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Course in Discourse Analysis

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Course in Discourse Analysis

By Dr. Elbah Zoulaikha

Level: Master one

Specialty: Didactics of Languages and Foreign Cultures

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SEMESTER ONE LECTURES

Required Bibliography:

Students are asked to skim through the following resources:

- Brown, G., & Yule, G. (1983). *Discourse analysis*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Coulthard, M. (1985). *Introduction to Discourse Analysis*. London: Longman.
- Nunan, D. (1993). *Introducing Discourse Analysis*. London: Penguin English.

Course Description

Discourse Analysis is interested in the analysis of spoken, written, sign or any other discourse in its context of use. It is an interdisciplinary field of study that draws on several disciplines. Also, discourse analysis findings are of interest to different practitioners in different fields. In our context, Discourse Analysis Course is addressed to master one students, and aims at introducing them to the field of discourse analysis. It tackles different topics, including, discourse analysis theoretical assumptions, comparing and contrasting spoken and written discourses, addressing linguistic structures, cohesion and coherence, etc. It also includes examples of analysed discourse using different analytical tools, and directs students to check other ones. Taking Discourse Analysis Course is an opportunity for students to have access to theoretical conceptualization and methodology related to discourse analysis. This would prepare them to try out different discourse analysis methods in future research.

Course Main Objectives

The main objectives of this course are:

- To acquaint students with discourse analysis methodology.
- To develop skills in analysing both spoken and written discourses.
- To prepare students to apply discourse analysis methods in their own research.

Course Schedule

Month	Week	Content
September	4	First contact with students
October	1	<p style="text-align: center;">General Introduction to the Module</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. General Introduction 2. Objectives of the Module 3. Conceptual Card 4. Pre-requisites 5. Diagnostic Test 6. Evaluation
	2	<p style="text-align: center;">Unit One: Introduction to Discourse Analysis</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Discourse Analysis: A New Theory and Method 2. Language: A Context-Bound Discourse 3. Language and Culture: From Codes to Social Semiotics 4. Discourse: A Fuzzy Concept 5. Text Analysis vs Discourse Analysis 6. Small ‘d’ discourse vs Capital ‘D’ Discourse 7. Code-Based Discourse and Other Discourses 8. Types of Discourse <p style="text-align: center;">Homework Assignment</p>
	3	<p style="text-align: center;">Unit Two: Spoken vs Written Discourse</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Introduction 2. Differences Between Spoken and Written Discourses <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 2.1 Grammatical Intricacy 2.2 Lexical Density 2.3 Nominalization and Grammatical Metaphor 2.4 Explicitness

		2.5 Contextualization 2.6 Spontaneity 2.7 Repetition, Hesitation, and Redundancy
		Unit Three: Cohesion
	4	1. Cohesion 1.1 Reference a- Personal Reference b- Demonstrative Reference c- Comparative Reference: 1.2 Substitution a- Nominal Substitution b- Verbal Substitution c- Clausal Substitution 1.3 Ellipsis a- Nominal Ellipsis b- Verbal Ellipsis c- Clausal Ellipsis 1.4 Conjunction a- Adversative b- Additive c- Temporal d- Causal
	1	1.5 Lexical Cohesion. a- Reiteration b- Collocation
		Formative Test I
	2	Unit Four: Coherence
		1. Coherence 2. Local Coherence vs Global Coherence
		Unit Five: Linguistic Structures
	3	1. Linguistic Structures 1.1 Text Types

November		1.2 Genre & Generic Structure 1.3 Genre & Register 1.4 Rhetorical Patterns
	4	1.5 Adjacency Pairs 1.6 Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) Model. Homework Assignment
December	1	Unit Six: How to Analyse Discourse 1. Transcription Conventions 2. Steps Involved in Analyzing Discourse
	2	3. Gee's (2005) Seven Building Tasks Homework Assignment Formative Test II First Semester Test
	3	Winter Holidays
	4	Winter Holidays
	1	First Semester Exam Homework Assignment for Second Semester
January	1	First Semester Exam Homework Assignment for Second Semester

Further reading

The books listed above are useful resources for those who need further details.

Requirements

Doing different assignments is compulsory.

General Introduction to the Module

Objectives

- Clarify the sphere of investigation of Discourse Analysis.
- Explain the importance of integrating Discourse Studies in different fields and disciplines.
- Introduce students to the main tracks within the module.
- Clarify the objectives of the module.
- Supply students with important resources meant for both compulsory and extra readings.
- Discuss the pre-requisites students should have in order to get the maximum of the course.
- Check students' readiness to deal with the field of DA and CDA.
- Clarify the evaluation procedure, grading process, types of questions, etc.

1. General Introduction

Discourse Analysis is an interdisciplinary field of study (Gee & Handford, 2013). As its name indicates, Discourse Analysis is intended to analyse discourse defined as language in use rather than language in isolation (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000). However, as language is used in all everyday social practices, DA ends up being an interesting methodology in different fields, including: linguistics, forensic investigations, language teaching, literature, education, economics, business, etc. This gave rise to a plethora of approaches and methods within DA as well as Critical Discourse Analysis (an offshoot of DA). Findings within both DA and CDA (Critical Discourse Analysis) would enable theorists and practitioners in different research areas to describe and explain the wide range of linguistic and non-linguistic phenomena. Also, DA importance lies especially in considering the hybrid, multi-modeled, dynamic, constructed and constructive nature of reality (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000; Chouliaraki & Fairclough, 1999; Gee, 1999). Studying DA is an opportunity for students to question a great deal of taken-for-granted assumptions about every day social practices. They would also understand how meaning is communicated not only via words, but also via gestures, facial expressions, bodily movements, silence, action, etc. both consciously and unconsciously (Gee, 1999; van Dijk, 1998; Wodak & Meyer, 2001).

2. Objectives of the Module

- Define Discourse Analysis and Critical Discourse Analysis
- Explain major differences between DA and CDA
- Identify steps to analyse discourse.
- Study examples of DA.
- Analyse discourse for cohesion, coherence, and some linguistic structures.
- Compare and contrast spoken and written discourses.

3. Conceptual Card



4. Pre-requisites

If students want to get the maximum of DA course, they need to have some basic knowledge about:

- What is discourse analysis?
- What does it study?
- The different methods within discourse analysis.

5. Diagnostic Test

So as to make sure students have the least knowledge they need to tackle DA course, they need to pass the diagnostic test. Below is an example of a diagnostic test with keys.

Diagnostic Test

1. Give a brief definition to the word 'discourse'.
2. How is the word 'discourse' related to those of 'language' and 'culture'?
3. Complete the following sentence:
In day-to day communication, interlocutors make use of linguistic behavior, i.e., words, interjections, phrases, sentences, etc., as well as non-linguistic behavior including:,,
4. Say whether the following statement are true or false:
 - a- Initially, written discourse has taken place to fulfill other functions than those fulfilled by spoken discourse.
 - b- When analysing a dialogue, for instance, we have to take into account the relationship between interlocutors.
 - c- Analysing 'action' and 'interaction' is unimportant in DA.
5. How does Pragmatics relate to DA?
6. Tick the appropriate answer.
The term 'ideology' interests:
 - a- Discourse analysts.
 - b- Critical discourse analysts.
7. Underline the cohesive ties in the following set of expressions:
Ellipsis, interjection, conjunction, discourse markers, copula, collocation, reference, predicate.
8. What is a coherent text?
9. Register is established by:,, and
10. Who is the founder of Speech Act Theory?

Keys

1. Discourse has not received an agreed-upon definition. It is used in different ways by different scholars. However, it can be briefly defined as *language in use* or *language use*.
2. Before discourse analysis, language is defined as an isolated linguistic system, and culture is defined as a set of social traits including: music, food, clothes, history, etc. of a given social group. With the advent of discourse studies (DA), both linguistic (language) and non-linguistic phenomena (culture) are understood as dynamic social practices (discourses).
3. In day-to day communication, interlocutors make use of linguistic behavior, i.e., words, interjections, phrases, sentences, etc., as well as non-linguistic behavior including: **gestures, body language, and facial expressions.**
4.
 - a- Initially, written discourse has taken place to fulfill other functions than those fulfilled by spoken discourse. **True**
 - b- When analysing a dialogue, for instance, we have to take into account the relationship between interlocutors. **True**
 - c- Analysing 'action' and 'interaction' is unimportant in DA. **False**
5. Pragmatics is a theory of Action (being a linguistic act or a non-linguistic one). Action is analysed as an important aspect of discourse.
6.
 - a- Discourse analysts.
 - b- Critical discourse analysts. ✓**
7. Ellipsis, interjection, conjunction, discourse markers, copula, collocation, reference, predicate.
8. A text is coherent if it **makes sense** as a whole.
9. Register is established by: **field, tenor, and mode.**
10. **The founder of speech act theory is John Langshaw Austin.**

If students are not satisfied with the diagnostic test results, they are invited to skim through David Nunan's (1993) *Introducing Discourse Analysis*.

6. Evaluation

➤ Evaluation Criteria (Test)

Criteria	Attendance	Homework	Oral Test	Creativity	Written Test
Points	03	03	/	2	12

➤ Evaluation Criteria (Exam)

Criteria	Attendance	Homework	Oral Test	Creativity	Written Test
Points	/	/	/	/	20

References

Brown, G., & Yule, G. (1983). *Discourse analysis*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Celce-Murcia, M., & Olshtain, E. (2000). *Discourse and context in language teaching: A guide for language teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Chouliaraki, L & Fairclough, N. (1999). *Discourse in late modernity: Rethinking critical discourse analysis*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.

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Unit One: Introduction to Discourse Analysis

Objectives

- Define DA as an interdisciplinary approach.
- Define the term ‘discourse’.
- Explain the shift from ‘language in isolation’ to ‘language in use’.
- Define language and culture as social practices rather than codes.
- Explain the shift from structuralist paradigm to post-modernist one to understanding reality (meaning).
- Contrast Text Analysis with Discourse Analysis.
- Explain Gee’s dichotomy: Little ‘d’ discourse and capital ‘D’ Discourse.
- Study major types of discourse.

1. Discourse Analysis: A New Theory and Method

Discourse Analysis (hereafter DA) is an interdisciplinary approach that took place in the late 1960’s and through 1970’s. It is interested in analysing *language in use* rather than *language in isolation* (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000). This has necessitated adopting not only a new analysing methodology, but a new theoretical understanding to reality as well. Discourse Analysis is based on a social constructivist view to reality that considers language on the spot (Gee, 1999) i.e., language in its context of use. Accordingly, DA has introduced a shift from understanding meaning as a static entity to a dynamic, constructed, relational, situated and relative one (Brown & Yule, 1983; Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000; Chouliaraki & Fairclough, 1999; Gee, 1999). Burr (2015, p. 9) explains that “Social constructionism denies that our knowledge is a direct perception of reality. Instead, as a culture or society we construct our own versions of reality between us”.

2. Language: A Context-Bound Discourse

The shift towards considering language as a dynamic constructed reality has redefined language as *a context-bound discourse*. It has also necessitated a reconsideration of the relation between language and context (situation). To clarify, before the advent of DA, language-context relation was understood in a one-way direction. That is, *linguistic structures* and *contexts of use*

are understood and taught as predetermined dichotomies. With the advent of DA, language-context relation is understood within a bi-directional way. To explain, we can refer to Gee's magical property which states that "when we speak or write, we design what we have to say to fit the situation in which we are communicating. But, at the same time, how we speak or write creates that very situation" (Gee, 2005, p. 10). In simple words, language both construes and is constructed by the situation. Also, considering the dynamic character of reality (meaning), we can also state that the relation between discourse and context has shifted from a monologic conception to a dialectical one (Fairclough, 1992; Rogers, 2011). Now, as discourse construes and is constructed by the context, it becomes difficult to claim for any boundaries between both (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000).

3. Language and Culture: From Codes to Social Practices

With the advent of DA, there has been a shift from considering language and culture as codes to understanding them as social practices. First, within linguistics, the concept of language has experienced a shift from a structuralist view to a poststructuralist one (Lewis, 2002). Within the structuralist paradigm, language is defined as a code, a set of systematic rules which stand by their own "Language exists as an entity in its own right and is largely detached from its users" (Kohler, 2015, p. 18). That is, meaning is structural, and there is no consideration of contextual elements. However, an analysis of different linguistic structures has revealed that the structure alone is not sufficient to decide for the meaning of a given utterance. This has been confirmed especially when the same utterance stands for different meanings in different contexts.

Within the post- structuralist paradigm, understanding language is associated with a social semiotic view to meaning-making process as a social practice. Mikula (2008, p. 181) explains that "Social semiotics...takes a poststructuralist approach in emphasizing the social dimension of representation and consumption. Its aim is to uncover how meaning is generated, maintained, challenged or subverted". Lewis adds that "all efforts to form language into orderly patterns, categories, systems or *langue* merely corrupt the context in which the discourse is operating. Order, that is, is imposed by the structuralist and is not a characteristic of language itself" (Lewis, 2002, p. 159).

Accordingly, analyzing a stretch of discourse is not an easy task to achieve, especially as meanings "are "jerry-rigged" on the spot in integral interaction with context" (Gee, 2005, p.

64). Schiffrin, Tannen, and Hamilton (2015) refer as ‘a curse of discourse’, i.e., “the directions in which its meanings may fan out are limitless” (2015, p. 7). Yet, doing discourse analysis is a matter of focus on those elements which all work towards creating a given meaning, rather than another. Samuel Butler states

Everything must be studied from the point of view of itself, as near as we can get to this, and from the point of view of its relations, as near as we can get to them. If we try to see it absolutely in itself, unalloyed with relations, we shall find, by and by, that we have, as it were, whittled it away. If we try to see it in its relations to the bitter end, we shall find that there is no corner of the universe into which it does not enter. (as cited in Brown & Yule, 1983, p. x)

The term culture has also experienced a shift from a predefined static conceptualization to a dynamic one. This takes place as culture has historically been defined within a shared national paradigm which signals cultural belonging. A given culture is hence defined by reference to a shared language, history, land, music, food, etc. and exists in opposition to other ones. Within a post-structuralist paradigm, culture is defined as a dynamic process that experiences change. Say it another way, culture refers to the sum of linguistic and non-linguistic phenomena that exist within a dialectical relationship (Hall, 1980). In short, by adopting a social semiotic perspective to meaning-making process, the phenomena of language and culture are understood as discourses or social practices (Kramsch, 2006, 2012).

4. Discourse: A Fuzzy Concept

The term discourse is used in different ways by different scholars. Sometimes, it is used interchangeably with that of ‘text’. Some of the definitions given to both terms include:

- Crystal (1992, p. 25) defines discourse as “a continuous stretch of (especially spoken) language larger than a sentence, often constituting a coherent unit, such as a sermon, argument, joke or narrative”.
- Crystal (1992, p. 72) defines text as “A piece of naturally occurring spoken, written, or signed discourse identified for purposes of analysis. It is often a language unit with a definable communicative function, such as a conversation, a poster”.
- Cook (1989, p. 156) defines discourse as “a stretch of language perceived to be meaningful, unified, and purposive”.

- Cook (1989, p. 158) defines text as “a stretch of language interpreted formally, without context”.
- Brown and Yule (1983, p. 1) define discourse as “Language in use”.
- Nunan (1993, p. 6) states that “discourse brings together language, the individuals producing the language, and the **context** within which the language is used”.

Clearly, for some scholars, Crystal for instance, discourse and text are used interchangeably. For Cook, while text refers to language outside context of use, discourse refers to language in context. Brown and Yule use the expression ‘language in use’ to foster the importance of context, and Nunan identifies the elements included in considering this latter. The term discourse is also used to refer to different domains like: legal discourse, political discourse, media discourse, educational discourse, etc. (Schiffrin et al., 2015).

5. Text Analysis vs Discourse Analysis

Nunan (1993, p. 20) states that “Text analysis is the study of formal linguistic devices that distinguish a text from random sentences.” He adds that “Discourse analysts also study these text-forming devices. However, they do so with reference to the purposes and functions for which the discourse is produced, as well as the context within which the discourse was created. Their ultimate aim is to show how the linguistic elements enable language users to communicate in context” (p. 20)

6. Small ‘d’ discourse vs Capital ‘D’ Discourse

As mentioned above, different scholars have suggested different methods to analyse discourse. Most of the time, these methods are accompanied with a certain terminology with a certain conceptualization. Little ‘d’ discourse and Capital ‘D’ Discourse is a dichotomy suggested by James Paul Gee. He (1990, p. 142) states that “‘discourse’ with a little ‘d’, I will use for connected stretches of language that make sense, like conversations, stories, reports, arguments, essays [...] Discourses are ways of being in the world, or forms of life which integrate words, acts, values, beliefs, attitudes, social identities, as well as gestures, glances, body positions and clothes”.

7. Code-Based Discourse and Other Discourses

As mentioned above, in order to consider the contextual nature of language, there has been a shift towards adopting the term ‘discourse’ instead of that of ‘language’. Roughly speaking, we can say that the analysis of a stretch of discourse would reveal generally two types of discourses: A *code-based discourse* that is related to the linguistic system or the code, and *other discourses* that classify a stretch of discourse within different categories including a field of study (e.g., scholarly discourse, economics discourse, medicine discourse, etc.), and/or a given ideology (religious discourses, political discourse, ethnic discourse, etc).

8. Types of Discourse

Nunan (1993) states that one way in which discourses can be classified is into three major types: Transactional, interpersonal, and aesthetic discourses.

- a- Transactional discourse: “is that which occurs when the participants are concerned with the exchange of goods and services” (p. 18). A dialogue between co-workers about work issues is a transactional discourse.
- b- Interpersonal discourse: “occurs when the speakers are less concerned with the exchange of goods and services, than with socializing” (p. 18). A conversation between two friends about their holiday planning is of this type.
- c- Aesthetic discourse: “Here, the primary purpose is neither to secure goods and services, nor to ‘oil the wheels of social life’. Rather, it fulfils an expressive or aesthetic function” (p. 19). Poetry, screenplays, fiction, drama are all examples of aesthetic discourse.

However, Nunan (1993) states that these discourse types do not exclude each other. For instance, “Many interactions that are essentially transactional in nature will also exhibit social functions, while essentially social interactions can contain transactional elements” (p. 18).

Homework Assignment

Task 1: Say whether the following statements are true or false.

1. Linguistic structures are predetermined by the context of use.
2. Within a post-modernist view to reality, language and culture are understood as codes.

3. In discourse analysis, the analysis of contextual elements is optional.
4. There is no clear distinctive line between discourse and context.

Task 2: Spot out the false statement, then underline it.

1. Discourse is multimodal.
2. Discourse Analysis is an interdisciplinary field of study.
3. Within the structuralist paradigm, reality is constructed.
4. Social constructivism denies that there is a reality independent of human thought and language.

Task 3: Mention four differences between structuralism and social constructivism. Write them in the table below.

Structuralism	Social Constructivism
-	-
-	-
-	-
-	-

Task 4: Tick the appropriate answer.

1. The term discourse refers to
 - a- Language and context.
 - b- Language in context.
2. Capital 'D' Discourse refers to
 - a- Linguistic membership.
 - b- Ideological membership
3. Shared national paradigm is an expression used to refer to
 - a- Culture as dynamic entity.
 - b- Culture as static entity.
4. Co-workers use:
 - a- Transactional discourse.
 - b- Interpersonal discourse.

c- Transactional and/or interpersonal discourse.

Task 5: Answer briefly and using your own words the following question.

1. What is the difference between the terms ‘language’ and ‘discourse’?
2. What makes DA an interdisciplinary approach?
3. What’s the difference between text analysis and discourse analysis referring to Nunan’s (1993) understanding of the terms?

Keys

Task 1

1. Linguistic structures are predetermined by the context of use. **False**
2. Within a post-modernist view to reality, language and culture are understood as codes. **False**
3. In discourse analysis, the analysis of contextual elements is optional. **False**
4. There is no clear distinctive line between discourse and context. **True**

Task 2

5. Discourse is multimodal. Interdisciplinary
6. Discourse Analysis is an interdisciplinary field of study.
7. Within structuralist paradigm, reality is constructed.
8. Social constructivism denies that there is a reality independent of human thought and language.

Task 3

Structuralism	Social Constructivism
- Language is a static entity - Language in isolation - Textual elements - Language and culture are codes	- Language is a dynamic entity. - Language in use - Textual and contextual elements - Language and culture are social practices

Task 4

1. The term discourse refers to
 - a- Language and context.
 - b- Language in context. ✓
2. Capital 'D' Discourse refers to
 - a- Linguistic membership.
 - b- Ideological membership. ✓
3. Shared national paradigm is an expression used to refer to
 - a- Culture as dynamic entity.
 - b- Culture as static entity. ✓
4. Co-workers use:
 - a- Transactional discourse.
 - b- Interpersonal discourse.
 - c- Transactional and/or interpersonal discourse. ✓

Task 5

1. **Language is used to refer to language as an isolated system of linguistic structures. Whereas, discourse refers to language in use. It is adopted to consider the dynamic and constructed nature of language.**
2. **DA uses findings in other fields of study. It also supplies them with its own findings.**
3. **Text analysis studies formal linguistic devices. Discourse analysis also studies formal linguistic devices, but with reference to the context, purpose, and function of discourse.**

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- Brown, G., & Yule, G. (1983). *Discourse analysis*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Burr, V. (2015). *Social constructionism* (3rd ed.). Hove: Routledge.
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Unit Two: Spoken vs Written Discourse

Objectives

- Explain the reasons behind the emergence of written discourse.
- Explain the different functions fulfilled by spoken and/or written discourse.
- State some similarities between spoken discourse and written discourse.
- State some differences between spoken discourse and written discourse.
- Analyse spoken and written discourses for: grammatical intricacy, lexical density, repetition, hesitation, redundancy, etc.
- Analyse spoken and written discourses for similarities and differences.
- Classify spoken and written discourses in terms of a continuum rather than predefined rigid categories.

1. Introduction

Spoken discourse has emerged before written discourse. After that, written discourse has taken place to fulfill communicative needs which could not be met by spoken discourse (Halliday, 1985). Nunan (1993, p. 8) explains that “with the emergence of cultures based on agriculture rather than hunting and gathering, people needed permanent records which could be referred to over and over again. This led to the emergence of a new form of language – writing”. In other words, both spoken and written discourses are used to fulfill different communicative tasks. The choice is determined by the context and purpose. Yet, it is important to mention that some communicative functions like giving and receiving information, getting entertained, giving orders, stating instructions, advising, etc. can be met using both forms. Also, both discourses display different formal characteristics and include different sub-categories or genres.

2. Differences Between Spoken and Written Discourses

In *Discourse Analysis: An Introduction* (2006), Brian Paltridge sets the following differences between spoken and written discourses.

2.1 Grammatical Intricacy

It is commonly claimed that written discourse is more structurally complex and more elaborate than spoken discourse. In other words, sentences in spoken discourse are short and simple, whereas in written discourse, they are longer and more complex. However, both Halliday (1989) and Nunan (2003) claim that each type has its own kind of complexity. Nunan explains that “Linguistically, written language tends to consist of clauses that are internally complex, whereas with spoken language the complexity exists in the ways in which clauses are joined together ... in an additive fashion” (1993, pp. 10-11).

Example:

➤ Written Discourse

“Like Vincent d’Indy, a disciple of Cesar Frank, Chausson shares with them a dreamy, even idle poetry, sumptuous but precise orchestration, and an energy that is intimate rather than powerful, ascetic rather than importunate” (Mordden as cited in Nunan, 1993, p. 10).

➤ Spoken Discourse

“This morning Associate Professor Dean Wolfe will talk about the science of music at half-past eleven, and we’ll hear some fascinating things such as musicians playing music backwards – but most of it will be played forwards!” (Nunan, 1993, p. 10).

2.2 Lexical Density

Lexical density is defined as “the ratio of content words to grammatical, or function words, within a clause” (Paltridge, 2006, p. 14). Content words or lexical words include: *nouns, verbs, adjectives, and some adverbs* (for instance, ‘then’ and ‘why’ are not content words). The Grammatical words include: prepositions, articles, conjunctions, pronouns, etc. Halliday (1989) also states that written discourse tends to be more lexically dense than spoken discourse.

Example:

➤ Written Discourse

“The use of this method of control unquestionably leads to safer and faster trains running in the most adverse weather conditions” (Nunan, 1993, p. 11).

In this example, there are 12 content words and there is one clause (one finite verb). Hence, the lexical density is $12/1= 12$.

➤ **Spoken Discourse**

“You can control the trains this way and if you do that you can be quite sure that they’ll be able to run more safely and more quickly than they would otherwise no matter how bad the weather gets” (Nunan, 1993, p. 10).

In this example, there are 12 content words and there are 5 clauses. Hence, the lexical density is $12/5= 2.4$.

N.B: Nunan (1993, p. 12) claims that “there are ten content words (control, trains, way, sure, run, safely, quickly, bad, weather, gets)” in the above spoken discourse. However, we do claim that ‘do’ and ‘be’ are content words since they are verbs.

2.3 Nominalization and Grammatical Metaphor

It is also claimed that written discourse has a high level of nominalization in comparison with spoken discourse. That is, there are more nouns than verbs in written discourse. Nominalization takes place when “actions and events are presented as nouns rather than as verbs. Halliday (1989) calls this phenomenon *grammatical metaphor*; that is, where a language item is transferred from a more expected grammatical class to another” (Nunan, p. 15). Nunan explains that Halliday “suggests that the spoken forms are in a sense more basic than written forms and that, in writing, by turning verbs into nouns, we have altered the normal state of events” (Nunan, 1993, p. 12).

Example:

➤ **Written Discourse**

“Reflection is a characteristic of good writers” (Nunan, 1993, p. 12).

➤ **Spoken Discourse**

“Good writers reflect on what they write” (Nunan, 1993, p. 12).

2.4 Explicitness

It is also commonly believed that writing is more explicit than speech. This takes place as in written discourse we lack body language, gestures, facial expressions, and other contextual

elements which foster meaning. However, Paltridge (2006) states that this is not absolute, and it depends on the purpose of the text. That is, “A person can state something directly, or infer something, in both speaking and writing, depending upon what they want the listener or reader to understand, and how direct they wish to be” (p. 16). For instance, poetry is not necessarily explicit. Also, a university lecture is expected to be explicit.

2.5 Contextualization

It is also commonly believed that writing is more decontextualized than speech. This view claims that a shared situation and background are necessary for the interpretation of a given spoken discourse, whereas written discourse does not depend on a shared context (Paltridge, 2006). Paltridge refutes such claim stating that

Spoken genres, such as academic lectures, for example, do not generally show a high dependence on a shared context, while written genres such as personal letters or memos do. Both written fiction and non-fiction may also depend on background information supplied by the reader and an active role of the reader to enter into the world of the text (p. 17).

2.6 Spontaneity

This claim states that spoken discourse is disorganized and ungrammatical, whereas written discourse is organized and grammatical (Paltridge, 2006). This is based on the fact that spoken discourse is often produced spontaneously. Hence, it shows the following characteristics:

- It contains half-completed and reformulated utterances.
- Topics can be changed in the middle of the speech.
- Speakers may overlap with and interrupt each other.
- Speakers can ask for clarification and they can correct what they have said.
- Intonation, gesture, and body language. (Paltridge, 2006, pp. 17-18)

However, Paltridge claims that the above features are what characterize spoken discourse, and they do not make it an unorganized product. In other words, both written discourse and spoken discourse are organized, but in different ways due to showing different characteristics. He also

adds that written discourse passes as well through different stages, and what we receive is the final product of a long process of reformulation and adjustment.

2.7 Repetition, Hesitation, and Redundancy

Spoken discourse contains more repetition, hesitations, and redundancy than written discourse. Paltridge explains that “This is because it is produced in real time, with speakers working out what they want to say at the same time as they are saying it” (p. 18). The use of pauses and fillers (such as ‘hhh’, ‘you know’, etc.) are further characteristics of spoken discourse. Paltridge explains that “Speakers do this to give them time to think about what they want to say while they are speaking. They also do this to hold on to their turn in the conversation while they are thinking about what they want to say, and how they will say it” (p. 18)

Nunan states that “The differences between spoken and written modes are not absolute, and the characteristics that we tend to associate with written language can sometimes occur in spoken language and vice versa” (Nunan, 1993, p. 9). Also, Paltridge (2006) argues that differences between spoken discourse and written one are better referred to in terms of a continuum “from texts which are more involved interpersonally such as some casual conversations, to texts which are more detached such as some written public notices” (p. 18).

Homework Assignment

Task 1: Say whether the following statements are true or false.

1. Spoken discourse and written discourse fulfill different functions.
2. Spoken discourse is context-bound whereas written discourse is context-free.
3. Halliday (1989) states that apart from lexical density, grammatical metaphor is also a characteristic of written discourse.
4. Gaps in spoken discourse are merely filled with gesture and facial expressions.

Task 2: Tick the appropriate answer.

a- Halliday (1985) states that nominalization refers to:

- the process of changing parts of spoken discourse into nouns.
- the process of changing parts of written discourse into nouns.

- the process of changing parts of both spoken discourse and written discourse into nouns.
- b- The writer must make assumptions about the reader's state of knowledge. If incorrect assumptions are made, then communication:
- may be seriously impaired.
 - will be seriously impaired.

Task 3: Find the lexical density of the following sentences.

1. If you invest in a rail facility, this implies commitment for a long term.
2. Investment in a rail facility implies a long term commitment. (adapted from Halliday, 1989, p. 61)

What do you notice?

Task 4: Explain in a paragraph of 10 lines how the differences between spoken and written discourses are not absolute.

Keys

Task 1

1. Spoken discourse and written discourse fulfill different functions. **False** (Some functions can be fulfilled using both forms).
2. Spoken discourse is context-bound whereas written discourse is context-free. **False** (Not always)
3. Halliday (1989) states that apart from lexical density, grammatical metaphor is also a characteristic of written discourse. **True.**
4. Gaps in spoken discourse are merely filled with gesture and facial expressions. **False.**

Task 2

a- Halliday (1985) states that nominalization refers to:

- the process of changing parts of spoken discourse into nouns. ✓
- the process of changing parts of written discourse into nouns.
- the process of changing parts of both spoken discourse and written discourse into nouns.

b- The writer must make assumptions about the reader's state of knowledge. If incorrect assumptions are made, then communication:

- may be seriously impaired. ✓
- will be seriously impaired.

Task 3

1. If you invest in a rail facility, this implies commitment for a long term.

The lexical density is $7/2=3.5$.

2. Investment in a rail facility implies a long term commitment. (adapted from Halliday, 1989, p. 61)

The lexical density is $7/1=1$.

The lexical density of the second sentence is higher than that of the first sentence. As such, it is expected that the first sentence is a spoken discourse. Whereas, the second is a written one.

Task 4

Students can refer to classifying spoken and written discourses within a continuum rather than rigid, predefined categories (Paltridge, 2006).

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Unit Three: Cohesion

Objectives

- Define cohesion.
- Name some cohesive ties.
- Analyse a stretch of discourse for cohesive ties.
- Compare different cohesive ties.
- Explain the different functions fulfilled by spoken and/or written discourse.
- Refer to the relation between substitution and ellipsis.

1. Cohesion

Nunan (1993, p. 21) defines cohesive ties as “words and phrases which enable the writer or speaker to establish relationships across sentence or utterance boundaries, and which help to tie the sentences in a text together”. There are different types of cohesive ties: Reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction, and lexical cohesion.

1.1 Reference

Martin (2001, p. 36) defines reference as "resources for referring to a participant or circumstantial element whose identity is recoverable". Reference can be anaphoric, cataphoric or exophoric. There are three types of reference:

a- Personal Reference

Examples:

- **Peter** is here. **He** can help us. (Pronoun/Anaphoric reference)
- **I** have forgotten **my** book. (Determiner/Anaphoric reference)

b- Demonstrative Reference

Examples

- **Many students do not prepare their lessons.** **This** may affect their comprehension.
(Anaphoric reference)

- **This book** is mine. (Cataphoric reference)

c- **Comparative Reference**

Nunan (1993, p. 24) states that “Comparative reference is expressed through adjectives and adverbs and serves to compare items within a text in terms of identity or similarity”.

Examples

A: Would you like to buy this book?

B: No, as a matter of fact, I’d like to buy the **other** book. (Adjective)

A: The last copy is found in that **big** room. (Adjective)

- She has a **similarly** furnished room to mine. (Adverb)

1.2 Substitution: refers to the substitution of a word or expression by another one. There are three types of substitution: Nominal, verbal, and clausal.

Examples:

a- **Nominal Substitution**

There are some new **books** on the table. These **ones** are interesting.

b- **Verbal Substitution**

A: Jack says that you **eat too much**.

B: So **does** he!

c- **Clausal Substitution**

A: **Is Jack going to Paris?**

B: I think **so** (he is going to Paris).

1.3 Ellipsis:

“Ellipsis occurs when some essential structural element is omitted from a sentence or clause and can only be recovered by referring to an element in the preceding text.” (Nunan, 1993, p. 25). There are nominal, verbal, and clausal ellipses.

Examples:

a- **Nominal Ellipsis**

A: Would you prefer the red dress?

B: No, I prefer the green (0).

b- Verbal Ellipsis

A: Have you done your homework?

B: Yes, I have (0)

c- Clausal Ellipsis

A: Peter is getting married.

B: Is he? he didn't tell me (0)

1.4 Conjunction: Nunan (1993) states that conjunction “signals relationships that can only be fully understood through reference to other parts of the text” (p. 26). He adds that there are four types of conjunction:

a- Adversative: (however, on the other hand, but, etc.).

b- Additive: (and, besides, moreover, etc.)

c- Temporal: (first, then, finally, etc.)

d- Causal: (because, because of, consequently, as a result, etc.)

1.5 Lexical Cohesion: Nunan (1993, p. 28) states that “Lexical cohesion occurs when two words in a text are semantically related in some way – in other words, they are related in terms of their meaning”. He adds that there are two major categories of lexical cohesion: *Reiteration* and *Collocation*.

a- Reiteration: Includes repetition, synonym or near synonym, superordinate, and general word.

Examples:

- I have bought a new **book**. The **book** talks about an adventure. (Repetition)

- The room is **dirty**. I didn't expect it to be **unclean**. (Synonyms)

- **Covid 19** has subverted the world. This **illness** had many victims. (Superordinate)

- A: Did you try the **steamed buns**?

B: Yes, I didn't like the **things** much. (Nunan, 1993, p. 29) (General Word)

b- Collocation: Nunan (1993, p. 29) states that collocation “includes all those items in a text that are semantically related”.

Example: Words or expressions belonging to the same domain (Biology for instance).

Homework Assignment

Analyse the following text for cohesive ties

Most people believed social changes are happening faster than ever. These changes aren't necessarily good ones. They believe things will turn out for the best eventually. Young people are the most comfortable with change. People over 60 admit that changes are difficult. In their personal lives, almost 50 percent of older people are happy with the way things are. They wouldn't change their names, their friends, their spouses, their families, their homes, or their looks. They don't want to change social class either, even if it would mean going to a higher class. Many younger people would change all or some of those factors. Over 80 percent of people polled believed that their personal happiness is a matter of personal effort. As for difficult changes, the death of a spouse is the hardest change to endure. Divorce is the second hardest. Older folks tend to remember high school graduation as a pleasant experience. Most recent graduates disagree.

Source: Clear Transition. Lesson 10. GED Language Arts, Writing.

Keys

The table below includes some of the cohesive ties found in the text.

Cohesive ties	Text
Repetition	Social <u>changes</u> ... <u>changes</u> ... <u>change</u> <u>Things</u> ... <u>things</u> Most <u>people</u> ... <u>people</u> ... young <u>people</u> <u>They</u> believe... <u>They</u> wouldn't... <u>They</u> don't... <u>their</u> names, <u>their</u> friends, <u>their</u> spouses, <u>their</u> families, <u>their</u> homes, or <u>their</u> looks. <u>Personal</u> ... <u>personal</u> ... <u>personal</u>

Demonstrative reference	<u>These</u> changes <u>those</u> factors
Personal reference	Most people...They... their...
General word	These <u>changes</u> ... <u>things</u>
Comparative reference	social changes... faster... good ones... the best... most comfortable... personal lives...social class... higher class... young people... personal happiness... personal effort... difficult changes... hardest change... second hardest... <u>older</u> folks <u>high school</u> graduation ...pleasant experience... most recent graduates.
Conjunction	Eventually
Nominal Substitution	These <u>changes</u> aren't necessarily good <u>ones</u> .
Collocation	personal lives... their names, their friends, their spouses, their families, their homes, or their looks/ social class/ the death of a spouse/divorce/high school graduation

References

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Nunan, D. (1993). *Introducing Discourse Analysis*. London: Penguin English.

Formative Test I

Task 1

Give a brief definition to the following terms using your own words.

- **Social Constructivism**
- **Situated Meaning**
- **Versions of Reality**
- **The Curse of Discourse (Schiffrin, Tannen & Hamilton, 2015)**
- **Gee's (1999) Small (d) Vs. Capital (D) Discourse**

Task 2

From a discursual conceptualization to meaning-making process, discourse and context are understood within a **dialectical** relationship. Explain briefly.

Task 3

What is the difference between modernist and post-modernist understanding to discourse? Illustrate.

Task 4

“all human activities are linguistically and culturally mediated” (Hornberger & McKay, 2010, p. 455). Explain and illustrate.

Task 5

Complete the following statement:

- In order to make sense of discourse, we need three sorts of knowledge:,
..... and

Task 6

Give an example of a text-forming device (cohesive tie).

Task 7

How do the terms co-text and context relate?

Task 8

Nunan states: “some spoken texts will be more like written texts than others, while some written texts will be more like spoken texts than others” (Nunan, 1993, p. 9). Explain.

Task 9

Choose the appropriate answer.

a- The assumptions are defined as:

1. Prior knowledge.
2. Expectations.
3. Non-linguistic behavior.

b- Spoken language and written language:

- 1- are two sides of the same coin.
- 2- fulfil different functions.
- 3- sometimes fulfil different functions.

c- The additive fashion (Nunan, 1993) is a characteristic of:

- 1- Written text.
- 2- Spoken text.
- 3- Both.

Task 10

Say whether the following statements are true or false. Correct, if any, the false ones.

- 1- The generic structure of a text determines whether it is a spoken or a written form.
- 2- Lexical density correlates negatively with the number of clauses.
- 3- In the sentence: "Claire is my friend. I bought her a book", the pronoun 'her' is a cataphoric reference.

Task 11

Complete the following statement.

To decipher a message, the reader needs two sorts of knowledge:
and

Task 12

Find the lexical density of the following text.

"At least 14 people died on Saturday after drinking a cheap alcoholic beverage, raising to 20 the number of people killed by the poisonous brew in two days, news reports said" (Nunan, 1993, p. 2).

Task 13

What type of communicative job(s) (function) is represented in the following dialogue?

Q: Joe, you're saying that he doesn't have to do anything, that naturally attention shifts to the presidential election. And certainly that's true in some respects, but the President is a larger-than-life figure and he's somebody who gets attention every time he opens his mouth.

MR. LOCKHART: Well, we're going to put him on a diet. (Laughter) He's going to be smaller, thinner, less noticeable. (Partington, 2006, p. 136)

- Explain.

Task 14

Gender is socially constructed in discourse. Explain and illustrate briefly.

Task 15

Analyze the following text.

WATCH & CLICK OFFER
Free
A CLICK N SHOOT CAMERA
When you buy

HOME THEATRE

31" flat screen
HI-FI SOUND SYSTEM
COMPETITIVE PRICE

BUT HURRY

This is a limited offer
Open upto 30 March
Contact
Your nearest dealer Today
BRIGHT VISION TELEVISIONS
The promise of a happy home

Keys

Task 1

Social Constructivism: is a paradigm that considers meaning-making process as constructed in social context rather than already existing one. Meaning reflects both a predefined reality and an emerging one.

Situated Meaning: Meaning is contextual. It is constituted by the context where it takes place.

Versions of Reality: Reality is considered to have versions due to the dynamicity of the context. Reality doesn't precede discourse. They take place simultaneously.

The Curse of Discourse (Schiffrin, Tannen & Hamilton, 2015): The meanings to which a stretch of discourse refers are limitless. Hence, the question to be asked is where to stop?

Gee's (1999) Small 'd' vs. Capital 'D' Discourse:

Small 'd' discourse: a stretch of spoken or written discourse, including linguistic and non-linguistic phenomena.

Capital 'D' Discourse: ideological membership (teachers/ mothers/ politicians/ women, etc.) by reference to a given social category (age/ gender/ race/ profession, etc.). It is reflected in ways of talking, clothing, thinking, values, behaviors, eating habits, etc.

Task 2

There is a bi-directional influence between language and context. That is, language both construes and is constructed by the context. Linguistic and non-linguistic behaviors are woven on the spot to give rise to a negotiated dynamic meaning.

Task 3

According to Kramsch (2013), there has been a gradual shift in understanding reality (meaning). This shift is understood especially in relation to two factors: stability vs dynamicity of language as well as separability and inseparability of linguistic and non-linguistic phenomena. Modernist paradigm has included two stages. The first one considers language within a stereotyped manner that does not consider any situational, individual or historical variability. The second stage within the modernist paradigm is characterized by the recognition of the intimate relation between linguistic and non-linguistic phenomena. Yet, there has been no consideration of dynamicity. In contrast to modernism, postmodernism sees linguistic and non-linguistic phenomena as related, dynamic, and constructed entities.

Task 4

All activities are defined as social practices: discourse, education, literature, music, etc. Each one reflects both linguistic and non-linguistic behaviors.

Task 5

- In order to make sense of discourse, we need three sorts of knowledge: **grammar**, **vocabulary** and **coherence** (Nunan, 1993).

Task 6

Reference is an example of a text-forming device.

E.g., **Jack** is here. **He** wants to talk with you. (Anaphoric reference).

Task 7

Co-text is the linguistic environment of a word, a sentence, etc. Co-text is a part of context.

Task 8

There is no clear-cut distinction between both forms. A spoken text can look like a written one and vice versa. To clarify, a spoken text with complete sentences, few or no repetition, complex structure, etc. is likely to be considered a written text. Meanwhile, a written text with many repetitions, paraphrasing, incomplete sentences, simple structure, etc., is likely to be considered a spoken text.

Task 9

a- The assumptions are defined as:

1. Prior knowledge.
2. Expectations. ✓
3. Non-linguistic behavior.

b- Spoken language and written language:

1. are two sides of the same coin.
2. fulfil different functions.
3. sometimes fulfil different functions. ✓

c- The additive fashion (Nunan, 1993) is a characteristic of:

1. Written text.
2. Spoken text. ✓
3. Both.

Task 10

- 1- The generic structure of a text determines whether it is a spoken or a written form.

False.

Not necessarily. A recipe, a message, a recorded note, etc. can be either spoken or written.

- 2- Lexical density correlates negatively with the number of clauses. **True**

3- In the sentence: “Claire is my friend. I bought her a book”, the pronoun ‘her’ is a cataphoric reference. **False.** It is an anaphoric reference.

Task 11

To decipher a message, the reader needs two sorts of knowledge: **code-based discourse** and **other discourses (different *subject matters* like biology, education, etc., and different *ideologies*, including religious ideology, political ideology, ethnic ideology, etc.).**

Task 12

The lexical density is $18/3=6$.

Task 13

- The communicative job(s) represented in the dialogue are *transactional* and *interpersonal*.

Explain:

- **Transactional:** because the dialogue takes place in a context of changing goods and services (the interlocutors are co-workers).
- **Interpersonal:** because the interlocutors have an intimate relationship. There is a play on words (a pun) “we’re going to put him on a diet. (Laughter)”.

Task 14

Students should refer to varieties between male and female discourses at different levels.

Task 15

The analysis of the text should consider the following elements:

- The arrangement of ideas from the most important, attractive, influential, etc. to the least important, attractive, influential, etc.
- The writing style: size, colour, paragraph spacing, bold type, italics, capitalization, etc.
- Availability of the information.

Unit Four: Coherence

Objectives

- Define coherence.
- Compare and contrast local coherence and global coherence.
- Analyse a stretch of discourse for local coherence and global coherence.
- Explain potential link between cohesion and coherence.

1. Coherence

Coherence is defined as “making sense” or “hanging together” as a unit or whole (Ulatowska & Olness, 2004). It “is an important aspect for effective communication. Coherent discourse allows the listener the ability to maintain mental representations and understand how these representations are connected within the overall discourse” (Kintz, et al., p. 93). In relation to cohesion, Enkvist (1990) states that: “Cohesion is the term for overt links on the textual surface ... whereas coherence is the quality that makes a text conform to a consistent world picture and is therefore summarizable and interpretable” (p. 14).

2. Local Coherence vs Global Coherence

There are two sorts of coherence: *Local Coherence* and *Global Coherence* (Kintsch & van Dijk, 1978). Local coherence is “a property of discourse which is defined in terms of semantic relationships between the successive sentences of the discourse” (van Dijk & Kintsch, 1983, p. 150). That is, it is at the level a limited number of sentences. For global Coherence, it is at the level of the text as a whole. Van Dijk relates global discourse to the notion of topic of a discourse. Say it differently, it is a macrostructural organizational scheme (van Dijk, 1980).

Discussion:

Consider the following texts for cohesive ties and coherence.

Text 1

Time is important in our life. The watch is used to check time. I have been waiting for him for a long time. I read The Times. A long time ago, all people used to read newspapers. He can call me at any time.

Text 2

It is assumed that the meaning of a discourse should be characterized at two levels, viz. that of the sentences and their linear, pairwise connections on the one hand, and that of the discourse, or fragments of it, taken as a whole, on the other hand. These accounts thus differentiate between a local or micro-level and a global or macro-level of analysis. (van Dijk, 1977, p. 100)

Questions:

- 1- What is the difference between cohesion and local coherence? Illustrate.
- 2- Cohesion is neither necessary nor sufficient for the coherence of a text. Explain and illustrate.

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Unit Five: Linguistic Structures

Objectives

- Names different linguistic structures.
- Analyse discourse for linguistic structures.
- Explain how some linguistic structures are embedded in social and cultural systems.
- Contrast formal and informal discourse.
- Refer to linguistic structures used in spoken discourse and those used in written discourse.
- Explain Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) Model.
- Analyse classroom discourse using Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) Model.

1. Linguistic Structures

1.1 Text Types

There are five major text types: *Narrative*, *Descriptive*, *Directive*, *Expository*, and *Argumentative*. Text types “are general semantic-functional concepts and are not to be confused with such realizations as advertisements, editorials, sermons, shopping lists, poems, telephone books or novels, which are ... referred to as text forms” (Gramley & Pátzold, 1992, p. 192).

1.2 Genre & Generic Structure

Nunan (1993, p. 48) states that “The term ‘genre’ has been used for many years to refer to different styles of literary discourse such as sonnets, tragedies and romances. It highlights the fact that different types of discourse can be identified by their overall shape or generic structure”. Poem, fable, short story, novel, tale, etc. are examples of genres.

The overall structure of a given genre is referred to as generic structure. It is a combined set of stages. Goatly adds “Generic structures can be defined in terms of their elements, obligatory and optional, and the ordering of these elements, which may involve the embedding of one element within another, or the recursive introduction of elements” (2012, p. 149). For instance, the **anecdote** is a genre that has the following generic structure:

- **Title**
- **Abstract** (Introduction/ What is the story about?).
- **Orientation** (Who are the participants? When and where did it happen? In which circumstances?)
- **Remarkable Event** (Then what happened? What problems occurred?).
- **Reaction** (the emotional reaction to the remarkable event: Is it amazing? Embarrassing? Frustrating? Humiliating?).
- **Coda** (The moral/ What is the link between what happened in the story and the present?).
- ❖ *Title, Abstract and Coda* are optional stages.
- The generic structure of a **recipe** is:
 - **Title**
 - **List of Ingredients**
 - **Procedure**

1.3 Genre & Register

Register is “the set of meanings determined by the situation- what is taking place, who is taking part and what part the language is playing- along with the words and structures used in the realization of those meanings” (Taboada, 2004, p. 12). She adds that register is established by: *field*, *tenor*, and *mode*:

Field: is concerned with systems of activity, including descriptions of the participants, process and circumstances these activities involve.

Tenor: is concerned with social relations, as these are enacted through the dimensions of power and solidarity.

Mode: is concerned with semiotic distance, as this is affected by the various channels of communication through which we undertake activity (field) and simultaneously enact social relations.

As such, “The relationship of register to genre is one of layering... the layer of genre comprises and extends the level of register with its three components. Register represents the context of situation, whereas genre refers to the context of culture” (Taboada, 2004, p. 18).

There are **five** registers of language, reflecting different levels of formality i.e., from the most to the least formal:

- **Frozen** (One-way communication e.g., the constitution),
- **Formal** (One-way communication e.g., research articles, scientific books),
- **Consultative** (e.g., a dialogue between a doctor and a patient or a teacher and a student),
- **Casual (informal)** (implies the absence of social barriers e.g., between a father and a son)
- **Intimate** (e.g., between friends).

Register is determined by *age, gender, socioeconomic status, the degree of intimacy*, etc. Also, it is achieved through vocabulary, punctuation, and grammatical features.

1.4 Rhetorical Patterns

Rhetorical patterns are ways of organizing discourse. They are techniques used by the writer or the speaker to communicate his/her ideas in a particular way. There is a wide range of rhetorical patterns including: general-particular pattern, problem-solution pattern, cause-consequence pattern, comparison, causation, ascending/descending order, description, definition, etc. They can be applied at different levels of text organization: clauses, sentences, paragraphs, or whole stretches of discourse (Davies, 1997). Kachru (1997) adds that “There may be different rhetorical patterns associated with different genres. For example, whereas Hindi appears to favour a spiral rhetorical pattern in expository prose, the Anglo - American expectation is a straight linear pattern” (p. 341).

1.5 Adjacency Pairs

Adjacency pairs are sequences of two related utterances (words or sentences) which are given by two different speakers. The second utterance is always a response to the first, for instance: greeting-greeting, question-answer, offer-accept/decline, apology-minimization, etc.

Example:

A: How was the exam? Question.

B: It was easy. Answer

It is a *Question-Answer adjacency pair*.

1.6 Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) Model.

In 1975, Sinclair and Coulthard suggested a descriptive model for classroom discourse. By analyzing student-teacher classroom interaction, they proposed a rank scale model that consists of five ranks: lesson; transaction; exchange; move and act. These ranks are related to one another (see the figure below).

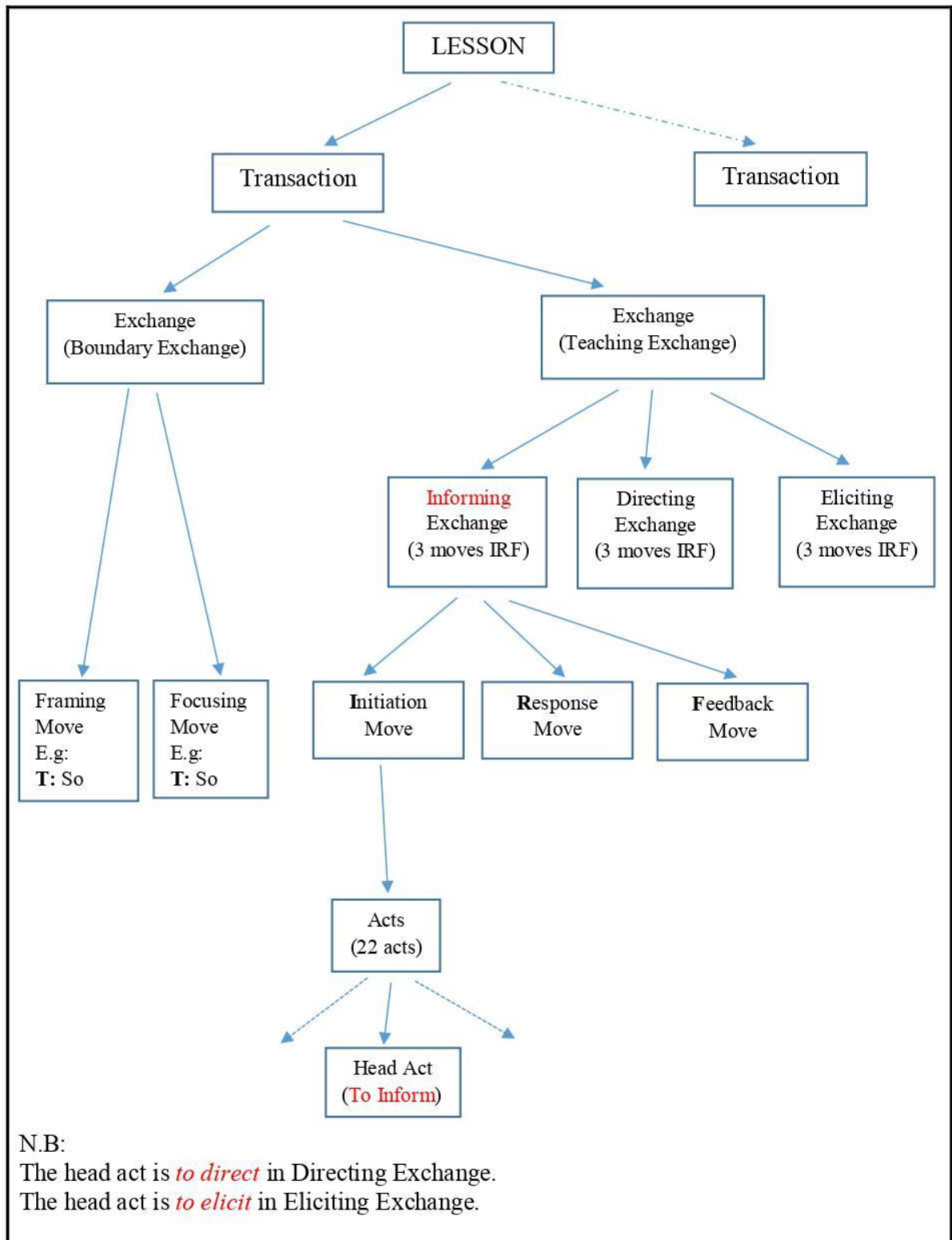


Figure 1: Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) Model

Example:

- Aja Dailey's *An Analysis of Classroom Discourse: The Usefulness of Sinclair and Coulthard's Rank Scale in a Language Classroom*. This can be retrieved from:

<https://www.birmingham.ac.uk/documents/collegeartslaw/cels/essays/csdp/dailysdananalysisofclassroomdiscoursetheusefulnessofmodule4assessmenttask.pdf>

Homework Assignment

Record an English session. Then, analyse it using Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) Model.

References

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Unit Six: How to Analyse Discourse

Objectives

- Define transcription conventions
- Explain the usefulness of transcription conventions.
- Use transcription conventions when analysing discourse.
- Recall steps involved in analysing discourse.
- Contrast analysing discourse at the descriptive level to analysing discourse at the explanatory level.
- Explain the importance of verbal and non-verbal behaviors.
- Explain the importance of action and interaction in conveying a given meaning rather than another.
- Study and learn from examples of DA and CDA.
- Analyse discourse applying different methods.

1. Transcription Conventions

Transcription conventions are symbols meant to render details of the production of utterances. Waring (2017, p. 24) adds that “Transcription systems vary in the extent to which details are recorded and the types of symbols used to represent any speech or nonspeech activities”. The following transcription conventions have been blended together from across the disciplines of sociolinguistics and discourse analysis (Mullany & Stockwell, 2015, p. 112)

(.) indicates a pause of two seconds or less.

(-) indicates a pause of over two seconds.

(xx) indicates material that was impossible to make out.

{xx} indicates material that has been edited out for the purposes of confidentiality.

[] closed brackets indicate the starting and finishing points of simultaneous speech.

%word% percentage signs indicate material was uttered quietly.

WORD capital letters indicate material was uttered loudly.

((laughs)) material in double parentheses indicates additional information.

= equals sign indicates no discernible gap between speakers’ utterances.

----- all materials contained within double dotted lines should be read alongside each
----- other, as in a musical score.

Example (Mullany & Stockwell, 2015, p. 22):

Two female friends are talking over coffee.

Context: the conversation takes place in Jill's living room. The speakers have known each other for 21 years and meet regularly in each other's houses. They are the only two participants present and are sitting next to each other on the sofa. They are talking on the topic of Jill's niece, who has just given birth to her fourth child.

1 **Jill:** she was eight pounds seven ounces so she was quite big=

2 **Sue:** =is that the biggest baby she's had?

3 **Jill:** yeah all the others were like seven an six so each one's

4 **Jill:** [got bigger]

5 **Sue:** [oh right] got bigger=

6 **Jill:** =she said 'I'm not having any more' ((laughs))

7 **Sue:** I was gonna say got to stop ((laughs))

N.B: Lines are numbered to facilitate reference to the analysed parts of discourse.

2. Steps Involved in Analyzing Discourse

1- Define the research question.

2- Select the material (the spoken and/or the written discourse).

3- Gather information about the social, historical, and/or political context.

4- Choose the methodology:

a- **Discourse analysis:** analyzing discourse at the descriptive level.

Examples:

- Situated Meaning (Gee, 1999).

- Seven Building Tasks (Gee, 2005).

b- **Critical Discourse Analysis:** analyzing discourse at the explanatory level (e.g., ideology, power, hegemony, dominance, inequality...).

Examples:

- Teun A. van Dijk's Ideological Discourse Analysis.
- Fairclough's (1989, 1995) Model.
- Ruth Wodak's (2001) Discourse Historical Model.
- Van Leeuwen (de) Legitimation Model (2008).
- Gee's Cultural Models (1999).
- Gee's Capital D Discourse (1999).

5- Transcribe and annotate the discourse (focusing mainly on the salient content i.e., the one directly related to the research question).

- Both **linguistic** (word level) and **non-linguistic** elements (gestures, facial expressions, images, graphs...) can be signaled. Also, when we analyse discourse critically, one should pay attention to different expressions that signal membership within different ideological systems (See Figure 2).

- **Action** and **interaction** are significant as well.

6- Analyze the content for themes and patterns.

7- Review your results and draw conclusions.

8- You can also suggest implications (for EFL Learning, Clinical Discourse, Forensic Discourse, etc.).

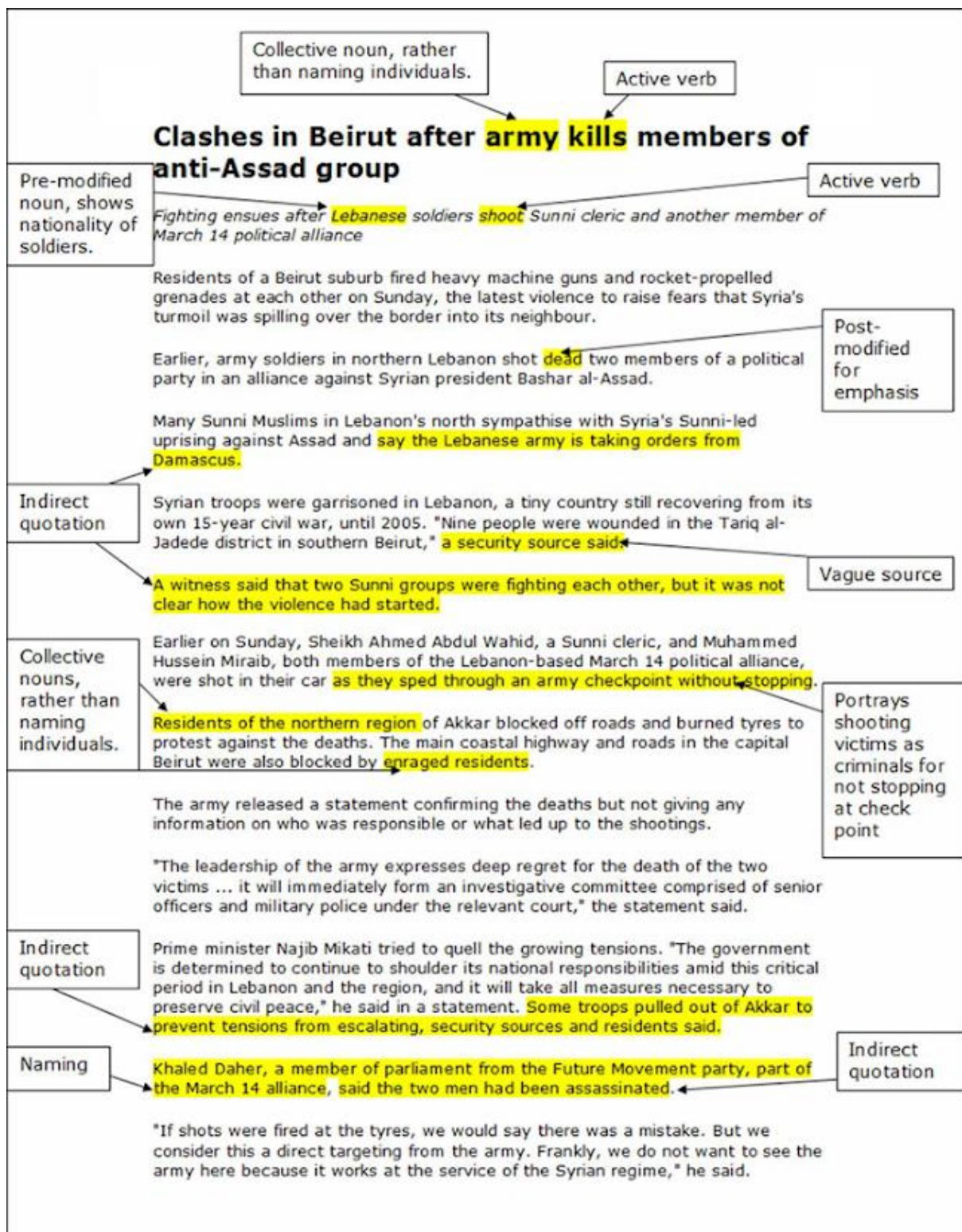


Figure 2: Key Words and Expressions in CDA (Retrieved from: <https://sites.google.com/a/sheffield.ac.uk/aal2013/branches/discourse-analysis/example-research>)

3. Gee's (2005) Seven Building Tasks

Gee (2005, p. 11) states that “Whenever we speak or write, we always and simultaneously construct or build seven things or seven areas of “reality.” Let's call these seven things the “seven building tasks” of language” (see the table below). Gee (2005) also adds that “not all building tasks will be as readily apparent in all pieces of data, we can always ask question about each one to see what we get” (p. 15).

Building Task	Description	Questions
Significance	“We use language to make things significant (to give them meaning or value) in certain way, to build significance” (p. 11)	“How is this piece of language being used to make certain things significant or not and in what ways?” (p. 11).
Activities	“We use language to get recognized as engaging in a certain sort of activity, that is to build an activity here-and-now”(p. 11).	“What activity or activities is this piece of language being used to enact (i.e., get others to recognize as going on)?” (p. 11).
Identities	“We use language to get recognized as taking on a certain identity or role, that is to build an identity here-and-now” (p. 11).	“What identity or identities is this piece of language being used to enact (i.e., get others to recognize as operative)?” (p. 12).
Relationships	“We use language to signal what sort of relationship we have, want to have, or are trying to have with our listener(s), reader(s), or other people, groups, or institutions about whom we are communicating” (p. 12).	“What sort of relationship or relationships is this piece of language seeking to enact with others (present or not)?” (p. 12).
Politics (the distribution of social goods)	“We use language to convey a perspective on the nature of the distribution of social goods, that is,	"What perspective on social goods is this piece of language communicating (i.e., what is

	to build a perspective on social goods” (p. 12).	being communicated as to what is taken to be “normal,” “right,” “good,” “correct,” “proper,” “appropriate,” “valuable,” “the ways things are,” “the way things ought to be,” “high status or low status,” “like me or not like me,” and so forth)?” (p. 12).
Connections	“We use language to render certain things connected or relevant (or not) to other things, that is, to build connections or relevance” (p. 12).	“How does this piece of language connect or disconnect things; how does it make one thing relevant or irrelevant to another?” (p. 13).
Sign Systems and Knowledge	“There are many different languages (e.g., Spanish, Russian, English). There are many different varieties of any one language (e.g., the language of lawyers, the language of biologists ... Furthermore, we humans are always making knowledge and belief claims within these systems” (p. 13).	“How does this piece of language privilege or disprivilege specific sign systems ... or different ways of knowing and believing or claims to knowledge and belief?” (p. 13).

Other Examples

- *Descriptive Discourse: Topic Familiarity and Disfluencies*. (can be accessed via google scholar).
- *Van Dijk’s Ideological Discourse Analysis* (can be retrieved from: <http://www.discourses.org/OldArticles/Ideological%20discourse%20analysis.pdf>)
- *The Situated Meaning of Discourse in American Presidential Campaign Slogans: A Discourse Analysis Study* (can be retrieved from: <https://qu.edu.iq/repository/wp-content/uploads/2021/06/The-Situated-Meaning.pdf>)

- *Mothers, Single Women and Sluts: Gender, Morality and Membership Categorization in Neighbour Disputes* (can be retrieved from:
[https://www.researchgate.net/publication/247749471 Mothers Single Women and Sluts Under Morality and Membership Categorization in Neighbour Disputes](https://www.researchgate.net/publication/247749471_Mothers_Single_Women_and_Sluts_Under_Morality_and_Membership_Categorization_in_Neighbour_Disputes))

Homework Assignment

Make an analysis of a text of your choice using Gee's seven building tasks.

References

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Formative Test II

Task 1: Consider cohesive ties and coherence (local and global coherence) of a text of your choice.

Task 2: Analyse the following dialogue for adjacency pairs.

Neil: Hello and welcome to 6 minutes English, I'm Neil

Alice: ...and I'm Alice

Neil: How do you get to work?

Alice: I cycle

Alice: Well, I'll have to see if I can catch you on your way into the building- I'm intrigued about this sporty Neil I didn't know about!

Neil: 'Intrigued' means to be very interested in something. Well, Alice, I'm flattered. And today's show is about commuting –or travelling between your home and your work.

Neil: The American researcher must be talking about commuters who aren't engaged in active travel, mustn't she? Because if you cycle a longer distance then you are being more physically active.

Alice: I think you are right, for once, Neil!

Neil: Why don't you hop on your bike, Alice? Then we can both wear Lycra to work.

Alice: That's fantastic idea, Neil! Moving on!

Source: Isgianto, L. (2016). *The adjacency pairs analysis on 'Six Minutes English' conversation script of BBC Learning English: A Study of Discourse Analysis*. Paper presented at International Seminar Prasasti III: Current Research in Linguistics, Solo.

Task 3: When analyzing spoken discourse, data should be transcribed and annotated. Explain the importance of such a step in analyzing discourse.

Keys

Task 1

Students are invited to discuss cohesive ties, local coherence, and global coherence of a text of their choice.

Task 2

The adjacency pairs found in the dialogue are as follows (Isgianto, 2016, pp. 438-439)

The Expression	The Adjacency Pairs
<p>Neil: Hello and welcome to 6 minutes English, I'm Neil</p> <p>Alice: ...and I'm Alice</p>	Greeting - Greeting
<p>Neil: How do you get to work?</p> <p>Alice: I cycle</p>	Question - Answer
<p>Alice: Well, I'll have to see if I can catch you on your way into the building- I'm intrigued about this sporty Neil I didn't know about!</p> <p>Neil: 'Intrigued' means to be very interested in something. Well, Alice, I'm flattered. And today's show is about commuting –or travelling between your home and your work.</p>	Opinion provide - Comment
<p>Neil: The American researcher must be talking about commuters who aren't engaged in active travel, mustn't she? Because if you cycle a longer distance then you are being more physically active.</p> <p>Alice: I think you are right, for once, Neil!</p>	Assessment – Agreement
<p>Neil: Why don't you hop on your bike, Alice? Then we can both wear Lycra to work.</p> <p>Alice: That's fantastic idea, Neil! Moving on!</p>	Suggestion - Acceptance

Task 3:

Students are expected to write a paragraph in which they explain the importance of transcription as a fundamental tool in analysing spoken discourse. Its importance relies on the fact that it brings up those non-verbal cues which along linguistic expressions foster a certain meaning rather than another.

First Semester Test

Below is an example of the first semester test with keys.

- Answer the following questions:

1- Tick the appropriate answer.

a- Discourse analysis:

- is concerned with the study of the effects of 'discourse' on cognitive processes such as understanding and recall.
- is concerned with the study of the emerging reality in discourse.
- is a broad and fast-developing interdisciplinary field concerned with the study of non-linguistic phenomena in language in use.
- is the study of language in use.

b- Gee (1999) claims that:

- Small (d) discourse signals capital (D) Discourse.
- Small (d) discourse precedes capital (D) Discourse.
- There are texts which signal small (d) discourse and others which signal capital (D) Discourse.
- Both of them signal ideological meaning embedded in both linguistic and non-linguistic behaviors.

2- Are the following statements true or false? (Write true or false next to each statement).

- a- In discourse analysis, you are looking at the meaning produced in the context of speech. You should be looking at why a particular version of reality is being constructed, and what this version accomplishes.
- b- The relationship between linguistic form and socio-political meaning is usually straightforward.
- c- Ethnicity is defined as an ideology.
- d- The main aim of social constructivism is to uncover the pre-existing reality.

3- Spot out the false statement, then underline it.

- a- Discourse Analysis is built on the idea that truth and reality are identifiable through research.
- b- Discourse Analysis does not treat language as a set of linguistic devices.
- c- Discourse Analysis can be used to analyse anything from newspaper to a clothes catalogue.
- d- Language is seen as socially situated in Discourse Analysis.

4- Mention two similarities and two differences between spoken discourse and written one. Write them in the table below.

Similarities	Differences
-	-
-	-

5- Pick out from the text below 4 references, and mention their type.

In the 1930s, one man touched the lives of millions of women. Many of them are grateful for him. He wasn't a film star or a singer but a scientist. This person invented nylon. Yet two years later, beset with doubt, he took his own life (adapted from Mullany & Stockwell, 2015, p. 220).

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-
-
-

6- Give an example of a capital (D) Discourse. Explain, briefly, in what way it differs from other opposing capital (D) Discourse(s).

-
-
-
-
-
-

.....
.....

Keys

1-

a- Discourse analysis:

- is concerned with the study of the effects of ‘discourse’ on cognitive processes such as understanding and recall.
- is concerned with the study of the emerging reality in discourse.
- is a broad and fast-developing interdisciplinary field concerned with the study of non-linguistic phenomena in language in use.
- is the study of language in use. ✓

b- Gee (1999) claims that:

- Small (d) discourse signals capital (D) Discourse. ✓
- Small (d) discourse precedes capital (D) Discourse.
- There are texts which signal small (d) discourse and others which signal capital (D) Discourse.
- Both of them signal ideological meaning embedded in both linguistic and non-linguistic behaviors.

2-

- a- In discourse analysis, you are looking at the meaning produced in the context of speech. You should be looking at *why* a particular version of reality is being constructed, and what this version accomplishes. **False**
- b- The relationship between linguistic form and socio-political meaning is usually straightforward. **False**
- c- Ethnicity is defined as an ideology. **True**
- d- The main aim of social constructivism is to uncover the pre-existing reality. **False**

3-

- a- Discourse Analysis is built on the idea that truth and reality are identifiable through research.
- b- Discourse Analysis does not treat language as a set of linguistic devices.
- c- Discourse Analysis can be used to analyse anything from newspaper to a clothes catalogue.
- d- Language is seen as socially situated in Discourse Analysis.

4-

Similarities	Differences
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Repetition. - Some functions can be fulfilled using both forms, including, informing, advising, giving orders, etc. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Intonation. - Gestures and facial expressions.

5-

In the 1930s, one man touched the lives of millions of women. Many of them are grateful for him. He wasn't a film star or a singer but a scientist. This person invented nylon. Yet two years later, beset with doubt, he took his own life.

- Anaphoric Reference: Millions of women /them.
- Anaphoric Reference: one man /He.
- Cataphoric Reference: This /person.
- Anaphoric Reference: one man /his.

6-

Students can tackle different Discourses including:

- Male vs. Female Discourses (by reference to gender)
- Muslims vs. Non-muslims (by reference to religion)
- Democrats vs. Republicans (by reference to politics), etc.

They also have to state on which basis these Discourses stand in opposition to each other.

First Semester Exam

Below is an example of the first semester exam with keys.

Van Dijk (1997, p. 2) states that

Even after this first approximation to the concept of discourse, we already have encountered its three main dimensions: (a) *language use*, (b) the “*communication of beliefs* (cognition), and (c) *interaction* in social situations. Given these three dimensions, it is not surprising to find that several disciplines are involved in the study of discourse.

Explain and illustrate.

Full Reference: Van Dijk, T. (1997). *Discourse as Structure and Process*. London: Sage Publications.

Keys

Van Dijk (1997, p. 2) states that (my underlining and bold type)

Even after this first **approximation** to the concept of discourse, we already have encountered its three main dimensions: (a) **language use**, (b) the “**communication of beliefs (cognition)**, and (c) **interaction in social situations**. Given these three dimensions, it is not surprising to find that **several disciplines** are involved in the study of discourse.

Full Reference: Van Dijk, T. (1997). *Discourse as Structure and Process*. London: Sage Publications.

Students should pay attention to the underlined key words. They also have to pay both: The form and the content (see the table below).

Form	Content
-------------	----------------

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Number of lines (do not go beyond the limited number of lines) - Orthography (correct spelling) - Syntax (well-formed sentences). - Capitalization (students should also avoid unnecessary capitalization) - Punctuation - Indentation - Students mustn't use personal abbreviations: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - sce for sentence. - lge for language, etc. <p>(They can of course use agreed-upon abbreviations e.g., US for United States, DA for Discourse Analysis, CDA for Critical Discourse Analysis)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The Layout: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a- Introduction b- Body (Development) c- Conclusion. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Clarity: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a- A clear hand-writing. b- State the ideas in a clear way. - Relevance (relevant to the topic) - Organization (organize the ideas. Do not mix them up) - Smooth transition from one idea to another. - Creativity (Your personal touch at the level of language and/or the way you tackle the topic) - Different types of sentences in each paragraph. 1- <u>Topic Sentences:</u> You state the general idea tackled in the paragraph. 2- <u>Developing Sentences:</u> You give examples and details in relation to a given idea. 3- <u>Supporting sentences:</u> Supporting sentences support a given idea or assumptions. 4- <u>Transitional Sentences:</u> These sentences allow a smooth transition from one idea to another. They function as a glue that links the different ideas. They are important to avoid disconnection between sentences and paragraphs. 5- <u>Concluding Sentences:</u> They conclude the general idea. They can also initiate the idea to be tackled in the next paragraph - The layout: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a- Introduction: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Attention grabber (the hook)
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	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Introduce the topic. -The thesis statement b- Body (development): the number of paragraphs = the number of general ideas <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1- The triangle: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ <i>language use</i> ➤ <i>the “communication of beliefs (cognition)</i> ➤ <i>interaction in social situations.</i> 2- Interdisciplinarity c- Conclusion: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1- The thesis statement (restate the topic) 2- Summarize the main ideas 3- A closing sentence: An implication OR an initiation of other (related) ideas or fields of study.
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Homework Assignment for Second Semester

Students are invited to conduct a group work about one of the following DA approaches

1. Speech Act Theory
2. Interactional Sociolinguistics
3. Ethnography of Communication
4. Pragmatics
5. Conversation Analysis
6. Variation Analysis

N.B: This work is going to be presented orally.