “do” or “so” as in “do so” or “that and “it” for verbal, nominal, and clausal substitutions. Functioning at the level of deictic, enumerative, epithet, classifier, and qualifier, ellipsis as

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“substitution by zero” refers to a presupposed anaphoric item through structural link. □ **Lexical Cohesion**

Lexical cohesion is non-grammatical and refer to the “cohesive effect achieved by the selection of vocabulary” like reiteration where a lexical item directly or indirectly occurs through application of synonym, antonym, metonym, or hyponym or a super-ordinate and collocation where pair of same event or environment lexical items co-occur or found together within the text. When these lexical items are closer, the text enjoys higher degree of cohesion.

Lecture-12 Discourse, Vocabulary and Grammar

Lexical reiteration can be shown to be a significant feature of textuality, and then there may be something for the language teacher to exploit. We shall not suggest that it be exploited simply because it is there, but only if, by doing so, we can give learners meaningful, controlled practice and the hope of improving their text-creating and decoding abilities, and providing them with more varied contexts for using and practicing vocabulary.

Reiteration means either restating an item in a later part of the discourse by direct repetition or else reasserting its meaning by exploiting lexical relations. Lexical relations are the stable semantic relationships that exist between words and which are the basis of descriptions given in dictionaries and thesauri: for example, rose and flower are related by hyponymy; rose is a hyponym of flower.

1) Repetition

The most direct form of lexical cohesion is repetition of a lexical item; e.g., bear in sentence Algy met a bear. The bear was bulgy (Halliday, 1985). Here the second occurrence of bear harks back to the first.

2) Synonym or near – synonym

Synonym is used to mean ‘sameness of meaning’ (Palmer, 1981). Lexical cohesion results from the choice of a lexical item that is in some sense synonymous with a preceding one; for example, sound with noise.

3) Superordinate

Superordinate is term for words that refer to the upper class itself (Palmer, 1981). In contrary, term for words that refer to the lower class itself is hyponym.

General Word

The general words, which correspond to major classes of lexical items, are very commonly used with cohesive force. They are on the borderline between lexical items and substitutes. Not all general words are used cohesively; in fact, only the nouns are when it has the same referent as whatever it is presupposing, and when it is accompanied by a reference item (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 280-1). **For example:** There’s a boy climbing the old elm. That old thing isn’t very safe (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 280). Here, the reiteration takes the form of a general word thing.

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Vocabulary and the organizing text

A distinction is often made between grammar words and lexical words in language. This distinction also appears sometimes as **function words** versus **content words**, or **empty words** versus **full words**.

However, in current linguistic theory there has been an unfortunate tendency to concentrate on the particular analysis of lexical meaning in order to account for the structural properties of lexical items, while ignoring significant aspects of the use and behavior of lexemes in linguistic utterances.

The reasons behind this strategy may be the following:

From a purely grammar-designing perspective, all a linguistic model demands from the lexicon is the basic semantic and syntactic properties of lexical items which are necessary to use them in linguistic expressions. This has been captured in formal theories in standard lexical entries through thematic relations and predicate-argument structures, and, in FG, through classical predicate frames. Thus, from the point of view of the grammar system, many aspects of the meaning of a lexical item are simply irrelevant in the generation of a linguistic expression.

Textual patterns

There are mainly three patterns of text organization (McCarthy 1991; Holland and Johnson 2000):

- Problem-Solution
- General-Specific
- Claim Counter-claim (or Hypothetical-Real)

Lexical choice within the identified clusters will depend on the context (textbook, magazine, news report, etc.), the author's assumptions about the audience (cultured/educated readers of the popular sensationalist press, etc.) whether the style is to be read as 'written' or 'spoken', and so on. Most of the texts we have looked at so far have been toward the 'written/formal/cultured' end of the spectrum.

Idiomatic phrases are used as signals of the response and its occurrence after a previous negatively evaluated response (conventional treatments). Idioms are often a problem for the teacher inasmuch as it is not always easy to find natural contexts in which to present them.

Modality

The term modality“ subsumes a range of concepts within the fields of philosophy, morphology, syntax, semantics, and discourse analysis. Philosophy deals with modality primarily as it applies to categories of logic and to logical reasoning, and while some of the terminology used in philosophical studies of modality is borrowed into other disciplines, these terms are not always used in the same ways or for the same purposes in other disciplines. As Sulkunen and Törrönen explain,

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for linguists, the logical treatment of modalities is too narrow, because it is centered on truth values of propositions. Linguistic analysis of modalities presents much more diversity in its problematic and approaches" (1997).

Lesson 35

DISCOURSE ANALYSIS AND GRAMMAR-I

Reference

Reference items in English usually include pronouns (e.g. *he, she, it, him, they*, etc.), demonstratives (this, that, these, those), and the article *the*. For instance,

Michael went to the bank. **He** was annoyed because **it** was closed.

In this sentence, he refers to Michael which will be treated as an anaphoric reference, and **it** refers to the bank which will also be treated as an anaphoric reference. In the above given examples, **Michael** and **bank will be treated as cataphoric reference**. Hence, an anaphoric reference occurs when a word or phrase refers to something mentioned **earlier** in the discourse, whereas a cataphoric reference occurs when a word or phrase refers to something mentioned **later** in the discourse.

Brown and Yule (1983) see the nature of reference in text and in discourse as an action on the part of a speaker/writer. It describes what they are doing "not the relationship which exists between one sentence or proposition and another." McCarthy (1991) states that we must consider the notion of discourse segments as "functional units, rather than concentrating on sentence and to see the writer/speaker as faced with a number of strategic choices as to how to relate segments to one another and how to present them to the receiver." He adds that reference items can refer to Segments of discourse or situations as a whole rather than to any one specified entity in that situation. Fox (1987) claims that reference can be successfully made (for instance, through the use of pronouns) if the referent is "in focus, in consciousness, textually evoked or high in topicality" and where it "can be operationally defined in terms of the discourse structure."

To this end, referents are often realized through anaphoric (word or phrase referring backwards in a text), cataphoric (word or phrase referring forwards in a text), and exophoric (reference to assumed shared worlds outside the text) devices and can appear as functional units in discourse segmentation.

This implies the use of language to point to something. Reference therefore has the ability to point to something within or outside a text.

Halliday and Hassan (1976) states that co-referential forms are forms which instead of being interpreted semantically in their own right, make reference to something else for their interpretation. When the interpretation is within the text, this is an „endophoric“ relation but in a situation where the interpretation of the text lies outside the text, in the context of situation, the relationship is „exophoric“. However, exophoric relations play no part in textual cohesion. Endophoric relations on the other hand, form cohesive ties within the text. Endophoric relations are also of two types, those which look back in the text for their interpretation (anaphoric relations) and those which look forward to the text for their interpretation (cataphoric relations). For instance, the following

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sentences show the use of reference. Referring expressions help to unify the text and create economy because they save writers from unnecessary repetition.

Ellipsis and substitution

In English grammar, substitution (or an ellipsis-substitution) is the replacement of a word or phrase with a "filler" word (such as one, so, or do) to avoid repetition.

1. Avoiding repetition of nouns in formal situation using 'THAT/ THOSE' e.g.

- There are people who support this idea just as there are those who are against it.
- They perform **an essential function: that** of reminding us of the human cost when we get things wrong.

2. Avoiding repetition of nouns in informal situation using 'ONE/ ONES'

'One' is used instead of repeating a singular countable noun. e.g.

- Can I get you a drink? It's okay, I've already got one (= a drink).
- Is this your umbrella? No, mine is the big blue one (= umbrella).

'Ones' is used instead of repeating a plural noun. e.g.

- I think his best poems are his early ones (= poems).
- People who smoke aren't the only ones (= people) affected by lung cancer.

3. Avoiding repetition of a verb and its object complement using 'DO SO' e.g.

- "Put the car away, please." "I've already done so." (= put the car away)
- She won the competition on 1997 and seems likely to do so (= win the competition) again this year.

In Informal English we can use **'do it'** or **'do that'**. e.g.

- Mrs. Smith waved as she walked past. She does it/ does that every morning.
- Ray told me to put in a new battery. I did it/ did that, but the radio still doesn't work.

4. Avoiding repetition of a that-clause after certain verbs (think, hope, believe, suppose, reckon, guess, be afraid) using 'SO' e.g.

"Our team will win today's match." "Yeah, I hope so." (= that our team will win today's match)

"Is Alex here?" "I think so." (= that Alex is here)

5. Joining two positive sentences which have different subjects using 'TOO/ SO' e.g.

- I love fishing. My brother loves fishing.
- I love fishing and my brother does too.
- I love fishing and so does my brother.

6. Joining two negative sentences which have different subjects using 'EITHER/ NEITHER' e.g.

- I don't like reading books. He doesn't like reading books.

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- I don't like reading books and he doesn't **either**.
- I don't like reading books and **neither** does he.

"**Ellipsis** is a special instance of substitution, in that it involves substitution by zero. Instead of one of the lexical items mentioned for substitution, no item is used, and the hearer/listener is left to fill in the gap where the substitute item, or the original item, should have appeared."

1. Leaving out words after auxiliaries (**do, be, have, modals**) e.g.

- I'll come and see you when I **can**. (= can come and see you)
- She says she has finished, but I don't think she **has**. (= has finished)

2. Leaving out to-infinitives

e.g.

- I wanted to come with you, I won't be able **to**. (= to come with you)
- "Let's go for a walk." "I don't want **to**." (=to go for a walk)

3. Leaving out articles, possessives, personal pronouns, auxiliaries at the beginning of sentences e.g.

- My wife's on holiday. => *Wife's on holiday.*
- Have you seen Joe? => *Seen Joe?*
- I couldn't understand a word. => *Couldn't understand a word.*

The Differences between Reference and Substitution

"It is important to point out differences between reference and ellipsis-substitution. One difference is that reference can reach a long way back in the text whereas ellipsis and substitution are largely limited to the immediately preceding clause. Another key difference is that with reference there is a typical meaning of co-reference. That is, both items typically refer to the same thing. With ellipsis and substitution, this is not the case. There is always some difference between the second instance and the first. If a speaker or writer wants to refer to the same thing, they use reference. If they want to refer to something different, they use ellipsis-substitution (Halliday 1985)."

Conjunction

Conjunctive elements are cohesive not in themselves but indirectly, by virtue of their specific meanings; they are not primarily devices for reaching out into the preceding (or following) text, but they express certain meaning which presuppose the presence of other components in the discourse (Halliday and Hasan, 1976). Hasan and Halliday (1976) adopt a scheme of just four categories, namely additive, adversative, causal, and temporal. According to Halliday (1985), conjunction is classified into *elaboration, extension, and enhancement*.

1) Elaboration

Elaboration means one clause that expands another by elaborating on it (or some portion of it) by restating in other words, specifying in greater detail, commenting, or exemplifying (Halliday, 1985). There are two categories of elaborative relation, namely apposition and clarification. □ **Apposition**

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According to Kridalaksana (1993) apposition is a word or phrase which explains other preceding phrase or clause. In this type of elaboration some element is re-presented, or restated, either by exposition or example. Look at the example below:

*Expository: in other word, that is (to stay), I mean (to say), to put it another way.
Exemplifying: for example, for instance, thus, to illustrate.*

□ Clarification

Here, the elaborated element is not simply restated but reinstated, summarized, made more precise or in some other way clarified for the purposes of discourse:

- **Corrective:** *or, rather, at least, to be more precise*
- **Distractive:** *by the way, incidentally*
- **Dismissive:** *in any case, anyway, leaving that a side*
- **Particularizing:** *in particular, more especially*
- **Resumptive:** *as I was saying, to resume, to get back to the pint*
- **Summative:** *in short, to sum up, in conclusion, briefly*
- **Verifactive:** *actually, as a matter of fact, in fact*

2) Extension

Extension means one clause expands another by extending beyond it by adding some new element, giving an exception to it, or offering an alternative (Halliday, 1985). Extension involves either addition, adversative, or variation. **Additive** conjunction acts to structurally coordinate or link by adding to the presupposed item divided into positive (*and, also, moreover, in addition*) and negative (*nor*). **Adversative** is conjunction which relates two clauses that state contras each other (Kridalaksana, 1993). It acts also to indicate contrary to expectation and signaled by *but, yet, on the other hand, however*. **Variation** includes replacive 'instead', subtractive 'except' and alternative 'or' types.

- **Replacive:** *on contrary, instead*
- **Subtractive:** *apart from that, except*
- **Alternative:** *alternatively*

3) Enhancement

Enhancement means one clause expands another by embellishing around it by qualifying it with some circumstantial feature of time, place, cause or condition (Halliday, 1985).

DISCOURSE ANALYSIS AND GRAMMAR-II

Theme and rhyme

Most learners, when learning the grammar of a foreign language, spend time assimilating the structure of clauses in that language, i.e., where subjects, objects and adverbials are placed in relation to the verb, and what options are available for rearranging the most typical sequences. Discourse analysts are interested in the implications of these different structural options for the creation of text, and, as always, it is from the examination of natural data that patterns of use are seen to emerge. Some of the structural options frequently found in natural data are ignored or underplayed in language teaching (especially those found in spoken data, which are often dismissed as degraded or bad 'style'), probably owing to the continued dominance of standards taken from the

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written code. If the desire is to be faithful to data, grammar teaching may have to reorient some of its structural descriptions, while others already dealt with in sentence level exercises may be adequately covered in traditional teaching and simply adjusted to discourse-oriented approaches. English is what is often called an 'SVO' language, in that the declarative clause requires a verb at its center, a subject before it and any object after it. This is simply a labeling device which enables comparisons to be made with declarative realizations in different languages, some of which will be 'VSO' or 'SOV' languages.

There are in English a variety of ways in which the basic clause elements of subject, verb, and complement/object, adverbial can be rearranged by putting different elements at the beginning of the clause. These ways of bringing different elements to the front are called fronting devices.

In English the Theme, the 'point of departure' for the clause, is also one of the means by which the clause is organized as a message. Theme is the 'glue' that structures and binds the ideational and interpersonal meanings. In studies of Theme in children's writing and in writing in the workplace, the choice and representation of Theme is seen as a crucial element related to the success of a text (Martin, 1985, 1992, 1993; Martin and Rothery, 1993; Berry, 1995, 1996; Stainton, 1996, amongst others). The belief that an understanding of the way in which Theme works can be usefully incorporated into pedagogy is the motivation behind this and many other studies of Theme.

Theme, then, is seen to play a crucial role in focusing and organizing the message and to contribute to the coherence and success of the message. Martin (1992) argues that the choice of what comes first is "a textual resource systematically exploited" to effect different patterns (Martin, 1992). Martin adds that the different patterns and meanings made by the choice of Theme can be manipulated and exploited, consciously or unconsciously, by the writer in order to convey their 'angle' or viewpoint. In more recent work, Martin (2000) and Martin and Rose (forthcoming) suggest that Theme and many other features in a text function to construe the writer's viewpoint.

Rhyme is everything that is not Theme: it is the part of the clause where the Theme is developed (Halliday, 1994). A message structure in English is comprised of a Theme plus a **Rhyme**. There is an order to the structure: Theme comes first, followed by **Rhyme**, and whatever is placed in initial position is **Theme** (Halliday, 1994). In many instances **Rhyme** is related to New Information, while Theme is related to Given Information. Given refers to what is already known or predictable, while New refers to what is unknown or unpredictable.

Tense and aspect

Tense is a term that refers to the way verbs change their form in order to indicate at which time a situation occurs or an event takes place. For finite verb phrases, English has just one inflectional form to express time, namely the past tense marker (-ed for regular verbs). Therefore, in English there is just a contrast between present and past tense. Needless to say, non-finite verb phrases (to infinitives and -ing forms) are not marked for tense. When occurring with modals, verb phrases are used in their base form, with no tense marker. Each tense can have a simple form as well as be combined with either the progressive or perfective aspect, or with both of them.

Aspect is a grammatical category that reflects the perspective from which an action/situation is seen: as complete, in progress, having duration, beginning, ending, or being repeated. English has two aspects, progressive (also called continuous) and perfect (ive). Verbs that are not marked for

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aspect (the majority of them are not) are said to have simple aspect. In British English, the perfective aspect is much more common than in American English, since Americans often use the past simple where Britons use the present perfect.

Verb phrases can be marked for both aspects at the same time (the perfect progressive, however, is infrequent). The following combinations are possible: present progressive; past progressive; present perfective; past perfective; present perfective progressive; past perfective progressive:

Discourse and grammar often complement each other, each imposing a different set of constraints on speakers' utterances. Discourse constraints are global, pertaining to text coherence, and/or to interpersonal relations. Grammatical constraints are local, pertaining to possible versus impossible structures (within specific languages). Yet, the two must meet in natural discourse. At every point during interaction speakers must simultaneously satisfy both types of constraints in order to communicate properly.

Lecture-13 The Nature of Reference in Text and Discourse

STAGING AND THE REPRESENTATION OF DISCOURSE STRUCTURE

Thematisation and Staging

According to Brown and Yule (1983), “**thematisation** is a discourse rather than simply a sentential process. What the speaker or writer puts first would influence the interpretation of everything that follows.” Thus, a title would influence the interpretation of the text which follows it. The first sentence of the first paragraph would constrain the interpretation not only of the paragraph, but also the rest of the text. That is, we assumed that every sentence forms part of a developing, cumulative instruction which told us how to construct a coherent representation.

“**Staging**” was a more general, more inclusive, term than thematisation (which refers only to the linear organization of texts). Every clause, sentence, paragraph, episode and discourse were organized around a particular element that is taken as its point of departure. It was as though the speaker presents what he wants to say from a particular perspective.

What is text?

In linguistics, the term **text** refers to:

1. The original words of something written, printed, or spoken, in contrast to a summary or paraphrase.
2. A coherent stretch of language that may be regarded as an object of critical analysis.

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Text linguistics refers to a form of discourse analysis a method of studying written or spoken language that is concerned with the description and analysis of extended texts (those beyond the level of the single sentence). A text can be any example of written or spoken language, from something as complex as a book or legal document to something as simple as the body of an email or the words on the back of a cereal box.

The concept of **texture** is entirely appropriate to express the property of 'being a text'. This characteristic of a text distinguishes it from something that is not a text. The fact that a text functions as a unity with respect to its environment derives from this 'texture'.

Ties:

We need a term to refer to a single instance of cohesion, a term for one occurrence of a pair of cohesively related items. This is called a tie. The relation between *them* and *six cooking apples* in the above example constitutes a tie. We can characterize any segment of a text in terms of the number and kinds of ties which it displays. In the above example there is just one tie of the particular kind which we call reference.

Cohesion:

The concept of cohesion is a semantic one. It refers to relations of meaning that exist within the texts, and that defines it as a text. Cohesion occurs where the interpretation of some element in the discourse is dependent on that of another. The one presupposes the other, in the sense that it cannot be effectively decoded except by recourse to it. When this happens, a relation of cohesion is set up and the two elements, the presupposing and the presupposed are thereby at least potentially integrated into a text.

Reference and Discourse Representation

Reference is an act of directing or indicating something by using some linguistic elements. Reference is a systemic relation. The reference is no way constrained to match the grammatical class of the item it refers to. Reference is a particular type of cohesion and its criteria is the specific nature of the information that is signaled for retrieval. In the case of reference, the information to be retrieved in the referential meaning' the identity of the particular thing or class of things that is being referred to; and the cohesion lies in the continuity of reference, whereby the same thing enters into the discourse for the second time.

Manners of Reference: on the basis of referring to a thing as identified in the context of situation or as identified in the surrounding text reference appears in two forms or manners.

- *Exophora or Exophoric reference.*
- *Endophora or endophoric reference*

Exophoric reference: Exophora is reference to something extra-linguistic, i.e., not in the same text. It signals that reference must be made to context of situation. For example; pronouns with words such as 'this' 'that' 'there' 'here' are often exophoric. *Did the gardener water those plants?*

Example-

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For he's a jolly good fellow and so say all of us.

This is an example of the context of situation where the text is not indicating who this 'he' is.

Endophoric Reference: Endophoric reference is the general name for within the text. Endophora is a term that means an expression which refers to something intra-linguistics i.e. in the same text. For example, in the sentence:

I saw sally yesterday, she was lying on the beach

Discourse Representation Theory explain certain discourse phenomena, such as the interaction between indefinite noun phrases and (anaphoric) pronouns in texts shown before, the traditional account of considering meaning in terms of truth conditions turned out to be unsatisfactory. DRT adopts the rather 'dynamic' view of natural language semantics, where the meaning of a sentence is defined in how it can change the context.

One of the striking features of DRT is that it, instead of working with first-order formula syntax, works with explicit semantic representations. Such representations are called **Discourse Representation Structure (DRS)** which describes the objects mentioned in a discourse and their properties.

Pronouns in Discourse

Pronouns include three classes:

- Personal pronoun
- Possessive determiners
- Possessive pronouns

Personal Pronouns:

The speaker and the addressee of a communication situation are often marked linguistically by the first- and second-person pronouns. As already mentioned, the reference of the singular first- and second-person pronouns is very simple as the referents are normally the speaker and the addressee, whereas the reference of especially the plural first-person pronouns is more complex. Conventional typological studies have arranged personal pronouns into tables and used the terms 'first', 'second' and 'third person', and 'singular' and 'plural number'.

- **Examples:** *If the buyer wants to look the condition of the property, he has to have another survey. One carried out on his own behalf.*
- Here in the above example the use of personal pronoun 'he' or 'his' for 'buyer' and 'one' for 'survey' is a source of personal reference.

Possessive pronouns:

If possessive pronouns are used, they give two more notions other than speaker and addressee. They are that of 'possessor' and 'possessed'

- **Example:** *That new house is John's.*
- *I didn't know it was his.*

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Here, in the above example the use of possessive pronouns 'his' for 'John' indicates the possessor and 's' is for the possessed 'house' includes another source of personal reference. **Reflexive pronouns:**

Reflexive pronouns are a kind of pronoun that is used when the subject and the object of the sentence are the same.

Include *myself, ourselves, yourself, yourselves himself, herself, itself, themselves.*

Pronouns may be classified by three categories: person, number, and case. **Person** refers to the relationship that an author has with the text that he or she writes, and with the reader of that text. English has three persons (first, second, and third):

- **First-person** is the speaker or writer him- or herself. The first person is personal (*I, we, etc.*)
- **Second-person** is the person who is being directly addressed. The speaker or author is saying this is about you, the listener or reader.
 - **Third-person** is the most common person used in academic writing. The author is saying this is about other people. In the third person singular there are distinct pronoun forms for male, female, and neutral gender.

THE NATURE OF REFERENCE IN TEXT AND IN DISCOURSE-II

Pronouns and Antecedent Nominals

A **pronoun antecedent** is a word that comes before a pronoun to which the pronoun refers.

Following are definitions of antecedent as well as a review about the types of pronouns, information about the functions of an antecedent in a sentence, and examples of how to use in a sentence.

Defining a Pronoun Antecedent

The word “**antecedent**” means something that precedes something else. In language, it is the word that a pronoun refers back to. Since the pronoun replaces the noun, it has to agree in number. So, if the antecedent, or word that comes before, is singular, then the pronoun that takes its place must also be singular. It can be confusing if there are several words between the pronoun and its antecedent. These words or clauses have no bearing on the words and they need to be ignored.

Following are some special situations with examples of the correct way to have pronoun antecedent agreement.

Compound subjects can be a problem. If the subjects are joined by an “**and**” then the pronoun needs to be plural, as in "Bob and Paul took their books. If the subjects are joined by "or" or “**nor**”, then have the pronoun agree with the subject that is closer, or closest, to the pronoun. An example is "Either the actor or the singers messed up their performance.

If the pronoun is referring to one thing or a unit, like a team or a jury, then the pronoun needs to be singular. An example is: "The jury has reached its verdict."

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Sometimes words sound plural and are not, like measles or the news. These would need a singular pronoun, as in: "Measles is not as widespread as it once was." This makes sense if you replace the word "measles" with "disease."

Indefinite Pronouns That Are Antecedents

There are several rules concerning the use of indefinite pronouns as antecedents and the pronoun antecedent agreement. The following indefinite pronouns are singular and need a singular pronoun: one, no one, someone, everyone, anyone, nobody, anybody, somebody, everybody, nothing, anything, and something, everything, each, either, neither. An example is "Everything here has its own box."

The plural indefinite pronouns: several, both, few, and many, need to have a plural pronoun, like in this sentence: "Several are there because of their looks."

Lastly, if there is an indefinite pronoun that is being modified by a prepositional phrase, then the object of the phrase will determine the agreement between the pronoun and its antecedent. These special indefinite pronouns are: some, most, all, any, or none. Look at these two sentences: "Most of the flour fell out of its canister" and "Many of the gems have lost their shine". If the object, like "flour" is uncountable, then the pronoun has to be singular (its). If the object is countable, like "gems", then the pronoun needs to be plural (their).

Pronouns and Antecedent Predicates

Subject-Predicate (Verb) Agreement Make sure you don't have subject-verb agreement problems in a complete sentence. Distractions within a sentence can make you misidentify subject and verb, leading to an agreement problem. Remember that a verb must agree in person and number with its subject, regardless of other elements in a sentence.

Locating the subject of a sentence

Your first job is to locate the subject of the sentence. To do this, find the verb, the action word or the state-of-being word, and then determine who or what is being talked about. Then ask yourself, Is the subject first person (I/we), second person (you), or third person (he, she, it/they)? Is the subject singular or plural? When you've answered these questions, you will know which form the verb should take. Singular subjects take singular verbs, and plural subjects take plural verbs.

Subject-verb agreement with a compound subject

In sentences with more than one subject (a compound subject), the word and usually appears between the elements.

Use a plural verb with a compound subject:

- Drinking a glass of milk and soaking in the tub help me fall asleep.
- **NOT** Drinking a glass of milk and soaking in the tub helps me fall asleep.

If each/every precedes a compound subject, treat the subject as singular.

- Each dog and cat is to be fed twice a day.
- Every house and garage have been searched.

Compilation

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Additive phrases

An additive phrase sometimes makes a sentence look as if it has a compound subject. Examples of these phrases are accompanied by, along with, as well as, in addition to, including, and together with. When you use one of these phrases, you are thinking of more than one person or thing. But grammatically these phrases aren't conjunctions like and. They are actually modifying the subject, rather than making it compound. Therefore, do not use a plural verb because of these modifying phrases.

- The President of the United States, accompanied by his advisors, was en route to Europe.
- **NOT** The President of the United States, accompanied by his advisors, were en route to Europe.

Phrases and clauses between subject and verb

Watch out for phrases and clauses that come between the subject and predicate in a sentence. To make sure you have the right person and number for the verb, mentally eliminate intervening phrases and clauses.

- The speech that provoked the demonstration and caused the closing of the university was filled with inaccuracies.
- **NOT** The speeches that provoked the demonstration and caused the closing of the university were filled with inaccuracies.

Subject-verb agreement

The conjunctions or, either ...or, and neither ...nor ask you to choose between things rather than add things. If both elements are singular, use a singular verb. If both elements are plural, use a plural verb. If one element is singular and one is plural, choose the verb that agrees with the element closest to it.

- The director or the assistant director is planning to be on location.
- **NOT** The director or the assistant *director are* planning to be on location.

Subject-verb agreement in relative clauses

Agreement problems can occur in relative clauses using which, that, or one of those who. The verb in a relative clause must agree with the relative pronoun's antecedent (the word the pronoun stands for). Always ask yourself what the relative pronoun refers to. He decided to write novels, which are his favorite form.

- NOT** He decided to write novels, *which is* his favorite form.

Pronouns and 'new' Predicates

Pronouns may refer to predicate which are not mentioned previously. In discourse, the speaker may structure his message in such a way that some **new** information is attached to 'given' elements (i.e., pronouns) intending the hearer to provide the given/ **new** interpretive procedure. However, the hearer may have to reverse that procedure and use the **new** information to decide what the given referent must have been.

A **predicate pronoun** is any pronoun that is part of the predicate. A predicate is the part of a sentence that includes the verb and the words following it that relate to that verb.

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Explanation:

Examples:

- **I will call him.**
- The teacher **gave us a history assignment.** □ Mother **made lunch for them.** A sentence may have more than one predicate;

For example:

- **Mother made lunch for them and set it on the picnic table.**

Slide13: A subjective pronoun can be part of a predicate when it is the subject of a clause,

For example:

- **Mary brought a cake she made for the party.**

A subjective pronoun is also used as a subject complement when it follows a linking verb;

For example:

The leaders right now are he and I.

Lecture-14 Doing Discourse Analysis

Ethics

Proponents of discourse ethics reverse the order in which we normally address ethical uncertainties. Instead of starting with one theory or another and then taking it out into the world to solve problems, they start with a problem and try to create a moral structure to solve it. Ethical solutions become ad hoc, custom generated to resolve specific conflicts. It doesn't matter so much, therefore, that people come to an issue like bribery from divergent moral grounds because that difference is erased by the key element of discourse ethics: a foundational decision to cut away from old ideas and make new ones.

Discourse ethics (DE) has two aims: to specify the ideal conditions for discourse and to ground ethics in the agreements reached through the exercise of such discourse.

Confidentiality

Confidentiality refers to a condition in which the researcher knows the identity of a research subject, but takes steps to protect that identity from being discovered by others. Most human subject's research requires collection of a sign consent agreement from participants, and thus researchers are aware of the identity of their subjects. In such cases, maintaining confidentiality is a key measure to ensure the protection of private information.

Developing a Discourse Analysis Project

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Discourse analysis is a useful tool for studying the **political meanings** that inform written and spoken text. Discourse Analysis is the **investigation of knowledge about language beyond the word, clause, phrase and sentence levels**. Michael Stubbs redefines Discourse in his later work as **it is therefore more accurate to say that text and discourse analysis studies language in context: how words and phrases fit into both longer texts, and also social contexts** of use (Stubbs 2001).

Criteria for developing a discourse analysis project

In her book *Qualitative Methods in Sociolinguistics*, Johnstone (2000) lists a number of criteria that contribute to the development of a good and workable research topic. In her case, she is talking about research in the area of sociolinguistics. What she says, however, applies equally to discourse analysis projects. These criteria include

- A well-focused idea about spoken or written discourse that is expressed as a question or a set of closely related questions;
- An understanding of how discourse analytic techniques can be used to answer the research question you are asking;
- An understanding of why your question about spoken or written discourse are important in a wider context; that is, why answering the question will have practical value and/or be of interest to the world at large;
- Familiarity with and access to the location where your discourse analysis project will be carried out;
- Ability to get the discourse data that is needed for the research project;

Choosing a Research Topic

Pragmatics, Discourse Analysis, and Critical Discourse Analysis are separate but related areas of linguistic inquiry. These are concerned with the constituents and structures of discourse (like words and phrases) as they are used in context to make meaning. Pragmatics often focuses on the social and generic constraints (like politeness conventions, relative social status, etc.) that shape communicative situations, while **discourse analysis** may foreground how discourse constructs social meanings, serves rhetorical purposes, or creates subject positions. **Critical discourse analysis** is particularly interested in the relationship between discourse and the preservation or subversion of power. Research in these areas may ask questions related to language-in-use and its meaning-making functions.

When deciding on a topic, there are a few things that you will need to do:

- brainstorm for ideas
- choose a topic that will enable you to read and understand the literature
- ensure that the topic is manageable and that material is available
- make a list of key words
- be flexible

Kinds of Discourse Analysis Projects

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There are a number of different kinds of projects that can be carried out from a discourse analysis perspective. A number of these are described below, together with examples of previous discourse projects and details of the data that were collected for each of these projects.

Replication of previous discourse studies

One kind of study to consider is a replication study. Indeed, there has been a resurgence of interest in these kinds of studies in recent years. The editor of the journal *Language Teaching*, for example, argues that:

Such research should play a more significant role in the field than it has up to now and that it is both useful and necessary. (Language Teaching review panel 2008)

As Santos (1989) points out, the findings of many studies are often not tested by further studies which follow the same methodology and a similar data set either at the same point in time or at some stage later when the findings may be different. Santos describes this lack of replication studies as a serious weakness in applied linguistics research. Such studies provide both the accumulation and consolidation of knowledge over time.

Samraj's (2005) study of research article abstracts and introductions is an example of a **replication study**. Her aim was to test the results of previous research into the discourse structure of research article introductions to see whether they apply to articles written in the area of conservation. She also wished to look at whether the discourse structure of the research article abstracts was as different from the discourse structure of research article introductions as previous research had claimed them to be. She analyzed her data using models that had been used in previous research on this topic, namely Swales' (1990) research into research article introductions and Bhatia's (1993) and Hyland's (2004) research on research article abstracts. Once she had compared her findings with the results of previous research, she then compared her two data sets with each other to examine the extent to which they were similar in terms of discourse organization and function, also the focus of previous research.

□ Using different discourse data but the same methodology

A further way of using previous research is to carry out a study which uses different discourse data from a previous study, but the same methodology so as to be able to compare and contrast your findings with those of the original study. Yang's (1997) study of the opening sequences in Chinese telephone calls did this. She collected 80 Chinese telephone conversations made by three Chinese families living in Beijing. She analyzed the opening sequences of these conversations, then compared her findings with the findings of previous research into opening sequences in telephone calls in the United States and a number of other countries and, in particular, published claims about 'canonical' openings of telephone conversations in English.

□ Analyzing existing data from a discourse analysis perspective

Channell's (1997) study of telephone conversations took already published data, a conversation supposed to be between the Prince of Wales and Camilla Parker-Bowles, and analyzed it to see in what way the speakers expressed love, what the effect of the telephone was on their talk and what features of the conversation mark it as being the talk of two people who are in a close and intimate relationship. She looked at topic choice and topic management, ways of expressing love and caring, the language of desire and the way in which the speakers said goodbye to each other. Her study confirmed previous work on telephone closings in that both speakers employed an elaborate set of

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pre-closings and continued repetitions (such as 'love you', 'love you forever' and 'love you too') before concluding their conversation. Anyhow, her study does show the value of taking already existing data to see how discourse analytic techniques can help to further understand already published data.

□ Analyzing discourse data from a different perspective

Another possibility is to take data that has already been analyzed from one discourse perspective and analyze it from another. Orr (1996) did this in her study of arguments in a reality TV show. Her particular interest was in using conversation analysis as an alternate way of looking at data that had already been examined from a frame semantics perspective (Lee, 1997) to see what this other perspective might reveal about the nature of the interactions. Her study followed the philosophy of conversation analytic studies in that she started with the data and allowed the details of the analysis to emerge from her transcriptions. Through repeated listening's to the data she saw how the speakers challenged and countered each other's points of view in a series of cyclical moves until one or the other speaker accepted the point of the argument.

□ Focusing on unanalyzed genres

Another possibility is to focus on data that has not been analyzed before and describe characteristic features of the particular discourse. This could, for example, be an analysis of one of the many new genres that are emerging through the use of new technologies, or it may be examples of a genre that has not been analyzed before from a discourse perspective. Ooi (2001) looked at a new and emerging genre in his study of personal advertisements on the internet. His study was based on data collected from internet dating sites in the United States and Singapore. He broke his data up into three groupings based on three types. He then carried out a lexical analysis of the texts, looking at word frequency and collocations by gender and country of origin to see to what extent males and females differ in their expectations of each other, and the kinds of words and expressions they use to express these expectations.

Lecture-15 Discourse Genre and Critical Discourse Analysis

□ Typification, social organization, and social change

Genre typifications result from a process of psycho-social category formation. The categories themselves have no permanent substance. Genre taxonomies, nonetheless, can be useful to map users' categories within a defined social historical space and to define widespread functional patterns in vigorous social systems.

□ Implications for discourse analysis

The perspective presented here has several clear implications for the analysis of discourse. **First**, discourse occurs within a social situation and should be understood and analyzed, as it operates meaningfully within that situation.

Second, discursive situations are understood by their participants as organized and structured so as to be meaningful and sensible to them. The mechanisms by which definitions of situation and action are shared among participants are at the heart of social systematicity and of the organization of discourse.

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Third, the knowledge, thought, and meanings expressed within situated utterances then become part of the ongoing resources and definition of the situation for future utterances. Discourse is to be understood dynamically, within the construction of those situations and of the larger social activity systems within which those utterances occur.

Fourth, regularities of linguistic form usually accompany stabilizations of social groups and activities so, to look for linguistic orders, we should look to social orders; and, to look for social orders, and we should look to linguistic orders. While in the past geography may have been the dominant coverable of linguistic variation, with literacy and other communication at a distance technology the social variables of linguistic variation are increasingly tied to more extensive groupings such as social and cultural institutions, disciplines and professions, work organizations, and media audiences.

Fifth, linguistic entrainment into particular discursive practices goes hand in hand with socialization into activity networks and with cognitive development into the forms of thinking associated with interacting in those activity systems. Internalization of linguistic action transforms into dispositions and orientations.

Sixth, when discourse travels outside of its original ambit, the mechanisms for that wider travel are themselves topics of examination. This includes study of the genres within which such discourses arise, the genres in which they travel, and the genres into which they are received, as well as the processes that occur at the translation border between genres. Those discourses that seem to circulate freely among multiple situations also deserve investigation for the mechanisms by which they appear meaningful at multiple sites and for the differential ways in which they are integrated into different discursive systems and their genres.

What is Genre?

Genres are ways in which people 'get things done' through their use of spoken and written discourse. Genres are activities that people engage in through the use of language. Academic lectures and casual conversations are examples of spoken genres. Newspaper reports and academic essays are examples of written genres. Instances of a genre often share a number of features. Genres may typically be performed by a particular person aimed at a particular audience. Genres change through time. This may, for example, be in response to changes in technologies or it may be as a result of changes in values underlying the use of the particular genre.

Steps in Genre

Analysis

Bhatia (1993) and Bawarshi and Reiff (2010) present steps for carrying out the analysis of genres, in their case written genres. It is not necessary to go through all the stages that they list, nor in the order in which they are presented. For example, we may decide to take a 'text-first' or a 'context-first' approach to the analysis of a particular genre (Flowerdew 2002, 2011). That is, we may decide to start by looking at typical discourse patterns in the texts we are interested in (a text-first approach), or we may decide to start with an examination of the context of the texts we want to investigate (a context-first approach). The steps, then, should be used flexibly and selectively depending on the starting point of the analysis, the purpose of the analysis, the aspect of the genre that we want to focus on and the level of prior knowledge we already have of the particular genre.

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The first step, however, is to collect samples of the genre you are interested in.

The next step is to consider what is already known about the particular genre.

We next need to refine the analysis by defining the speaker or writer of the text, the audience of the text and their relationship with each other.

We also need to consider the goal, or purpose, of the texts.

A further important consideration is typical discourse patterns for the genre.

The social and cultural context of genres

An important stage in genre analysis, formerly, is an examination of the social and cultural context in which the genre is used. In the case of a written text, factors that might be considered Include:

- The setting of the text
- The focus and perspective of the text
- The purpose of the text
- The intended audience for the text, their role and purpose in reading the text

The relationship between writers and readers of the text; expectations, conventions and requirements for the text

- The background knowledge, values and understandings it is assumed the writer shares with their readers, including what is important to the reader and what is not
- The relationship of the text has with other texts.

These are the range of factors that impact on how the text is written, how it will be read and, importantly, how it will be assessed.

Setting of the text	<input type="checkbox"/> The kind of university and level of study, the kind of degree (e.g., honors, master's or doctoral, research or professional) <input type="checkbox"/> Study carried out in a 'hard' or 'soft', pure or applied, convergent or divergent area of study (Becher and Trowler 2001)
Focus and perspective of the text	<input type="checkbox"/> Quantitative, qualitative or mixed method research <input type="checkbox"/> Claims that can be made, claims that cannot be made <input type="checkbox"/> Faculty views on what is 'good' research
Purpose of the text	<input type="checkbox"/> To answer a question, to solve a problem, to prove something, to contribute to knowledge, to display knowledge and understanding, to demonstrate particular skills, to convince a reader, to gain admission to a particular area of study

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<p>Audience, role and purpose in reading the text</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> To judge the quality of the research <input type="checkbox"/> Primary readership of one or more examiners, secondary readership of the supervisor and anyone else the student shows their work to How readers will react to what they read, the criteria they will use for <input type="checkbox"/> assessing the text, who counts the most in judging the quality of the text
<p>Relationship between writers and readers of the text</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> Students writing for experts, for admission to an area of study (the primary readership), students writing for peers, for advice (the secondary readership)
<p>Expectations, conventions and requirements for the text</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> An understanding and critical appraisal of relevant literature <input type="checkbox"/> A clearly defined and comprehensive investigation of the research topic Appropriate use of research methods and techniques for the research question <input type="checkbox"/> Ability to interpret results, develop conclusions and link them to previous research <input type="checkbox"/> Level of critical analysis, originality and contribution to knowledge expected <input type="checkbox"/> Literary quality and standard of presentation expected <input type="checkbox"/> Level of grammatical accuracy required <input type="checkbox"/> How the text is typically organized, how the text might vary for a particular research topic, <input type="checkbox"/> area of study, kind of study and research perspective <input type="checkbox"/> What is typically contained in each chapter <input type="checkbox"/> The amount of variation allowed in what should be addressed and how it should be addressed <input type="checkbox"/> The university's formal submission requirements in terms of format, procedures and timing
<p>Background knowledge, values</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> The background knowledge, values and understandings it is assumed students will share with their readers – what is important to their readers, what is not important to their readers <input type="checkbox"/> How much knowledge students are expected to display, the
<p>and understandings</p>	<p>extent to which students should show what they know, what issues students should address, what boundaries students can cross</p>

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Relationship the text has with other texts	How to show the relationship between the present research and other people's research on the topic, what counts as valid previous research, acceptable and unacceptable textual borrowings, differences between reporting and plagiarizing
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Lesson-45 CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

Critical discourse analysis explores the connections between the **use of language** and the **social** and **political** contexts in which it occurs. It explores issues such as **gender**, **ethnicity**, **cultural difference**, **ideology** and **identity** and how these are both constructed and reflected in texts.

Principles of Critical Discourse Analysis

Fairclough and Wodak (1997), however, describe a number of principles for critical discourse analysis which underlie many of the studies done in this area.

These include

- Social and political issues are constructed and reflected in discourse
- Power relations are negotiated and performed through discourse
- Discourse both reflects and reproduces social relations
- Ideologies are produced and reflected in the use of discourse

Social and political issues are constructed and reflected in discourse

The first of Fairclough and Wodak's principles is that critical discourse analysis addresses social and political issues and examines ways in which these are constructed and reflected in the use of certain discourse strategies and choices.

Power relations are negotiated and performed through discourse

The next principle of critical discourse analysis is that power relations are both negotiated and performed through discourse. One way in which this can be looked at is through an analysis of who controls conversational interactions, who allows a person to speak and how they do this.

Discourse both reflects and reproduces social relations

A further principle of critical discourse analysis is that discourse not only reflects social relations but is also part of, and reproduces, social relations. That is, social relations are both established and maintained through the use of discourse.

Ideologies are produced and reflected in the use of discourse

Another key principle of critical discourse analysis is that ideologies are produced and reflected in the use of discourse. This includes ways of representing and constructing society such as relations of power, and relations based on gender, class and ethnicity.

Discourse Analysis and Multimodality

Jewitt (2009) describes four theoretical assumptions that underlie multimodal discourse analysis. The **first** is that language is part of an ensemble of modes, each of which has equal potential to contribute to meaning. Images, gaze and posture, thus, do not just support meaning, they each

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contribute to meaning. The **second** is that each mode of communication realizes different meanings and that looking at language as the principal (or sole) medium of communication only reveals a partial view of what is being communicated. The **third** assumption is that people select from and configure these various modes in order to make meaning and that the interaction between these modes and the distribution of meanings between them are part of the production of meaning. The **fourth** assumption is that meanings that are made by the use of multimodal resources are, like language, social. These meanings, further, are shaped by the norms, rules and social conventions for the genre that are current at the particular time, in the particular context.

BS English

<https://whatsapp.com/channel/0029VaazKAVBfxoDMH4I9U0u>



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