
UNIT 2 THE DISCOURSE PERSPECTIVE

Structure

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2.0 OBJECTIVES

Our aim in this unit is to make you aware of

- the role of the sentence in language studies
- the consequences of concentration on the sentence
- the nature of discourse in an interactive framework
- concepts such as speech situation, speech act
- the relationship between linguistic elements and the role they perform in certain contextual situations.

2.1 INTRODUCTION

We have so far, in Unit 1, been using the words ‘text’ and ‘discourse’ almost interchangeably. Are they in fact the same?

The use of these terms varies so much from writer to writer that it is difficult to distinguish clearly between them. Quite often, ‘discourse’ seems to be used for spoken discourse and ‘text’ for written discourse. But this is not necessarily the case. The two terms are also frequently used as cover terms for both spoken and written discourse. It is more usual for Americans to use the term ‘discourse analysis’ and Europeans ‘text analysis’. In this course no distinction has been made between ‘text’ and ‘discourse’, except for a slight preference for written discourse being called ‘text’. In Unit 1, we looked at the difference between sentence/clause and discourse, and the organisational patterns of discourse. In this unit, we shall turn to the growth of discourse and its characteristics. We shall begin by looking at the role of the sentence in language studies and then move on to the development of the discourse perspective.

2.2 THE ROLE OF THE SENTENCE IN LANGUAGE STUDIES

The study of rhetoric had flourished in the time of the Greeks and Romans, but in more recent years, had fallen into decline. The systematic study of language, particularly in the twentieth century, has been focused on the sentence, the isolated sentence. This falls into the domain of grammar which looks at the simple sentence/the kernel sentence/the clause, as isolated from the text in which it occurs. And quite often it is a made-up sentence, not an authentic one which has actually occurred in real life. Therefore, in addition to being isolated from the text, it is also cut off from the social context in which the interaction is taking place.

2.2.1 The Consequences of Concentration on the Sentence

Let us look at the following lines taken from a radio talk show in the U.S. on gardening:

I suspect that if it's dropping leaves you probably... well, obviously it is in the wrong spot...

Usually in this situation, you - eh, if it were mine, I'd probably cut it hack...

What you do with em after it starts looking really really yukky...what you want to do believe it or not is to cut back about four inches...And then I would put it outside into the shade into a uh nice shady area in your yard...

What can you say after reading this text? Would you expect this to be written matter, or is it quite obviously taken from speech?

It is clear that the above example is not what you would expect to find in a grammar book. The sentences are not necessarily complete - they break off in the middle of a sentence and sometimes start afresh at some point. This is typical of oral language. Writing is usually more tightly organised. Notice that grammar book sentences are normally in the written mode. They are also always complete and entirely correct from the grammatical point of view. Look at the following grammar book sentences:

This is a pencil. Shut the door. John has gone to school.

Only highly regular and well-structured sentences are found in grammar books. However, by analysing only such sentences, a vast proportion of the language freely occurring in speech and writing is thereby ignored. This is the first consequence of having a sentence-based grammar.

Second, the sentences worthy of study for purposes of establishing the grammar of the language, are only those which represent the standard variety of the language. Dialectal variations whether regional or social class, and stylistic variations, whether informal/colloquial are ignored. Third, the sentence is studied in isolation and not in context, whether the context be textual or social. By employing sentences only of this kind, grammarians hoped that language in its essential purity would be studied, undeflected by any kind of variation, or human failings.

Check Your Progress 1

- 1) What are the three consequences of having a sentence - based grammar?

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- 2) What are the features of ‘sentence - based grammar’ versus ‘text’?

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- 3) As a teacher do you think there are limitations in teaching sentence - based grammar? How would incorporating a discourse perspective help your students?

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2.3 THE GROWTH OF THE DISCOURSE PERSPECTIVE

How did the discourse perspective begin to be held? In the 1960's, a movement began against the grammatical approach to language study. Research in sociolinguistics, in ethnography, and in communication, heralded a radically different conception of language. Authenticity, what was actually being said, began to be more important than an abstract standard of grammatical perfection. So, the actual utterance, however imperfect or deviant it might appear, became the object of the linguist's attention, making the context of utterance crucial, and variation of all kinds, the normal condition of speech. Initially, this made speech more important than writing as a source of data. Only after discourse studies became an established mode of linguistic analysis, did written language come in for scrutiny.

In a grammar-based approach, whether structural grammar or Chomskyan linguistics, the syntactic features of the sentence are the major concern. More recently, the meaning of the sentence or its semantic content has been given much greater status even in grammar, but this is at least partly, because of the impact of discourse studies. However, grammar is unable to absorb, even partially, the interactive nature of the context within which particular sets of utterances exist. Semantics has now become an independent branch within language study, with one foot in grammar and the other in discourse. Pragmatics, however, dealing with the meaning of utterances in context, is clearly entirely in the field of discourse.

In discourse, the purely linguistic form (syntactic and phonological) is studied in relation to its semantic and pragmatic aspects. Language study, initially entirely form-based, has become increasingly function-oriented. This means that the area of discourse is: i) the study of the functions language performs in social contexts, ii) the interaction between grammatical form and function and iii) grammatical form looked at from a functional perspective. It is argued that the text and not the isolated sentence is the basis of language. This makes discourse, and not grammar, central to the analysis of language.

Check Your Progress 2

- 1) How did the notion of 'text' assume importance?

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2) The limitations of a grammar-based approach to language study are

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3) What are the three areas which discourse covers with regard to language teaching?

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2.4 THE ROLE OF CONTEXT IN DISCOURSE STUDIES

What is meant by the context in which language occurs?

2.4.1 The Textual Context

First, we shall deal with the textual context. Consider the following piece of writing:

Language has often been defined as a system of arbitrary symbols used for human communication. The purpose of this book is to help you discover system in the ways we use language for communication in social contexts.

It is possible to isolate sentence 1 (S1) of the above and analyse it on its own. But sentence 2 cannot stand on its own. It is dependent for its meaning on S1. The use of ‘a system of arbitrary symbols’ in S1 is required in order to say ‘discover system ...’ If it had had to stand on its own, it would have had to be phrased differently. A text is built up on the basis of interrelations in sentences/clauses. Such interrelationships are crucial to language and cannot be ignored. This is the textual context, or ‘co-text’ which is essential for the expression of meaning.

2.4.2 The Context of Situation

The **context of situation** is also important. Who is the writing being addressed to? What is the tone and attitude? The use of the words ‘you’ and ‘we’ involves direct address and participation in a common activity. A relationship of friendliness is being established with the reader. If the sentence had read,

‘The purpose of this book is to establish system in the ways in which language is used for communication in social contexts.’

a much more formal relationship would have been established. The nature of the relationship between reader and writer/speaker and listener is reflected in the choice of language. Questions such as the relative status of the participants in the relationship, the degree of politeness required, the effect of the topic being discussed, all these are of importance in deciding on the words to use. Analysis involving only isolated sentences seems to rob language of its life-blood.

2.4.3 The Speech Situation

In order to study the way language operates in social interaction (whether in speech or writing) one requires the concept of speech situation. The speech situation is built on a wide variety of factors, which takes into account everything that makes up the total situation in which the discourse occurs, not only the linguistic factors. Though it is not always possible to analyse all of these factors, it is important to be aware of them in a speech situation. The following are some of the possible factors:

- i) Speaker-hearer interactional information drawn from the two fields of i) kinesics (i.e. patterns of movement, gestures and body language) and ii) proxemics (i.e. movement in terms of spaces occupied). Kinesics and proxemics supplement the information derived from the spoken word, and should form a part of the analysis of spoken discourse.

In analysing writing, factors such as style, register, expressing the writer's attitude to his/her subject and the demands of the reader are important as they affect the nature of the text actually produced.

- ii) Ethnographic information relates to the cultural conventions and norms of behaviour prevalent in a particular speech community and the effect these have on the language used.

Within the speech situation can occur many speech events, and the speech event can itself contain many speech acts. We shall discuss these concepts in later sections.

Check Your Progress 3

- 1) What is meant by 'co-text' and the 'context of the situation'?

- 2) What are their component features? In what way is it useful to consider these in analysing a text?

2.5 THE SPEECH ACT

The notion of the speech act derives from the work of linguistic philosophers, mainly Austin (1962) and Searle (1969). It takes the basic unit of language to be communication rather than grammatical form, and by doing this implies that through language, actions are being performed. In the case of some utterances, the words themselves alone can perform an action.

I pronounce you man and wife.

I name this university the Indira Gandhi National Open University.

Such utterances can be called performatives because through their very articulation an action has been performed.

Utterances other than performatives require action as a follow-up, as for example in the request, ‘Open the window, please’, where the statement is followed by the action, i.e. the actual opening of the window. Yet it is possible to look at the request itself as performing a kind of act, what can be called a **speech act**. There are different kinds of speech acts, such as requests, orders, commands, complaints, promises and so on.

We can distinguish between the meaning of an utterance and the force it carries. It is obvious that the same utterance can carry different force in different contexts. For instance, let us consider the request, ‘Open the window, please’. Supposing I had decided to shut myself up in my house and have nothing to do with the world, and then one day, being persuaded to change my viewpoint, I made this request. It would then come across with dramatic impact, and carry quite a different force from that in a normal, routine situation.

Check Your Progress 4

- 1) What is a speech act?

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2.6 THE SPEECH SITUATION

There can be many different speech situations or types/genres of discourse. In oral language, there is classroom and meeting discourse, conversation, oral narrative, jokes, teacher talk, etc. In written text, there is narrative, drama, legal statutes, advertisements, academic prose, scientific writing, journalese and so on. Each such genre has its own conventions which need to be respected in order to bring the genre into existence.

2.6.1 An Analysis of Conversation

Let us, for example, now analyse the framework of a particular speech situation that has been much studied in the literature, namely, conversation.

a) Turn-taking

Any interactive encounter or conversation is governed by some rules. For instance, it is not possible for one of the participants to hold the floor endlessly. The others must get their turn to speak. Thus, turn-taking is a basic feature of conversation and textualisation as such. Mothers of infants in arms look for some kind of response from them; even a person going on endlessly on the telephone requires constant feedback. In writing, the situation is only different in terms of the techniques adopted. The writer has to respond to the implicit/assumed questions of the reader. If s/he moves too far away from these questions, the reader will lose interest. Thus, we talk about the readership of a particular work, and whether certain forms of writing (e.g. manuals of instructions) are reader-friendly or not.

There are ways of ensuring that you get your turn to speak, particularly in a multi-party encounter. It is necessary to watch out for signals when the speaker will surrender his/her turn. Normally, the listener looks at the speaker, with the speaker looking at the listener only from time to time. At the end of his/her turn, there is likely to be change in the speaker's gaze direction. Apart from this, there seems to be a general slowing down of tempo, vowel elongation, and falling intonation. Also, the speaker will have reached a syntactic boundary (Hatch, 1992: p.16-17). Body language and gestures might also reflect the end of a turn. Although turns are normally well timed, overlaps in the talk of different speakers in conversation do occur. In fact, such overlaps (as quite distinct from interruptions) are thought to show alignment between the communication partners.

b) Feed-back or Backchannel Cues and Repair

Speakers also need feedback or backchannel cues to know whether communication is taking place. If there is a breakdown in understanding, repairs to the message and re-adjustments are possible. In research on language learning, the repairs often lead to special registers such as 'foreigner talk' or 'teacher talk'. These registers have many things in common. In each, there is an increase in phonological clarity. The rate of speech is slowed down, lessening the number of reduced vowels, contractions, and complex consonant clusters. Heavy stress is laid on important content words, and there is a longer break at syntactic boundaries. The slower rate not only increases phonetic accuracy but gives the learner more processing time.

The need to repair utterances is shown up in vocabulary selection and syntactic change as well. Less slang, fewer idioms are used, more high frequency items, short simple syntax, less pronominalisation, and simpler noun phrases (Hatch, 1992: p.22- 23).

Look at the following repairs, taken from second language acquisition research, which give evidence of simplification:

Native speaker: Do you wear them everyday?

Ricardo: Huh?

Native speaker: Do you put them on everyday?

Native speaker: Did you have a nice weekend?

Ricardo: Huh?

Native speaker: Friday, Saturday ... did you have fun?

(Hatch, 1978: p.414) c)

c) Opening and Closing of Conversations

Openings and closings of conversations also have their own specific signals in a conversation. There are obvious cross-cultural differences to be found in these. For instance on a business visit, how long do you spend talking about general matters before getting down to business? On a personal visit, how do you manage to surreptitiously introduce a business matter? How do you engineer it? Closings sometimes raise more problems. When is it appropriate to end a conversation or to get up to leave? One doesn't normally wish to be impolite, or overstay one's welcome. What cues do people give, and what should we be sensitive to?

Check Your Progress 5

- 1) We have discussed the structure of 'conversation'. You have now to apply this kind of analysis to other forms of communication. Let us start with the classroom. You have to observe a particular class closely. Who are the participants in the communication. Who speaks more? Who initiates the discussion? What procedure is followed in the course of the class? Break up classroom time into how the activities are being conducted.

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- 2) Observe yourself and others in a conversation. Notice how the participants enter the conversation; give feedback that they are listening; notice also how they restate when they are not understood.

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2.7 INFORMATION STRUCTURE: 'GIVEN' AND 'NEW INFORMATION'

How is information ordered in the utterance? What is stated first and what next? In English, the flow of information proceeds from the already known to something different within the same utterance. In a typical utterance, the subject of the clause will coincide with the topic that is being dealt with. The subject will then make an assertion through the use of the verb about something which is expressed in the predicate. **The subject is the given or known information, while the predicate is the new part of the information which is now being presented.**

‘Given’ and ‘new’ information is also referred to as ‘topic’ and ‘comment’ or ‘theme’ and ‘rheme’, where ‘given’, ‘topic’ and ‘theme’ carry much the same meaning, while ‘new’, ‘comment’ and ‘rheme’ are similar. The organisation of information in a sentence, or its communicative dynamism, can be considered in terms of how pieces of information are modified and developed, providing focus and clarity.

Check Your Progress 6

- 1) Analyse the following paragraph into ‘given’ and ‘new’ or ‘topic’ and ‘comment’ relations. A little initial guidance is given.

Whenever there is snow in England, some of the country roads may have black ice. Motorists coming suddenly upon stretches of black ice may find themselves skidding off the road. Road maintenance crews try to reduce the danger of skidding by scattering sand upon the road surfaces. Such a measure is generally adequate for our very brief snowfalls. Its main drawback is that if there are fresh snowfalls the whole process has to be repeated, and if the snowfalls continue, it becomes increasingly ineffective in providing some kind of grip for tyres.

In the first sentence, the whole of ‘Whenever there is snow in England, some of the country roads’ is taken to be assumed information. The fact that there is snow in England, and that there are country roads does not need to be asserted, all this is assumed to exist. It is the ‘given’ information. It is also the ‘topic’ about which we get further information, namely, ‘may have black ice’. It is expected that we don’t know about this, otherwise it would not have been needed to be stated. So this is the ‘new’ information, or the ‘comment’ on the topic. Now work on the rest of the passage on your own.

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2.8 COHESION

As we have discussed in the previous Unit, when information is organised in a clause/sentence and connected to the next clause/sentence, progressively subsuming the importance of the previous sentence and leading on to a new focus, or a new development, cohesive links need to be established. The earliest systematic study of cohesion was done by Halliday & Hasan (1976). They outline five types of cohesive relations. These are:

2.8.1 Conjunction

Conjunctions may be **additive** (e.g. and, as well as); or **adversative** (e.g. but, however) in nature; or express **causal** (e.g. thus, because) and **temporal** relations (e.g. then, firstly); and so on.

2.8.2 Reference

Reference is concerned with marking and identifying items, people, events. (Please note that the word 'reference' in cohesion has a different connotation).

The umbrella I left behind has been returned.

'The' identifies a particular umbrella which, the text implies, has been mentioned earlier.

If, instead, the sentence had read:

An umbrella I left behind has been returned.

'An' does not refer back to a previous statement.

Again, if I said: *'I'm glad I went to the party. It was fun'*. 'It' refers to 'the party' which was already mentioned and substitutes for it. This is known as referencing.

Now look at:

The students have sent in a representation. The said students have stated that...

This is clumsy. It would have been much better to avoid using 'the said students' as a form of referring back and instead to refer to them as 'They'.

2.8.3 Lexical Replacement

Instead of using pronouns to represent people, objects, events, it is possible to use lexical items like nouns, e.g. *Her son has gone mountaineering again. The boy is never here during the holidays.*

The phrase 'The boy' replaces 'Her son'.

2.8.4 Substitution

It is possible to substitute other words for something previously mentioned. e.g.

Fawzia has a birthday next month. My brother's family has one too.

In the second statement, 'a birthday' is replaced by 'one'.

It is also possible to have said:

Fawzia has a birthday next month. So does my brother's family.

What is now being substituted is 'has a birthday' with 'so does'.

2.8.5 Ellipsis

Let me explain ellipsis by an example

Fawzia has a birthday next month. My brother's family has too. OR So also my brother's family.

Here, the element is not replaced, it is dropped because the context clearly supplies the information.

The four types of replacement mentioned here, namely, reference, lexical replacement, substitution, and ellipsis could all fall under a single category, replacement. Thus, we can have two major types of cohesive devices: conjunction and replacement.

- 1) Go back to the passage given in Check Your Progress 6 and analyse it for cohesive links.
- 2) Now analyse the following passage for cohesive links. Refer back to the section on Cohesion for guidelines. We have done two cohesive linkers for you as examples.

One hundred years ago going to the dentist was a very painful experience, *and* many people did not go *until* their jaws swelled up, and they had terrible toothaches. Now people know how important it is to see the dentist regularly, and it is not painful, because the dentist uses anaesthetics that kill pain. There are two kinds of anaesthetic that the dentist most often uses. He may give his patient an injection of novocin, which is a drug that makes the whole area that he is going to work on numb. When he is going to pull a tooth, he may give the patient a little gas, so he will go to sleep while the dentist is doing his work.

and- additive conjunction

until- indicating temporal relation (conjunction)

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2.9 COHERENCE

The notion of coherence has already been introduced in Unit 1. What is required here is to add some more dimensions to the term. Organisation and rhetorical form, which have been dealt with earlier, are not the only aspects of coherence. Let's look at some more aspects of coherence:

2.9.1 Thematization/Topic Formation

Coherence can also be seen in the processes of thematization, i.e. of embodying a theme in any piece of writing. A theme could thus provide the underlying principle which links separate aspects of a discursive text together. Thus, coherence is involved in determining the topic/theme of a text. If what is being discussed is not very clear, the text lacks coherence. Again, the topic might contain sub-topics. These also must hang together as parts of a unified whole.

2.9.2 Plot, Summary

Coherence can also be seen to be the organising principle of the plot of a narrative, or involved in binding together the summary of a text. Thus, coherence relates to the basic meaning of a text.

2.9.3 Narrative Structure as a Means of Analysing Experience

Labov & Waletzky (1966) and Labov (1972) go one stage further and propose the structure of narrative as a means for analysing personal experience, such as the account of an accident or other traumatic/emotion-packed event. Looking at the expression of the (traumatic) experience as an organic whole, the narrative structure suggests the following lines of textual analysis:

Abstract: providing a summary or encapsulation of the story

Orientation: identifying the time, place, persons, activities and situations; usually marked by the past continuous tense

Evaluation: indicating the point or interest of the story

Narrative clauses: characterised by the simple past, sometimes simple present tense; and unmarked word order

Result: saying what finally happened

Coda: signalling the end.

The analysis of the account of a personal experience in terms of narrative structure can proceed only if the stages are coherently presented and the whole hangs together. Thus, coherence is crucial to the meaningful existence of any linguistic structure or genre.

Check Your Progress 8

- 1) What are the factors which bring about coherence in a text?

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2.10 LET US SUM UP

Now that you've read this unit, are you more comfortable with the notion of text/discourse? It seems less intimidating, doesn't it? Also do you see the relevance of it for any kind of linguistic description? In fact, we hope that you have now realized the limitations of the sentence-based approach. You have also understood why it became necessary and inevitable to include the discourse perspective in our understanding of language. The technical terms used, should be taken in the right spirit. Don't let them worry you. After you read this unit a couple of times, they will become part of your repertoire.

2.11 KEY WORDS

- Rhetoric : The study of style through grammatical and logical analysis.
- Standard variety : The variety of a language which has the highest status in a nation, and is usually based on the speech/writing of the educated native speakers of the language.

Ethnography	: The study of the life and culture of a society or ethnic group, especially by personal observation.
Stylistic variation	: Differences in the speech or writing of a person or group of people according to the situation, the addressee(s) and the location.
Process of standardization	: The process of making some aspect of language usage conform to a standard variety. This is usually implemented by a government authority.
Sociolinguistics	: The study of language in relation to social factors, i.e. social class, educational level, age, sex, ethnic origin, etc.
Authenticity	: Texts which are taken from natural speech or writing.
Deviant	: Any pronunciation, word, or sentence structure which does not conform to the norm.
Turn-taking	: In conversation, the roles of speaker and listener change constantly. The person who speaks first becomes a listener as soon as the person addressed to takes his or her turn in the conversation by beginning to speak.
Feedback	: In Discourse Analysis, the feedback given while some one is speaking is sometimes called backchannel cues , for example comments such as ‘uh’, ‘yes’, ‘really’, smiles, headshakes which indicate success or failure of communication.
Repair	: (In Conversational Analysis) A term for ways in which errors or misunderstandings are corrected by speakers or others during conversation.
Presupposition	: What the speaker or writer assumes that the receiver of the message already knows.
Ellipsis	: The leaving out of words or phrases from sentences when they are unnecessary because they have already been referred to or mentioned Example: Anil went to the window and (he) opened it (subject ellipses). Mary ate a mango and Sunita (ate) a pear. (verb ellipsis)
Theme	: (In discourse analysis) Refers to information that is not new to the reader or listener.
Rheme	: Refers to new information, not known to the listener or reader.
Variation	: Differences in pronunciation, grammar or word choice within a language. Variation in a language may be related to region, to social class or to the degree or formality of a situation in which language is used.
Semantics	: The study of meaning.

Pragmatics	: The study of the use of language in communication particularly the relationships between sentences and the contexts and situations in which they are used.
Speech event	: A particular instance when people exchange speech, e.g. an exchange or greeting, an enquiry, a conversation.
Speech situation	: Any situation which is associated with speech, e.g. a classroom lesson, a party.
Performative	: (In speech act theory) an utterance which performs an act, such as 'look out' (= a warning), 'I promise not to do that again' (=a promise).
Frame or scripts	: Units of meaning consisting of sequences of events and actions that are related to particular situations. For example a "restaurant frame script" would have the knowledge that a restaurant is a place where waiters and cooks work, where food is served to customers, and so on. And knowledge of this frame/script helps us to understand texts pertaining to restaurants.
Schemata	: Different kinds of text have different kinds of underlying structure.

2.12 SUGGESTED READINGS

Brown & Yule, 1983. *Discourse Analysis*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Hatch, Evelyn. 1992. *Discourse and Language Education*, Cambridge University Press.

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Halliday, M. A. K., & Hasan, R. 1976. *Cohesion in English*. English Language Series, London: Longman.

Philip N. Johnson-Laird, *Mental Models of Meaning*. In A. Joshi, Bruce H. Weber & Ivan A. Sag (eds.), *Elements of Discourse Understanding*, Cambridge University Press.

Stubbs, Michael. 1991 *Discourse Analysis: The Sociolinguistic Analysis of Natural Language*. Wiley Blackwell.

2.13 ANSWERS

Check Your Progress 1

- 1)
 - i) Language occurring in speech is totally ignored.
 - ii) Only standard variety of language studied.
 - iii) Sentences which are not in any context are studied.
- 2) Sentences which are not in any context are studied.

These are merely cues to help you answer.

	Text	Sentence
1)	In a text (especially oral) sentences not necessarily complete - may break off in the middle	Grammatically correct and well-structured
2)	Part of a context – both textual and social	Sentences looked at in isolation from the context or social situation

- 3) Yes it would, because
- i) Students would work with authentic language.
 - ii) They would analyse both the spoken and written form of language.
 - iii) They would be able to understand language in context.

Check Your Progress 2

- 1) Research in sociolinguistics, in ethnography, and in communication, heralded a radically different conception of language. Authenticity, what was actually being said, began to be more important than an abstract standard of grammatical perfection. So, the actual utterance, however imperfect or deviant it might appear, became the object of the linguist's attention, making the context of utterance crucial, and variation of all kinds, the normal condition of speech.
- 2) The limitations are:
 - i) unable to capture authentic language.
 - ii) unable to absorb the context of utterances.
 - iii) unable to fully look at the meaning of sentence.
- 3)
 - i) the study of the functions language performs in social contexts
 - ii) the interaction between grammatical form and function and
 - iii) grammatical form looked at from a functional perspective. It is argued that the text and not the isolated sentence is the basis of language.

Check Your Progress 3

- 1) **Co-text:** A text is built up on the basis of interrelations in sentences/clauses. Such interrelationships are crucial to language and cannot be ignored. This is the textual context, or 'co-text' which is essential for the expression of meaning.

Context of situation: This relates to the relationship of participants in a discourse, degree of politeness required because of the relationship and the topic being discussed, etc.

- 2) **Components features:**
 - i) speaker-hearer/writer-reader interactional
 - ii) Ethnographic information which relates to cultural conventions and norms of behavior in a society.

Check Your Progress 4

- 1) Speech Act - an utterance as a functional unit in communication. There are many different kinds of speech acts, such as requests, orders, commands, complaints, promises.

Check Your Progress 5

Do it yourself.

Check Your Progress 6

- 1) 'Such a measure' refers to the whole of the previous sentence, 'Road maintenance crews try to reduce the danger of skidding by scattering sand upon the road surfaces.' It is an instance of 'substitution'. 'Its' in 'Its main drawback' refers to 'such a measure'. It is an instance of 'reference'. The phrase, 'the whole process' substitutes for 'Its' which again refers to 'such a measure'. 'The snowfalls' in the last sentence refers back to all the previous mentions of 'snowfalls'. The last 'it' refers to 'the whole process' and everything that 'the whole process' stands for.

Check Your Progress 7

One hundred years ago going to the dentist was a very painful experience, **and** many people did not go **until** their jaws swelled up, **and** they had terrible toothaches. **Now** people know how important it is to see the dentist regularly, **and** it is not painful, **because** the dentist uses anaesthetics **that** kill pain. There are two kinds of anaesthetic **that** the dentist most often uses. **He** may give his patient an injection of novocin, **which** is a drug that makes the whole area **that** he is going to work on numb. **When** he is going to pull a tooth, **he** may give the patient a little gas, **so** he will go to sleep while the dentist is doing his work.

Check Your Progress 8

Theme, plot, summary.