ADVANCED DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

MODULE 1: INTRODUCTION TO DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

Unit 1: What is Discourse?

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1.0 Introduction

As you must have read in your undergraduate course material on Discourse Analysis, the earlier approaches to the study of language were formalistic. In other words, linguists focused on the study of the structure or form of language such as grammar, phonology, morphology rather than on its use or functions. Ferdinand de Saussure had argued in his book, *Course in General Linguistics* (published post humously in 1916) that linguists should focus on the investigation of *langue* (the abstract, systematic and rule governed aspect of language) rather than *parole* (the heterogeneous speech of individuals or language behaviour). This view greatly influenced the formalistic or descriptive study of language at this time. Functionalism, on the other hand, is

closely associated with the Prague School of linguistics who became prominent since the 1930s for their study of the functionality of language and its social role. The Prague School linguists recognized the diversity of the functions of language and argued that the structure of language is largely determined by the functions it performs. Discourse analysis is a functional approach to language study. It is mainly concerned with the study of the functions which language performs when used in speech or writing. There are varied approaches to the study of discourse, which include but not limited to Conversational Analysis (CA), Ethnography of Communication, Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA), Pragmatics, Sociolinguistics, Multimodal Discourse Analysis (MDA), and Computer Mediated Discourse Analysis (CMDA). We shall discuss some of these approaches later in Modules 2 – 4. In this unit, we shall be looking at the meaning of the term discourse, the different definitions of discourse analysis and the functions of language.

2.0 Objectives

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

- define discourse,
- discuss Discourse Analysis
- identify and explain the Form and functions of discourse

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 What is Discourse?

Discourse analysis engages in the analysis of discourse in different discourse domains. Depending on what an analyst is looking at, it dissects texts to reveal the hidden agenda in particular texts. The text below is an example of discourse:

'And only **one** for birthday presents, you know. There's glory for you!'
'I don't know what you mean by "glory",' Alice said.
Humpty Dumpty smiled contemptuously. 'Of course you don't — till I tell you. I meant "there's a nice knock-down argument for you!"'
'But "glory" doesn't mean "a nice knock-down argument",' Alice objected.
'When **I** use a word,' Humpty Dumpty said, in rather a scornful tone, 'it means just what I choose it to mean — neither more nor less.'

'The question is,' said Alice, 'whether you **can** make words mean so many different things.'
'The question is,' said Humpty Dumpty, 'which is to be master — that's all.'
Through the Looking Glass, Lewis Carroll

You must have heard and read about the term discourse and perhaps you have wondered why there seems to be so many descriptions for the word. A major reason for this is that different disciplines such as sociology, psychology, anthropology, sociology and linguistics among others engage in the study of discourse and, thus, scholars perceive and describe the phenomenon differently based on their analytical approach. In this section, we will examine some of the definitions which linguists have proffered for the description of discourse. Generally, the word discourse tends to suggest the idea of spoken or written communication. However, linguistically, the term has been described as *language above or beyond the sentence* which could be in spoken or written forms (Cutting, 2002; Yule, 2010). We must however quickly point out that a piece of discourse could be made up of one sentence. Nonetheless, arguments are in favour of connected successive sentences, which are viewed as offering a rich soil for the study of the relative distribution of elements of a stretch of speech or writing. Brown and Yule (2003: 1) define discourse simply as 'language in use'. This definition suggests that language takes many forms, which are shaped by the context in which they are used. Context in this sense refers to the topic, participants, purpose/function, activity type, time and place in which language is used.

Other descriptions of discourse include language as meaning in interaction, and language in situational and cultural context. You would agree that these descriptions of discourse reflect linguists' preoccupation with the study of language as a semiotic mode for signifying meaning. Scholars, particularly critical theorists and those influenced by them have however argued for a more broadened view of the term discourse. Leeuwen (2005) for example describes discourse as the use of language and all other semiotic modes such as gesture, facial expression and other forms of visual communication deployed for perception and expression of reality. Tannen, Hamilton and Schiffrin (2015) on the other hand, speak of the count form 'discourses' which they note refer to a broad conglomeration of linguistic and non-linguistic social practices and ideological assumptions that together construct or reinforce power or identity among others. The different approaches to discourse analysis shall be examined closely in Modules 2, 3 and 4.

3.2 What is Discourse Analysis?

Discourse analysis involves studying and analyzing the uses of language (Brown & Yule, 1983). According to Jorgensen and Philips (2002: 1), discourse analysis is the study of different patterns that people's utterances follow when they take part in different domains of social life. McCarthy (1991) explains discourse analysis to be concerned with the study of language and the contexts in which it is used. Gee (1999) notes that discourse analysis consider how language, both spoken and written, enacts social and cultural perspectives and identities. In other words, analysts in this field are involved in asking questions about how language is constructed in speech and writing to interpret the aspects of the socio-cultural contexts in which it is used. These descriptions of discourse analysis indicate that elements of context such as topic, participants, place, time, are relevant in the interpretation of language in use.

Analysts systematically describe and explain the structuring or patterning of both spoken and written interactions produced in different contexts in order to provide insight to the understanding and appreciation of texts and how they are made meaningful to language users. One major area of divergence between traditional linguists and discourse analysts is that the latter not only investigate language use 'beyond the sentence boundary' but also prefers to analyze 'naturally occurring' language in use rather than invented examples. This type of linguistic material is sometimes described as 'performance data'. Data for discourse analytical research will be discussed more extensively in Module 5.

There are different approaches to discourse analysis based on the perspective from which the analyst views and describes discourse and the linguist's affiliations and conviction (i.e. functionalism, structuralism, social constructionism, etc.). These approaches could be simplified into three clusters of formal linguistic discourse analysis, empirical discourse analysis and critical discourse analysis. The first approach, formal linguistic discourse analysis, involves a structured analysis of text in order to find general underlying rules of linguistic or communicative function behind the text. For example, a discourse analyst could adopt a linguistically oriented approach to discourse analysis such as Text Linguistics.

 Researchers using empirical discourse analysis do not use highly structured methods to code individual words and utterances in detail. Rather, they look for broad themes and functions of

language in action using approaches called conversation analysis (the study of "talk-in-interaction") and genre analysis (the study of recurrent patterns, or genres of language that share similar structure and context-such as case report or scientific article). Critical discourse analysis is used by researchers in cultural studies, sociology, and philosophy to encompass an even wider sphere that includes all of the social practices, individuals, and institutions that make it possible or legitimate to understand phenomena in a particular way, and to make certain statements about what is "true". Gee (1999) however delimits the approaches to discourse analysis to two which are studies which look only at the "content" of the language being used, the themes or issues being discussed in a conversation or a newspaper article for example and approaches which pay more attention to the structure of language ("grammar") and how this structure functions to make meaning in specific contexts. These latter approaches are rooted in the discipline of linguistics.

Topics of discourse analysis research include various scopes of discourse such as sounds, gestures, syntax, the lexicon, rhetoric, style, speech acts, meaning, strategies, turns and other aspects of interaction such as the relations between discourse and power, genres, the relations between text and context, the relations between discourse and interactions, the relations between discourse, cognition and memory, political discourse, media discourse and medical discourse among others. The study of discourse has been described as interdisciplinary. By interdisciplinary, it means that researchers integrate relevant conceptual tools, methods and insights from different theoretical disciplines in order to solve research problems. Weiss and Wodak (2003:18) explain the advantage of an interdisciplinary approach to the study of discourse thus: "Interdisciplinary research ideally integrates theoretical approaches and thereby creates new holistic approaches."

Self-Assessment Exercise

Describe in your own way the term discourse.

3.3 Discourse Form and Functions

We use language daily as we interact with other people but for most of us it is almost an unconscious activity. For instance, have you ever tried to find out what functions the language you speak performs in interactions? The study of discourse primarily revolves around the investigation of the purposes or functions which language and indeed other semiotic modes

perform in communicative events. Linguists classify the uses of language differently. Jacobson (cited in Tribus, 2017) identifies six functions of language which are: referential, emotive, conative, phatic, poetic and metalinguistic. He describes the referential or context function as the use of language to impart information. The emotive or expressive function on the other hand refers to the use of language in expressing the speaker's attitude to what s/he is talking about or towards her/his addressee. The conative function refers to the use of language for creating certain responses in the addressee. In other words, it is the use of language for the purpose of influencing the behaviour of the addressee and is thus concerned with the use of language for persuading the hearer or reader. The metalinguistic function refers to the use of language to describe itself or code. For example, when the addressee gives or asks for information about the language or code. In this case, speakers use language to check whether they are using the same code or understood by other speakers. The phatic function of language refers to people's use of language to maintain or discontinue social relationships and the poetic function of language focuses on the messages for its own sake. The poetic function is dominant in literary texts.

Halliday and Matthiessen (2004) classify the functions of language into three metafunctions which are the ideational function, the interpersonal function and the textual function. The ideational function refers to the use of language for naming things or expressing human experience. The interpersonal function refers to the use of language for enacting social relationships with other people around us. The textual function of language has to do with the construction of text or building up sequences of discourse, organizing the discursive flow and creating cohesion and continuity as it moves along. Brown and Yule (1983) narrow the use of language to two broad categories which are the transactional and interactional functions. The transactional function refers to the use of language for expressing content while the transactional function refers to the use of language in expressing social relations and personal attitudes. Gee (1999) explains that the functions of language could be seen in its use for informing, doing things and for being (that is identity construction). In other words, language is used for getting and giving information, helps us to get involved in actions or do things and allows us to take up different socially significant identities.

What we can immediately draw from the different perspectives of linguists on the functions of language from the foregoing discussion is that language is the tool that keeps society together

because people depend on it for information dissemination and managing of social relationships. Brown and Yule have note that the categorization of the functions of language is primarily for analytical convenience since a natural language utterance cannot be used to fulfill one function to the total exclusion of the others. This last observation of the function of language brings us to the influence of language function on its form in different interactions and meaning making. It is not always that there is a direct correspondence between the grammatical form and the communicative function. For example, an un-inverted declarative form typically associated with 'statements' might be perceived as a question which requires an answer. Let us consider this exchange below which is a discussion between a mother and her daughter:

Mother: You're going to the supermarket.

Daughter: No. I have changed my mind.

From the example, we can see that in analyzing and interpreting discourse form, we sometimes depend on linguistic factors and sometimes on situational factors. Thus, McCarthy (1991) explains that discourse analysts go beyond the mere study of language forms and are also interested in examining the different conventions governing interactions and how language users are able to interpret meaning accurately in different contexts. Contexts in this case, would include physical, socio-cultural, co-text, institutional among others.

Self-Assessment Exercise

Identify and discuss the functions which language performs in society.

4.0 Conclusion

Language is a phenomenon that has attracted linguistic study over the years. Some linguists have studied language from a formal or structural perspective while some others have studied language from the perspective of the functions it performs in society. Discourse analysis is a functional approach to the study of language. Discourse analysts approach the study of the use of language from different perspectives and thus apply different analytical approaches to the functional study of language.

5.0 Summary

In this unit, you have been provided with background information to the study of discourse analysis. Then, different definitions of discourse and discourse analysis were considered. Finally, you were exposed to the different classifications of the functions of language from linguists over the years and also shown how grammatical forms could be used in their marked form in different communicative contexts. The next unit discusses various concepts in discourse analysis.

6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment

Discuss the notion of interdisciplinarity in discourse analysis.

7.0 References/Further Reading

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

Tannen, Hamilton and Schiffrin (2015). *The Handbook of Discourse Analysis*. UK: Blackwell
    Publishers Ltd.

Weiss, G. & Wodak, R. (2003). *Introduction: Critical Discourse Analysis, Theory and
    Interdisciplinarity*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan

Unit 2: Historical Background of Discourse Analysis

CONTENTS

1.0 Introduction

The two prevailing approaches to the study of language from 1930s to 1950s were Saussure's structuralism and Chomskyan theory. These approaches were more preoccupied with the study of *langue* rather than *parole*. In other words, they focussed on the study of the internal functioning of grammars which were seen as closed systems independent of the possibilities which could be observed in everyday use of language. However, some other scholars in the field of linguistics argued that there are certain meanings and aspects of language that cannot be understood or embraced if its study is limited to the syntactic analysis of sentences. One of the disciplines which emerged as a result of this is discourse analysis. In this unit, we shall examine the origin of discourse analysis, the earliest studies in discourse analysis and recent developments in the field of discourse analysis.

2.0 Objectives

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

- Identify the origin of discourse analysis
- discuss the earliest studies in discourse analysis
- identify and explain recent developments in the field of discourse studies

MAIN CONTENT

3.0 Origin of Discourse Analysis

Although Discourse Analysis (DA) as a term was first used in 1952 by Zellig Harris in a paper he published titled Discourse Analysis, the study of the functional use of language for persuasive effectiveness dates back to 2000 years ago. In this sense, we can view Classical Rhetoric as a precursor of contemporary stylistics and structural analysis of discourse because of its interest in the organization, specific operations and performance of public speech. The study of Rhetoric was however backgrounded with the emergence of comparative and historical linguistics in the 17th century. During the early 20th century, most linguistic approaches developed in the study of language reflected intellectual activity directed towards a strict treatment of the different levels of linguistic systems as separate, autonomous, self-contained domains. Linguistics was largely concerned with the analysis of single sentences.

However, alongside this major research path throughout most part of the century was an interest in discourse in other circles. For example, members of the European Structuralist Prague School articulated their theory of Functional Sentence Perspective (Tannen, et al, 2015). Another example is Harris' effort at the study of the distribution of linguistics elements in extended texts and the links between the texts and their social situation. Although, this paper could not be said to reflect the present discourse analysis enterprise as we know it today, yet it was part of the efforts towards developing the study of language beyond the sentence. Harris (Zellig, 1952 cited in Paltridge, 1988) made a significant observation that:

'connected discourse occurs within a particular situation – whether of a person speaking, or of a conversation, or of someone sitting down occasionally over the period of months to write a particular kind of book in a particular literary or scientific tradition'.

In all, one could conclude that structural analysis of culture and the further development of structural linguistics in Europe led to the birth of modern discourse analysis in the middle 1960s. The last quarter of the 20th century thus witnessed a blossoming of the status and field of discourse analysis. Symposia devoted to discourse analysis began to spring up around this time and international journals such as *Discourse and Society*, *Discourse Studies*, *Journal of Pragmatics* were birthed.

Self-Assessment Exercise

Briefly explain linguistic research activities that led to the development of discourse analysis

4.0 The Earliest Studies of Discourse Analysis

The earliest works in discourse analysis were done by people in other disciplines such as sociology, anthropology and ethnology. For example, Hymes' influential book titled *Language in Culture and Society* published in 1964 gave much attention to forms of speech, communication and forms of address and later developed into the analytical orientation of Ethnography of speaking. Another approach to the study of discourse which was influenced by the social sciences is Ethnomethodology whose proponent was the famous Sociolinguist, Harold Garfinkel. An example of Ethnomethodological approach to research is Conversation Analysis which is mainly concerned with the study of speech in its social setting. Researchers using this approach observe and describe the sequential patterning of conversation. The key figures in this school of thought are Emmanuel Schegloff, Harvey Sacks and Gail Jefferson. The linguistic philosophers – Austin (1962), Searle (1969) and Grice (1975) were also influential in the study of language as social action, as reflected in speech act theory and the formulation of conversational maxims.

The first major attempt to analyse discourse from the perspective of linguistics came from John Sinclair and Michael Coulthard, both from the University of Birmingham. They developed a model for the description of teacher-pupil talk, based on a hierarchy of discourse units. British

discourse analysis was also greatly influenced by Michael Halliday's (1973) systemic-functional and social-semiotic framework which emphasised the social functions of language and the thematic and informational structure of speech and writing. Other scholars from American School also examined types of speech event such as storytelling, greeting rituals and verbal duels in different cultural settings (Gumperz and Hymes, 1972). We shall examine in details the analytical methods of Conversational Analysis, Classroom discourse analysis and Text Linguistics in Module 2 of this course.

Self-Assessment Exercise

Reflect on the research activities in discourse analysis at its early stage. Can you mention briefly describe two approaches to discourse analysis at this stage?

5.0 Recent Developments in the Field of Discourse Analysis

Discourse analysis is a rapidly growing and evolving field. Current research in the field now flows from academic disciplines that are different from one another. Included in discourse research are disciplines in which the models for understanding and analysing discourse first developed such as linguistics, anthropology and philosophy. Other disciplines such as communication, cognitive psychology, social psychology and artificial intelligence among others are also applying and of course extending the discourse models and methods to solving problems within their own academic domains. One of them is Discursive Psychology which emerged within Social Psychology. This approach to discourse study is interested particularly in the way 'psychological' notions (for example, 'memory') are generally produced in discourse and particularly in conversation. Discursive Psychology as pioneered by Michael Billig (1987), Jonathan Potter (1996) and Derek Edwards (1997) rejected individual psychological notions such as attitudes and rather sought alignment with ethnomethodology, conversation analysis and social constructivism. Another evolving approach to the study of discourse is Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA), originally introduced in a seminal book: *Language and Control* (1979), written by Roger Fowler, Gunther Kress, Bob Hodge and Tony Trew, and later developed by Norman Fairclough (1989) in the UK, Ruth Wodak (1989) in Austria and Teun A. van Dijk (1993) in the Netherlands. Multimodal Discourse Analysis (MDA) and Computer Mediated Discourse Analysis (CMDA) are also approaches to discourse analysis which have developed alongside

advancements in communication and information technology. Some of these approaches will also be discussed extensively in Module 3 and 4.

6.0 Conclusion

The origin of the study of discourse could be traced to Zelling Harris in the 1950s. Since then, scholars from the humanities and social sciences have studied discourse as a social phenomenon. Due to the influence of researchers' theoretical backgrounds, the study of discourse is approached from different perspectives and approaches. The new developments in the field of discourse analysis indicate that new trends and approaches to the study of discourse as a phenomenon are still unfolding and will continue to do so for a long time.

7.0 Summary

The origin and development of discourse analysis was the main concern of this unit. We traced the development of the study of discourse from 1950s to some recent approaches to discourse analysis. There is no doubt that developments in this field are still evolving as more scholars get involved in the study of discourse as a social phenomenon.

Tutor-Marked Assignment
1. Identify five approaches to research in discourse analysis
2. What are the distinguishing differences between the early stage research in discourse analysis and the current approaches?

8.0 References/Further Reading

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

Gee, J.P. (2018). *Introducing Discourse Analysis: From Grammar to Society*. London: Routledge.

Unit 3: DISCOURSE AND DISCOURSES

UNIT 3:
Content
1.0 Introduction
2.0 Objectives
3.0 Main Content

3.3 Self-Assessment Exercise
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5.0 Summary
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

In the previous units you learnt about discourse, and the different definitions of discourse were outlined and explained. Here, we extend further the discussion of the term 'discourse'. What this means is that discourse will go beyond the traditional definition of discourse being broken down just into spoken and written elements. This is owing to the fact that the advancement in information technology has brought about many forms of discourse patterns. Discourses have, apart from verbal and written forms extended to any semiotic element that can be subjected to analytical procedure to produce meaning.

You will in this course encounter different forms and classifications of discourse. Efforts will also be made to introduce you to some forms of contemporary methods of communicating that constitute discourses.

I hope that by the end of the Unit, you will have had some new thoughts and ideas about what constitute discourse; you are also expected to read up the references presented at the end of the unit as they will help you to understand better what this unit specifically focuses on.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

- Say the reason why any semiotic element can constitute discourse
- Be able to come to terms with the fact that discourse in contemporary times have extended to all semiotic elements through which meaning can be derived.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1. DISCOURSE FORMS

Discourse forms are the various ways through which discourse can manifest. **Solitary** discourse or (monologue) is the discourse from one source only. Some ways through which monologue can manifest are: someone engaging in soliloquy either consciously or unconsciously, somebody doing incantations at road junctions and so on. Monologues can also occur in dramas where a character may be speaking to him/herself. Monologues can occur in formal and informal settings. With discourses becoming multimodal, a character in a monologic discourse can employ other discourse element in the monologue as can be seen in the female picture in fig. 1 below:

Examples of a monologue:

(A)   Mr. Iyere: Oh my God, if I had known this examination questions would be so tough I would have studied harder for this course.
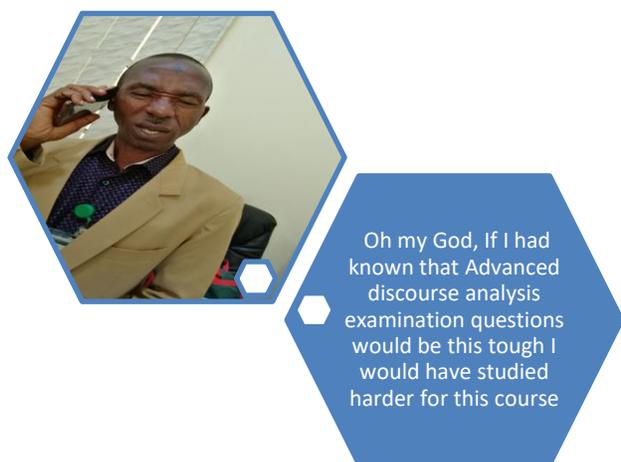
Source: Source: National Open University of Nigeria staff (2020)

Felicia: I am really happy Advanced discourse analysis questions were so easy for me.

Fig.1 different pictures of people in a monologic discourse

Source: National Open University of Nigeria staff (2020)

Apart from monologic discourse, discourse can also manifest through dialogues. **Dialogic** form of discourse occurs between two interlocutors; it can be formal or informal. Examples of official dialogic discourse are between a supervisor and a supervisee, between a doctor and a patient, a boss and an employee, a lecturer and a student and so on. Informal dialogic discourse can occur between a mother and child, between two siblings, between two friends. If you engage in a conversation with your course mate, you will be said to be in a dialogue. In a dialogic event, depending on the social status of each of the interlocutors, the current speaker has the floor and at the end of his/her speech the partner takes over. This turn taking continues until the discourse is over. The two speakers may or may not have the same cultural background.

It is not only people who can talk verbally that can engage in dialogue; the deaf and dumb also engage dialogues using signs. These signs can also be subjected to discourse analysis. They also know when to give the other person the floor. Because of technology, dialogues has also taken on new forms, sometimes you can see someone talking and not see who he/she is talking to. The device connecting them may be visible or not visible as is in the case of someone talking with another person far away through an earpiece. The earpiece could be with cord or cordless. Interviews are also forms of dialogic discourse. Interviews can be symmetrical or asymmetrical.

Fig. 2 Different dialogic settings

Source: Google stock images/ National Open University of Nigeria staff (2020)

Sample discourse between two friends (dialogue):

Speaker A: I wonder why the fuel crisis in this country persists. Imagine, I spent almost two hours on the queue yesterday trying to fuel my car.

Speaker B. But you eventually bought. Hmmm, mine was more disgusting, after I have been on the queue for close to two hours, just five cars to mine the fuel station manager announced that they have ran out of fuel!

Discourses can manifest in multilogues too. Multilogue discourses can occur in formal or informal settings. In a Multilogue, you have so many people involving in a discourse; examples of multilogues are: family meetings, village meetings, conferences, drama, soap operas and so no. With new technologies, multilogue can occur in conference calls through the phone, when people engage in a discourse. Apart from phone conference call, teleconferencing as the name implies occur when people from different locations see and discuss with one another about a specific issue. Teleconferencing is common in the corporate world especially with bankers. In a multilogue, we can have many to many, that is, the same number of people on both side of the group as in a debate. We can also have a few to many manifestable in a quarrel, when you have many people against a few. It can also occur in What Sapp group chats, group versus group skypping and so on.
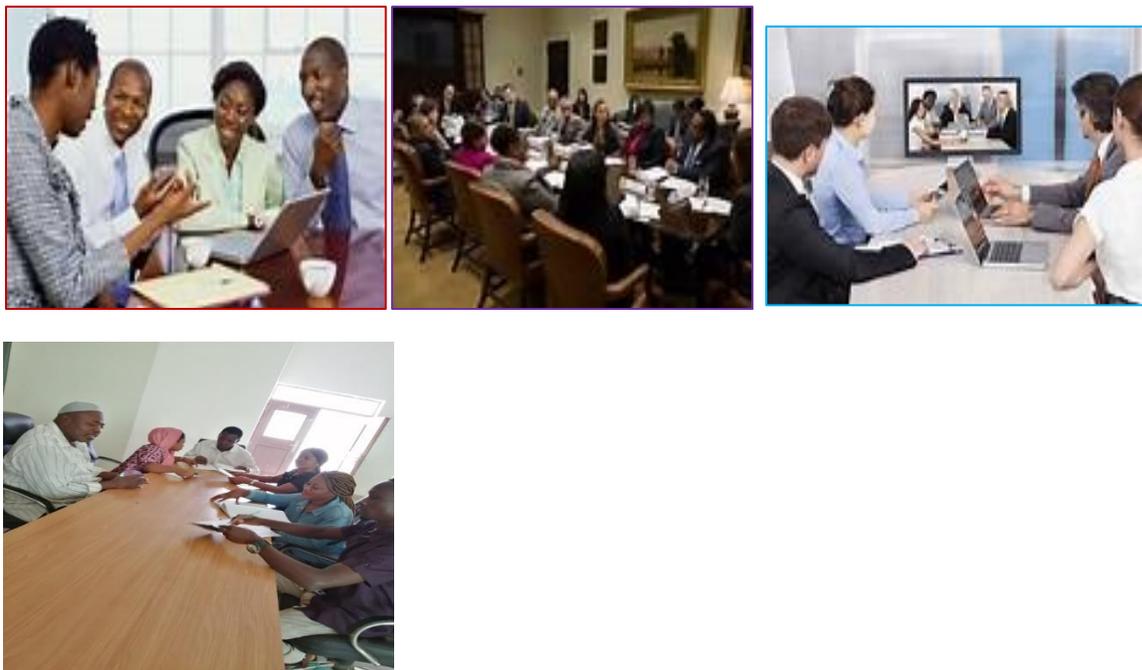

Fig.3 Different pictures of multilogue (teleconferencing, meetings)

Source: Google stock images/ National Open University of Nigeria staff (2020)

You can see that the discourse is multimodal. Different devices are deployed for communication

Sample Multilogue between bankers in a teleconference:

Speaker A (The chairman): Good morning all, now that we have all branch managers on, can we start the meeting? It is going to be brief.

All participants: yes sir.

Speaker A: I want to have the progress report of withdrawals from the ATM in the last one week.

Speaker B: my branch experienced huge withdrawals close to 400 million Naira. The machines are in good condition.

Speaker C. One of the ATMs at my branch is faulty, so it affected the amount withdrawn in the last one week.

The discourse participants continue until they get to the discourse closing when the chairman rounds off the discourse. Intermittently, some of the participants may refer to their ipads for clarification of figures.

3.2 CLASSIFICATIONS OF DISCOURSE

Traditionaly, discourse was broken down largely into oral and written. Where oral is any utterance made from the mouth and written—any information which any literate person can read. Not only does language manifest through oral and written, other modes of communicating are coming up every day to help people express themselves. As Halliday (1985:82) predicts: when new demands are made on language… [it] changes in response to them. …[W]e are making language work for us in ways it never had to do before, it will have to become a different language in order to cope. This view of discourse by Halliday seems to be broader because it subsumes every meaning making element under discourse.

As has been mentioned before, the information age is characterized by the rapid advancement of technology, with the introduction of new discourse tools for the expression of meaning, this shows that new realities come up every day that may not strictly fall under the classification of oral and written.

Note that discourses exist in different disciplines such as linguistics, sociology, anthropology, psychology, ethnography etc., in each of these disciplines, discourse has varied but overlapping shades of meaning. A common thread that links discourse in all these fields is meaning. That is, discourse as essentially about meaning making. This meaning making is procedural, which is brought about through discourse analysis. We are not going to discuss 'discourse analysis' here since we are going to examine different methods of analyzing discourse in a later module in this course.

It is important you understand that any meaning making element constitutes discourse. If you suddenly notice some strange signs in an environment you are very familiar with, you definitely will feel some abstract meaning coming to you. The signs put together will constitute some form of discourse which has imparted some meaning to you. The general feeling one get when

exposed to any form of discourse can be classified. This brings us to the sub-topic **classification of discourse.**

3.2.1 Classification according to discipline

Discourse can be classified using criteria such as discipline, function and the purpose it is serving. If we are classifying discourse according to discipline, we will have ***academic discourse, political discourse, religious discourse, medical discourse, entertainment discourses, legal discourse*** and so on. These discourses as their names imply will focus on themes relating to their various areas. Thus, if you see a van with various posters of politicians you don't need anybody to tell you that it belongs to a particular political group. That van on its own is a discourse element. Also, if you as a student come to NOUN headquarters and you see the senate building, without being told you will know that it is the seat of power. It is discourse on its own because it provides meaning; and the building itself can be subjected to analysis (discourse analysis), this in a way shows that discourse is multimodal—being beyond just oral and written elements. You can see that the examples above constituting discourse were neither written nor spoken. The point is that, whatever class of discourse you are engaged in, the multimodal elements should tighten the ideas to form a unified whole.

3.2.2 Classification according to function

When you read a piece of work, you get some kind of ideas apart from the thematic focus of that piece of work. The ideas and feelings you get from different pieces of work differ. These feelings or emotional drive you get can be broadly be said to be the purpose or function of that piece of work. A piece of discourse no matter how long or how short, if it contains structures that appeals to the emotion of the target audience, can be classified as being **persuasive**. Political discourse falls under this category. When people want to get others to do something they use the language or any other persuasive tool that will appeal to their targets' sense of reasoning. Persuasive discourses come in hyperbolic and flowery language. The different discourses according to disciplines outlined above can use persuasive structures too.

According to Wodak (1996), persuasive discourses have the ability to make people do things which they ordinarily will not do. To Wodak, discourse is structured by dominance and that every discourse is historically produced and interpreted; and possibly persuasive or 'manipulative' structures of discourses can be unraveled through analytical procedures.

Osborn and Osborn (2015) outline some kinds of proof employed in a **persuasive** discourse. According to them, pathos is proof based on motives and emotions' (379). Here, the discourse is patterned in a way that it appeals primarily to the targets' emotions to move them to do something. Ethos assumes that people can be persuaded by the personal influence of the source of the message (382). To get your target to do your bidding in a persuasive discourse, you must

project the impression that you are sincere, trustworthy, honest and transparent. When discourse originators deploy persuasive mechanisms such as faith, feelings and values that make up the social character of a people in their discourses, they are using the persuasive tool called mythos.

Some discourses can be **descriptive**; such discourses will paint a vivid picture of the focus of the piece in the mind of the reader. In other words, the discourse will be what the reader can perceive through his/her senses or imagination. The reader gets a feel of the things, experience or quality of the theme of the discourse. The things described can be anything the reader can grasp through the senses. If for instance, a piece of discourse describes how through a difficult process a sojourner through the hazardous sea route from Nigeria through Libya gets to Europe, the piece can be categorized as a descriptive one. Apart from using words to describe this process, visuals or other meaning making semiotic element can be used to create this feeling too. The feeling one gets through a descriptive discourse can be palatable or unpalatable.

The prefix 'ex' in the term expository comes from Greek through Latin. It means 'out' or 'away from'. **Expository** discourse explains, analyzes and makes something clear for the reader. This kind of discourse also gives directions. The main intention is to inform, to make the reader or audience aware of the topic of a discussion. If and when you finish your M.A. thesis, it is going to fall under expository discourse because you have made a discovery or supported existing discoveries which you want your reader to know.

Narrative discourse usually involves relating a series of event usually in a chronological order. The story narrated may be fictional, but when the narration is on real life event, it may be classified as an autobiography, biography, history or a newspaper report. The narration whether fictional or nonfictional, presents what happened and how it happened. **Narrative** discourse gives the sense of witnessing an action. Examples are literary works such as novels, dramas, stage plays and folklores.

A discourse can be classified as **argumentative** if its purpose is to convince through logic. Argumentative discourse is based on a belief or opinion that the writer holds as true. To make the **argument** acceptable, the writer must build a case to support his/her **argument**. To do this, the writer presents some cases and provides evidence to support the case. Some scholarly works can be argumentative, where the writer aims to convince his/her readers about a belief or opinion.

The label transactional discourse can be used to label the kind of discourse that conveys messages in such a way that the messages are easily understandable without any ambiguity or confusion. Instructions, manuals, policies, doctors' prescription for patients all fall under this category.

Contemporary communicative methods such as What Sapp texts are discourses, the pictures you have on your histogram page can be discourse, tweets can constitute discourse. The American president Donald Trump is known for his numerous tweets. Even the Skype you engage in is discourse. I know of a lady who a company employed after skypping her; she got the job because

according to the interviewers, the environment where she was at 10:15pm when she was Skyped suggested she was at home. This act is also discourse. Some years back these modes of communicating were not there. So if we define discourse solely as written and spoken elements, we would be leaving out these new forms of communication.

To end this sub-section, it is important to state that there is no clear cut dichotomy between discourse types, while some discourses will overtly fall into one classification, some can oscillate between two classes. Different types of discourse are usually better suited for different circumstances, and there are usually some clear distinguishable features of each. Most of the time, writers and speakers will use the discourse type they think will be most effective at getting their points across to their intended audiences.

3.3 Self-Assessment Exercises

- Scout around and get a copy each of the different types of discourse according to discipline outlined above, see if you can identify structures in them that differentiates them from one another.
- Try and classify the different What Sapp messages you receive in a day

- Assume you are the Bank manager of Chibest bank, describe how you will link some of your workers through conference call for a discussion.

4.0 Conclusion
We have in this unit shown that any piece whether spoken, written, visual, pictorial, aural can constitute discourse. What constitute discourse differ from one place to another. The discussion of discourse presented here shows that as the world progresses new discourse modes will continue to come up. We cannot live without engaging in different types of discourse.

5.0 Summary
In this unit, we have looked at discourse as being beyond spoken and written elements. Discourses have extended beyond traditional classification to include all contemporary means of communication. The forms of discourse can be monologue, dialogue or multilogue. Discourse can be classified using two broad criteria—according to discipline and according to function.

On the one hand, when discourse is classified according to discipline, we have academic discourse, political discourse, religious discourse, medical discourse, entertainment discourses, legal discourse and so on, on the other, when discourse is classified according to function we have persuasive, expository, argumentative and narrative discourses. It is important for you to know at this level of you course that every discourse elements can be subjected to analytical procedure to pass across meaning.

6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment

1. Give a brief discussion of the functions of contemporary discourse types
2. Outline the linguistic features you are likely to find in a political discourse
3. in what ways can you say contemporary discourses types differ from traditional discourse types?

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UNIT 4: CONCEPTS IN DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

In Unit 3 of this module, you learnt about discourse and discourses. The unit introduced you to the forms discourse and discourses can manifest through. It also pointed out that discourses can be classified according to disciple and function. This unit presents concepts in discourse analysis; since you learnt that discourse has taken on new dimensions because of the advancement in technology, you are going to encounter new concepts other than the traditional ones you know. You are expected to read up the references at the end of the unit as they will help you to understand better what this unit specifically focuses on.

2.0 Unit Objectives

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:
- Describe traditional concepts in discourse
- Be familiar with emerging concepts in discourse
- Distinguish between the term text, context and discourse
- Know what power and ideology are

3.0 MAIN CONTENT
3.1 .**Traditional concepts in discourse analysis**

Traditionally, discourse and its definition can broadly be looked at from three angles. The first, a classic definition of discourse deriving from the formalist sees discourse as language above the sentence or above the clause; it draws its impetus from the formalist approach which focus on the way different units function in relation to one another. This definition will treat individual elements in discourse as being meaningful depending on their relationship with other linguistic elements. Another definition of discourse is based on the functionalist view that is, the study of discourse is the study of *any* aspect of language use. A definition of discourse as language use is

consistent with functionalism in general: discourse is viewed as a system (a socially and culturally organized way of speaking) through which particular functions are realized. Functional definitions of discourse assume an interrelationship between language and context. Yet another definition views discourse as being (larger than) other units of language. Whatever the angle from which discourse has been defined, scholars have used different terms to label the concepts used in the discussion of discourse (see Widdowson, 1979, Schiffrin, 1994 van Dijk, 1972). The consensual concepts are: text, discourse, context and texture.

3.1.1 The notion of text

The word 'text' comes from the Latin term *texere*, meaning to weave. It assumes different meanings in different fields. Most definitions of text deriving from the Latin meaning, place text as a linguistic structure woven out of signs or words. Halliday and Hasan define text as 'a unit of language in use': a text is viewed not as a grammatical unit (a clause or a sentence) but as a semantic unit, that is, a unit of meaning, not a unit of form. Fairclough considers text as the writtern and spoken language produced in a discursive event (1993:138). To Fairclough, any discursive event can be analysed as text.

Traditionally 'text' was first used to denote parts of the Bible studied by scholars, or the body of a literary work which was subject to the scrutiny of editors and bibliographers. Then emphasise on the object of scrutiny was on the formal structure of linguistic items and not meaning. In contemporary times, people use 'text' to signify any piece of written or spoken discourse be it linguistic or literary.

A text contains meaningful not distorted words or letters that is understandable and open for interpretation to the reader or critic. You can subject a text to linguistic or literary analysis

Our concern in this course is to define text and situate it within the realm of linguistics. So, in linguistics, the word 'text' is exploited to refer to any passage, spoken or written, of whatever length, that does construct a unified whole. According to Widdowson (1979), "a text is a collection of formal objects held together by patterns of equivalence or frequencies or by cohesive devices". Widdowson's definition of text underscores the need for unification in the linguistic devices in a text. A text may be a monologue, dialogue or multilogue. The different forms of discourse you encountered in unit three are also texts. A text can be a single word like: **come, eat, stop, ugly** and so on, can be a phrase: **is dancing, let us eat**. Complete sentences can constitute texts too, for example: **Anthonia is an elegant lady**; I feel like dancing; t**hey have refused to accept the offer**. Plays like Ola Rotimi's ***The Gods Are Not To Blame***, Wole Soyinka's <u>Kongi's Harvest</u>, and proses like ***Things Fall Apart***, by Chinua Achebe; ***Purple Hibiscus*** by Chimamanda Adichie, biographies and autobiographies are all texts. They can be subjected to linguistic or literary analysis. A text is realized by, or encoded in clauses or

sentences. When we refer to something as a text, we mean its linguistic structure or the signs therein that convey meaning and allow for interpretation Texts are linguistic representations of reality

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

How does Isidore Okpewho's *The Victims* constitute text?

3.1.2 The notion of 'Discourse' in Discourse Analysis

A discourse is made up of utterances having the property of coherence. Discourses are viewed as having a systemic character (they have an internal order). Discourses are set apart by terminologies or registers. In that you can easily differentiate a legal discourse from a religious one. The terminologies and concepts in a particular discourse lead to a unified whole. In other words, terminologies and concepts contribute to the theme of the discourse. The aim of discourse analysis therefore, is to analyse the way terminologies and concepts work across the boundaries of single sentences or utterances to form meaningful whole (rather than a collection of unrelated sentences).

3.1.3 The role of context in Discourse Analysis

Traditional discourse analysts ignored context in the analysis of utterances. Context is very important in everyday life and in doing discourse analysis. The context of an idea or event is the general situation that relates to it, and which helps it to be understood. Linguistic structures make meaning in different contexts. For instance, the word 'bear' can mean so many things depending on the context in which it is uttered.

1. The **bear** is beautiful
2. James cannot **bear** the pain
3. That mango tree may **bear** fruit this season
4. Edirin cannot **bear** children
5. If we bring all that was discussed in the meeting to **bear** on this issue, we will make no progress.

The meaning of '**bear'** in any of the utterances above is different from the others because of the context in which it occurs. Each meaning is derived as a result of the surrounding linguistic items. This means that discourse analyst has to take account of the context in which a piece of discourse occurs to get the real meaning. Another factor to consider when talking of context is the speaker\writer or source of the utterance. If a policeman comes to your house and says to you 'you are under arrest'. The utterance will generate fear and anxiety, but if the same utterance is made by a friend it will generate laughter. Also, if you are a tenant and the landlord of the house where you live sees you one morning and says to you 'Hey Mr. Segun you must pack out of my house this month end', this utterance will somehow create confusion for you especially if you were in a good rapport with your landlord before the utterance. But if the same utterance is made by a fellow tenant it will not generate the kind of anxiety or confusion it did when uttered by the

landlord. All these show that the source and context of an utterance is important in determining the meaning of an utterance.

Apart from the role context play in the comprehension of utterances or sentences, we also have reference, presupposition, implicature and inference that can add meaning to discourse. Reference is an act of directing or indicating something by using some linguistic elements, the information to be retrieved is the referential meaning' the identity of the particular thing or class of things that is being referred to; and the cohesion lies in the continuity of reference, when the same thing is mentioned in the discourse the second time. For example:

1. **Seven people** were injured in the fracas. **They** have been taken to the hospital.
2. **Festus** graduated with a first class degree from the University Calabar. **His** hard work, resilience and intelligence earned **him** the class of degree.
3. The **weather** today is very cold, who knows **it** may be warm tomorrow.
4. **Cooking** is my hobby; I enjoy doing **it** a lot.

In the first example, '**they**' in the second sentence refers to the subject '**seven people**'. Repeating '**seven people**' in the second sentence would sound boring and monotonous. In the second example, '**his**' and '**him**' points back to '**Festus**'; '**it**' in example three refers back to '**weather**' likewise, '**it**' in the fourth example refers back to '**cooking**.'

There are two referential devices that can create cohesion: Anaphoric and Cataphoric. Anaphoric reference occurs when the writer or speaker refers back to someone or something that has been previously identified, to avoid repetition. So we can say then that the pronouns 'they', 'his', 'him' and 'it' in the above examples are anaphoric elements. Cataphoric reference on the other hand is a reference forward as opposed to backward in a discourse. The pronoun of someone or something is introduced in the discourse before the name is mentioned. For instance:

1. There **she** goes, the Nobel prize winner for short stories—**Mrs Ifeyinwa Uzoigwe**
2. **It** barked all night long—**Bingo** the dog.

In the two examples above, we do not know who 'she' or 'it' is until later in the sentence. Writers use this type of reference to hold the reader's attention and to create suspense in their works.

There is also exophoric device which does not really create cohesion in texts. The prefix "exo" in 'exophoric' means 'outside', and the persons or events referred to in this manner will never be identified by the writer. Exophoric reference is used by writers to describe generics or abstract phenomena without ever identifying them. This is in contrast to anaphoric and cataphoric devices which do identify the entity and are thus forms of endophora. Rather than introduce a concept, a writer refers to it by a generic word such as 'anything', 'everything'. Halliday and Hasan considered exophoric reference as not cohesive, since it does not tie two elements together in a text.

Ellipsis (…) also creates cohesion in text and discourses. It happens in a conversation when specific words, phrases are omitted to avoid unnecessary repetition.
 Take a look at the conversation below:

Dele: who took the book on the table?
Yusuf: Kiemute.
Wabba: are you sure?

In the above utterance, the full form of Yusuf's full reply is 'Kiemute took the book on the table'
The full form of Wabba's question in response to Yusuf's is 'are you sure Kiemute took the book on the table? In both responses, 'took the book on the table' has been omitted.

Presupposition is an assumption or belief in an utterance mainly in language use; it is a preliminary conjecture. For example, if I say my cousin is beautiful. It is presupposed that I have either an aunt or an uncle who gave birth to my cousin. Presupposition is defined in terms of assumptions the speaker makes of the utterance s/he hears.

Implicature is what is implied in an utterance or in a behaviour. The term 'implicature' is used by Grice (1975) to account for what a speaker can imply, suggest, or mean, as distinct from what the speaker literally says. There are unwritten rules interlocutors are supposed to observe in conversation, these are called cooperative principle. Conversational implicature, derived from Cooperative principle according to Grice contains a number of maxims which speakers should obey in speech or conversation. Interlocutors must speak cooperatively and mutually accept one another's contribution as true. The cooperative principle describes how effective communication is achieved in common social situations.

The conversational maxims according to Grice (1975) are: Quantity: Make your contribution as informative as is required (for the current purposes of the exchange). In other words, interlocutors in a conversation should give all that is needed for a comprehension of a conversation. Do not make your contribution more informative than is required. Quality: Do not say what you believe to be false. Do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence. Relation: Be relevant. Manner: Be perspicuous. Avoid obscurity of expression. Avoid ambiguity. Be brief (avoid unnecessary prolixity). Be orderly. An interlocutor may intentionally decide to flout one or more of the maxims. When one deliberately tells lies in a discussion, one is flouting the maxim of quality.

Though Grice has enumerated the maxims to be adhered to in a conversation, some people either consciously or unconsciously flouts one or more of the maxims in conversation. For instance, in a robbery case, an innocent person may be roped in and forced to confess to a crime s/he did not commit, in such a case s/he may be seen by the listening audience as saying the truth, but within, s/he is breaking the maxim of quality. Of all the maxims, the maxim of quality is the most flouted.

Speaker one: I am hungry

Speaker two: there is a restaurant down the street.

For speaker A, though B did not say it openly, he implied that A should go and eat in the restaurant down the street. Implicatures are pragmatic aspects of meaning and have certain identifiable characteristics. They are partially derived from the conventional or literal meaning of an utterance, produced in a specific context which is shared by the speaker and the hearer, and their adherence of the Cooperative Principle and its maxims. Since the discourse analyst, like the hearer, has no direct access to a speaker's intended meaning in producing an utterance, he often has to rely on a process of inference to arrive at an interpretation for utterances or for the connections between utterances. This brings us to the next discourse element that can also add meaning to discourse—inference. Inference is what on the other way round what an utterance is interpreted to mean. For example:

1. If Jide is short, it can be inferred from the utterance that he is not tall

2. Adaku is pregnant, even though the hearer of the utterance does not understand the language to know whether the name 'Adaku' is borne by a man or a woman, it can be inferred that Adaku is a woman.

It is important to note that it is not all the time that inferred meaning is right. The inference from an ambiguous sentence may not be in tandem with the speaker/writer's intended meaning.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

How does context affect the meaning of utterances?

3.1.3. The NOTION OF TEXTURE

When you look around you observe that the natural world is not distorted, it is organized, that is, it is rich in texture. Objects often display contradicting yet unified properties; just as natural objects have relationship with one another, so also do linguistic elements in a text have relationship with one another to form a unified whole. The notion of texture was introduced by Halliday and Hasan to express the property of being a text. A text derives its texture from the fact that it functions as a unified whole as a result of the mutual relationship between linguistic items. The fact that a text functions as a unity with respect to its environment derives from 'texture'. If a passage of English containing more than one sentence is perceived as a text, there will be certain linguistic features present in the passage which can be identified as contributing to its total unity and giving it texture. So texture in discourse is the basis for unity and semantic interdependence within a text. A text without texture would just be a group of random sentences with no relationship to one another.

For exmaple: Mr and Mrs. Nwachukwu are sociolinguists. They lecture in National Open University of Nigeria. The metallic brown coloured SUV parked down the road is theirs. 'They' and 'theirs' in sentences 2 and 3 respectively refer back to Mr and Mrs. Nwachukwu. The anaphoric function of 'they' and 'theirs' gives cohesion to the three sentences. These pronouns also have removed the monoteneity of repeating Mr. and Mrs. Nwachukwu, so that we

interpret them as a whole. The three sentences together constitute a text. So, it is the texture which makes these three sentences a text.

To achieve texture in texts, two main concepts are used: Cohesion and Coherence. Cohesion refers to the connections which have their manifestation in the discourse itself. Cohesion is one part of the study of *texture*, which considers the interaction of cohesion with other aspects of text organization.

The relation between '**theirs'**, '**they'** and 'Mr. and Mrs. Nwachukwu' in the above example constitute two ties. We can characterize any segment of a text in terms of the number and kinds of ties which it displays. In the above example there are two ties referred to as reference.

Cohesion as part of the study of texture refers to the relations of meaning that exist within the texts, and that defines it as a text. Cohesion occurs where the interpretation of some element in the discourse is dependent on that of another. The one presupposes the other, in the sense that it cannot be effectively decoded except by recourse to it. Martinec (1998: 162) states that feature selections and structures of the textual meaning "enable the ideational and interpersonal ones to form the cohesive wholes called phases". Thus, any stretch of written text can be said to be cohesive when it realises the ideational, interpersonal, and textual meanings. According to Baker and Ellec, (2011:195) cohesive ties between sentences stand out more clearly because they are the only source of texture.

Texture, in turn, is one aspect of ...Coherence: it refers to the connections that can be made by the listener or by the reader on the basis of their knowledge outside the discourse. Texture takes the social context of texture into consideration (Halliday 1994: 309). The term'texture' is generally associated with research inspired by Halliday (1964) and Hasan (1968) in systemic functional linguistics.

If a stretch of language including more than one sentence is perceived as a text, there will be certain linguistic features contributing to its total unity and giving it texture. A text is not a collection of unrelated sentences. The existence of connectives between sentences is an essential feature of discourse: connections give a text its texture and distinguish it from a random string of unconnected sentences.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Go through unit 3 again, can you identify the discourse devices that helped in achieving texture in the text?

3,2 Distinction Between Text And Discourse

There are arguments and counter arguments of what should constitute a text and what should constitute discourse. Many studies have used models originally developed for studying spoken form to investigate written form (Tadros 1981), and vice versa (Hoey 1983). Thus, such a distinction is not necessary. Many researchers have come to this conclusion: Discourse analysis includes all studies investigating the supra-sentential structure of any stretch of language, spoken or written.

In traditional (older) forms of discourse analysis, the term 'discourse' was used interchangeably with text, so the written text was referred to as written discourse and vice versa. Baker and Ellec (2011) say that there is distinction made between discourse and text." The words text and discourse mean different things. The basic meaning of discourse in modern ordinary usage is talk. Originally, the term came from the Medieval Latin term discurrere (meaning to circulate or to run on). It has been more frequently used to refer to prepared forms of spoken language such as speeches, where people run on about a topic, than to spontaneous talk. Discourse involves the speaker's awareness of the audience and containing text which is written to be orally delivered in a specific situation or context.

The modern meaning of discourse has evolved to encompass casual conversations, which just like formal speeches, run from one person to another: speakers make an effort to give their interactions shape and connectedness, as an integral part of co-operating with another speaker to create meaning.

The propose of text, therefore, is to relay or communicate information and may often be **non-interactive**, meaning the reader of the text is an observer. D*iscourse* then is used in a nontechnical sense to mean conversational communication.

To study text, you study the written words that communicate some information: structure, theme, meaning, rhetorical devices, etc. To study discourse, you study who is communicating with whom through what medium and for what social purpose. Let us use this answer as an example. To study or analyze a **text**, you will note the overall structure and you will grasp the meaning of the content as it answers your question. To study or analyze a piece of **discourse**, you will determine who is communicating with whom through what medium and for what social purpose. You may also look at the purpose of the discourse. Discourse can occur through different medium—textual, visual, aural etc. Discourse has multiple interactive layers and it has multiple complex social purposes. You can find the multiple layers in various media that comprise the social event and the various purposes of discourse

The distinction between text and discourse is not clear-cut .There are many scholars (such as brown and yule) who talked about written and spoken text and others talked about written and spoken discourse .Hawthorn (1992)says "Text may be non- interactive whereas discourse is interactive .This means text only convey some meaning while discourse involves in both formal and informal conversations or it is the use of written and spoken language in a social context. Brown and Yule, 1983:ix)refer to discourse as how human use language to communicate"

Some writers such as van Dijk refer to text analysis as discourse analysis and some discourse analysts focus on how meaning and structure are signaled in text. Others, especially since the early 1990s, have used discourse analysis more critically to examine issues relating to power, inequality and ideology (Baker and Ellec, 2011:32) Brown and Yule (1983:190) defined 'text' as the verbal record of a communicative event. They state that "text depends on cohesive relationship within and between the sentences, which create texture. A discourse then is made up of utterances having the property of coherence. It can be concluded that discourse is used in a very comprehensive way for all those aspect of the situation and context of communication not only the message (spoken or written) but also the relationship between the addresser and addressee. In this sense, discourse would subsume the text, and is an umbrella which covers a wide variety of actual research practices with quite different aims and theoretical backgrounds, all take language as their focus of interest'.

Some scholars, for example Widdowson (1973) have warned that distinguishing between text and discourse would create problems and have advised that the so called distinctions between 'discourse' and 'text' is arbitrary and further avers that the distinctions would contradict the known and well-established distinction between 'sentence' and 'utterance' in the literature.

In sum, text is a behavioral non-interactive event restricted to your experience with understanding its characteristics and its meaning or information as its singular purpose. Discourse, in any medium, is a social interactive event with many layers of communication and many layers of purpose.

SELF ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

What do you understand by the term 'discourse' and the term 'text'?

4.0 CONCLUSION

The continual paradigm shift from old methods of language use will always bring about a natural shift in discourse phenomena. In recent times, discourse has come to assume more than just mere utterances.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit we have looked at both traditional and some modern concepts in discourse analysis. We defined text as anything containing meaningful not distorted words or letters that is understandable and open for interpretation to the reader or critic; and can be subjected to linguistic or literary analysis. We said that a text achieves texture if it functions as a unified whole as a result of the mutual relationship between linguistic items. The fact that a text functions as a unity with respect to its environment derives from this 'texture'. To achieve texture in texts, two main concepts are used: cohesion and coherence. Discourse includes all the supra-sentential structure of any stretch of language, spoken or written. We pointed out that context is very important to the meaning of utterances; meaning of each word is derived as a

result of the surrounding linguistic items. This shows that discourse analyst has to take account of the context in which a piece of discourse occurs to get the real meaning

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Compare the political ideology of Nigeria with that of your state

2. Succinctly discuss the importance of context to the comprehension of discourse

3. Discuss legal power in the society and how it can also be hegemonic

4. Distinguish between cohesion and coherence

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MODULE 2 TRADITIONAL DISCOURSE APPROACHES

UNIT 1: TEXT LINGUISTICS

Contents

1.0 Introduction

In the previous module you learnt what text and discourse are, and what constitute each. We also pointed out that context is key to understanding the meaning of linguistic structure. For a text or a piece of work to achieve texture, there must be unity in the linguistic items that make up that text. Apart from the traditional concepts in the analysis of discourse, we also looked at new concepts like power, ideology and hegemony. Here we are going to discuss some traditional approaches to discourse. Specifically, we are going to further our discussion on 'text' which was begun on the previous module and link it up with 'linguistics' and its accompanying subtopics. You are expected to read up the works referenced at the end of this unit for a further understanding of what the points raised here.

2.0 Unit Objectives

At the end of this unit you should:

> ➢ know what text linguistics is

> ➢ be familiar with textual communication

> ➢ be able to explain what textual communication and its regulative principles are

3.0 Main Content
3.1 What is text linguistics?

'Text linguistics' constitute two words: 'text' and 'linguistics'. Let us look at what 'text' is before looking collectively to what the two terms mean. When we talk, we choose and use words in a way to ensure meaningful utterances**.** However, it is not the only the choices we make with regard to syntactic complexity or certain vocabulary items, but also, how these things are linked together that helps us to create a proper text that fits together in various aspects. In terms of the fitting together of texts, we need to bear various features in mind that help us to establish its coherence, that is, the impression that the whole text actually makes sense. We do not just string words randomly and expect them to make sense, beginning from a single word, to a phrase then to the sentence, paragraphs and the chapter.

For example, if Ada says 'I cooked Egusi soup and went to the market to buy ingredients for soup'. This does not make sense and is not logical. It is expected that Ada should have gone to the market, buy the ingredients for soup before cooking. So, the structure 'I went to the market, bought soup ingredients and cooked Egusi soup' is more logical and meaningful. It then means that we need to pay attention to order to create coherent texts. The notion of 'text' here encompasses not only collection of written materials, but also spoken discourse, such as monologues, dialogues, multilogues, speeches, sermons, etc.

Having got a gist of what 'text' is, let us look at what 'text linguistics' is. There are so many ways to describe and explain what 'text linguistics' is. Text linguistics is a branch of linguistics that deals with texts as communication systems. Its original goal lays emphasis in uncovering and describing text grammars. Text linguistics is a branch of Linguistics which studies the peculiarities of text structure. It is concerned with larger units of speech, and investigates how these larger units fit together and how sensible arguments or expositions are constructed by employing specific linking devices.

Text linguistics is the study of text as an output that leads to the creation of something referred to as a product (text grammar) or as a process (theory of text). Dolník and Bajzíková (1998) opine that a text can be viewed from two perspectives: text as a product and text as a process. The text-as-a-product perspective focuses on the text cohesion, text coherence, topical organization, illocutionary structure and communicative functions. The text-as-a-process perspective studies the text production, reception and interpretation in the previous module we said that a text contains meaningful not distorted words or letters that is understandable and open for interpretation to the reader or critic. Text can also be said to be as an instance of (spoken or written) language use (an act of parole), a relatively self-contained unit of communication. As a 'communicative occurrence' it meets several criteria of textuality (the constitutive principles of textual communication): cohesion, coherence, intentionality, acceptability, informativity, situationality and intertextuality, and three regulative principles of textual communication: efficiency, effectiveness and appropriateness (de Beaugrande and Dressler 1981, Malmjaer 1991). We shall explain these under 3.3 below.

In general, text linguistics covers a wide range of fields of investigation ranging from pragmatics to discourse analysis, from socio-linguistics to cognitive sciences and others.

3.1.2 Self-Assessment Exercises

How does text differ from text linguistics?

3.2 Textual communication

A text surely should communicate ideas to the reader/receiver. Communication does not come arbitrarily, but with some technical efforts by the text producer. Technical efforts come as a result of using devices that will unite the various words used in a sentence. Uniting devices will ensure cohesion in texts. Halliday and Hasan (1976) sees cohesion as the way in which linguistic items of which texts are constituted are meaningfully interconnected in sequences. Coherent structure can be expressed and progressed by structuring thoughts into words, phrases, clauses, sentences, paragraphs, headings, sub-headings, chapters to the full text books. Cohesion is a kind of textual glue that helps us to join textual elements together, avoid repetition of the same words, make reference to circumstances or events in a text, express the temporal/logical order of events, etc. Cohesion can be achieved in texts through: reference, ellipsis, conjunction and lexical organization. We shall explain these below:

3.2.1 Reference is used to describe the different ways in which entities such as things, people, events are referred to within texts. There are range of linguistic features, which enables speakers and writers to make such references, for example pronouns may refer to entities already

mentioned or about to be mentioned in speech or writing. Cohesion achieved through reference can be realized by nouns, determiners, personal and demonstrative pronouns or adverbs. Either points out of the text to a real world item, that is, to its signified, hence exophoric reference which are deixical items (that and these), or refers to an item within the text, hence endophoric reference.

Exophoric reference terms are used to describe a linguistic feature in a text, which refers to something out side of that text. Examples are: 'there', 'here' and 'that'. Endophoric reference terms are used to describe forms of reference made within any given text to other elements within the text e. g in the following sentences: 'He gave the oranges to Obiageli'. She collected them and left the class. 'She' is an example of endophoric reference, referring to Obiageli.

The two possible directions of endophoric reference are: anaphoric (reference back) and cataphoric (reference forward). Anaphoric can be direct or indirect. For example (direct anaphora) I saw a lady down the corridor. She was wearing a flowered Ankara jacket. Anaphoric: a definite referent is introduced and then later referred to by a pro-form, The pronoun 'she' points back to a lady. Indirect anaphora: what a beautiful house. The roofing sheets are solid. Reference items can be a single word referring to a phrase as in the first example, or a phrase referring to a phrase as in the second example. For cataphoric reference, the reader encounters the reference or pronoun of someone or something before the name is mentioned in a text or discourse. cataphoric: a pro-form introduces a referent without giving any specific details about it; further specification only follows later on in the text, sometimes a considerable distance away from the pro-form, Homophora is the situation where there is a reference to an item of which there is only one instance. For example: Pour the water in the bucket please. The relationship between two items in a sentence or an utterance in which both refer to the same person or thing and one stands as a linguistic antecedent of the other is called co-reference. In the example given above, 'a lady' and 'she' are co-referential.

3.2.2 Ellipsis is another cohesive device. It is the omission of sometimes single words or phrases in writing or utterance. In writing and in actual speech, people make use of Ellipsis to avoid unnecessary repetition of items. Though it is not all the time that ellipses are used to avoid repetition, they are sometimes used to draw ones attention to an idea in a discourse.

Example:

Simple conversational between two friends:

Nneka: Jenny baby where have you been? I have been looking for you.

Jennifer: my dear the weather is so hot; I went to the supermarket to buy some ice cream to help me cool off.

Nneka: Hmm you are really enjoying, imagine going all the way to the supermarket to buy just ice cream. Anyway can I have some?

In the short discourse above, though Nneka did not complete the last sentence by not mentioning ice cream, Jennifer knows that Nneka meant 'can I have some ice-cream'? This is lexical ellipsis.

Another example:
Last week, my mother and I visited the old people's home, next week my sister and father will.

In the dependent clause, 'visit the old people's home' has been ellipsed. You can see that unlike the example above where a single word ice-cream was omitted, a group of words was omitted in the second example.

3.2.3 Conjunction is another cohesive device in texts. It manifests through single words or phrases and enhanced mostly by subjuncts, conjuncts, disjuncts, pronouns, metalingual connectors, etc. they create intratextual and intertextual unity.

Conjunctions divided in to four categories: Additive, Adversative, Causal and Temporal

Additive means substance added to another; Adversative means contrary to expectations; Causal relations are expressed by: 'hence', 'so', 'thus', 'therefore', all these regularly combine with initial 'and'. Temporal conjunctive element is expressed in its simplest form using 'then'.

3.2.4 Lexical Cohesion

Lexical cohesion is the last means through which cohesion can be achieved in texts. It refers to the ties created between lexical elements, such as words (e.g. dress), groups (e.g. the Ankara dress), and phrases (e.g. the man). These lexical ties can occur over long passages of text or discourse. According to Halliday the primary paradigmatic types of lexical cohesion (meaning words of the same type or class) are repetition, synonymy, hyponymy, and meronymy.

Repetition can be achieved through using the same word over again in a discourse. E.g. the words eat can be repeated in different forms in a text: 'eater' (N), 'eat', 'eating' (V). Synonymy using words that have almost the same meaning, E.g. buy—purchase, Antonyms: give—take, come—go. Hyponymy is when one word represents 'a class of thing and the second either a super class or a subclass, or another class at the same level' (574) e.g. Car- Mercedes Benz, Meronymy are words that refer to parts of a whole, E. g. Mercedez Benz—windscreen, booth, bonnet etc.

Collocation is the way in which particular words tend to occur or belong together. For example, 'beautiful lady' the adjective 'beautiful' collocates with 'lady', 'girl' or even 'woman'. So, you cannot say 'beautiful man'.

Self-assessment Exercise

3.2.5 What significant differences exist between the sense relations mentioned in this unit?

3.3 Textual Communication and its regulative principles

The principle of efficiency entails that simple and unambiguous words should be used in communication. In other words, no matter how boring and unimpressive, a text should be understood with minimal effort. The constitutive principles of textual communication are: Cohesion: as mentioned above, this concerns the way in which the components of the surface text, i.e. the actual words we hear or see, are mutually connected within a sequence. The surface components depend upon each other according to grammatical forms and conventions, such that cohesion rests upon grammatical dependencies. Intentionality: concerns the author or text producer's attitude that the set of occurrences should constitute a cohesive and coherent text instrumental in fulfilling the producer's intentions, e.g. to share knowledge, entertain, warn etc. Acceptability concerns the audience or text receiver's attitude that the set of occurrences should constitute a cohesive and coherent message having some usefulness or relevance for the receiver, e.g. to acquire knowledge, gain amusement etc. Informativity: this concerns the extent to which the occurrences of the presented text are expected vs. unexpected or known vs. unknown/certain. Situationality: concerns the factors which make a text relevant to a situation of occurrence. Intertexuality: this refers to the way in which uses of texts depend on the knowledge of other (preceding or following) texts.

The concepts of efficiency, effectiveness and appropriateness are regulative criteria of textuality. These three principles control communication. Efficiency: Text used to communicate with a minimum expenditure of effort by the participants. Effectiveness refers to text creating favorable conditions for attaining the sender's goal. Appropriateness refers to the suitability of the text to the communicative situation in which it is used.

3.3 Self-Assessment Exercises

Explain the three regulative principles of textual communication

4. Conclusion

It is very important to make sure that there is unity in the various elements in a speech or in writing. When meanings are not logically linked in texts, there will be difficulty for the real meaning of that text to be received.

5. Summary

In this unit you have learnt that text linguistics is the study of text as an output that leads to the creation of something referred to as a product (text grammar) or as a process (theory of text). You also learnt that textual communication is achieved through cohesive devices.

6. Tutor-marked Assignment

Succinctly discuss conjunctive cohesive device and their function in an utterance or a piece of writing

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UNIT 2: ETHNOMETHODOLOGY

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1.0 Introduction

This section of the course material looks at ethnomethodology and some key theorist of the approach. It attempts to define ethnomethodology by presenting an overview of the field. It looks at different definitions that had been propounded over time in the field as well as traces its history. The views and contributions of some key theorist are also explained.

2.0 Unit objectives

By the end of this unit you should be able to:

Elaborately explain what ethnomethodology is

Give a brief history of ethnomethodology

State the contribution of at least two key theorists of ethnomethodology

3.0 Main content

3.1 What is Ethnomethodology?

Ethnomethodology emerged as a distinctive perspective within sociology during the 1960s. It is associated and often confused with a variety of perspectives (existential sociology, creative sociology, reflexive sociology, interactionism, and most recently constructionism). Although the primary focus of ethnomethodology differs from that of phenomenology, both are centered on describing the emergence of order out of the shared experience of members of particular societies (Zimmerman and Wieder, 1970, 286-290). This focus on order as a practical accomplishment of the everyday interactions of members of a group produces

Ethnomethodology a sociological approach emerged out of the breakdown of the orthodox consensus in the mid-1960s. The label was coined by the American sociologist Harold Garfinkel, who laid the foundations of ethnomethodology as a theory, and as a self-conscious critique of all conventional sociology. Explaining the origins of the term, Garfinkel suggests that '"ethno" seemed to refer, somehow or other, to the availability to a member of common-sense knowledge of his society as common-sense knowledge of the "whatever"; the notion of "ethnomethodology" was taken in this sense'. This interest and view led Garfinkel to analyse, in great detail, the methods people use every day in life and interaction to account for (or make sense of) their activities—both to themselves and others. These unconventional or 'esoteric' researches according to some are reported by Garfinkel in his 1967 studies, where Garfinkel gives the most concise definition of his studies and researches, as being 'directed to the tasks of learning how members' actual, ordinary activities consist of methods to make practical actions, practical circumstances, commonsense knowledge of social structures, and practical sociological reasoning analysable'.

Garfinkel's researches and postulations in ethnomethodology was the subject of fierce and often bitter debate within sociology. Although some of its insights have been taken into the centre of sociological theory, particularly through the work of Anthony Giddens, it has now settled into an accepted but smaller preoccupation. Ethnomethodology draws on a varied philosophical

background: phenomenology on the one hand and Wittgenstein and linguistic philosophy on the other. Together with much post-structural and post-modernist work, it is a sociological representative of what has become known as the 'linguistic turn' in philosophy, an increasing preoccupation in twentieth-century philosophy with the nature of language and language use. Social life, and the apparently stable phenomena and relationships in which it exists, are seen by ethnomethodologists as a constant achievement through the use of language. It is something that together we create and recreate continuously. This is indeed the rationale behind the name: 'ology' (the study of) 'ethno' (people's) 'method' (methods) of creating social order. The emphasis is on doing things: we 'do' friendship, being a sociologist, walking along the street, and everything else.

Garfinkel understood ethnomethodology as a distinct approach to sociological inquiry, one that painstakingly analyzes and describes the various methods by which members of a social group maintain the orderliness and sensibility of their everyday worlds. Unlike approaches that took the objectivity of social facts as given, Garfinkel took it as his job to understand how this seemingly objective reality was constantly being produced, managed, and negotiated in the everyday activities and routines of ordinary people. A guiding principle of ethnomethodology was to not bring pre-existing understandings of what constitutes social reality to the setting under study—neither social structures, nor the objectified institutions of social constructionists, not even the "significant symbols" of symbolic interactionists. Rather, the idea is to let members' own methods of establishing social reality speak for themselves.

3.1.2 Self-assessment Exercise

What is ethnomethodology?

3.2 Central ideas in ethnomethodology

Indexicality and reflexivity are the two central ideas in ethnomethodology. Indexicality is the insight that there is no such thing as a clear, extensive definition of any word or concept in a language, since meaning comes from reference to other words and to the context in which the words are spoken. For example: It is possible for an interlocutor 'A' to ask a co-interlocutor 'B' 'What do you mean' about an utterance, and then goes on indefinitely, asking the same question 'What do you mean' to whatever answer 'B' gives. To this endless repetition of 'What do you mean', there is no final answer. Much of Garfinkel's early work consisted of sending his students out on exercises which establish the fact that humans create and maintain a sense of meaning and existence in social life which is not actually there. One such exercise was to ask people 'What do you mean?' relentlessly during conversations. The result is that people become frustrated, distressed and angry when the taken-for-granted rules and common ground knowledge which interlocutors use for establishing meaning are undermined. They lose their sense of social reality and may not want to continue the discussion further. Endless repetition of 'What do you mean' in conversation according to Garfinkel is glossing.

Reflexivity refers to the fact that our sense of order is a as result of conversational processes which is created in talk. Yet, we usually think of ourselves as describing the order already existing around us. For ethnomethodologists, to describe a situation is at the same time to create

it.

The ideas of Indexicality and reflexivity formed part of a radical critique of all conventional sociology—which explains the bitterness of some of the arguments that ensued. According to ethnomethodologists, conventional sociologists are constructing a sense of social order in the same way as a layperson: namely, meanings are regarded as substantive and unproblematic. Consequently they are taken for granted. By contrast, ethnomethodologists argue that the proper task of sociology is to sort out the interpretive rules by means of which we establish our sense of order, rather than engage in reflexively establishing that sense. In this way, conventional sociology becomes an object of study for ethnomethodology, in the same way as any other human social activity is an object of study. Thus, Garfinkel's book contains both an essay on coding answers to sociological interviews and an essay on trans-sexuality, the activities sharing an equal status as ways of producing social reality.

The example of 'glossing' in the lens of ethnomethodologists illustrates the kind of interpretive procedure in which ethnomethodology is interested; in everyday life, glossing means avoiding the issue. For ethnomethodologists, all talk is glossing, since the issue cannot be directly stated. In glossing, people employ a range of taken-for-granted rules, such as the 'etcetera rule', which adds to every other rule a clause which says 'except in reasonable circumstances'.

Ethnomethodology has often being criticized as not saying anything very important. The real political and social issues in societies are beyond its scope, since the concern is with how we constitute this world, rather than what we constitute it as being. It is argued that the rules it draws out are also comparatively low level and merely tell us what we already know. Although ethnomethodological work continues, it is neither as prominent, nor as controversial as hitherto. On the other hand, a modified version of some of its insights is now almost taken-for-granted: there is, for example, a much wider recognition among sociologists of the problematic nature of meaning and of the way in which our talk does contribute to the creation of our social reality. Meanwhile, ethnomethodology has become a relatively prosperous alternative discipline, with its own conferences, journals, and centres of excellence.

Aaron Cicourel among ethnomethodologist has been most concerned with establishing a relationship with conventional sociology. He stops short of seeing social reality and societies as constructions of talk, but recognizes that taken-for-granted rules of talk and action are fundamental to social order, and employs a notion of rule similar to that of ethnomethodology as a way of understanding both social action and social structure and bringing the two together.

3.3 Self-Assessment Exercise

Explain Indexicality and reflexivity

4   Conclusion

Though ethnomethodology has been criticised for not saying anything important, it is one of the earliest approaches to the study of what social interaction does; and also, it is an approach that what people do without taking into the consideration the contextual factors.

5   Summary

In this unit, we have looked at ethnomethodology as a sociological concept and a traditional method of textual analysis. We saw that ethnomethodological approach to discourse analysis focuses and describes various methods by which members of a social group sustain the uniformity and awareness of their everyday lives.

6   Tutor-marked Assignment

What is the relationship between Ethnomethodology and phenomenology?

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MODULE TWO: TRADITIONAL DISCOURSE ANALYTICAL APPROACHES

Unit 3: Conversation Analysis

1.0 Introduction

2.0 Objectives

3.0 What is Conversation Analysis?

     3.1 Turn taking

     3.2 Turn Design

     3.3 Self-Assessment Exercise

     3.4 Adjacency Pairs and Sequence Organisation

     3.5 Self-Assessment Exercise

     3.6 Error and Repair Mechanisms

4.0 Conclusion

5.0 Summary

6.0 Tutor-marked Assignment

7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 Introduction

In this unit, we shall be discussing an interesting approach to discourse analysis which is Conversation Analysis (CA). We consider CA interesting because it focuses primarily on the study of talk-in-interaction which is an integral aspect of our everyday social life. Indeed, as humans in society, we engage in talk to persuade, argue, plead, commiserate, and joke among others. In fact, one wonders what human society would look like, if people could not or did not

talk. In this unit therefore, we shall be discussing topics such as how people take turns in conversation, cooperation in turn taking, adjacency pairs, sequence insertion, error and repair mechanisms and so on.

2.0 Objectives

At the end of the unit, we should be able to:

- Define Conversation Analysis
- Explain foundations of Conversation Analysis
- Explain how speakers take turns in conversation
- Describe sequence organisation
- Explain errors and repair mechanisms

MAIN CONTENT

3.0 What is Conversation Analysis (CA)?

Conversation Analysis (henceforth CA) focuses primarily on talk. Hutchby and Wooffit (2002:13) define CA as 'The systematic analysis of the talk produced in everyday situations of human interaction'. It is a method applied for investigating the structure and process of social interaction between humans. In other words, CA is concerned mainly with recorded, dialogic, spoken discourse of a fairly informal or everyday character. It is also interested in the study of the role of talk in wider processes. That is why other forms of talk such as interviews in work or media settings, medical consultations, court room interaction, classroom talk, and other forms of institutional talk are also areas which have attracted conversation analysts' research interests (Gardner, 2008).

 This is why the more general characterization 'talk in interaction' is often preferred over 'conversation' nowadays since research in this field is no longer limited to the study of conversations. Researchers in this field are concerned with the study of the methods which speakers/participants adopt when they organize social action through talk. They try to investigate

the kinds of social organisations which people use as resources when they communicate. In other words, CA analysts work with the assumption that talk is not simply the product of two speaker-hearer's attempt at exchanging information but involves mutual collaboration aimed at achieving meaningful communication (Hutchby and Wooffit, 2002). CA studies rules and practices from an interactional perspective by examining recordings of real-life recordings. It investigates and explains the underlying organized procedures which inform the production of naturally occurring talk.

Self-Assessment Exercise

Briefly explain what you think is meant by Conversation Analysis

3.1 Foundations of Conversation Analysis (CA)

Conversation Analysis (CA) originated from the seminal lectures delivered by Harvey Sacks in the sociology department of the University of California between 1964 and 1972. CA is historically linked to ethnomethodology. Ethnomethodology had its roots in the late 1940s and 1950s with Harold Garfinkel, a sociologist who started by studying jury deliberations in the USA. He found that mainstream sociology of the day did not help him much in his enquiry because access to social reality was denied the 'ordinary' person and rather given to the scientist through a belief that social scientific method was superior to ordinary, everyday common sense. He therefore sought to investigate how the ordinary person interactively and reflexively achieves an understanding of everyday practical life, its 'policies, methods, risks, procedures and strategies' in order to explain 'the rule governed activities of everyday life'. Another important figure who influenced Sacks was Erving Goffman who was perhaps the first major social scientist to look closely at people's interaction and order of face-to-face communication (Wooffitt, 2005). Sacks had been examining a corpus of recorded telephone calls to the Los Angeles Suicide Prevention Centre in order to investigate the hospital staff's challenge of getting callers to reveal their names. Along the line however, he became interested in examining callers' utterances in order to find out what those utterances were doing rather than treating them as communication problems. CA begins from the notion that conversational interaction involves 'doing things with words' such as describing, questioning, offering, agreeing, and so on.

Investigations in CA involve making an audio and/or video recording of naturally occurring talk. These recordings are carefully transcribed so as to capture details.

Although the foundational work in CA focuses on talk in conversations, the framework has gradually been extended to study many more specialized forms of communication including interaction in educational, medical, clinical, legal, political, and mass media settings. In addition, analysis in CA may be subsumed in typically linguistic disciplines such as Pragmatics, Discourse Analysis or Interactional Sociolinguistics. This is why the more general characterization 'talk in interaction' nowadays is often preferred over 'conversation'. Key questions for conversation analysts are:

- How do people take turns in conversation?
- How do people open and close conversation?
- How do people launch new topics, close old ones, shift topic, etc.?
- How is it that conversation generally progresses satisfactorily from one utterance to the next?

3.2 Turn Taking

As a member of society and having engaged in talks since childhood, you must have noticed that people usually display some form of order in the way and manner they interact. When talking, people do not all talk at the same time. Rather, they talk and allow others to also talk. Turn-taking is an aspect that is central to the study of conversations. In conversation analysis, turns are the individual speaker basic unit of speech or conversation. Schmitt (2010: 58) describes a turn as 'each occasion that a speaker speaks'. He further notes that a turn ends when another speaker takes a turn. A graphic description of turn taking could then be described as Participant A talks, stops and Participant B starts, stops and so on. From these we can obtain an A-B-A-B-A distribution of talk across two participants (Levinson, 1983). For example:

James: Good morning!

Carol: Oh hi. How was your weekend?

James: Not too bad

Carol: I didn't get to do too much. Just a little shopping close to the house

James: It's ok. We all need to rest more

Carol: See you later then

James: Yeah, later

Sometimes the number of participants could vary beyond two speakers but even then the mechanism that governs turn-taking is capable of operating in these varying circumstances. However, it must quickly be pointed out that there are exceptions to the one-at-a-time rule of turn taking. These are reflected sometimes in 'choral' occasions such as greeting in unison, people laughing in response to a joke, instances when people simply choose to talk at the same time and so on. Nevertheless, the one speaker talking at a time is the more common situation in interaction. Conversation analysts are interested in how speakers achieve turn taking and what the rules are for who speaks and when they speak. These rules according to Sacks, Schegloff and Jefferson (cited in Levinson, 1983: 297) are ordered options which operate on a 'turn-by-turn' basis and could thus be termed as a *local management system*. It is locally managed since it organizes only current and next turn and not for example, what will happen in thirty minutes or an hour. In addition, it is *party managed* since interlocutors work out who should speak next by themselves rather than depending on a third party to coordinate their conversation.

Again, you need to note that there are exceptional cases such as formal debates and classroom discourse where for instance, the teacher selects who speaks next and for how long. Generally however, turn taking rules operate like a sharing device over speakers' control of the floor. Sharing of the control of the floor includes an allocation of units of the conversation to different speakers. These minimal allocations are known as Turn-Constructional Units (TCUs), which consist of linguistic units (words, phrases, clauses, etc.) that form a recognizably complete utterance in a given context. The end of such a unit constitutes a point at which speakers may change – a Transition-Relevance Place (TRP). Note the use of the modal 'may' because it is not all the time that speaker transition necessarily occur at this point but it is, that transition to a next speaker becomes possibly relevant at this point.

At a TRP, conversationalists use specific techniques to allocate next turn. If current speaker selects another participant as next speaker before her turn has arrived at its first possible completion point (other selection), the selected party has both the right and the obligation to begin the next turn at this point. If no other speaker is selected, another participant may self-select as next speaker. If none of the options is used, current speaker may continue. The system then applies again as soon as current speaker arrives at the next possible completion point. The

turn-taking organization thus provides for the orderly distribution of turns-at-talk for conversation. You should however note, though, that hearers do not always wait to find points of current speaker's completion of a turn. Sometimes, they also anticipate and project them before they actually occur. In the conversation below, you notice that Bala starts an initial next turn at the first and second point of possible completion not because there was any silence from Maurine but by virtue of the fact that he projected a possible completion of the turn constructional unit which is a potential transition relevance place.

Bala: Did you visit any beach in Lagos last year?
Maurine: Oh, yes, Tarkwa Bay
Ade: Oh, that's a nice one
Bala: Tar…Tarkwa
Bala: Tarkwa Bay. I was there two years ago.

Self-Assessment Exercise
Critically assess turn-taking as a speaker's basic unit of conversation

3.3 Sequence Organisation
In the last section, we described that nature of turn-taking. We realized that to ensure order in conversation, each speaker must talk for a while and allow others to also speak. Now, we want to consider how each of these turns is linked to one another to ensure a well-coordinated conversation. Schegloff (2007) explains that one of the most fundamental organisations of practice for talk-in-interaction is the organization of turn taking, known as sequence organization. Sequence organization refers to the ways conversationalists link turns to each other as a coherent series of interrelated communicative actions. In addition, a sequence is an ordered series of turns through which participants accomplish and coordinate an interactional activity. Unlike linguistics and psychology which pay attention to the composition of singular utterance in the forms of phrase or sentence, CA sees the positioning of an utterance in the ongoing conversation as important to the understanding of its meaning. Schegloff explains that the organization of turns is best examined with respect to action rather than topicality. In other words, turn taking should be examined for what they are doing rather than what they are about.

For example the utterance: *Would somebody like some more beans and yam*, in the extract below is better understood as 'doing an offer' than as talking 'about beans and yam' as can be seen in the response to it.

Mum: *Whao, there's so much food left….. Would somebody like some more beans and yam*?
Tade: *Hmmm… I'll take some beans*.

The adjacency pair is the basis or the basic pattern of sequence organization. Adjacency pair is one of the few kernel forms of organization through which actions and courses of action get organized in talk in interaction. Indeed, Levinson (2010) suggests that adjacency pairs are a fundamental unit of conversation organization. They are paired utterances consisting of two turns/ actions, produced by different participants. Adjacency pairs consist of two parts – a First Pair Part (FPP), followed in next position by a type-matched Second Pair Part (SPP), which, if it is not produced, would be 'noticeably absent'. Indeed, adjacency pairs reflect the idea that when a social actor performs a particular action, s/he imposes a normative obligation on co-interlocutors to respond by giving an appropriate action at the first possible opportunity. Examples of adjacency pairs include greeting-greeting, question-answer, invitation/ acceptance/declination, complaint-account, and so on. The property that unites FPPs and SPPs is called conditional relevance because the relevance of the second action is dependent upon the production of the first. Multiple adjacency pairs can be strung together to form complex courses of action by processes of sequence expansion. Schegloff and Sacks (1973, cited in Stivers, 2013: 192) categorize adjacency pairs along the following lines:

Adjacency pairs are sequences of two utterances that are:
  (i)   Adjacent
  (ii)   Produced by different speakers
  (iii)   Relatively ordered, so that a particular first part requires a particular second (or range of second parts) – e.g. offers require acceptance or rejections, greetings require greetings and so on.

(iv)   Pair-type related such that particular first-pair parts are paired with particular second-pair parts (for example, greeting with greeting, not greeting with acceptance, farewell with farewell, not farewell with denial)

And there is a rule governing the use of adjacency pairs, namely:

(v)   Having produced a first part of some pair, current speaker must stop speaking, and next speaker must produce at that point a second part to the same pair.

So far the discussion on adjacency pairs has focused on the obvious – that is the surface level of pairing in interactional organization. There could however be some constraints on pairing which could lead to the expansion of adjacency pair structure. A pre-expansion could precede an adjacency pair in form of pre-telling, pre-invitation, etc. What they all have in common is that they are usually heard as actions that are leading to something. An insertion expansion could occur in which case they feature as actions intervening between the first part (initiation) and the second (response) part of the pair. Insert expansion could take two main forms – as addressing some issue with the base initiating action or as preliminary or conditional to a response. A post-expansion involves a further expansion of an action sequence that has reached possible completion. This could be minimal or non-minimal forms of post-expansion. The minimal form offers a reaction to the second-position response via tokens such as *oh*, *great*, *splendid*, etc. These reactions do not in themselves initiate new sequences. Minimal expansion is produced by the speaker if the initiating action indicates that their action was adequate. When adjacency pairs proceed smoothly, for example, a greeting gets a greeting in return, a congratulations gets a thank you in return, we say these are examples of 'preferred sequences'. But consider this example:

A: How are you Bola?
B: Where have you been?
A: Are you alright?
B: Don't talk to me

This example would be perceived as a 'dispreferred sequence'. It should be noted that the idea of preference is not a psychological one in the sense that it does not refer to speakers' or hearers' individual preferences. Rather, it is a structural notion that corresponds closely to the linguistic

concept of markedness. In this regard, preferred second parts occur as structurally simpler turns while dispreferred seconds are marked by various kinds of structural complexity. Dispreferred second parts are typically delivered after some significant delay, with some preface marking their dispreferred status and with some account of why the preferred second cannot be performed. This complexity in dispreferred seconds occur because of speaker's effort at making the sequence as less damaging to the participants' face or personal self-worth as possible.

Self-Assessment Exercise

1. Attempt a definition of adjacency pairs

2. What features of sequence organization do you consider important in the analysis of any conversation?

3.4 Turn Design

One other area which conversation analysts focus on is turn design. A turn design refers to how speakers format their turns to implement some action, in some position, for some recipient(s). In other words, turn design is concerned with the way in which a turn at talk or a turn constructional unit is put together by speakers to 'do something' (Drew, 2013:131). A basic assumption in CA is that participants use talk and other conducts to produce recognizable actions, often employing particular grammatical formats as resources to do so (Levinson, 2013). Thus, there is a connection between what a speaker is doing in a current turn at talk and what another speaker did in a prior turn, and it goes on and on. The focus on turn design can be traced to West Coast functionalists in the USA who look at how people construct utterances in real time, and in particular way in which they use regular, patterned, grammatical schemas under the constraints of having to talk in interaction. The research agenda on turn design is usually aimed at demonstrating how certain constructions are chosen to achieve particular actions and how these choices are influenced in part by local interactional contingencies. For example, to make an offer, speakers can design their turn as a conditional (*if your husband would like their address, my husband would gladly give it to him*), declarative (*I'll take her on Sunday*), or interrogative

(*do you want me to bring the chairs?*), each of which systematically occurs in particular sequential positions (Curl, 2006).

3.5 Error and Repair Mechanisms

Repair is a generic term used in Conversation Analysis to refer to either errors in turn taking or substantive faults in the contents of what a speaker has said (Hutchby & Wooffit, 1998). Repair practices address troubles in speaking, hearing, and understanding. Schegloff (cited in Rabab'ah, 2013) notes that in addition to linguistic problems (pronunciation, vocabulary, syntax, etc.), repair may also relate to acceptability problems such as saying something wrong in a broad sense, that is untrue, inappropriate or irrelevant. The segment of talk to which the repair is addressed is called the trouble source or the repairable. The trouble source is the utterance or part of an utterance that is perceived as problematic to at least one of the interlocutors. Drew (1997) submits that self-repair is also a mechanism of remedying mistakes in conversation. Four varieties of repair have been identified namely: self-initiated self-repair, other-initiated self-repair, self-initiated other repair and other-initiated other-repair.

A repair procedure includes three basic components: trouble source (e.g. an unfamiliar word), repair initiation (i.e. a signal that begins a repair procedure), and repair solution (e.g. a rephrasing of the unfamiliar word). Either the speaker of the trouble source (self) or its recipient (other) can initiate a repair procedure and/ or produce a repair solution. Self-initiated self-repair which is the most common repair strategy (for example, '*So he came on Saturday- uh Friday'*), takes the form of initiation with a non-lexical initiator, followed by the repairing segment. These non-lexical initiators include cut offs, lengthening of sounds and quasi-lexical fillers such as *uh* and *um*. In order to repair their errors in problematic talk, language users repeat words and use fillers to gain time and achieve their communicative goals. Schegloff (cited in Gardner, 2008) states that self-initiated and self-completed repair (self-initiated self-repair) occurs when the interlocutor who is responsible for the trouble source both initiates and completes the repair. In other words, the speaker of the trouble source initiates and executes the repair procedure independently. Other-initiated self-repair strategy takes the form of the recipient of the trouble source initiating the procedure by indicating difficulty with an utterance and then the speaker produces the solution. For example,

A: *So he came on Saturday.*

B: *Saturday?*

A: *Friday.*

In this case, the initiation of repair takes place in the turn subsequent to the turn in which the trouble occurs. For self-initiated other-repair, the speaker of a trouble source may depend on the recipient to repair the trouble. For example,

A: The manager, Mr Aderibigbe is from Oshogbo, er Ife

B: hmmm, Ife

A: er…Oshogbo.

In other-initiated other-repair, the recipient of a trouble source initiates and carries out the repair. This is closest to the notion of 'correction' in the conventional sense. For example,

A: His child is in college now

B: Child?

A: Son, sorry

4.0 Conclusion

Talk is part of everyday human lives. Its integral role in the smooth running of society has motivated copious research in the areas bordering on the question of how human talk is organized in interactions. Studies on conversational analysis have revealed that talk is not just an engagement in exchange of information but a collaboration among interlocutors aimed at achieving meaningful communication. The different aspects of conversation analysis examined establish the fact that talk-in-interaction is systematic rather mere random use of words in communicative exchange.

5.0 Summary

In this unit, attention was paid to the definitions of Conversation Analysis and the foundations of this area of language study. In addition, we examined different elements of Conversation analysis such as turn taking, sequence organisation, turn design and error and repair mechanism.

There is no doubt that CA research offer opportunities to gain deeper insight to the ways interactants organise conversation in order to engage in meaningful interactions.

6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment

1. Why is turn-taking important in conversation analysis?
2. Why is error and repair mechanism important in talk?

7.0 References/Further Reading

Hutchby, I. Wooffit, R. (2002). *Conversation Analysis: Principles,*
     Practices and Applications. Cambridge: Blackwell Publishers.

Sidnell, J. & Stivers, T. (Eds.). (2013). *The Handbook of Conversation*
     Analysis, UK: Wiley-Blackwell.

Woffit, R. (2005). *Conversation Analysis and Discourse Analysis: A*
     Comparative and Critical Introduction. London: Sage.

Unit 4: Classroom Discourse Analysis

1.0 Introduction

2.0 Objectives

3.0 What is Classroom Discourse Analysis?

3.1 Birmingham Model of Classroom Discourse Analysis

     3.1.1 Lesson

     3.1.2 Transaction

     3.1.3 Exchange

     3.1.4 Move

     3.1.5 Classes of Acts

Self-Assessment Exercise

4.0 **Other Perspectives on Classroom Discourse Analysis Research**

1.0 Introduction

From your experience as a student right from the nursery/ primary school level, you must have observed that a lot of activities and interactions take place in the classroom. Well, as a child you may have even assumed that the classroom was a place to gather and play with your friends. Today, as a more mature student you must have realized that your teacher has a need – that is the need to communicate with you and your classmates. Indeed, the students also have the need to communicate with the teacher so that effective teaching and learning can actually take place. Just like in the restaurant or eatery, spoken language is used in the classroom for communication. However, the nature of classroom communication differs from these other settings in some ways. Whereas it may be acceptable for people to speak simultaneously in a restaurant for example, classroom interaction is a structured activity. In fact, traditionally the teacher controls the interaction at least while the class is officially in session.

However, in recent years, there have been growing advocacy for more learner-centered approach to classroom interactions in which learning is more collaborative and the teacher moderates and facilitates activities in the classroom. Perhaps, because of the centrality of the classroom (either physical or virtual) to the acquisition of knowledge and of course the unique characteristics of classroom discourse as a communication system, researchers have paid attention to this field for many years. In the early 1970s, Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) carried out an influential study on classroom discourse by tape recording British primary school lessons. Their goal was to understand the nature of discourse through the study of classroom communication. Their structural description of the discourse found in the classroom is popularly referred to as the Birmingham model or Initiation, Response and Follow up (IRF). Since their study of classroom discourse in 1975, this field has evolved and expanded to focus on other aspects of classroom discourse. In this unit, we shall attempt to explain classroom discourse and classroom discourse

analysis, the Sinclair and Coulthard structural description of traditional, teacher-fronted classes which involves the explanation of discourse terms such as lesson, transaction, exchange, move and acts. We shall also briefly discuss current interactional and critical approaches to classroom discourse analysis.

2.0 Objectives

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

- Define Classroom discourse Analysis
- Define the terms used in Classroom Discourse Analysis
- Discuss interactional and critical perspectives to classroom discourse analysis

MAIN CONTENT

3.0 What is Classroom Discourse Analysis?

Teacher: Look up everyone… I've got something here. What is it?

Pupil: A broom

Teacher: Yes, you are right. What do we use a broom for?

Pupils: To sweep!!!

Teacher: Yes you are right but I don't want chorus answers…Can we use a broom to brush? Raise your hand if you know the answer…

The conversation in the box above is an example of a typical traditional classroom interaction. Generally, classroom discourse refers to the type of discourse that occurs between teacher and students and among students in the classroom context. Classroom discourse analysis therefore focuses on describing certain verbal behaviours of teachers and students as they interact in the classroom. This is important because the social roles of teachers and students and the activities

they perform influence the form and function of classroom discourse. Thus, the use of language in the classroom is often different from other types of discourses used in other contexts. The educational context defines who gives information, asks for information, gives advice, threaten and so on. Language is used in the classroom largely in the form of explanations, instructions, descriptions and arguments (Rezaie and Lashkarian, 2015). Researchers in classroom discourse analysis have attempted to identify typical classroom speech events and participation structures, investigate the nature of teacher talk, indicate the effects of different types of communication patterns used in the classroom on learning and examine the influence of cultural factors on the character of classroom interaction.

As earlier mentioned, Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) tape recorded British mother tongue classes comprising 10-year-old and 11-year-old children in order to prove that when the discourse is analyzed after the event, there is more order and form in it than might at first be apparent. The goal of the research was to describe both the structure of one form of spoken discourse, that is, the way in which units above the rank of classes are related and patterned and the way that language functions such as statement, question and command are realized through grammatical structure and positioned in the discourse. The data gathered from the recorded lessons therefore served as a basis for their rank scale model which will be discussed in the section below

Self-Assessment

In your own words, explain what you understand by Classroom Discourse Analysis

3.1 Birmingham Model of Classroom Discourse Analysis

The Birmingham model, otherwise known as Initiation, Response and Follow up (IRF) was developed by Sinclair and Coulthard in 1975. They had discovered from their study of primary school pupils in mother tongue classes that language in the classroom followed a rigid sequence and that speaking patterns were highly structured. In creating a structural description of classroom discourse, they found that speech acts found in the classroom could be defined according to their functions and categorised. Their classroom discourse model was created after a rank scale structure developed by Michael Halliday (Eggins, 2004)) to show a hierarchical ordering of grammatical units such that a unit of a given rank normally consists of units of the next lower rank. Sinclair and Coulthard perceived discourse to be a separate category of analysis

from grammar and phonology and therefore developed a rank scale model to analyse discourse in classroom. Each rank scale unit consists of one or more units below it. It is therefore a bottom-to-top system, which means within a level the model moves from the lowest possible rank to the highest. The rank scale has a lesson as the largest unit of the highest rank. The lesson is followed by a transaction which is also followed by a move and finally by an act as the smallest unit at the bottom of the scale hierarchy. Sinclair and Coulthard however noted that there is no one to one correspondence between levels; but they apparently overlap at some points. The rank scale components can be represented as follows:

Lesson

Transaction

Exchange

Move

Act
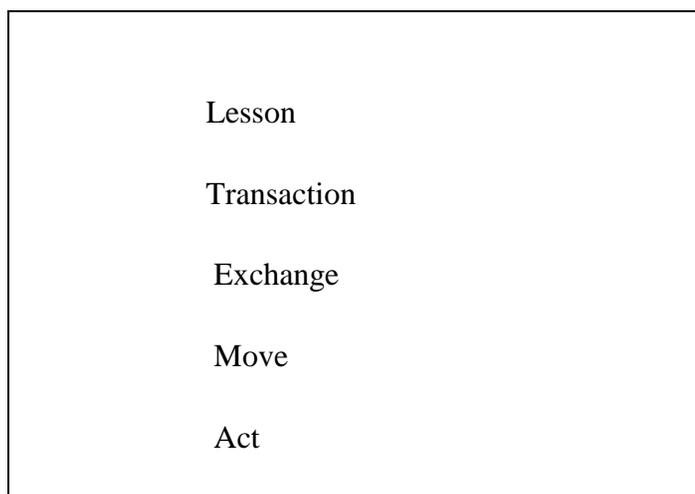
Table 1: The rank scale by Sinclair and Coulthard (1992: 5)

3.1.1 Lesson

The highest rank in Sinclair and Coulthard's model is the lesson. It refers to the sum of a teacher's presentational plans which includes all that happens in the classroom from the time s/he enters until they depart. These include pupils' responses to the teacher's instructions and the ability of the teacher to respond to the pupils' responses. Lesson therefore encompasses teacher's actions which are often pre-planned and students' responses which are often elicited by the teacher through questions, instructions, arguments and so on. In traditional teacher controlled classroom environment, the teacher determines to a large extent the way the discourse of a lesson would go.

3.1.2 Transaction

Transaction is next to lesson. It refers to the basic unit of interaction. It is a sequence of exchanges deployed to perform some tasks in the classroom. It is therefore the minimal contribution made by the participants in a classroom discourse. Every transaction has an opening, which is usually a greeting and it possibly closes with a greeting as well. There is usually a frame or boundary marker to indicate that a new transaction is about to begin such as 'okay', 'now', 'good', 'right' and so on.

3.1.3 Exchange

An exchange is the whole dialogue between the teacher and the pupils. According to Sinclair and Coulthard (1992: 3), "a typical exchange in the classroom consists of an initiation by the teacher, followed by a response from the pupil, followed by feedback to the pupil's response to the teacher". There are two classes of exchanges; boundary exchanges and teaching exchanges. Boundary exchanges signal the transition from one section of the lesson to the next and are initiated by the teacher, whereas teaching exchanges are where questions are asked and answered and feedback given on answers. The purpose of boundary exchanges is to divide and mark the lesson stages by means of two types of moves – framing and focusing. Framing moves indicate boundaries in the lesson and focusing moves are 'meta statements about the discourse', that is they signal the transition from one stage of the lesson to the next and provide information about the different stages of the lesson respectively. The three principal teaching exchanges are informing, directing and eliciting exchanges. Under the teaching exchanges the informing moves take place when the teacher needs to tell her/his students about new information, facts or just simply say something to them. The opening move will therefore begin with an informative act and can but does not necessarily need to be followed by a reply by the students. In other words, the students' response here is optional. For example:

> **Teacher**: In the olden days, women used to fetch water from the stream with clay pots.

On the other hand, a directing exchange is designed to get the pupils to do something. Therefore, the response from the students is the 'doing' part which will most likely but not always be non-verbal response. Even though it is non-verbal, the students will likely respond to the direction the teacher has given. For example:

Teacher: Now you can mix the cake. Let's see if you can add the ingredients in the right order.

The most common exchange in the classroom is an eliciting exchange. These exchanges begin with the teacher asking a question (usually one they already know the answer to). An answer is then given by the student and finally a follow-up evaluation is given by the teacher. For example,

Teacher: Look up everybody. What is this in my hand? Yes Tolu (initiation)

Pupil: It's a knife   (response)

Teacher: It's a knife, yes. What do you use a knife for?   (follow-up) / (initiation)

Pupil: A knife is used to cut bread, meat   (response)

Teacher: Yes, a knife is used to cut things   (follow-up)

3.1.4 Move

A Move refers to the contribution made by one of the participants in the discourse at a point in time. There are framing moves which are used to structure the lesson while the focusing moves are used to draw students' attention to the direction of the lesson. The other three moves are the opening, answering and follow-up moves. The opening move could be used to pass information, direct an action or elicit a fact. It is deployed by the teacher to direct the students to participate in a discourse. The answering move which is usually a response from the students is determined by the head act within the opening act. The follow-up move, which is typically produced by the teacher, takes place after the answering move as a reaction to the student's response. This move is important because it is the way the students get to know whether they have done what the teacher wants them to do.

3.1.5 Act

Act is the smallest unit and the lowest rank of the discourse structure. Acts are used to initiate succeeding discourse activity or respond to earlier discourse activity. The main act in the opening is called the head act. The head act usually appears in the opening moves in form of

elicitation, directive and informative. Other acts could appear in a move along with the head act but they are optional.

Self-Assessment Exercise

1. Briefly explain the background to Sinclair and Coulthard's Birmingham model
2. Describe three of the components of the Birmingham model.

4.0 Other Perspectives on Classroom Discourse Analysis Research

In the last unit Sinclair and Coulthard's discourse analysis approach to classroom communication was examined. In this section, we would like to consider other approaches that could be used to collect and analyse classroom data. Rex, Steadman and Graciano (2006) identified seven perspectives that have been adopted in the study of classroom discourse since the late 1930s. They include: cognitive, socio-cognitive, ethnographic, sociolinguistics and discourse analysis, teacher research, process-product and critical approaches. Meyer (2003) on the other hand identified the following mainstream approaches to classroom discourse analysis. They are the sociolinguistic approach, the structural approach, the psycholinguistic approach, the interactionist approach, the strategic approach, the methodological approach and the reflective approach. Meyer explained that the sociolinguistic approach examines the linguistic variables of L1 classroom discourse in relation to learning; the structural approach analyses individual utterances, particularly the way they form larger units of discourse; investigates dependency between the discourse used in formal instructional environments and its effect on learning; the interactionist approach compares foreigner talk with classroom discourse, teacher feedback and error correction styles and social interaction and negotiation of meaning in exchanges between learners and the native speaker interlocutors; the strategic approach examines teacher-talk strategies and effects of communication strategies on interaction in institutional and non-institutional settings; the methodological approach studies patterns of classroom participation, teacher's questioning styles and classroom management discourse. Finally the reflective approach investigates teaching styles and methodologies of language teacher education in various institutional and cultural contexts.

Walsh (2011) identified the following as approaches that have also been adopted in the study of classroom discourse: Interaction analysis approach, discourse analysis approach and conversation analysis approach. In addition, he identified other approaches which he described as alternative approaches that could be used to analyze classroom discourse. They include the corpus linguistics (CL) approach or combined approaches such as CL and CA for example. Some other scholars (Markee, 2015; Miller, 2015 among others) identify the critical approach to the study of classroom discourse particularly in second language situation and another approach that is unfolding which is the study of multimodality in classroom interaction. These and many more approaches to classroom communication provide research opportunities to analyse different aspects of classroom interactions. However, none could be said to be completely exhaustive or able to uncover all the dynamics involved in classroom interactions and the factors which influence these interactions. Thus, multidisciplinary studies may be useful for eclectic and broader understanding of classroom communication.

5.0 Conclusion

The central role that education plays in society makes the study of teacher-student interactions quite important. Although, classroom interactions appear like discourses that take place in other setting, yet discourse in the classroom, particularly in the traditional classroom setting, is much more structured and largely controlled by the teacher. Early study of classroom discourse analysis could be traced to Sinclair and Coulthard who applied Halliday's Systemic Linguistic approach to their study of interactions in the classroom. Other researchers have also applied the sociolinguistic, psycholinguistic, critical, multimodal approaches among others to the study of discourses that take place in the classroom. Research in the field however will continue to grow as more eclectic approaches are required to be able to investigate the different dimensions of interaction in this field.

6.0 Summary

In this unit, we tried to provide definitions for the term Classroom Discourse Analysis. Attention was paid to the Birmingham model, otherwise known as Initiation, Response and Follow up (IRF) which was developed by Sinclair and Coulthard in 1975. In addition, other approaches to classroom discourse analysis were discussed. It could be seen that this area of research in

language study has not only attracted researchers' attention for many years but is still unfolding as scholars being to apply the critical and multimodal approaches to the study of classroom communication.

Tutor-Marked Assignment

1. Describe classroom discourse based on your study of Sinclair and Coulthard's Initiation, Response and Follow up (IRF).
2. Explain at least two of the more current approaches to the study of classroom discourse.

7.0 References/Further Reading

Eggins, S. (2004). *An Introduction to Systemic Functional Linguistics.* London: Continuum.

Markee, M. (Ed.). (2015). *The Handbook of Classroom Discourse and Interaction*. UK: Wiley Blackwell.

MODULE 3: CURRENT TRENDS IN THE ANALYSIS OF DISCOURSE 1: CRITICAL PERSPECTIVES

Unit 1: Introduction to Critical Perspectives on Discourse Analysis

1.0   Introduction

2.0   Objectives

3.0   What is the Critical Perspective to Discourse Study?

        3.1 Self-Assessment Exercise

4.0   Critical Approaches to Discourse Analysis?

        4.1 Self-Assessment Exercise

5.0 Conclusion

6.0 Summary

7.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment

8.0 References/Further Reading

1.0   Introduction

As you would have observed, the discussions in Module 1 and Module 2 have centred on research interests in the study of discourse as a phenomenon of everyday conversation and classroom interaction. However, just like we noted in Module Two, sometimes scholars choose to adopt a critical perspective to the study of discourse. The critical approach to language study is rooted in the theory of social constructionism. The theory which found its hold in the classical work of Berger and Luckmann's *The Social Construction of Reality* published in 1966 has its basic argument in the postulation that human beings together create and sustain all social phenomena through social practices or social actions and language is viewed as a crucial tool used for creating, sustaining or changing world realities. Critical approaches to the study of language in use therefore adopt a stance against the taken-for-granted assumptions about the ways in which language works in society and argue that language is not neutral/ transparent but largely embedded in society and culture (Fairclough and Wodak, 1997). In addition, scholars in this field argue that discourse does not just reflect or represent social entities and relations but construct them in different ways. The critical approach therefore requires that a researcher go beyond pure description of the structures of text to closely examine the strategies which language users adopt in text production to encode ideology and power relations. In this unit, we will discuss the critical perspective to discourse analysis. In addition, we will also identify and discuss the different perspectives which scholars adopt in the critical analysis of discourse.

2.0   Objectives

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

- define the notion of 'critical' in discourse studies,
- explain the critical perspective to discourse study,
- identify critical approaches to discourse analysis

MAIN CONTENT

3.0   What is the Critical Perspective to Discourse Study?

The notion, 'critical', in discourse analysis is informed by the idea that relationships between discursive, social and cultural change are usually not obvious or transparent for people in society. According to Fairclough (2006), 'critical' implies showing via analysis connections and causes which are hidden. In addition, he notes that the idea of *critical* in discourse study also implies intervention or emancipation for those who might be disadvantaged by providing resources for them through change. Critical approaches to discourse analysis therefore centre on subjects of dominance, inequality and injustice. This is because critical analysts view discourse as social practice, meaning that discourse shapes and is shaped by society. Sometimes, critical also refers to analysis of discourse that demonstrates resistance of oppression. Blommaert (2005) however cautions that researchers should not equate critical approaches with "approaches that criticise power" but rather that critical analysis should be the study of power effects, of outcome of power, of what power does to people, groups and societies and of how this impact comes about.

The critical perspective to discourse analysis is an ideological position which can be traced to Systemic Functional Linguistics (Halliday, 1985), critical linguistics (Fowler, et al., 1979), critical language study, critical language awareness, critical literacy and new literacy studies. It is multidisciplinary, interdisciplinary or even transdisciplinary (Chouliaraki & Fairclough, 1999). Critical perspectives to discourse analysis sometimes encompass linguistics, semiotics, pragmatics, anthropology, sociology, psychology, education, media and critical studies. The three central concepts common to all research that adopt the critical perspective are power, ideology and critique. Critical analysis of discourse is traced back to influences from Aristotle, Marx, the Frankfurt School, Jurgen Habermas, Gramsci, Foucault, and Althuser among others

(van Dijk, 1993). Wodak and Meyer (2003) identify at least seven dimensions common to different disciplines that adopt the critical perspectives to the study of discourse. They include:

- an interest in the properties of *'naturally occurring' language use* by real language users (instead of a study of abstract language systems and invented examples)
- a focus on *larger units than isolated words and sentences* and, hence, new basic units of analysis: texts, discourses, conversations, speech acts, or communicative events the extension of linguistics *beyond sentence grammar* towards a study of action and interaction
- the extension to *non-verbal (semiotic, multimodal, visual) aspects* of interaction and communication: gestures, images, film, the internet, and multimedia
- a focus on dynamic (socio)-cognitive or interactional moves and strategies
- the study of the functions of (social, cultural, situative and cognitive) *contexts of language use*
- an analysis of a vast number of *phenomena of text grammar and language use*: coherence, anaphora, topics, macrostructures, speech acts, interactions, turn-taking, signs, politeness, argumentation, rhetoric, mental models, and many other aspects of text and discourse.

Self-Assessment Exercise

1. How do you understand the notion of critical in discourse study?
2. Demonstrate your understanding of the assumptions common to all critical perspectives to discourse studies

4.0 Critical Approaches to the Study of Discourse

As earlier mentioned, scholarship in discourse analysis has also extended to critical approaches to the study of different areas where language is used in society for different purposes. Some of the fields that have adopted the critical perspective include classroom discourse analysis, media discourse analysis, political discourse analysis, studies in ethnography, multimodal discourse analysis, etc. For instance, critical classroom discourse analysis (CCDA) investigates the socio-cultural and socio-political dimensions to classroom discourse. This helps to account for the

sociocultural, socio-political and sociolinguistic dimensions of classroom activities. According to Kumaravadivelu (1999), the sociolinguistic and behaviouristic approaches earlier adopted in classroom discourse analysis and classroom interaction analysis respectively were not adequate to account for ideological influences on the construction of discourse in the classroom. Another example of critical approach to discourse is Social semiotics. Social semiotics is a critical approach to discourse study which views language and other modes of communication as social practice. Contrary to the traditional approach to the study of semiotics, social semioticians note that sign making is a motivated activity deployed to express meaning rather than a random use of signs. In addition, they argue that no single semiotic code can be understood in isolation since meaning resides in the multiplicity of codes deployed in texts (Hodge and Kress, 1995). Thus, social semiotic study of discourse involves analysis of the linguistic and non-linguistics resources that text producers employ in meaning making.

Another approach to the critical study of discourse is Critical Discourse Analysis. Its fundamental research interest according to Wodak (2001) is to analyse opaque as well as transparent structural relationships of dominance, discrimination, power and control as manifest in language. Computer Mediated Communication (henceforth CMC) has also witnessed a critical paradigm in the study of Computer Mediated Discourse (CMD). Herring (2001) argues that despite the earlier perception of CMC as a purely neutral medium for the transfer of data and information, the genre actually exhibits influence of social conditioning based on the discourse topic and activity type. These different approaches to the critical analysis of discourse shall be examined in detail in Module 4.

Self-Assessment Exercise

Explain two critical perspectives to discourse study

5.0 Conclusion

The critical study of language and indeed, other semiotic modes of discourse is an area of language that has attracted the attention of scholars over the years. On the one hand, the critical perspective helps scholars to understand better the effect of the social dimension on the structuring of language and the roles it performs in different spheres of society. On the other hand, the critical approach helps to query the taken-for-granted assumptions of language as a

transparent and neutral mode of communication, and thus helps to establish the fact that the use of language is largely conditioned by its context of use. Invariably, the critical study of discourse helps to make clear opaque naturalized discourse which often helps powerful social actors to enact inequality and dominance in society via the use of language.

5.0   Summary

In this unit, you have been provided with background information to the critical study of discourse analysis. We also considered some examples of different fields that have adopted the critical perspective to the study of discourse. The next unit presents a historical view of the development of critical linguistics and critical discourse analysis.

7.0 Tutor-marked Assignment

1. From your understanding of critical perspective, what do you think is the contribution of this approach to discourse analysis?
2. Connect the theory of social constructionism to the critical study of discourse

8.0 References/Further Reading

Blommaert, J. (2005). *Discourse: A Critical Introduction*. Cambridge: University Press.

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Unit 2: From Critical Linguistics to Critical Discourse Analysis: A Historical Perspective

Content

1.0   Introduction
2.0   Objectives
3.0   Critical Linguistics (CL)

   3.1 Self-Assessment

   3.2 Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA)

1.0 Introduction

In Unit 1, we examined the notion of 'critical' in discourse studies. In addition, you were also introduced to some of the fields where the critical perspective to the analysis of discourse has been applied. As you can see, the critical approach to language studies developed at a stage in the history of linguistic enquiries on the use of language. In this Unit, we will be looking at the historical development of the critical study of discourse. Indeed, two schools of critical schools of discourse are prominent. They are research in the field of Critical Linguistics and Critical Discourse Analysis. The discussion in this Unit will focus on these two approaches to critical scholarship of discourse analysis.

2.0 Objectives

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

- Explain the history of critical study of discourse
- Discuss Critical Linguistics
- Discuss Critical Discourse Analysis
- Identify and discuss different approaches to Critical Discourse Analysis

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Critical Linguistics (CL)

As far as we know from current day research in the use of language, the foundation of the critical approach to the study of discourse could be traced to Critical Linguistics (henceforth, CL).

Particularly, in the 20th century, researchers began to systematically study the political and social dimensions to text. Although, in some quarters, it is believed that CL and Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) are terms that could actually be used interchangeably, yet our idea of CL in this discussion is the approach developed mainly by Roger Fowler, Robert Hodge and Gunther Kress at the University of East Anglia in the 1970s. Essentially, critical linguists emphasise the study of the interrelations between language, thought and culture. CL proponents argue that there is a connection between linguistic structure (language) and social structure (society). They therefore focus on the study of language in relation to social and historical context. Ideology is also central to critical linguistics. Indeed, CL reflects the view that linguistic structure could potentially have ideological significance. Thus, CL research aims at increasing awareness of how language could serve as a means which power social actors use to dominate others in society. Critical linguists pay attention to the study of implicit expressions of power via conventions which underlie everyday social interactions. Fairclough (2006) explains that CL researchers try to link the a method of linguistic text analysis with a social theory of the functioning of language in ideological processes by drawing on mainly on Halliday's systemic functional linguistics. In view of this, CL proponents agree that linguistic structure perform ideational, interpersonal and textual functions and thus encode social meaning.

CL as a discipline distances itself from other linguistic approaches that prevailed in the 1970s, such as formal descriptive approaches which studied language from the Chomskyan view which divorced language from its context; pragmatics which studied language in context, yet placed too much emphasis on individual agency rather than seeing discourse as a social phenomenon; and sociolinguistics, which at that time focused on the study of language variation and change, not paying attention to social relations and structures. Critical linguistics differs from other linguistic approaches also in the close attention that it pays to grammar and lexis in its analysis of language. It therefore investigates the following areas: transitivity patterns of sentences, the syntactic transformations of clauses, including passive transformation and nominalization, which bring about agent deletion, lexical structure, pointing out the potential of categorization by vocabulary to reproduce ideology, modality, and speech acts. CL analysis demonstrates that there is not a constant relationship between form and content. In other words, the meaning of discourse is derived not only from linguistic forms but also from context. According to Fairclough (1992, 29), one of the drawbacks of the early work of critical linguistics was its main

focus on the function of discourse in the reproduction of dominant ideology. This has, however, been overcome in more recent works (see for instance, Wodak and Meyer 2009), which demonstrate that discourse is often a site of conflicting ideologies, where existing power relations can be maintained, challenged or resisted.

3.2 Self-Assessment Exercise

1. Trace the origin of Critical Linguistics

2. How does Critical linguistics differ from the descriptive studies of language which preceded it?

3.3 Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA)

Critical Discourse Analysis (henceforth, CDA) is connected to Critical Linguistics (find discussion on the latter in 3.1) because they share similar perspective on the social and political significance of text. Indeed, Noam Fairclough's Critical Discourse Analysis (1995) used CL as the basis for the 'descriptive' level of his study. CL has also been influential in the development of other Teun van Djk's Socio-cognitive approach and Ruth Wodak's Discourse-Historical approach to CDA. The history of CDA dates back to 1991 when the following linguists: Teun van Dijk, Norman Fairclough, Ruth Wodak, Gunter Kress and Theo van Leeuwen attended a two-day workshop in Amsterdam where debates on the critical approach to discourse analysis was held. This workshop is significant in the development of CDA because it was there that discussions on methodologies and approaches to critical discourse analysis among scholars begun. As earlier noted in Unit 1 of Module 3, Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) just like other critical approaches to discourse also views language as social practice and is interested in the ways that ideologies and power relations are expressed through language. The main aim of CDA is to study the link between language, social structures and relations, emphasizing that the relationship between language and society is dialectical. CDA also views discourse is shaped and constrained by social structure in the widest sense and at all levels. Proponents of CDA (for example, Fairclough, 1992) note that discourse contributes to the constitution of all dimensions of social structure which directly or indirectly shape and constrain it with regards to social norms and conventions, as well as the relations, identities and institutions which lie behind them.

Due to its critical enterprise thrust, CDA's primary goal is to investigate the link between language, power and ideology. To do this, most of the studies conducted in CDA often focus on how discourse is shaped by existing power relations and on the effects of discourse – whether it serves to reproduce, undermine or transform the existing relations. Wodak (2006, 10) reveals that the main target of CDA research is to "'demystify' discourses by deciphering ideologies"; in other words, analysts try to bring into awareness the ways in which ideology determines the structuring of discourse and the effects of discourse of social relations. It is important to note that CDA studies become important based on the fact that discourses produced mainly by institutions and groups have become naturalized and thus, the tendency is for language users to view the m as commonsensical.

 Critical discourse analysts therefore study lexis and grammar, presuppositions, implicatures, argumentation and coherence among others from the point of view that they could be ideologically invested. Recently, multimodal analysis has been incorporated into CDA. As a part of social semiotics, it recognizes that "human societies use a variety of modes of representation" (such as verbal, visual, gestures, etc.), with each mode having a different potential for meaning making (Kress and van Leeuwen 1998, 39). Multimodal analysts argue that all texts are multimodal in that spoken language is always accompanied by paralinguistic means of communication such as sound, rhythm, intonation, facial expression, gesture and posture while the written language is always a visual arrangement of marks on a page. Thus, they argue that to be able to account for all the meanings expressed in discourse, it is necessary to employ multimodal analysis.

According to van Dijk (1993), there are principles which govern all approaches to CDA. They are explained below:

1. First, all CDA research focus on dominance and inequality manifest in social issues, which it hopes to better understand through discourse analysis. In this regard, theories, descriptions, methods and empirical work are employed on the basis of their relevance to whatever sociopolitical issues which they have identified and intend to study.

2. Second, CDA research is usually multidisciplinary in approach. This is due to its preoccupation with the study of social problems which are naturally complex.

3. Third, complex and highly sophisticated theories are employed for better understanding of power in society. Relevant theoretical issues are usually deployed in the analysis of the complex relationships between dominance and discourse.

4. Fourth, critical discourse analysts explicitly state their sociopolitical point of view, perspectives, principles and aims, both within their discipline and within society at large. This is because their research in CDA is ultimately political and analysts often stand in solidarity with those who suffer most from dominance and inequality. In most cases, heir critical targets are the power elites that enact, sustain, legitimate, condone or ignore social inequality and injustice. However, some CDA research also focus on the discursive resistance of domination.

5. Fifth, research problems in CDA are 'real' problems, that is, the serious problems that threaten the lives or well-being of many, and not primarily the sometimes petty disciplinary problems of describing discourse structures.

6. Sixth, the success of a CDA research is assessed by its effectiveness and contribution to change in areas of inequality in political discourse, racism, sexism and gender discrimination, media manipulative discourse, etc.

3.4 Approaches to Critical Discourse Analysis

In their pursuit of the critical study of discourse, analysts apply several approaches to the investigation of power relations and dominance in society. Indeed, Ruth Wodak (2003:6) has noted that there is no uniformity or common theory formation that determines CDA. We will however consider in this section, the approaches adopted by the three of the leading scholars in CDA research: Norman Fairclough, Ruth Wodak and Teun van Dijk. These approaches are known as the socio-cultural approach, the discourse-historical approach and the socio-cognitive approach respectively. They are briefly discussed below.

Socio-cultural Approach

This is an approach to Critical Discourse analysis which was developed by Norman Fairclough for studying discourse. This framework maps three separate forms of analysis onto one another: analysis of social practice, analysis of text and analysis of discursive practice. At the level of social practice, the study is expected to focus on the ideological effects and hegemonic processes

in which discourse is seen to operate. In other words, the analysis is on the social context in which the text is produced. It takes into consideration social and cultural relations and structures that constitute the wider context of the discursive practice. The textual analysis on the other hand, includes the description of linguistic features of concrete instances of discourse, that is choices and patterns in vocabulary (e.g. lexis/choice of words, figures), grammar (transitivity, modality and theme), texture (cohesion). Finally, the discursive practice dimension is concerned with the analysis of discursive strategies employed in the production, consumption and distribution of texts. In other words, analysis of texts at this level is concerned with the ways texts are embedded within and relate to social conditions of production and consumption.

Discourse-historical approach (DHA)

The discourse-historical approach to CDA is a form of critical study of discourse which was developed in Vienna by Martin Reisigl and Ruth Wodak (2001). DHA mainly focuses on the systematic analysis of context and its dialectical relationship to meaning-making. Proponents argue that discourse is always historical, that is there is a diachronic and synchronic connection between discourse and other communicative events which have happened in the past or currently taking place. In other words, DHA places emphasis on finding out as much about context as possible. DHA analysis takes into account the use of language in particular texts, intertextual relationships, interdiscursivity, social variables and institutional frames which relate to the situation and sociopolitical and historical context in which discourse is produced: DHA approach attempts to integrate much available knowledge about the historical sources and the background of the social and political fields in which discursive "events" are embedded' (Reisigl and Wodak 2001: 35). In a typical discourse-historical analysis, the researcher will first outline the contents or topics of a particular discourse, then investigate the discursive strategies (such as argumentation) used to maintain it and finally examine the ways that particular constructions (such as stereotypes) are linguistically achieved.

Socio-cognitive approach

This is an approach to carrying out CDA was developed by Teun Van Dijk (1998, 2001). This approach relates discourse structures to social structures via a complex socio-cognitive interface. It deals with communicative Common Ground and the shared social knowledge, as well as attitudes and ideologies of language users as current participants and members of social groups

and communities. Socio-cognitive approach shows that many structures of discourse can only be adequately described in terms of notions of cognition such as information, knowledge or beliefs of participants. It thus, makes explicit the link between discourse, cognition and society. In practice, it involves the analysis of topics (or macrostructures), local meanings (relating to phenomena such as word choice), context models and mental models (involving knowledge, attitudes and ideologies) and the relationship between discourse and society. Van Dijk (2001: 118) describes this approach as a 'permanent bottom-up and top-down linkage of discourse and interaction with social structures'.

3.5 Self-Assessment Exercise

1. Briefly explain what you understand by Critical Linguistics

2. What are the common principles which govern all approaches to Critical Discourse Analysis?

4.0   Conclusion

The critical approach to the study of discourse is a form of research that has been embraced by discourse analysts over the years. The root of critical study of language use is traced to scholars' interest in questioning the taken-for-granted approach to language use and study. Following the social constructionists' approach to creation and sustenance of knowledge, belief and ideology, critical approaches attempt to investigate the underlying influence of social context on the structuring and use of language. Critical Linguistics and Critical Discourse Analysis are approaches to the study of discourse which share common critical perspectives to the study of discourse.

5.0 Summary

In this unit, you have been provided with background information to the critical study of discourse. In the Unit, a mention was made of the different fields which have applied the critical perspective to discourse analysis. In this regard, you were provided with discussions on Critical Linguistics (CL) and Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA). In addition, three different approaches to CDA were also examined in the Unit.

6.0 Tutor-marked Assignment

Discuss three approaches to Critical Discourse Analysis.

7.0 References/Further Reading

Fairclough, N. (1995). *Critical Discourse Analysis: The Critical Study of Language.* London: Longman.

Weiss, G & Wodak, R. (2003). *Critical Discourse Analysis: Theory and Interdisciplinarity*, New York: Macmillian.

MODULE 3 CURRENT TRENDS IN THE ANALYSIS OF DISCOURSE 1: CRITICAL PERSPECTIVES

UNIT 3: DISCOURSE AND IDEOLOGY

Contents

1.0   Introduction
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3.0   Main Content
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3.0 MAIN CONTENT

1.0 Introduction

Different kinds of views are expressed through discourse. People can be manipulated and subjugated through discourses too. The most common way through which people are made to do

the bidding of the one who has the upper hand in the discourse, is through passing ideas to them subtly. In the next section, we will look at what ideology means.

2.0 Unit Objectives

At the end of the unit, students should:

- Be able to explain and give more than one definition of ideology
- Explain how Ideologies are expressed in discourses

3.1 Ideology

The term "ideology" was born during the Great Terror of Terror of French Revolution, and acquired several other meanings thereafter. The word, and the system of ideas associated with it, was coined by Antoine Destutt de Tracy in 1796 while he was in prison pending trial during the Terror. The word was created by assembling the words 'idea' from Greek (ιδέα) 'logy', from (λογία).

Tracy reacted to the terroristic phase of the revolution by trying to work out a rational system of ideas to oppose the irrational mob impulses that had nearly destroyed him. He came up with the term (ideology) to refer to a 'science of ideas' which he hoped would form a secure foundation for the moral and political sciences by examining two things: first: sensations people experienced as they interact with the material world; and second the ideas that formed in their minds due to those sensations. He conceived of 'Ideology'— a liberal philosophy which provided a powerful defense of individual liberty, property and constitutional limits on state power. He argues that among these aspects, ideology is the most generic term, because the science of ideas also contains the study of their expression and deduction. In the century after Tracy, the word oscillated between positive and negative connotations. According to Fairclough (1989), instruction operates from the assumption that all text are driven by a set of beliefs or ideologies that the author hopes to forward or background, and an important part of developing literacy skills is gaining the ability to detect those ideologies. Fairclough in most of his works has tried to raise people's consciousness to hidden ideologies in texts. He explains that instruction moves people through four stages: reflection, systemizing, explanation, and developing practice. Collectively, these stages allow people to ponder how discourses in the stories connect to their own lives (reflection), how language is used to advance the beliefs that authors hold and make them appear as common sense (systemizing and explanation), and, finally, how people can find ways to change these discourses in their own lives (developing practice). People can be made to do things that are not their wishes through the use of force or through the control of the mind through the control of knowledge ("propaganda") or culture (belief). In a country for instance there may be dominant ideologies about classes of people, about ethnic groups and so on. The ideologies will be circulated by the persons in a particular group. The rich in a society may circulate ideologies which will make the poor to always believe whatever the rich says.

Self-assessment Exercise

How is ideology different from truth?

3.2 How Ideologies are expressed in Discourses

Ideologies are expressed in discourses. Ideology is the lens through which a person sees a phenomenon or the world. It exists in different fields of study. Within sociology, ideology is broadly understood as referring to the worldview a person has that is the sum total of their culture, values, beliefs, assumptions, common sense, and expectations for themselves and of others. Ideology gives an identity within society, within groups, and in relation to other people. It shapes our thoughts, actions, interactions, and what happens in our lives and in the society at large. It plays a fundamental and powerful role in shaping social life, how society, as a whole, is organized, and how it functions. Ideology is directly permeates the social structure, economic system of production, and political structure. It both emerges out of these things and shapes them. And, as ideology emerges out of the social structure and social order, it is generally expressive of the social interests that are supported by both. Ideology also performs the function of framing how one sees the world and interprets events and experiences, in the sense that a frame captures and centers certain things and excludes others from view and consideration.

Often, when people use the word "ideology" they are referring to a particular ideology rather than the concept itself. Much attention is often paid to what is known as the dominant ideology, or the particular ideology that is most common and strongest in a given society. Most times, the dominant ideology may not be true. However, the concept of ideology itself is actually general in nature and not tied to one particular way of thinking. It is important to note that there are various and competing ideologies operating in a society at any given time, some more dominant than others.

Ideology determines how we make sense of things. It provides an ordered view of the world, our place in it, and relationship to others. It is deeply important to the human experience, and typically something that people cling to and defend, whether or not they are conscious of doing so. Ideologies are not permanent. Views and beliefs about a phenomenon can change, signaling a change or a shift in ideology. Ideology is a set of ideas that seeks to explain some or all aspects of reality, lays down values and preferences in respect of both ends and means, and includes a programme of action for the attainment of the defined ends.

There are different types of ideology, such as political, legal, gender and sexuality, ethnic, religious. The list of types of ideologies is inexhaustible so long as there are different groups in the society. Political ideology will subsume certain ethical set of ideals, principles, doctrines, myths, or symbols of a social movement, institution, class, or large group that explains how society should work, and offers some political and cultural blueprint for a certain social order. Political ideologies are concerned with many different aspects of a society. Using Nigeria as a reference point, ethnic ideology will enshrine stereotypes that a particular ethnic group is better than the other based on preconceive notions about the other group. Each ethnic group will see themselves as better than the other group.

According to van Dijk (1998a) Ideologies are defined as basic shared systems of social cognitions of each group in the society. Ideological groups share fundamental beliefs such as

their cultural knowledge. These groups could be religious, ethnic, academic, etc. each group would have ways through which they control group attitudes and mental models of group members about specific events and experiences. Van Dijk used the labels 'Us' versus 'Them' to show how groups polarized themselves and the 'other'. The aim is to foreground '*Our* Good Things', and 'Their Bad Things', and then background 'Our Bad Things' and 'Their Good Things'. This is referred to as the Ideological Square.

Ideologies are expressed and generally reproduced in the social practices of their members, and more particularly acquired, confirmed, changed and perpetuated through discourse. General properties of language and systematic discourse analysis offer powerful methods to study the structures and functions of 'underlying' ideologies in texts. As a student of the English language, note that the ideological polarization between ingroups and outgroups— a prominent feature of the structure of ideologies—can also be systematically studied at all levels of text and talk, for example by analysing how members of a particular group (ingroups) typically emphasize their own good deeds and properties and the bad ones of the other group (outgroup), and mitigate or deny their own bad ones and the good ones of the outgroup.

Willard A. Mullins says that an ideology should be compared with the related (but different) issues of *utopia* and *historical myth*. An ideology is composed of four basic characteristics: ideology must have power over cognition; it must be capable of guiding one's evaluations; it must provide guidance towards action; and it must be logically coherent. When you look closely at any ideology of a group, you are likely to observe these characteristics listed by Mullins.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

Get a sample of a political party's manifesto, try and see how ideologies are expressed in the speech. Pick out the words which have ideologies hidden in them.

3.3 Political ideologies

Let us in this section of this unit look at the first in the types of ideologies mentioned above. That is, political ideology. In social studies, a political ideology is a certain ethical set of beliefs, doctrines, principles and ideas of a group of people, class, or institution which dictates and explains how society should work. Political ideologies can emanate from any group in the society. For example, an institution may have people who have a particular political idea and beliefs which they would want to impose on others. Note that in a political group there may a times be dissenting voices in the group, when this happen groups disintegrate and fall apart, but in the time they are together, their beliefs to them are the best. Political ideologies have two dimensions: the first, is their goals or aims, the binding force of members of the group is that they share the same view of how society should work. Second, is in the methods, that is how best to achieve their goals. A political ideology mainly concerns itself with how to allocate power, and to what ends power should be used. Some parties follow a definite ideology very closely, while others may take far-reaching inspiration from a group of related ideologies without specifically embracing any one of them. Each political ideology contains certain ideas on what it

considers to be the best ways things should be done in the society. Sometimes the same word is used to identify both an ideology and one of its main ideas. For instance, 'socialism' may refer to an economic system, or it may refer to an ideology which supports that economic system.

Ideology means different things to different people. According to Minar ideology has been used in six different ways: as a collection of certain ideas with certain kinds of *content*, usually normative; as the *form or internal logical structure* that ideas have within a set; by the role in which ideas play in *human-social interaction*; by the role that ideas play in the *structure of an organization*; as meaning, whose purpose is *persuasion*; and as the *locus* of social interaction.

Below are some definitions of the term 'ideology' by Terry Eagleton:

1. the medium in which conscious social actors make sense of their world;
2. the indispensable medium in which individuals live out their relations to a social structure;
3. forms of thought motivated by social interests;
4. ideas which help to legitimate a dominant political power;
5. systematically distorted communication;
6. socially necessary illusion;
7. false ideas which help to legitimate a dominant political power;
8. the process of production of meanings, signs and values in social life;
9. a body of ideas characteristic of a particular social group or class;
10. that which offers a position for a subject;
11. identity thinking;
12. the conjuncture of discourse and power;
13. action-oriented sets of beliefs;
14. the confusion of linguistic and phenomenal reality;
15. semiotic closure;
16. the process whereby social life is converted to a natural reality.

When you want to carry out an analysis of a text, look for the dominant ideas in the text through the choice of lexical items. If the text is a multimodal one, look for signs which have underlying meanings in it. If for you are carrying out an analysis based on van Dijk's ideological square mentioned above, you have to look at how parties or actors are represented in the report. If the report is just a verbal one, you can focus on what types of adjectives are used in reporting each of the parties/actors. Who among the parties received the greatest coverage in the report and why? If the report is a combination of visual and verbal, you can look at how has the greatest visual coverage? Is the more visual coverage positive or negative? Etc.

3.3 Self-Assessment Exercises

Explain three dominant ideologies in the press

4   Conclusion

Societies are heterogeneous. This means that people will have different ideas, different views and perception of things and life generally. Prominent people would want their views to be

dominant in the society. Therefore, it is important to be conscious and be aware of the ideology in a particular place or a particular part of the society. Most reports are not neutral they have ideologies underlying them.

5 Summary

In this unit we gave different definitions of ideology, we look at some basic characteristics of ideology. One overriding fact in the various definitions is that ideology is a set of belief which a group of people hold or share. Each group in the society will feel their ideas are the best.

6 Tutor-marked Assignment

Give your own definition of the term 'ideology'

Explain any experience you have had oft being under the influence of any strong views and beliefs.

7 References and Further Reading

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MODULE 3 CURRENT TRENDS IN THE ANALYSIS OF DISCOURSE 1: CRITICAL PERSPECTIVES

UNIT 4: DISCOURSE AND POWER

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3.2 Domination and Power

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12.0   Summary

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

In the previous unit, you learnt about the discourse and ideology, we saw that ideologies are mainly expressed through words and acts. This unit explains how the privileged to resources in the society control the mental models of the less privileged. This control is power. 'Power' is a relative term because its meaning changes in respect to context and discipline. Control of mental modes comes in various ways. Various definition of power as put across by renowned scholars is also presented in this unit.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

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

1. Discuss how linguistics structures can be used to control people's actions
2. Differentiate between individual and group ideologies
3. Say how domination and power are inextricably linked.

3 Main Content

3.1 Power in the lens of theorists

Central to most critical discourse analysis is 'Power and its enactment in the society'. Giddens (1984, pp. 15, 257), for example, defines power as "transformative capacity" or "the capacity to achieve outcomes".Though Giddens frequently associates power with domination in his writings,

he observes that "power is not necessarily linked with struggle, ... and power is not inherently oppressive". Indeed, there is power in cooperation among equals, and even when power is unevenly distributed it can still be expressed in forms that are subtle.

Towards the end of the 20th century, several theorists of power began to invoke what has become a widely-used distinction between two broad ways of thinking and talking about power. This distinction is made by contrasting the expression "power to" with the expression "power over" (e.g., Pitkin, 1972; Macpherson, 1973; Connolly, 1974; Hartsock, 1974; Coser, 1976; Lukes, 1986; Dowding, 1996). As Wartenberg (1990, p.27) explains, the expressions power-to and power-over are a shorthand way of making a distinction between two fundamentally different ordinary-language locutions within which the term "power" occurs. Depending upon which locution one takes as the basis of one's theory of power, one will arrive at a very different model of the role of power in the social world. The predominant model of power in most societies can be referred to as 'power-over model' The "power to" model is predominant in the physical and natural sciences, while "power over" model highlights issues of social conflict, control, and coercion, which is common in societies where different classes of people are. This power as domination paradigm traces back, either implicitly or explicitly, through the writings of diverse social and political theorists, from Machiavelli (1961) to Weber (1986) to Bourdieu (1994). It informed Hobbes' (1968) notion of a "war of all against all" as well as Marx and Engels' (1967) theory of historical. Powerful groups, bourgeois control the actions of the less privileged in the society through ways that are not very visible. They are expressed not only through words but through any semiotic resources use in communication.

The various definitions of power are based on theorists background. Dahl (1969, p. 80) from a behavioral angle conceptualized power explaining that "A has power over B to the extent that he can get B to do something that B would not otherwise do". Bachrach and Baratz (1970) in response to Dahl's definition argued that power over others can also be exercised in more subtle ways that involve "the mobilization of bias" within a social or political system in a manner that prevents some people or groups from advancing their own self-identified interests. They further explain that ''Power is also exercised when A devotes his energies to creating or reinforcing social and political values and institutional practices that limit the scope of the political process to public consideration of only those issues which are comparatively innocuous to A. To the extent that A succeeds in doing this, B is prevented, for all practical purposes, from bringing to the fore any issues that in their resolution might be seriously detrimental to A's set of preferences'' (Bachrach and Baratz, 1970, p. 7). Also looking at 'power' Lukes (1974), insists that Dahl (1969) and (Bachrach and Baratz, 1970) conceptualizations are too simplistic. He says that power over others can also be exercised by preventing them from identifying or recognizing their own interests. Put in another way, power can be exercised over others by cultivating what Marx and Engels (1967) referred to as false consciousness, or by exercising what Gramsci (1971) referred to as cultural hegemony. Lukes (1974, p. 23) further explains: A may exercise

power over B by getting him to do what he does not want to do, but he also exercises power over him by influencing, shaping or determining his very wants.

Foucault (1980) sees power as a relational force that permeates the entire social body, connecting all social groups in a network of common influence. As an interactive force, power constructs social organization and order by producing discourses and truths, by imposing discipline and order, and by shaping human requirements and subjectivities. Foucault perceives power as simultaneously productive and repressive: a social group in the society cannot function without it, despite its repeatedly repressive indicators. By recognizing the productive function of power, Foucault agrees with the "power to" theorists, but situates himself in his analyses squarely within the power-as-domination tradition, and his over-arching project is clearly one of resistance to such expressions of power.

Self-Assessment Exercise

From the discussion of power above, give three definitions of the term

State how Dahl's view of power differs from Foucault's

3.2 Domination and Power

In the section above we examined some theorists view and definition of power. Like mentioned somewhere in this unit, power is a key term in CDA. It is the authority the advantaged in the society has over the less privileged. This put literalrily is domination. This brings us to the sub head of this section—'domination and power'. The study of power in the academic world has been approached in many ways. For example, some theorists have focused on the different forms that power takes as have been seen above, as well as the bases or resources that permit the exercise of power (Wartenberg, 1990; Wrong, 1997); some have explored the complex relationship between the quantitative distribution of power and the processes of social agreement that legitimate various expressions of power (Hindess, 1996); some have examined the changing ways that power circulates throughout societies, constructing social institutions as well as individual subjectivities, as it imposes order and discipline in historically specific ways (Foucault, 1980); and others have approached the subject of power from other theoretical perspectives. Without further explanation, you can guess the link between 'domination and power'. The more advantaged in the society have privilege access to information; social structures etc.; for example the media. The media have privilege to news that the masses do not have, the media also has institutional power which the masses too does not have. If the media then decide to manipulate information to favour some quarters, which they will do through language, we see power and domination at play. Power that is expressed in discourses enhances domination of the less privileged in the society. Domination is then defined as a specific relationship of control between social groups or organizations – and not as a property of interpersonal relations. Consistent with the overall system, such control has a social and a

cognitive dimension: control of the actions (and hence discourses) of dominated groups and their members, on the one hand, and control of their personal and socially shared cognitions – mental models, knowledge, attitudes and ideologies – on the other. Discourse plays a crucial role in the exercise of power.

Self-Assessment Exercise

Can you think of any form of domination from the media in recent times?

3.2.1 Individual/group domination strategies

Some individuals may believe they have superior knowledge over those around them. They show this in their attitude and actions. Individual who do this are mostly in the upper class in the society. Individual domination is manifested in different ways, like the way he talks and acts etc. For example, a boss who owns a big company and has so many workers under him may consciously and unconsciously act and behave in ways as to dominate others through making them always take orders from him and behave in ways that he wants. An individual who is from a very rich family may be cocky as a result of having privileged access to wealth in terms of knowledge, material resources and goodwill; he may thus manipulate or otherwise control public discourse and the subsequent actions of others.

The focus of most critical discourse studies is in the groups and organizations that directly or indirectly control and set the agenda for public discourse. Public discourses such as politics, the mass media, education, culture and business corporations are domains where domination may play out. The critical study of discourse needs an important social component, that is the focus on power abuse of dominant groups or the resistance of dominated groups, as well as with organizations, institutions, enterprises and nation states, among other societal macrostructures. Part of this societal account of discursive domination and resistance has been formulated in terms of social cognition, that is, as the specific knowledge, attitudes and ideologies shared by the members of these societal organizations. General ideologies, as well as their more specific attitudes, also control the personal experiences, that is, the mental models of the members of ideological groups. And if these (biased) models control discourse, they are often expressed in the polarized ideological discourse structures. Hence, in such ideological discourse we may observe a positive representation of 'Our' group, and a negative representation of the 'Others' — always depending on the communicative situation, that is, our context models — at all levels of text or talk: topics, lexicon, descriptions, argumentation and so on. Some groups may have different attitudes about them — for instance as being good or bad, prohibited or allowed, depending on their underlying ideologies. Although the precise mental structure of such socially shared attitudes is still unknown, it is likely that they are also schematically organized, as is the case for most of our beliefs.

A more sociological approach on power focuses on the micro-level of everyday interaction of social members on the one hand, and on the macro-level of the overall structures and relations of groups and organizations on the other. For instance, much of the information we read in the paper or see on television depends on the internal organization of news production within media organizations on the one hand, as well as on the relations between such corporations and the government, political parties or social groups, on the other hand. Such high-level societal macrostructures are actually implemented and reproduced by the everyday activities and interactions of their members at the basic micro-level of the social order. And much of such local (inter-)actions are carried out by text and talk. Van Dijk says that through activity, goals, relations to other groups and resources or interests, a group's ideology can be unearth. He used the 'Us' versus 'Them' polarized structure to capture how groups see themselves and how they see others. A group naturally will highlight their positive side and highlight the negative side of the other group, the same group will downplay their negative side and also downplay the positive side of the other group. These are all crucial for the social definition of groups. In other words, the 'Others' are represented as a threat to 'Us'. Power and abuse of power, domination and manipulation, as well as all other illegitimate forms of discourse, interaction and communication are rooted in social structure and relations between different social groups.

Self-Assessment Exercise

Identify three group domination strategies

3.3 Influences in Discourses

Influences and control exist in different domains where discourses are deployed. People in higher classes in the social ladder have ways of controlling/manipulating or swaying the subordinates into doing their bidding. The word to describe such levels of control is 'power'; such influences can be subtle or can be by force. Mechanisms have being put in place to checkmate stronger people from forcing others to do their bidding. In simple terms using subtle ways to cajole people to do ones bidding is termed hegemony. Hegemony presupposes power as an ontological object: The ruling class dominates the ruled through hegemony--that is the culture or beliefs of society. Power radiated outwards from the powerful to control the masses.

Power manifests through discourses. Discourses and power, according to Foucault, are intimately tied together and distributed. In any society, there are manifold relations of power which permeate, characterise and constituted the social body, and these relations of power cannot themselves be establised, consolidated nor implemented without the prodcution, accumulation, circulation and functioning of a discourse ... Power must be analysed as something which circulates, It is never localised here or there, never in anybody's hands, never appropriated as a commodity or a piece of wealth. Power is employed and exercised through a net-like organisation. People are simultaneously undergoing and exercising this power ... In other words, individuals are the vehicles of power So, in this case there is no ruling class creating a hegemonic discourse that controls individuals, rather discourse circulate though individual practice and beliefs.

Self-Assessment Exercise

List ten words which have domination connotations

4.0 Conclusion

Power is enacted both in verbal, written and visual discourses. Power sometimes can be overt and sometimes covert. Both individuals and groups have ideologies and these are the underlying force why dominance is enacted in discourses. Each group or each individual in places of authority would want their views and voices to be hear more than those of others.

5.0 Summary

In this unit we have looked at the term power from the different perspectives of some theorists. It is important to note that the power we are concerned with in this course is the power that is manifested through discourses. Scholars distinguished power through using the labels "power to" and "power over''. The "power to" model is predominant in the physical and natural sciences, while "power over" model highlights issues of social conflict between the privilege and the less privileged.

6.0 Tutor-marked Assignment

How is the power enacted by the media different from the power a teacher has over the student?
What are the bases for the power of a particular group in the society?
 How would you describe the 'power' the dissident group Boko Haram has?

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MODULE 3 CURRENT TRENDS IN THE ANALYSIS OF DISCOURSE 1: CRITICAL PERSPECTIVES

UNIT 5: Discourse and Hegemony

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7.0   References and Further Reading

3.0 Main content

1.0 Introduction

As you have learnt in previous units, discourse is used to achieve different aims. You have learnt that ideology is a way through which people pass across their personal ideas to others, sometimes it is in a bid to control their actions. In this unit, you are going to learn another way through which discourse manifest—hegemony.

2.0 Unit objectives

By the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- Explain what hegemony is
- How hegemony differs from ideology

- State how coercive power is different from hegemony

3.1 Hegemony

Hegemony comes from the Greek ''hegemon'' meaning ''leader'' or ''dominance over''. The Italian philosopher Antonio Gramsci developed the concept of cultural hegemony out of Karl Marx's theory of capitalism, that the dominant ideology of society reflects the beliefs and interests of the privileged ruling class. Gramsci argued that consent to the rule of the dominant group is achieved by the spread of ideologies—beliefs, assumptions, and values—through social institutions like courts, the media, schools among others. These institutions socialize their members into the norms, values, and beliefs of the group. The group in turn controls the less privilege in the society. Hegemony is a term that is typically used by people who are influenced by Marxist ideas. Marx, Gramsci and others believed that the dominant classes in a society have many ways to keep the other classes and groups down; and the best way to do this is through hegemony. Hegemony is a means of maintaining social order without using force. If hegemony is achieved, the oppressed classes obey the dominant classes not because they are forced to, but because they believe that it is right to do so. In this way, the oppressed classes 'participate in their own oppression' because they believe that they deserve to have less power than the dominant classes.

Gramsci developed the concept of cultural hegemony in an effort to explain why the worker-led revolution that Marx predicted in the previous century had not come to pass. Central to Marx's theory of capitalism was the belief that the destruction of this economic system was built into the system itself since capitalism is premised on the exploitation of the working class by the ruling class. Marx reasoned that workers could only take so much economic exploitation before they would rise up and overthrow the ruling class. However, this revolution did not happen on a mass scale. Developed nations which lend to poorer nation hope to determine political outcomes and trade decisions thus establishing hegemony over the poorer nations. As well as the dominance of one group or nation over others, hegemony is also the term for the leading group or nation itself. Cultural hegemony is most strongly manifested when those ruled by the dominant group come to believe that the economic and social conditions of their society are natural and inevitable. Those ruled do not see it that the condition is created by people with a vested economic, social and political interest. Gramsci's analysis of hegemony involves an analysis of the ways in which such capitalist ideas are circulated and acknowledged as commonsensical and normal.

Hegemonic discourse, then, is a way of talking about things that supports hegemony and makes it seem as if the current social order is inevitable and natural. Hegemony occurs when the developed nations inevitably and naturally think they should be on top and that any development in other parts of the world must proceed along lines that are acceptable to the developed nation. Simply put hegemonic discourse, is a way of talking about things that supports hegemony and makes it seem as if the current social order is inevitable and natural. The belief in a society that certain ethnic group should be the ruling group is hegemony. Perhaps the dominant groups have come to be or remain in this position by shutting others up, by manipulating them, or by doing something else reprehensible.

For Gramsci, hegemony means one must overthrow the powerful or the hegemonic. The less privileged in the society have to be conscious of the domination from the privileged and consciously act to be free of such domination. For Foucault, every relation is open to a counter conduct--that is through the cultivation of a reflexive subjectivity it is possible to alter power relations through the creation of new knowledge and practices. Gramsci and Foucault have different views about truth in the world. While Gramsci maintains the stand that there is truth in the world--a better way to organize society that is not capitalism, Foucault says there is no truth in the world; there are only regimes of truth produced through practice and discourse.

Hegemony plays out when the dominant group dictates what happens in the society through force or ideology. In other words, the dominant group calls "all the shots" in terms of both material/economic relations and beliefs. The ruling class dominates the ruled through hegemony--that is the culture or beliefs of society. Power radiated outwards from the powerful to control the masses.

Discourses and power discussed in unit 4, according to Foucault, are intimately tied together and distributed: In most societies, there are manifold relations of power which permeate, characterise and constituted the social body, and these relations of power cannot themselves be established, consolidated nor implemented without the production, circulation and functioning of a discourse. Power is employed and exercised through a net-like organisation. And not only do individuals circulate between threads; they are always in the position of simultaneously undergoing and exercising this power. In other words, individuals are the vehicles of power. Discourse circulates though individual practice and beliefs.

Self-Assessment Exercises

How is coercive discourse different from hegemonic discourse?

3.2 hegemonic structures in Discourse

Stereotypes in written text and spoken texts are pointers to hegemony. The long held belief pertaining to a thing/entity in a society used as a basis for further acts and practices are ways through which hegemony persist in the society. The dominant in the society may not want the dominated to question some long held beliefs. For example in Nigeria, there some derogatory terms used to refer to some ethnic groups, or there is the belief that a particular group should be the ones calling the shots. People over the years have believed in all these stereotypes without questioning. The ruling class would say they deserve their wealth. The ruling class distributes popular ideas beyond narrow class interests. Related to the Nigeria example above is Gramsci's example of hegemonic discourse in which coal mine owners in Sicily refused to give the workers Sundays off—working them seven days a week—because, supposedly, the workers would only get drunk on their day off. The focus is on the workers and not only the employers, similar to van Dijk's polarisation model where positive things belong to 'us' and negative things belong to 'them'. 'Us', in this case are the dominant group and the 'them' are the dominated. It is also important to note that the dominated help to strengthen the grip of the ruling class on them, through believing that that is how things should remain.

Connected to hegemonic discourses is ideology, we have discussed discourse and ideology in unit 3. To refresh our memory, an ideology is the set of beliefs that a society accepts as true and normal. Ideology is the false story the ruling class concocts to explain its wealth and power. As explained above, the ruling class ideology often insists that the social order cannot change: it must be the way it is. Domination is not carried out through using physical weapons like gun to subdue people; it is carried out most times subtly and covertly through words. It can be through enactment of policies that will favour the ruling class. From this discussion, we can classify hegemony. For instance cultural hegemony would posit that the culture of the ruling class is better that that of the ruled, the ruling class would then want the ruled to accept it that way. Access to natural and material resources belongs to the ruling class. We shall in the next section discuss more on the types of hegemony. To Gramsci, hegemony implies leadership. Leadership is based on the concept of the governed. The different class of people in the society, apart from the ruling class there are other groups too who have access to power (who control economic, political, and social structures), but may not have full access like the ruling class. In other words, other classes may not have identical aims with the ruling class but they have common aims.

3.3 Types of hegemony

Three different types of hegemonies exist; this is according to patterns or methods taken by the hegemonist to maintain hegemony. They are cultural hegemony, strength hegemony and institution hegemony. We now take them in turns:

Cultural hegemony refers to domination or rule maintained through ideological or cultural means. It is usually achieved through social institutions, which allow those in power to strongly influence the values, norms, ideas, expectations, worldview, and behavior of the rest of society. Cultural hegemony functions by framing the worldview of the ruling class, and the social and economic structures that embody it, as just, legitimate, and designed for the benefit of all, even though these structures may only benefit the ruling class. This kind of power is distinct from rule by force, as in a military dictatorship, because it allows the ruling class to exercise authority using the "peaceful" means of ideology and culture. No man wants to live in the shadow of another one' power, while on the other hand man never gives up the ambition of influencing and even controlling his fellow countrymen. Strength hegemony is the traditional hegemony. It emphasizes the importance of force and power by a stronger country. The stronger country conquers and dominates the weaker through being in charge of the weaker country's territory and politics to maintain the hegemony, the stronger country develops, maintains and makes use of their military and economic power. The third type of hegemony—institution hegemony is the way and strategy to consolidate existing hegemony structure through designing, maintaining and enforcing international institution. Institution hegemony depends on strength hegemony. Institution hegemony can manifest in practices of institutions like the media, the court, schools and so on. In these institutions, the members have ideologies which guide them; they often belief that their ideas are the best. In the institution too, there may be groups whose ideas and opinions are sacrosanct.

There is also world hegemony where some developed nations believe it is their right to be the dominant group. For example there is speculation that China wants to be the greatest power, a position the USA has occupied for some time now. The dominant world power would not want

to be overthrown and would do everything possible to the preservation of the system. At the same time, the hegemon is responsible for the formulation of the rules that govern interaction within the international system. In every society, there are manifold relations of power which permeate, characterise and constituted the social body, and these relations of power cannot themselves be established, consolidated nor implemented without the production, accumulation, circulation and functioning of a discourse. Individuals circulate beliefs, practices and ideas through which power is manifested. What this means is that discourse circulates though individual practice and beliefs.

Self-Assessment Exercise

Describe any form of hegemonic discourse in the state where you live

4.0 Conclusion

Hegemony exists and thrives when people do not question certain repressive rules and norms. True democracy can empower people and free them from the shackles of hegemony. Therefore, the social structures should be structured in a way to prevent the emergence of dictatorship by any group and ensure the sharing power of all citizens.

5.0 Summary

This unit has looked at what hegemony is, and explained hegemony to be 'domination by consent'. Hegemony is spread through spoken and written discourse.

6.0 Tutor-marked Assignment

Analyse any speech of Donald Trump the USA president, try and see if you can find hegemonic structures in the speech.

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MODULE 4: CURRENT TRENDS IN THE ANALYSIS OF DISCOURSE 2

UNIT 1: COMPUTER-MEDIATED COMMUNICATION ANALYSIS

CONTENTS

1.0   INTRODUCTION
2.0   OBJECTIVES
3.0   MAIN CONTENT
      3.1   Computer Mediated Communication
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      3.3 Domains of Computer Mediated Communication Analysis

      3.4 Self-Assessment Exercise

4.0   Conclusion
5.0   Summary
6.0   Tutor-marked Assignment
7.0   References/Further Reading

1.0   Introduction

By now you must have realized that advancement in Information Communication Technology (henceforth, ICT) has ushered in new forms of communication among people and groups of the world. Indeed, it is not an exaggeration if one says that ICT has not only transformed the world into a global village, but has affected the way we speak, write and interact. Today, people send

messages via email, Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, WhatsApp and so many other social network channels which require the use of computer or other electronic devices. These ICT media have in turn affected the way people structure words, phrases and sentences in different modes of communication. As a student in an Open Distance Learning (ODL) institution you often need to interact with your lecturers, course mates, and other colleagues through your phones, computers or other IT devices. You would therefore have observed that the way you write via these devices differ from the way you are expected to write your essay in class or during examination, for example. In this unit therefore, we shall be examining different aspects of CMC. We shall attempt to describe the term computer mediated communication and also examine the domains of Computer Mediated Communication.

2.0 Objectives

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

- define computer communication,
- discuss Computer Communication Analysis
- identify and explain domains of Computer Communication Analysis

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Computer Mediated Communication

Computer Mediated Communication (CMC) is a process by which people create; exchange and receive information using networked telecommunications systems that aid encoding, transmitting and decoding of messages (Luppicini, 2007). The term is also sometimes used to refer to other electronic means of communication such as text messaging via mobile telephones. According to Baker and Ellece (2011), CMC are different forms of interaction such as email, chat rooms, instant messaging, blogging and commenting that occur between people who are using computers.

A distinction can be made between synchronous CMC and asynchronous CMC. Synchronous CMC refers to computer mediated communication which requires participants to be online simultaneously. In other words, communication takes place in instantaneous 'real-time'. These

interactions could be in form of text based online chat, computer, audio or video conferencing, etc. Conversely, asynchronous CMC involves ongoing interactions where there may be long breaks between communicative 'turns'. This form of CMC could be in form of emails, discussion forum and mailing lists, etc. which need no immediate response and where participants are not necessarily online at the same time. CMC can occur in local area networks (LANs) or via the Internet. One of the advantages of CMC is that it is a highly interactive mode of communication. It provides for complex processes of interaction between participants. It combines the permanent form of written communication with speed and dynamism of the spoken communication. In addition, the speed advantage of CMC particularly has a far reaching effect for users because it is easy to reach a mass audience in a fast way through this medium of communication.

7.1   Self-Assessment Exercise

1. What do you understand by Computer Mediated Communication
2. Identify some aspects of Computer Mediated Discourse which make it different from the more traditional modes of communication.

3.3 Domains of Computer Mediated Communication Analysis

The growing and expanding use of Computer-mediated Communication has expanded the areas of its study. Beyond the software and hardware aspects of CMC which has attracted researchers' interests over the years because of its relevance as a mode of communication in modern day technologically driven world, the social aspect of CMC as a medium of interaction has also shown significant scholarly interest in the analysis of CMC. The Internet CMC has aided global communication significantly. CMC has attracted research interest over the years because of the emergence of new discourse features of its IT mode of communication. Studies in CMC consider how participants make use of various affordances in order to effectively communicate (e.g. the use of emoticons) and maintain relationships, how aspects of discourse like turn taking are managed and how language is used to construct online identities, including anonymous identities. In addition, some studies focus on new ways of teaching and learning through CMC in for instance, second language or English for Academic Purposes (EAP) environments and oral

characteristics of computer mediated communication. Research in CMC has also been carried out in the areas of the discourse of social media as a form of CMC, the interface between conversation analysis and CMC interaction, gender and computer mediated communication, computer mediated communication and workplace interactions, computer mediated communication among others. Different methodological approaches which could be applied to the study of CMC include content analysis, discourse analysis, pragmatics analysis, critical approaches to mention just a few.

3.4   Self-Assessment Exercise

Mention some areas in which Computer Mediated Communication studies are being carried out in today's IT world.

5.0   Conclusion

The world today is largely technologically driven. In this wise, so many aspects of life have been affected including modes of communication and the structuring of language. One of the areas this could be seen is in written language form which today reflects changes due to the constraints placed on its production by CMC platforms. It is not surprising therefore that research interests in CMC have also expanded to include areas which were initially not considered relevant to studies in CMC.

6.0   Summary

In this Unit, we defined computer mediated communication. In addition, we discussed computer mediated analysis and also looked at different areas in which computer mediated analysis have been applied in view of the fast growing influence and reach of computer mediated communication in today's IT world.

7.0   Tutor-marked Assignment

1. Discuss the differences between synchronous and asynchronous computer mediated communication.
2. Identify and briefly discussed two areas in which computer mediated analysis is being applied.

8.0   References/Further Reading

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UNIT 2: COMPUTER-MEDIATED DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

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      3.2 Self-Assessment Exercise

      3.3 Computer Mediated Discourse Analysis

      3.4 Self-Assessment Exercise

      3.5 Discourse Structure and Meaning in Computer Mediated Discourse

4.0   Conclusion

5.0   Summary

6.0   Tutor-marked Assignment

7.0   References/Further Reading

1.0   Introduction

In Unit 1, we mentioned the fact that language use in Computer Mediated Communication platform differs somewhat from other traditional modes of interaction due to the constraints which CMC places on the structuring of language in use. It should be noted nonetheless, that

similar to other areas of social life, language is central to the interactions that take place on CMC platforms. In this Unit, we shall discuss the nature of discourse in relation to CMC. In addition, we shall define Computer Mediated Discourse Analysis (CMDA) and also consider discourse structure and meaning in Computer Mediated Discourse study.

2.0   Objectives

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

- define computer mediated discourse,
- discuss Computer mediated discourse Analysis
- Explain discourse Structure and Meaning in Computer Mediated Discourse

3.0   MAIN CONTENT

3.1   What is Computer Mediated Discourse?

As noted in unit 1, the technologically driven world has brought with it new ways of communicating and interacting in human society. As a member of the modern day society, I am sure you are daily exposed to the use of IT devices and you will agree that these tools have made information dissemination generally easier and seamless. However, the flip side of it is that computer based form of interaction is also continuously throwing up new ways of structuring and using language in human interactions. Consequently, the initial textual form of computer mediated communication has also expanded and today it is being supplemented by innovations in graphical, audio/video and other multiple modes of communication. Herring (2001) defines Computer Mediated Discourse (CMD) as 'the communication produced when human beings interact with one another by transmitting messages via networked computers'. The term *computer* in this case covers any form of digital communication device. This definition, therefore delimits CMD to communication produced via the use of IT devices such as computers, laptops, phones, among others only.

3.2   Self-Assessment Exercise

Explain in your own words what you understand by Computer Mediated Discourse.

3.3 Computer Mediated Discourse Analysis (CMDA)

Computer Mediated Discourse (CMD) is a specialization within Computer Mediated Communication (CMC) research. Its proponents of CMD apply discourse analysis methods to the study of language and language use in computer mediated communication. According to Herring (2004), in the broadest sense, any analysis of online behavior grounded in empirical, textual observations is computer-mediated discourse analysis (CMDA). CMDA applies methods adapted from language-focused disciplines such as linguistics, communication, and rhetoric to the analysis of computer-mediated communication. It may be supplemented by surveys, interviews, ethnographic observation, or other methods; it may also involve qualitative or quantitative analysis; but a major research focus of CMDA is the analysis of logs of verbal interaction (characters, words, utterances, messages, exchanges, threads, archives, etc.).

CMDA could be used to study micro-level linguistic phenomena such as online word-formation processes, lexical choice, sentence structure and language switching among bilingual speakers. At the same time, it could also be used to address macro-level discursive expressions of coherence, community, gender equity and identity among others. Research in the language of CMC first began in the 1980s and by 1991 it began to get the attention of language scholars. Initial studies of the language of CMC focused on aspects such as typography, orthography and word formation processes in CMC. Current areas of active studies in CMD however have narrowed down to language use at the level and above the utterance. In addition, CMD also focuses more on discourse in interactive CMC as opposed to monologue or broadcast.

Herring and Androutsopoulos (2015) have identified the following areas of studies in CMD which have drawn scholarly enquiries. One of these areas is studies in CMD which have attempted to classify it as either writing (in this case, typed) or speech. Some other studies have studied the synchronous and asynchronous nature of CMD. In other words, these studies have examined the different language uses of language in different kinds of CMC such as email and chat modes of the Internet for example. Some other studies of CMD have examined language use based on genres and discourse types. Some domains of CMC such as chat rooms, instant messaging, Web forums, etc. are conversational in nature; blogs take the form of journalistic commentary and diary mode, scam letters take up the 'appeal letter' mode, expository text such as encyclopedia entries on Wikipedia are constructed and discussed as 'Talk'. In addition, other studies in this area focus on the external contexts (physical, cultural and subcultural, etc) in

which CMD is situated; the temporal structure of the group; the computer system infrastructure; the purpose of communication; and the characteristics of the group and its members. Another basis of research classification of CMD types is the medium.

CMD analysis could therefore apply any of the four domains or levels of language, ranging structure to meaning, interaction, and social behavior. Structural study could include the special use of typography, orthography, novel word formations, and sentence structure on this platform. The study of the meaning of words, utterances (e.g., speech acts), among others is another area in which CMD analysis could be directed. At the interactional level of analysis, turn-taking, topic development, and other means of negotiating interactive exchanges are areas that CMD research could focus on. Finally, at the social level, linguistic expressions of play, conflict, power, and group membership over multiple exchanges are areas where CMD study is relevant. One area in which CMD studies is also generating growing research interest is in the study of its multimodal nature. This is due to that fact that the CMC domain of interaction is becoming increasingly multimodal in nature as other semiotic resources are being incorporated onto its platform for meaning making activities, in addition to text.

3.4 Self-Assessment Exercise

Briefly explain what you understand by Computer Mediated Discourse Analysis (CMDA).

3.5 Discourse Structure and Meaning in Computer Mediated Discourse

Computer mediated language has structural features which are influenced by different factors ranging from limitation of time, technical limits on message length, and the need for speed in Short Message Service (SMS) for example, to time, professional consideration and formality in other asynchronous platforms such as emails which allow for more editing. At the sentence level, Doring (2014: 9) notes that "SMS communication allows for a reasonable use of syntactic and lexical short forms, which save character space or touches of the handset keys, as compared with using the full forms of words". It has been observed that language users prefer simple sentence structures in SMS communication. A common feature of language in SMS is the use of written sound of words and code mixing. Sometimes, the SMS syntactic and lexical choices are similar to a child language. Indeed, some scholars have observed that the discourse produced on this

platform appears like the child's. For example, a child expresses her/his feelings through simple sentence structures for example, *daddy home* for 'daddy is home'; *want biscuits* for 'I want biscuits', etc. See a similar characteristic in a chat drawn from a social media platform:

Speaker A: Evening. How?

Speaker B: Great. Good God

Speaker A: Meeting tomorrow. See you then

Speaker B: Noted. Thanks

The synchronous platforms of CMC sometimes offer opportunities for users to be creative in the use of typography, spelling, word formation processes and syntax among others. Therefore, CMC users sometimes produce sentences which show deviations from standard sentence structures in form of elided elements, incorrect capitalization and punctuation, sentence fragments, etc. In addition, language users in synchronous CMD such as Facebook, Whatsapp and Twitter chats, often break up single-utterance messages into multiple messages sometimes to avoid exceeding imposed message length and sometimes to approximate a faster, more speech-like pace or in order to hold the floor. In contrast, asynchronous messages tend to be made up of more than one utterance and so there is possibility that they will have internal structure. The examples below demonstrate the differences which could be easily seen in synchronous and asynchronous discourse structures. The first example is drawn from a synchronous Whatsapp chat while the second example is drawn from an asynchronous email communication.

1. Kenneth: Good afternoon Tolu

   Tolu: Hello Kenneth

   Tolu: For our discussion

   Tolu: let's do it tomorrow

   Tolu: still trying to think thru

2. Dear Ada,

   With research communication so disrupted by the pandemic, we have seen extraordinary uptake of Kajekayo promo, with over 5,000 participants signing up for free access.

   We have therefore extended our free upgrades to help more participants continue to communicate their work and maximize impact potential.

You can sign up in less than one minute.

The email shows a two-move schema of promo messages posted to customer mailing lists. Thus, (1) it expresses views and (2) serves as invitation to potential participants. In some other emails such as those found in academic environments, the discourse structure could show a three-way schema of (1) link to earlier message (2) express views and (3) appeal to other participants. The example below demonstrates this:

Dear Prof Israel,

Sorry it took so long to respond to your mail. I have had challenges accessing my yahoo mail for some time now and I only discovered yesterday that you have made efforts to contact me on editing matters. I have promised Helen that I will get the proofs ready by this new week. I do hope other writers will be able to submit their contributions by the end of the month. I will talk to you on Friday next week to now the progress on the book publication.

Sincerely,

Adetoun

We are however not saying that synchronous interactions totally lack structure. Indeed, Herring (2006) proposed a jointly constructed, seven-move schema for real time instant messaging, particularly for familiar interactants:

1. Greeting – greeting
2. Formulaic inquiry – reply
3. Question/topic initiation 1 – response 1
4. Question/topic initiation 2…n – response 2 …n
5. Closing initiation – (response)
6. Arrange to talk later – (response)
7. Leave-taking – leave-taking

3.6 Self-Assessment Exercise

Briefly explain the nature of discourse commonly produced on synchronous platforms of CMD.

4.0   Conclusion

The discourse produced on computer mediated communication platforms reflects different types of constraints such as time and speed. These and other factors influence the ways in which language is used in this space. In additions, other factors such as whether the CMC is synchronous or asynchronous also influence the way language is used.

5.0   Summary

In this Unit, we discussed Computer Mediated Discourse. In addition, we examined Computer mediated Discourse Analysis. Finally, we also looked at the discourse structure and meaning-making activities in computer mediated discourse platform. From the discussions, it could be observed that computer mediated discourse demonstrates influences of its technologically based domain of production and use.

6.0   Tutor-marked Assignment

Discuss the characteristics of CMD as speech and writing

7.0   References/Further Reading

Crystal, D. (2004). *Language and the Internet*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

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MODULE 4: CURRENT TRENDS IN THE ANALYSIS OF DISCOURSE 2: MEDIATED DISCOURSE DOMAINS

UNIT 3

Contents

8.0   Introduction

9.0   Unit Objectives

10.0   Main Content

1.0 introduction

In previous modules, you progressively learnt about discourse, discourse analysis and critical discourse analysis. The modules also encouraged you to raise questions on the definitions you encountered as well as help you to give your own working definition of the concepts discussed. This unit gives a perspective to current trends of doing discourse analysis. Try as much as possible to read the references at the end of the unit as they will help you to understand better what this unit is all about.

2.0 unit objectives

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

1. explain a monomodal text
2. explain how semiotic elements in a multimodal text jointly make meanings
3. define multimodal discourse analysis
4. say the differences between a monomodal text and a multimodal one

3.0 Main content

3.1 From single semiotic resource to Multimodality

Previously, language was the central and only full means for representation and communication; and the resources of language were available for such representation. For instance, can you think of talking to somebody without using any part of your body (especially facial expression) either consciously or unconsciously in the speech event? This shows that in communication, language has not been totally free of other semiotic elements in communication. In recent times with the ubiquity of social media platforms, the dominance of monomodality has begun to reverse. Newspapers' present information using, words, pictures, different font size, different fonts, different colours etc, all these are semiotic resources which show the use of multiple modes in the dissemination of information. In television too, we see different display of graphics in the transmission of messages. Billboards are not left out in the deployment of different semiotic elements in advertising; from digitalism, moving images, colourful displays, advertising has moved from what it was to what it is at present. Van Leeuwen (2005) reveals how advertising

discourses employ combinations of signifiers such as dress, colour, smell and so on to construct and sell lifestyle identities that mask mass consumerism. It follows that meanings can be expressed in different semiotic modes, that is, expression of meaning is now more multimodal than monomodal. Kress and van Leeuwen describe the concept of multimodality. They challenge their readers to consider the varied forms of meaning making that extend beyond language and enhance the semiotic process. Van Leeuwen has pursued and contributed to laying the foundations for the two main directions in multimodality:

- exploring the use and mapping the meaning-making potential of individual semiotic resources, and
- studying the ways they interact to create meaning in multimodal communication.

Teleconferencing and zoom are platforms used by business associates, academic institutions for communication among people from different locations. Each platform has its own affordance for making meaning.

The first point above focuses on the meaning-making potential of material resources (e.g. colour, texture, sound and kinetic design/movement and their potential to partake in or become modes such as language and visual design, that is, into semiotic resources that are subject to wider use and more established conventions. One of van Leeuwen's goals in the second direction is to understand the relationship between semiotic technology (i.e. technology for making meaning such as office software, sound-recording tools, pen and paper, etc.) and changes in the (co)deployment of different semiotic resources and in the discourses that govern their use in specific social contexts. Kress and Van Leeuwen (2006 [1996]) point out two main types of process that are recognizable in visual representations, borrowing Arnheim's (1974) concepts 'volume' and 'vector'. Narrative/dynamic processes include one or more vectorial relations between volumes, or visual entities perceived as distinct (e.g. two people depicted holding hands and/or looking at each other, where the hands and directions of their gazes form vectors).

Kress and Van Leeuwen (2001) present the idea that multimodal communication creates meaning through each of four strata:

1. Discourse, "socially constructed knowledge(s) of (some aspects of) reality" (p. 4);
2. Design, the realization of discourses through various semiotic resources;
3. Production, the material articulation of a semiotic event or artifact;
4. Distribution, "the technical 're-coding' of semiotic products and events, for purposes of recording […] and/or distribution" (p.21).

The concepts of expression, production and distribution draw attention to the role materiality and technologies for producing/recording and distributing multimodal texts play both in creating meaning in specific semiotic practices as well as in the gradual transformation of these practices through the emergence of new modes and social relations.

Van Leeuwen (2013), for example, argues both that "the discourses that need the scrutiny of a critical eye are now overwhelmingly multimodal and mediated by digital systems that take multimodality entirely for granted" (p. 5) and that "racist stereotypes persist in visual rather than

verbal texts, and in comic strips, advertisements and other forms of popular culture rather than in more factual and "highbrow" texts" (p. 2). Van Leeuwen's approach to studying the relationship between semiotic practice and semiotic technology is also a dynamic one as it explores: how resources provided by the technology interact with other semiotic resources in the unfolding of multimodal events (e.g. gesture and speech in slideshow-supported presentations); how their availability and presentation within the technology as well as their use change over time; and how they vary across and are shaped by and themselves (re)shape diverse social practices.

Van Leeuwen has also emphasized the role semiotic software plays in reshaping broader semiotic practices, thereby highlighting problems in the theorization of these practices. One such practice in which Van Leeuwen (2008b) is interested is what he terms "new writing". Unlike "old writing", he argues, new writing follow the logic of space, and in this resembles visual design and consequently blurs the boundary between language and image. New writing presents ideas through words and/or images, but achieves cohesion and coherence in their presentation less through verbal syntax and rhetorical organization and more, and sometimes exclusively, through visual design elements such as layout and consistent colour schemes. New writing is also controlled by and learned not from style manuals and explicit teaching, but through rules built into semiotic technologies such as office software, where one's spelling can be automatically corrected and bullet lists automatically aligned, have their first word capitalized, and so on. (See further Djonov & Van Leeuwen, 2013, 2014)

Self-Assessment Exercise

Explain the advantage multimodal text has over monomodal text.

3.2 Multimodal nature of discourse

In real life people communicate using one or more semiotic resources. This means that discourses range from the use of one to the use of many semiotic resources. A single semiotic resource in communication can be done through the use of word of mouth, through hand gestures, through nodding, through laughing, through scribbling something on a sheet of paper and so on. But in reality, it is discovered that communication is done through the use of more than one semiotic resource. For example, a teacher in the class teaches and imparts knowledge through many semiotic resources. He uses words of mouth, writes on the board and gesticulates with his hands, and also, even uses facial expressions like smiling to pass across information. Even the hospitals, doctor-patient interaction involves the use of multimodal elements. The billboards we see on the streets mostly display different elements in the advertisement of goods and services. Beginning from image placement, different colours, fount sizes etc, note that the use of each semiotic element in advertising is for a purpose. This means that within the field of discourse not only the 'purely' linguistic content communicate, but also sign language, dramatization, or the so-called 'bodily hexis' is included (Bordieu, 1990). It can thus rightly be said that discourse is multi-modal because it uses more than one semiotic system and performs several functions at the same time.

Self-Assessment Exercise
Explain the discourse activity involved in teleconferencing

3.3 Multimodal Discourse Analysis

Multimodal discourse analysis is an approach to discourse which focuses on how meaning is made through the use of multiple modes of communication as opposed to just one mode. In 3.1, we saw that communication nowadays is increasingly becoming multimodal, because of the complex nature of knowledge impartation, and because of the modal affordance of new discourse platforms. To study how these multiple semiotic resources jointly communicate, we need to have knowledge on multimodal discourse analysis. Much of the work in multimodal discourse analysis draws from Halliday's social semiotics approach to language, a view that considers language as one among a number of semiotic resources such as (gesture, images, music) that people use to communicate, or to make meaning with one another.

Halliday (2009a) describes three types of social meanings, or functions that are drawn on simultaneously when language is used. Halliday says that the ideational function of language focuses on what the text is about, the interpersonal shows the relationship between participants in the discourse, then the textual meaning shows how the message in the text is organized) (Paltridge 2012). Either monomodal or multimodal texts all simultaneously interweave these three meta-functions in the expressing meaning.

Multimodal discourse analysis considers how texts draw on modes of communication such as pictures, film, video, images and sound in combination with words to make meaning. Multimodal discourse analysis of say an advert will consider how the advert is designed, and how semiotic tools such as color, framing, focus and positioning elements contribute to the making of meaning in the advert. Multimodal discourse is useful in that it both establishes a 'proximity' to the events and engages people in the events. It removes the temporal distance between people and things, and brings images and experiences into people's homes. This illustrates what watching events on a television, videos on social media platforms do to people. The multimodal elements move the viewer from a position of 'an observer' to a position of 'a witness' of the events. Multimodal discourse analysis does not just rely on words as meaning making resource, but on other semiotic modes such as images, colours and so on accompanying the words.

According to Kress and van Leeuwen (1996), the social relationship between an image and its viewer is strongly influenced by whether the subject in the image established eye contact with the viewer or does not. Each of possibilities could be seen as an example of mood where the eye contact could suggest a demand, whereas no eye contact might suggest an offer.

The point of view, or perspective, of the image is also relevant. For example, a horizontal image suggests involvement as the viewer is on the same level as the subject of the image. A high angle shot might suggest superiority and low angle shot may suggest respect. These are clues which can guide you if you are doing multimodal analysis of any text. The camera shot of an image is also important. Horizontal shot suggests that the reader is on the same level as the subject of the

image. The layout and the placement of the image is also significant in that they each convey a certain information values well as communicate salience of the message to the reader.

Doing Multimodal discourse analysis is not very easy because it takes so much time and it can be quite technical. Multimodal analysis less often looks at readers' or viewers' readings of texts. Multimodal Discourse Analysis is very useful to researchers interested in the application of systemic functional linguistics to media studies, discourse analysis and cognitive linguistics

Self-Assessment Exercise
Discuss the major different between a monomodal text and a multimodal one
Do a multimodal discourse analysis of any political advertisement of your choice.

4 Conclusion

This unit outlines what multimodal texts are and how they are different from monomodal ones. Multimodal texts are made up of more than one semiotic resource. It is obvious that communication in different platforms is increasingly becoming multimodal in their presentation. Most semiotic resources in multimodal texts all jointly communicate ideas to the reader.

5 Summary

Monomodal text focuses on one semiotic mode, such as language for communication. Most communication are doing not just through one mode but with multimodal resources.

6 TMA

Explain the visual semiotic resources involved in Whatsapp messages

Analyse any Whatsapp video of your choice

7 References and Further Reading

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MODULE 4 UNIT 4

UNIT 4 MULTIMODAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS AND SOCIAL SEMIOTICS

Contents

4.0 Introduction

In the previous modules and units we have learnt that most discourses are multimodal in nature, and to unravel the meaning of the joint modes use in communication, one should have knowledge of the principles and tenets of multimodal method of analyzing discourse(s). in this unit, we are going to further explain how most communication including those done on social media platforms deploy more than one mode in communication.

5.0 unit objectives

at the end of this unit, you should be able to:

link CDA with Multimodality

explain what makes a text critical

explain the orientations of social semiotics

6.0 main content

3.1 From CDA to Multimodality

Critical discourse analysis focuses on the processes and products of discourse and their impact on social practices. Although its theoretical framework is eclectic and interdisciplinary, critical discourse analysis has for the most part focused on language and ignored other semiotic modes. We know that in real life and in natural communication setting people hardly use one mode for communication. For instance, if you are discussing with a relation in face-to-face communication, in addition to your word of mount, you are also likely to use facial gestures, gesticulate with your hands and so on. In analyzing your encounter with your relation will it be fair to do just the verbal analysis? The answer is no. the gestural is also important in an analysis.

Even now, the ubiquity in online social platforms has made it unlikely for one to communicate using only one mode. Take the whatsapp communication for instance, most messages are sent with the combination of many semiotic resources like a combination of words and emojis, a combination of videos and words, a combination of words and voice notes, the list is endless. The sender of a message will combine the semiotic resources s/he feels would better send across the meaning to the audience. This is the reason the Birmingham meeting sought to remedy this by instigating a discussion about the interface between social semiotics and critical discourse analysis, putting multimodality on the agenda as essential to the practices of discourse analysts and social theorists. Semioticians are interested in modes of communication other than language. This does not of course exclude language. Semiotic resources include all and everything that can be deployed in communication; from words, pictures, videos, paintings, colours and so on. The focus of semiotics includes also how language and other modes of communication combine in multimodal texts and communicative events.

Example 1

A verbal text to Mr A through the Whatsapp platform that:

1. A woman is crying with her hands on her head

This information occurs through one mode, the verbal mode.

Example 2

A picture to Mr. A, after some minutes of a woman crying with her hands on her head

Figure 1: Source: Whatsapp post (2018)

Figure 1 is a multimodal text which clearly streamlines the meaning of example 1 which broadly says 'a woman is crying with her hands on her head'. Figure 1, expands the meaning further through the woman's facial expression, dressing and so on.

Example 3

Figure 2 Source: Whatsapp post (2018)

Figure 2 is a multimodal text just like figure 1, but has more semiotic resources in it signification. You can see words, emojis, ellipsis, human image, facial expression, multiple exclamation mark.

Self-assessment Exercise

Compare and contrast communication using only language and communication using multiple modes.

3.2 Critical SOCIAL SEMIOTICS (CSS)

Some schools of semiotics derive largely from philosophy and cultural studies, others have a firm root in linguistics. What this means is that semiotics or the study of semiotics is multidisciplinary and can be applied in disciplines like mathematics (O'Halloran (2005) and science (Lemke, 1998). The 'critical' in 'critical social semiotics' indicates that social semiotics intersect with critical discourse analysis. In previous modules, we have pointed out the adjective 'critical' in CDA focuses on the unearthing of biting social issues and how they can be addressed

through language. 'Critical' in critical social semiotics (CSS) does not stop at description, but analyses multimodal texts also as playing a vital role in the production, reproduction and transformation of the social practices that constitute anywhere where people live in. The 'social' in CSS indicates that semioticians are not interested in semiotics for its own sake, but relate semiotic theory to events and happenings in the real world and apply semiotic analysis to areas such as education, cross-cultural communication, and any form of mediated communication that combines multiple modes. Critical social semiotics explores differences among interfaces of meanings and has as one of its objectives acting on and altering political forces.

Halliday's (1978) social semiotic theory (SST) provides the basis for the study of semiotic resources other than language. In his view, culture is 'a set of [inter-related] semiotic systems'. Culture includes language, images, architecture, music, symbolism, gesture, and any other semiotic resources that are associated with a particular set of people. The interaction of semiotic resources either in conversation or any field is known as multimodal analysis or multimodality (e.g. Jewitt, 2009). Social semiotic theory by Halliday provides a framework for moving beyond mere discussion of multimodal occurrences to empirical validation of claims through careful analysis; because SST is concerned with the underlying design (or 'grammar') of semiotic resources and their associations with one another to create a unified meaning. According to Halliday, semiotic resources are seen to fulfill four functions: to construe our experience of the world (experiential meaning); to create logical relations between experiential meanings (logical meaning), to enact social relations (interpersonal meaning) and to organise meanings into coherent messages in text (textual meaning). These functions are simultaneously interwoven in texts. Halliday's framework accounts for multiple strands of meaning with semiotic resources and their underlying systems as tools for meaning-making. Hallidayan theory allows for the investigation of semantic shifts and metaphorical expansions of meaning which occur as semiotic resources within a single semiotic resource and across different semiotic resources. Halliday theory is used in computational approaches and which are currently being developed to advance the theory and practice of multimodal analysis (O'Donnell & Bateman, 2005). Soft wares design informed by systemic functional theory are designed for analysis, search and retrieval of multimodal semantic patterns (O'Halloran, Tan, Smith, & Podlasov, 2011; Smith, Tan, Podlasov, & O'Halloran, 2011). The software designed can be used to analyse text, images, sound and videos by annotating media files using choices from the system networks, coded as annotations and visual overlays. An important aspect of the design of the software,, is the capacity to integrate the full range of semiotic analyses, across ranks, strata and meta-function, within an empirically-derived holistic view on communication. The multimodal analyst can develop, test and apply different theoretical approaches and methodologies to code the analysis. Automated tools provide further support to users of the software, extending the human capacities for perception and analysis. Software used in multimodal data analysis provides a visual overview which makes it possible to detect patterns in complex texts simply from viewing the annotations.

Halliday's social semiotic theory is a comprehensive response to Saussure observation of the need for a holistic approach to the study of language and other sign systems, advocating a 'science that studies the life of signs within society' (Saussure 1974 [1916]: 16). Social semiotic theory provides powerful theoretical and descriptive resources for the study of meaning in monomodal and multimodal communication.

Self-assessment Exercise

How is social semiotic theory different from Discourse Analysis?

7.0 Conclusion

Social semiotic theory focuses on different signifying elements in a particular socio-cultural environment. Meaning making resources differ from place to place, in other words since there is not uniformity in meaning making resources , the theory help analyst to describe how elements in a semiotic ensemble jointly make meaning.

8.0 Summary

This unity points out that Social semiotic theory by Halliday provides a framework for moving beyond mere discussion of multimodal occurrences to empirical validation of claims through careful analysis. The theory is a comprehensive response to Saussure's remark of the need for a all-inclusive approach to the study of language and other semiotic resources. The theory is important in that it is used is used in computational approaches and also for the designing of software used in analysis.

9.0 Tutor-marked Assignment

What do you think is responsible for the development of social semiotic theory by Halliday?

7.0 References and Further Reading

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MODULE 4

Unit 5: Multimodal Discourse Analysis and Systemic Functional Linguistics
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1.0 Introduction

In previous units you have studied what multimodal discourse analysis is, what its theoretical focus is and ……., in this unit, you are going to further your knowledge on MDA and Systemic Functional Linguistics. Pay attention to the points raise in this unit, and make sure you read the texts included in the reference section

2.0 Unit objectives

By the end of this unit, you should be able to:

Explain Systemic functional linguistics

Explain concepts in systemic functional linguistics

Explain the three language metafunctions

3.0 Main content

3.1 Systemic Functional Linguistic (SFL)

Systemic Functional Linguistic (SFL) emphasizes the study of language use in context to achieve social purposes. People use not only language but other semiotic elements to communicate in different contexts. In these contexts, genres emerge from the language choices that speakers make according to the social purpose of the text they are producing. According to SFL, each genre has a specific register. For Halliday and Matthiessen (2014 [1985]), register is the variety of language used in a specific situation. There are register variations when the situations variates according to the field or the subject matter of the linguistic situation, the tenor, or who is involved in the linguistic situation and the relations between the people involved, and the mode, whether the language is spoken, written, or multimodal. Concepts derived from Halliday's theory SFL have been applied in so many fields of study. For example researchers such as Martin and Rose (2003) used concepts derived from SFL to analyze qualitative data. Kress & Van Leeuwen (2001) have used it both for textual and multimodal analysis. In healthcare (Eakin & Mykhalovskiy, 2002) and journalism (Caldwell, 2009).

3.2 The metafunctions of language

Language is structured into metafunctions that construe three types of meanings simultaneously (Halliday, 1985, 1994). According to Halliday, the ideational metafunction in language construes experience/s comprising of two components, the experiential and the logical. The first system is the thematic structure that expresses the way texts flow, their organization, what is explicit or implicit in the text, what is new and what is already known, and the cohesiveness and coherence of the text. The system of expression for ideational meanings is through Transitivity or process types. Processes comprise three interacting components, (a) the process itself, (b) the participants in that process and (c) any related circumstantial factors (time, manner or cause). The participants and processes as components are sorted out in the grammar of the clause, in

Halliday's view the clause is the highest in hierarchy in analysis. Thus apart from the interaction of participants and processes, there is also the mode of reflection, of imposing linguistic order in our flow of events that can be construed by Transitivity. There are six basic types of Transitivity processes—material (doing, happening), mental (sensing, thinking), behavioural (biological), verbal (saying), relational and existential. These processes have actors, beneficiaries, circumstance and attributes. The system of Transitivity is inherently realized simultaneously with interpersonal meanings that are realized by the Mood, comprised of the Subject and Finite elements. The interpersonal metafunction of language encodes interaction between speakers and shows the social relationship between the interactants or interlocutors.

The system of expression for interpersonal meanings is Mood, containing a nominal type element that is the Subject, and a verbal type element that is Finite. These Mood adjuncts and comment adjuncts validate propositions, obligation (must, have to) and inclination (possibly, certainly) in expression of attitudes and opinions (to be honest, understandably, honestly). Mood of clause comprise two types (a) indicative that includes declaratives (statements) and interrogatives (yes/no and wh- questions) and (b) imperatives (commands, orders and exclamations). The Mood expresses the interactional meaning. (Are the participants asking questions, giving commands, or making statements?)

The last metafunction—the textual metafunction uses language to organise the ideational and interpersonal meanings into a coherent text. Three textual metafunction elements include (a) continuatives, that signal a response in dialogue or a move to the next point reference, (b) conjunctions that link paratactically (expansion such as *and, or, not, but, so*) or binds hypotactically (projection such as *when, while, before, after, because, since, that*) and (c) conjunctive adjuncts. The last element shares the same semiotic space as conjunctions, referring to adverbial groups or prepositional phrases that link the clause to the preceding text. The thematic system is concerned with the textual metafunction. Through this system of analysis, it is possible to assign the functions of theme and rheme (Fries, 1997). In functional terms, all clauses are composed of a theme and a rheme.

Theme and Information Structure are the major structural systems within the textual metafunction in Halliday's (1994) SFL approach. This is because they facilitate the development of a meaningful message, thereby providing cohesion within language. Theme involves three major systems: choice of marked or unmarked Theme, choice of predicated or unpredicated Theme, and choice of Theme type. An unmarked Theme means "the most typical/usual" (Eggins 2007: 318), while a marked Theme refers to "atypical, unusual" choice whereby the Theme in a declarative clause is something other than subject. A marked Theme is a variation of the unmarked whereby focused information is *foregrounded*. The unmarked Theme conflates with the mood structure constituent that is the subject (in a declarative clause), Finite (in an interrogative), Predicator (in an imperative), or WH (in a WH-interrogative); the marked Theme conflates with adverbial and prepositional group/phrase to provide circumstantial details about an activity. Marked Themes add coherence and emphasis to texts through the use of Theme Predication, which includes thematic and informational choices. The theme occupies the subject position in a clause; the rheme is the predicate position. A Rheme may involve a number of different pieces of information, each of which may be picked up and used as the Themes in subsequent clauses. Theme/Rheme conflates with the information focus functions of Given/New.

The system of Information Structure consists of two functional elements, the Given information or known or background knowledge. The New information is unknown. The New carries the information focus. Given information precedes New information, and it refers to "what is already known or predictable" (Halliday and Matthiessen 2014:89). Given information is shared by the reader/writer or speaker/hearer.

3. 3 Different methods of text analysis

The nature of the data one is dealing with determines the method of analysis. In this section we are going to briefly examine DA, CA as methods of analysis, and then elaborate more on SFL. Analysts can process meaning from different perspectives. Whether it comes from a more linguistic tradition, in which texts are the objects of analysis, or from a more sociological tradition, in which texts are cues to enter into culturally human experiences, apart from linguists, scientists have utilized diverse methodologies to interpret these processes (Deppermann, 2013; Ryan & Bernard, 2000). Words can be analyzed from a quantitative perspective, while others analyze words from a qualitative perspective. An example of a content analysis and a quantitative study is such as word count where researchers review the data to find word frequency and the relationship between words. The downside of using this method is that the context of the event is not taken into account (Guest, Macqueen & Namey, 2012). In most qualitative analysis, the context of event is taken more into account. Discourse analysis (DA) is an umbrella term for different approaches to text analysis that focus on systematic analysis of recursive cultural and discursive elements with which people make sense of phenomena (Nikander, 2012). Gee (2011) argues that each theory of discourse analysis develops a series of tools to analyze language in use. The use of one DA theory instead of another depends upon the nature of the data and of the study. Researchers who use DA try to capture elements of newness in the discourse so they become elements of self-reflection and reflection about the social context (Cazden, 2001). Conversation analysis (CA) allows the researcher to investigate specifically how sequences of talk are related and how the identities of the speakers are enacted in those sequences (Silverman, 2000). For CA researchers, there are some important premises: Gubrium and Holstein (2000, p.492) state:

"1. Interaction is sequentially organized, and talk can be analyzed in terms of the process of social interaction rather than in terms of motives or social status.

2. Talk, as a process of social interaction, is contextually oriented—it is both shaped by interaction and creates the social context of that interaction.

3. These processes are involved in all social interaction, so no interactive details are irrelevant to understanding it."

Thematic analysis has been used more as a tool for qualitative analysis rather than as an independent methodology. Braun and Clarke (2006) argued that Thematic analysis should be considered as a theoretical methodology because, although it is a flexible kind of analysis, it is based on thorough theoretical principles. Researchers working with TA look for recurrent patterns in the text or themes that are analyzed and reported in order to give a detailed interpretation of the data (Boyatzis, 1998).

Apart from CA, DA, SFL is another useful analytical framework adopted by researches in analysis of text. Text to SFL scholars is the way through which a culture unfolds in its social context; SFL researchers see text in a functional and semantic way rather than looking at sentences as formal and syntactic objects. The role of theme in the English language corresponds to the initial position in the clause. The meaning of the theme of the clause is the point of departure of the message and tells us what the message is concerned with. As Fries (1997 p. 232) states, "[t]he theme of a clause provides a framework for the interpretation of the clause". Thus, as a unit of analysis, the theme orients the listener/reader of the text to the meaning of the spoken or written language. The Rheme (containing the verb) of the clause generally contains the information unit, which is oriented towards the listener or reader of the text. The new element is thus what is unpredictable in the clause. Through thematic progression, the researcher is able to recognize patterns of meaning and to observe the organization of Themes and Rhemes within clauses throughout a text. Identifying the thematic progression allows the researcher to gather information about the pattern of flow of textual meaning in a text.

The mood system and appraisal analysis are concerned with the interpersonal metafunction. The mood system allows researchers to analyze the clause as an interaction. Mood is grammatically enacted in a subject that corresponds to a nominal group and a finite verb form (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014 [1985]). The mood system, then, is a tool to understand the grammatical variations within interactions. In particular, it helps researchers to identify whether the clauses are declarative, exclamatory, imperative, or interrogative. The mood system also assists the researcher in detecting the polarity of the clause (whether the meaning of the clause is positive or negative), as well as the modality of the clause.

Martin and Rose (2003) define appraisal as a system that focuses on attitude, how feelings, values, and points of view are negotiated between the speaker or writer and the listener or reader. White (2001), in his appraisal outline, explores how researchers started to use appraisal as an instrument for data analysis in order "to explore in what contexts, by what linguistic means and to what rhetorical ends writers pass value judgments, attribute their propositions to outside sources or modalise their utterances" (p.3). Appraisal is a system used to analyze the use of evaluative language, specifically the attitude, the engagement, and the graduation of the language used by the speaker or writer.

Attitude is developed through three different types of meaning: affect, or evaluation by means of emotion (i.e., I like coconut rice); judgment, or evaluation by means of ethics (i.e., rapists should be prosecuted); and appreciation, or evaluation by means of appearance or aesthetic (i.e., a sleek car). Engagement is developed through the use of words or clauses that dialogically include or exclude the listener or reader from the text (i.e., the use of maybe versus the use of certainly). Graduation is developed through force (words that can lower or raise the tone or intensity of a text) and focus (the language used to convey the preciseness of the meaning of a text).

The transitivity and ergativity systems are concerned with the ideational metafunction. As Halliday and Matthiesen (2014 [1985]) assert, the ideational metafunction regards the representation of or the linguistic order that we impose on the flow of events we experience. The grammatical system that corresponds to this metafunction is called transitivity. Through the transitivity system, researchers explore how the phenomenon unfolds in time through a verbal

group that acts as the process of the clause. The types of processes and the participants to those processes are the manifestation of the speaker's or writer's grammatical and semantic choices to represent those processes. In particular, Halliday and Matthiesen talk about six overarching processes: material processes, mental processes, relational processes, verbal processes, behavioural processes and existential processes. The last type of analysis proposed by Halliday and Matthiesen is called ergative analysis. Ergative analysis still regards the ideational metafunction, but in a different way than transitivity. While transitivity enables one to examine an experience as discrete units (how an experience unfolds as process,) ergative analysis allows one to examine an experience as a whole. Taking causation as its first principle, ergative analysis assists researchers in deciphering who is the agent in the text. It helps determine how the agent's voice is effective, depending on whether the process is active, middle, or passive. Through ergative analysis, the analyst can determine if the agent is present, hidden, or absent.

Within the framework of SFL, the unit of analysis is a clause rather than the sentence, the latter referring to written text. Clauses are grammatical structures that contain a Finite verb (verbs that carry tense such as *has gone, is going, will go*) in contrast to grammatical structures that contain non-finite verbs that occur in infinitive such as *to go* or *going* (a gerund).

4.0 Conclusion

It may be concluded that SFL is a versatile and flexible methodology for analysis that facilitates qualitative research by highlighting social meanings that are mediated through the linguistic choices made in texts. Before using SFL for analysis, you have to know that the analysis of the data requires a great investment of time depending on the level of depth the researcher wants to reach. the researcher who wants to work with this framework needs to know very specific terminology, this is owing to the fact that SFL terminology sometimes assigns new functional meaning to familiar terminology utilized in traditional English grammar; in fact, SFL terms are written with capital letters to distinguish them from traditional usage.

5.0 Summary

For the textual metafunction, one can use thematic analysis. For the interpersonal metafunction, one can use mood analysis integrated with appraisal analysis. For the ideational metafunction, one can use transitivity and ergativity analyses. The three language metafunctions provide powerful linguistic research tools for a Systemic Functional Multimodal Discourse Analysis of texts.

6.0 Tutor-marked Assignment

Explain how the ideational, interpersonal and textual metafunctions are simultaneously realized in texts.

7.0 References and further reading

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MODULE 5: DOING DISCOURSE ANALYSIS USING DIFFERENT APPROACHES

Unit 1: Methods of doing DA – Data gathering

CONTENTS

1.0   INTRODUCTION
2.0   OBJECTIVES
3.0   MAIN CONTENT

1.0 Introduction

As a scholar in the English language department, discourse analysis is an area you may want to explore for thesis writing. It is important however that you start a research venture by getting a well-focused idea about the area you will want to work on. In other words, you need to get a good idea that is worth spending time and effort on. In doing research in discourse analysis, it should be noted that there is no set procedure for doing discourse analysis. In other words, scholars approach research in this filed from different ways and according to the specific nature of the project and their perception of discourse. In most cases, research in discourse analysis is interdisciplinary, in which case, it involves an interest in properties of texts as well as the production, distribution and interpreting of texts. Thus, projects in DA will usually be framed around questions about particular social practice and their relations to particular social structure. It means research projects are defined in relation to related disciplines such as sociology, politics, history, media, etc. In this unit therefore, we will start by explaining what data means. We will also discuss different data gathering methods and then describe what data collection in discourse analysis entails.

2.0 Objectives

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

- define data

- discuss data collection

- explain data in discourse analysis

3.0   Main Contents

3.1 What is Data?

Data in research refer to any information collected, stored, and processed to produce and validate original research results. Osang, at al. (2013:59) describe data as "a collection of facts, such as values or measurements, observation or even just the descriptions of things". Data could be used to validate or disprove a theory, bolster claims made in research, or to further the knowledge around a specific topic or problem. Unlike the erroneous notion that data is only needed in scientific research, research data are collected and used in scholarship across all academic disciplines. Data could come in different forms which include spread sheets, field notes, questionnaires, transcripts, photographs, images, interview notes among others. Data could be classified into primary and secondary data. Primary data are those which the researcher has collected by themselves. This type of data is collected at the source or originally collected by individuals, focus groups and a panel of respondents specifically set up by the researcher whose opinions are sought on specific issues now and then. Secondary data on the other hand comprise existing data which could include computerised database, company records or archives, government or media publications, and so on. The advantages of primary data range from accuracy of information, less expensive, current, etc. while secondary data easier to collect, cost effective, etc. the disadvantages of both is that primary data is time consuming while secondary data stands the danger of not been current. Data could also be classified as quantitative or qualitative. Quantitative data is mainly in form of numbers. Thus, it refers to information that is collected as, or can be translated into numbers which can be displayed and analysed mathematically. Quantitative data could be structured or unstructured. Structured data refers to organised data while unstructured data is somewhat disorganised. Structured data could be produced by closed questions while unstructured data could be produced by open questions.

3.2   Self-Assessment Exercise

Define the concept of data in project writing

3.3 Data in Discourse Analysis

As you must have noticed in our discussion on data, the research problem and field of study influence the type of data that a researcher needs to gather and the mode of data collection. For instance, when researchers engage in grammatical analysis of language or other formal studies of language, the data usually comprise the single sentence or a set of single sentences. In addition, it is usually the practice that the grammarian would have constructed or invented the examples of the sentence(s) cited in the study. However, the focus of the discourse analysts, according to Brown and Yule (1988), is in the study of natural occurring language. In other words, data and samples are not invented by the linguist but are output of someone else. Thus, data is in form of written or tape-recordings. This type of data is sometimes described as 'performance data' and may contain slips, hesitations and other non-standard forms which formal linguists such as Noam Comsky (1958) believe should not be accounted for in linguistic analysis. Nonetheless, discourse analysis could also involve the use of invented examples in which case, they are used as illustration of a paradigm or to account for the range of formal options available to a speaker or writer. In Unit 2 and 3, we will look at practical ways in which discourse analysis could be applied to the study of conversations and classroom discourse.

3.4   Self-Assessment Exercise

Describe what you understand by data in discourse analysis.

3.5   Data Gathering

As research students, you must be familiar with the idea of collecting data for project writing. You will agree therefore that data is important to research and they have to be collected in a systematic manner to ensure a successful outcome for the study. It is true that when data are properly gathered, the research will likely end up with authentic findings and contribute to knowledge. However, if the data are poorly gathered, the outcome will likely be weak and easily contested research outcomes. There are different types of approaches to data collection. They include, interview methods (face-to-face interviews, telephone interviews), questionnaire method, observational study method, experimental method, surveys method and census method.

When one sets out to gather data for discourse analysis, attention has to be paid to the data that is relevant to the research project and how to have access to it. One may need to first investigate through reading and discussion from people in the relevant disciplines for information on samples that are typical or representative of a particular practise. Data collection could be enhanced through interviews. This could provide the opportunity for the researcher to probe into issues which the go beyond the samples. In addition, the researcher needs to be open to different ways of enhancing data as the study progresses.

4.0 Conclusion

Data in research are usually employed to provide answers to different questions. Thus, they have to be relevant to the field where they are applied and also be selected systematically. Data in discourse analysis are usually drawn from naturally occurring language. sometimes there is also a need to enhance data by drawing on data outside the samples drawn from the domain of the practise where the research question is generated.

5.0 Summary

In this unit, we have considered definitions of data. In addition, we examined the notion of data in discourse analysis research. Finally, we looked at ways in which data is collected for discourse analysis research. In the next Unit 2, we shall attempt to briefly examine how discourse analysis research methods could be applied to conversation analysis and classroom discourse analysis.

6.0 Tutor-marked Assignment

Identify an area of practise and explain how to collect data for research in this area.

7.0 References/Further Reading

Gee, J.P. (2011). *How to do Discourse Analysis: A Toolkit*. London: Routledge.

MODULE 5: DOING DISCOURSE ANALYSIS USING DIFFERENT APPROACHES

Unit 2: Applying Discourse Analysis Methods to Conversations

1.0   Introduction

Note, that in Unit 3 of Module 2, we discussed Conversation Analysis (CA). You will recall that CA was described as the study of talk in interaction. We found that the origin of CA could be linked to researchers' interest in the study of the structure of conversations. In this Unit, we want to briefly consider how to effectively conduct a research in CA. This will include a mention of the possible areas of research concerns that a student could decide to explore, the kind of data that would be appropriate for CA and how to go about collecting and analysing these data.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

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

- Identify areas of research in Conversation Analysis
- discuss how to conduct research in conversation analysis
- explain data gathering and data Analysis in Conversation Analysis

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 How to Conduct Research in Conversation Analysis

Research in Conversation Analysis (CA) is useful for empirical investigation of interaction in communicative events. CA research therefore usually orientates towards talk-in-interaction and thus provides detailed qualitative evidence of how participants organise their interactions in specific communicative situations. To conduct research in CA, one would often need to rely on recorded event, utterance or gesture as analytic evidence of the ways participants use event to organise their subsequent actions. If you choose to carry of a study in conversation analysis, you could focus on the study of ordinary conversation such as chatting among friends or institutional talk. Different areas of CA research which you could consider include: the organisation of speech sequences, turn-taking and repair practices, syntax-for-conversation, the structure of speech events, and the integration of speech and gesture. The analytical focus could also be directed to the ways native English speakers and non-native speakers deploy aspects of

interactional competence in communicative situations. In addition, CA could be applied to the following areas of research: mundane conversations, speech disorders and speech therapy, classroom and pedagogic interactions, Television and radio news interviews, different forms of counselling (for instance, AIDS counselling), interactions in medical setting, etc.

3.2 Self-Assessment Exercise

Discuss at least two areas where you could apply conversation analysis research.

3.3 Data Gathering and Data Analysis in Conversation Analysis

As mentioned in Unit 1, Conversation analysis could be applied to the study of naturally occurring data from either ordinary conversation or institutional talk. The primary data is usually drawn from conversations and other behaviours that participants produce in real time communicative situations. Data collection strategies applied to CA research includes the collection of videotapes, audiotapes, or both which are then transcribed. Transcription is central to CA. In this case, verbal interaction is typed out turn-by-turn, then symbols are added and arranged spatially to indicate temporal and production features of talk. External materials such as interviews may be introduced into the database when found relevant and appropriate. The recordings are considered as the definitive source of information while the transcripts are understood as a tool for analysis to be used in conjunction with recordings. In CA, data analysis usually takes the form of demonstration of how participants collaboratively co-construct talk. This entails analysing prototypical examples of talk-in-interaction, which may consist of either single cases or collections of particular types of conversational objects. Data analysis could be qualitative or a combination of qualitative and quantitative.

4.0   Conclusion

Scholarly endeavour in conversation analysis has shown that it is a promising field where studies in talk-in-interaction could be analysed. While CA researches are traditionally applied to the study of ordinary conversations, they have also extended to the investigation of speech disorders, classroom interactions, media discourse among others.

5.0   Summary

In this Unit, attention has been paid to the ways research is conducted in CA. In addition, we have also considered how to gather data and analyse data in the field of CA. In the next Unit, we shall also consider research strategies that could be applied to studies in classroom discourse analysis.

6.0   Tutor-marked Assignment

Identify a topic in conversation analysis and discuss how data could be collected for the project.

7.0   References/Further Reading

Sidney, J. & Stivers, T. (Eds.). (2013). *Handbook of Conversation Analysis*. UK: Blackwell.

Unit 3: Applying Discourse Analysis Methods to Classroom Discourse

CONTENTS

1.0   Introduction

In Unit 2, we discussed how to carry out research in the field of conversation analysis. In this unit, we will briefly look at how research is carried out in classroom discourse analysis. In this regard, we will consider the data gathering methods as well as data analysis in the field of classroom discourse analysis.

2.0   OBJECTIVES

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

- Identify areas of research in Classroom Discourse Analysis
- discuss how to conduct research in Classroom Discourse analysis
- explain data gathering and data Analysis in Classroom Discourse Analysis

3.0 Main Contents

3.1 How to Conduct Research in Classroom Discourse Analysis

You will agree with me that the aim of any research is problem solving. In other words, it is expected that the researcher has identified a challenge or problem in an area which s/he intends to solve through scientific investigation. As a way of initiating the study therefore, you will need to first identify and define the focus of your research. That is, you will need to develop some questions about your area of focus. Then you need to set out a plan that will cover preliminary investigation, the timeline for the research, as well as cost. As discussed in Unit 4 of Module 2, Classroom discourse analysis is a field where investigation of the organisation of talk in classroom context could be carried out. Areas of research where classroom discourse analysis could be applied include interactional patterns in the classroom, code switching in classroom discourse, critical study of classroom discourse, social and cognitive functions of classroom talk, multimodal analysis of classroom discourse, classroom discourse analysis of intellectually disabled learners, classroom interactions in EFL contexts, classroom interactions relating to mother tongue and second language learning, etc.

3.2   Self-Assessment Exercise

Identify some areas in which research in classroom discourse analysis could be carried out.

3.3 Data Gathering and Data Analysis in Classroom Discourse Analysis

Qualitative or quantitative methods could be adopted in classroom discourse analysis. Quantitative or observational approach could sometimes be employed to measure how teacher variables affect particular student outcomes. Qualitative research could be adopted to understand for example how varied linguistic differences of diverse students influenced students' learning. Data collection for classroom discourse analysis may consist of surveys, interviews, student portfolios, observations, student scores, etc. Qualitative analysis is common in classroom discourse analysis.

4.0 Conclusion

Similar to other research engagements, classroom discourse analysis study require that the scholar identity problems which could be investigated in order to provide recommendations that would enhance learning in this area. Different methods, including survey, interviews, participant observation among others could be applied to classroom discourse study.

5.0 Summary

In this unit, we have looked at ways in which data could be collected for classroom discourse analysis research. In addition, we briefly examined different areas where classroom discourse research could be carried out.

6.0 Tutor-marked Assignment

State some research topics in classroom discourse analysis that could help solve traditional classroom teacher-learner interaction challenges.

7.0   References/Further Reading

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MODULE 5: PRACTICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS USING DA APPROACHES

UNIT 4: APPLYING DISCOURSE ANALYSIS METHODS (CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS)

Contents

1.0 Introduction

In previous units you have learnt what Critical discourse analysis is. As a way of reiterating what CDA is, it is a branch of linguistics that seeks to understand how and why certain texts affect readers and hearers. Through the analysis of a text whether spoken or written, it aims to uncover the 'hidden ideologies' that can influence a reader/hearer's view of the world. This unit deals with how analysts can unravel hidden ideologies in texts.

2.0 Unit Objectives

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

Unravel how ideologies are hidden in texts

How discourses can serve as a tool of domination

Different areas of focus for a discourse analyst

3.0 Main content
3.1 Critical Discourse Analysis as a Research Tool
In this unit we shall majorly use Fairclough's (1989, 1995) model for CDA for our explanations. Why Fairclough's approach to CDA is so useful is because it provides multiple points of analytic entry. Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) stems from a critical theory of language which sees the

use of language as a form of social practice. All social practice are tied to specific historical contexts and are the means by which existing social relations are reproduced or contested and different interests are served.

Fairclough's early work on CDA (e.g. 1989) offers an amalgamation of linguistic and social theories. In recognising that language is part of society, that linguistic phenomena are a particular type of social phenomenon, and that social phenomena are partly linguistic, Fairclough (1989, 1992a, 2001b) conceptualised discourse as a three dimensional concept.

Self-Assessment Exercise
Explain how Critical Discourse Analysis is a critical tool for the analysis of discourses

3.2 how to make an analysis of a text *critical*
Before undertaking the analysis of any text, you have to bear in mind the theoretical orientations of the particular theory you intend using. For instance, if you want to use CDA, you look at the concern of CDA. It is concerned with "the effect of power relations and inequalities in producing social wrongs," with the ultimate goal of moving beyond the interpretation of texts and advocating for social change (Fairclough, 2010, p. 8). This concern of CDA will guide you in your analysis; another concern of CDA according to (Brabham, 2012, p. 398) is that power is revealed through the implicit meanings of texts "at the word, sentence, and passage level".

If a text is pertaining to interests, as an analyst you ask questions like: How are pieces of information positioned in the text? Next, you look at whose interests are served by this positioning? Some interest would be foregrounded and some downplayed. You note the interest that is foregrounded and the one downplayed. You look for single words or phrases that have domination or ideas tucked in them. For instance when an author is writing about two political parties in the society say party A and Party B, as he chooses to use kind and positive adjectives to report activities of party A and use negative adjectives to report activities of party B, the choice of adjectives on the surface will look as if they have been chosen arbitrarily, but the underlying motive is for the reader to see party A as better than Party B. You may need to probe what are the consequences of this positioning that relate discourse to relations of power, that is who is given the higher vice in the discourse. In the illustration given above, party A is implicitly given more power and more voice. Where analysis seeks to understand how discourse is implicated in relations of power, it is called *critical* discourse analysis.

Fairclough's (1989, 1995) model of CDA used in the illustration above consists three inter-related processes of analysis tied to three inter-related dimensions of discourse. These three dimensions are:
1 The object of analysis (including verbal, visual or verbal and visual texts).
2 The processes by which the message is produced and received (speaking alone, writing alone or a combination of speaking and writing, speaking, writing and visuals? Is the message received through reading, listening or viewing?
3 The socio-historical conditions which govern these processes.
According to Fairclough each of these dimensions requires a different kind of analysis:
1 text analysis (description),
2 processing analysis (interpretation),

3 social analysis (explanation).

What is useful about this approach is that it enables you to focus on the words or objects of meaning that make up the text, the specific linguistic selections, their juxtapositioning, their sequencing, their layout and so on. However, it also requires you to recognise that the historical determination of these selections and to understand that these choices are tied to the conditions of possibility of that utterance. This is another way of saying that texts are instancations of socially regulated discourses and that the processes of production and reception are socially constrained. Why Fairclough's approach to CDA is so useful is because it provides multiple points of analytic entry. It does not matter which kind of analysis one begins with, as long as in the end they are all included and are shown to be mutually explanatory. It is in the interconnections of the processes mentioned above that the analyst finds the interesting patterns and disjunctions that need to be described, interpreted and explained.

Self-Assessment Exercise
How can the process through which a text is produced and received affect the meaning of the text?

3.3 How to work through a text

Fairclough (1995: 98) tries to capture the simultaneity of his method of CDA with a model that embeds the three different kinds of analysis one inside the other. Fairclough model involves the embedding of boxes which emphasises the interdependence of these dimensions and the intricate moving backwards and forwards between the different types of analysis which this interdependence necessitates. The critical analyst will read through a text forward and backwards. Looking at a text critically is not very difficult when we disagree with it - when the positions that it offers to us as readers are far removed from what we think and believe and value. In cases where we begin from a position of estrangement or alienation from the text it is easier to read against rather than with the text. In such a case the interests served by the text may be apparent; the reader may even be at the receiving end of the consequences entailed and might have little difficulty in questioning the text. Where the naturalisations in a text are not natural for us as readers or listeners, it points out that texts constructions are only versions of reality.

Often readers are not in a position to question these textual positioning, this is because a range of factors both textual and non-textual, structure the reader's engaged-estranged position in relation to any particular text. In relation to a text, engagement without estrangement is a form of submission to the power of the text regardless of the reader's own position(s). Estrangement without engagement is a refusal to leave the confines of one's own subjectivity, a refusal to leave one's own views and ideas, and a refusal to allow otherness to enter. There are many factors which favour of engagement of the reader. These include the reader co-operatively reading to make sense of the surface meaning of the text (Grice 1975); the writer or text producer writing so as to constrain possible interpretations, covertly structuring the subjectivity of the ideal reader (Scholes, 1985). In societies, co-operation, textual power and institutional practices favour engagement. In reading with the text, readers start by identifying with what Hall (1980) calls the 'preferred readings' constructed by the text and they have to move deliberately to resist the text's

apparent naturalness. The theory and practice of CDA suggests strategies which enable this deliberate move and argues the need for reading **against** the text to counterbalance reading **with** the text. Where naturally, the text producer wants the reader to flow with the text; all of these are important issues when doing a CDA of a text.

To begin doing a CDA of any text, it is advisable that you try and see how far you can get with a single text and then try and locate gaps you need to fill, that is, try and locate some unanswered questions and hypotheses by the writer. Look for patterns that you can use to establish hypotheses about discourses at work in society. Try to confirm or disconfirm these hypotheses by looking for other related texts. This can assist you to discover questions that need answering with regard to the social relations and discourses instantiated in the text and others connected to it.

Self-Assessment Exercise
Get a political advertisement on a newspaper, using the illustration above, do a CDA of it.

3.4 Text analysis and CDA

In beginning the analysis of a text, it is important to remember that it is never possible to read meaning directly off the verbal and visual textual signs. The different discourses available for readers to draw on provide different conditions for the reception of a text in different contexts. Textual features, visual clues used in conjunction with contextual knowledge, can be tools which can be used as entry points for analysis. Note that textual analysis is different from CDA. Textual analysis focuses on the surface analysis of linguistic items in a text; CDA delves deeper unveiling underlying ideologies embedded in the linguistic elements of the text and relating them to the wider discursive practices that underlie the text. Analysis visual signs in a text will look at the suggestiveness, implication and inferences that could be deduced from each visual sign. Their placements, links and what they do for the audience is equally important. According to (Kress and van Leeuwen, 1990: 51), if the visuals look like what is obtainable in real life, we say in semiotic terms that they are of higher modality, but if unreal, we say they are of low modality choices. Also, if a human image in a text is not looking at the viewer, the text or picture therefore 'does not demand that the viewer enter into an imaginary social relation' with the human image (Kress and van Leeuwen, 1990:28). Instead the human image is presented as an object for the viewer's contemplation (28). Most texts are hybrids, which draw on more than one discourse. The specific hybridity of multimodal text provides evidence for values in transition. It shows the tenacity of existing discourses at work in society and the struggle of alternative discourses to emerge.

For textual analysis, one can systematically examine:
1 Lexicalisation
2 Patterns of transitivity
3 The use of active and passive voice
4 The use of nominalisation
5 The choices of mood
6 The choices of modality or polarity

These are Halliday's grammatical resources for teasing out ideational, interpersonal and textual meanings in texts. What one is looking for is patterns that emerge across these linguistic functions that confirm or contradict one another. So for instance, the pattern of certainty or uncertainty, essentially an analysis of modality and polarity, establishes a hierarchy of power which is confirmed by the naming practices and the transitivity analysis. An examination of cohesion which, amongst other things, requires one to look at how pronouns are used to refer, reveals that the reference system is not stable. Halliday (1985) explains that transitivity is a fundamental property of language which enables human beings to build a mental picture of reality, to make sense of their experience of what goes on around them and inside them. ... Our most powerful conception of reality is that it consists of verbal elements which focus on `goings on': of doing, happening, being; and adjectival elements which focus on 'feeling'. These goings on are sorted out in the semantic system of the language, and expressed through the grammar of the clause (101). Amongst other things the clause evolved to express the reflective, experiential aspects of meaning known as transitivity. Transitivity specifies the different types of processes that are recognised in the language and the structures by which they are expressed (Halliday 1985:101). His grammar proposes six different processes or kinds of transitivity. To do a transitivity analysis it is necessary to identify every verb and its associated process. It is then necessary to identify patterns in the use of these processes.

CDA which requires that we consider the social conditions which affect textual production can suggest a fruitful line of enquiry. Transitivity is not as easily visible to producers and readers as other linguistic features because of the complexity of its encoding. Lexical selection in the verb has to be related to syntactic extensions, to participants and to processes. In addition one has to trace the patterns of use across participants. Deconstructive analysis of transitivity is a layered and complex process. It is not something that one can 'see' or 'feel' by just looking carefully at a text. I would argue that because transitivity **is** less obvious, deeper in the syntax, it suggests less conscious control by the writer and it requires more conscious effort for the reader to analyse it. Examples of more obvious linguistic selections that are easier to recognise and monitor include the way in which the participants are named, which was discussed earlier and the use of the passive construction. Fairclough refers to the situational context and the intertextual context as central to the process of interpretation. In terms of the situational context it is useful to ask questions about time and place.

A researcher should also bear in mind Hybridity of a text. This means the availability of so many discourses in the society. This is a fruitful area for CDA to investigate because it is here that the different interests are played out. Of the many different discourses available in the society to be drawn from, different texts privilege different ones. The privileging of discourses works to serve particular interests. The researcher will need to describe and interpret the new texts that the research questions lead to. The strength of CDA is that the different dimensions of analysis that

it offers, provide the means both for producing research questions and for analysing data. As such, it is an extremely important research tool.

CDA can be applied to many genres because of its eclectic nature. Also, many of the tools used in CDA are drawn from Stylistics, which for example looks at the way literary texts create meaning and poetic effects. CDA uses a similar type of analysis to look at (mainly) non-literary texts. There is no set group of tools that must be used, and researchers are discovering new ways of analysing language all the time. However, traditional tools used include modality, transitivity and nominalisation, while more recent additions include naming, opposition and negation. Many CDA analyses are divided into sections corresponding to the tools that are used. When an analyst wants to look on naming in texts for instance, the focus will be on the contents of noun phrases – the units of language that name things in the world. The ideological interest here comes from the fact that when we apply a noun phrase to something, we label it and use language to presuppose its existence.

3.5 Criticism of CDA

One of the benefits of CDA is its ability to bring together social and linguistic analyses of discourse, thus integrating analysis at the macro level of social structure with analysis at the micro level of social action. Although some criticism of CDA has focused on its attention to linguistic analysis and a perceived over-emphasis on the 'micro', the test of CDA's effectiveness has to be in its ability to analyse 'the social' in conjunction with linguistic microanalysis (Luke, 2002, Pennycook, 2000). As Luke (2002, pp.102, 100) argued, CDA requires the overlay of 'social theoretic discourses for explaining and explicating the social contexts, concomitants, contingencies and consequences of any given text or discourse', accompanied by 'a principled and transparent shunting back and forth' between the micro and macro.

4.0 Summary

This unit reinforces the meaning and explanations of CDA as have been explained in previous unit. We said here that by analysing modality, transitivity, nominalisation, naming, opposition and negation in texts, hidden ideologies can be revealed. Textual analysis focuses on the surface structure and denotative meaning of linguistic items in a text, but CDA delves deeper unearthing ideas and meanings that are not visible at first sight to a reader.

5. 0 Conclusion

CDA tools can be used to take an in-depth look at language. By analysing modality, transitivity, nominalisation, naming, opposition and negation, an analyst can make suggestions as to the ideologies underlying the texts. The ways through which an author positions things in a text can tell which ideology(ies) the author wants to foreground. On the surface, a passage is an ordinary one that looks at the surface meaning of the text. The same passage viewed by an analyst

working within a framework of critical discourse analysis would view the text very differently. The biases and beliefs of the author influence how that story is told. The analyst's job is to uncover these biases. One of the important things to be observed in any text to be analysed is local coherence of the text, how are ideas and comments of the text bound together? How are the facts related? And so on.

6.0 Tutor-marked Assignment

Explain how discourse analysis is different from critical discourse analysis.

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UNIT 5: APPLYING DISCOURSE ANALYSIS METHODS (MULTIMODAL CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS)

1.0 Introduction

In the previous unit, we learnt how to analyse texts using Critical discourse analysis. In this unit, we are going to further our knowledge to text analysis through using multimodal critical discourse analysis.

2.0 unit objectives

By the end of this unit, you should be able to:

Differentiate between a monomodal text and a multimodal one;

Know semiotic elements in a multimodal text jointly produce meaning

Analyse a multimodal text

3.0 Main content

3.1 Multimodal communication

After the two key publications in the 1990s (Kress & Van Leeuwen, 1996; O 'Toole, 1994) multimodality has been a growing field and has developed into a handful of overlapping and distinctive sub-fields (Jewitt, Bezemer, & O'Halloran, 2016). One of its key principles is the drive to produce more detailed and predictive forms of analysis of all types of communication. The result of this is that more scholars from different disciplines inculcate it in their analysis which includes things like billboard advertisements, textbooks, spaces, videos and monuments. Multimodal communication, in simple terms is communication done through using more than one semiotic resource. Semiotic resources include: language, pictures, graphology and so on.

Work in multimodality draws core principles from the systemic functional linguistics (SFL) of Halliday (1978) and (1985), specifically as described by Halliday and Matthiesen (2014), which themselves form the basis of the approaches taken by Kress and Van Leeuwen (1996) and by O'Toole (1994). Multimodal Critical Discourse Analysis (MCDA) as outlined by Machin and Mayr (2012), which considers how elements of visual communication contribute to power relations alongside verbal or written texts

Self-Assessment Exercises

How is a monomodal text different from a multimodal one?

3.1.2 Multimodal Critical Discourse Analysis

Halliday's work has also contributed many of its analytical tools to linguistic analysis carried out in Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA). The term 'critical' in critical discourse analysis principally means unearthing, unravelling or 'denaturalizing' ideologies expressed in discourse and revealing how power structures are constructed, embedded in discourse. (Wodak 2001: 2) points out that CDA research specifically analyses institutional, political, gender and media discourses which ''testify to more or less overt relations of struggle and conflict'' because of its solid analytical foundation, Halliday's work helps CDA practitioners to ground concerns about power and ideology in the detailed analysis of language. Both fields also share the view of language as socially constructed, this means that language both shapes and is shaped by society.

Although the general thrust in CDA has been towards the analysis of linguistic structures, more recently there has been a visual turn inspired by scholars who have incorporated visual images into concepts of discourse and have moved towards broader multimodal conceptions (Kress and van Leeuwen 1996; Machin 2007). This extension of CDA into visual semiotics also has its origins in early Hallidayan theory which maintains that language is only one semiotic resource out of many and that several forms of representations, linguistic and non-linguistic, are used in the construction of discourse. For example, while political and ideological views of newspapers can be expressed in the choice of different vocabularies (e.g. 'resistance fighters' vs. 'insurgents') and different grammatical structures (e.g. active vs. passive constructions), visual structures in the form of images just as much can convey ideological meanings. Applying some of the linguistic principles found in SFL, Multimodal Critical Discourse Analysis (MCDA)

therefore shows how images, photographs, diagrams and graphics also work to create meanings communicated by a text, which are often more implicit or indirect than language.

The work of Kress and van Leeuwen (1996) in particular has developed a set of tools derived from SFL that allows us to study the choices of visual features as well as lexical and grammatical choices in language. One of these tools is social actor analysis (van Leeuwen, 1996), a linguistic and visual inventory of the ways we can describe and classify people and some of the ideological effects that these classifications can have. According to van Leeuwen, people can be personalized or impersonalized, represented as specific individuals or as generic types. Certain naming strategies therefore foreground aspects of a person's identity while backgrounding others.

Self-Assessment Exercise

Do a multimodal analysis of this text
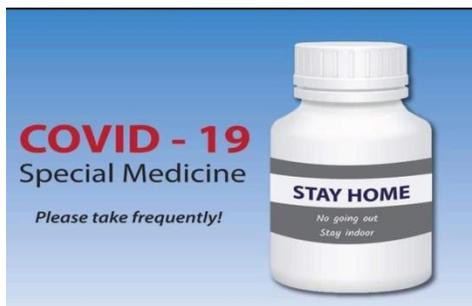
Source: Whatsapp message March 2020

3.2 Point of focus in Multimodal Critical Discourse analysis

Multimodal Critical Discourse Analysis (MCDA) as outlined by Machin and Mayr (2012), considers how elements of visual communication contribute to power relations alongside verbal or written texts. Doing critical discourse studies with multimodality: from metafunctions to materiality. In contemporary times we now see more research which draws upon multimodality as part of carrying out analyses of how texts make meaning, in order to draw out the ideologies which they carry. However, much of multimodality is itself based closely on one theory of language called Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL). The concepts and models drawn from this theory is suitable both for analyzing different forms of communication.

At its core lies the drive to produce more detailed and predictive forms of analysis of all types of communication. Over the past decade it has become much more usual to find scholarly articles in fields such as critical discourse studies, sociolinguistics and pragmatics, using multimodality are part of their analysis which includes things like images, textbooks, videos, monuments, spaces, etc. Such critical work draws from the broader field of multimodality in different ways. But what underpins much of it are a number of core principles from the systemic functional linguistics (SFL) of Halliday (1978) and (1985), specifically as described by Halliday and Matthiesen

(2014), which themselves form the basis of the approaches taken by Kress and Van Leeuwen (1996) and by O'Toole (1994). According to Halliday, language is organized to fulfill three basic metafunctions:

1. the need to communicate ideas and experiences, this is the ideational metafunction;

2. to form social relationships and identities, this is the interpersonal metafunction; and

3. to create coherence, this is the textual metafunction. In any text, you are likely to see these three metafunctions jointly producing the intended meaning of the text creator. Also, an assumption is made in that all forms of communication are structured on the basis of these types of meanings. We then identify the system of choices which are used to fulfill the metafunctions, whether in a visual text like a photograph, or a verbal text. For example, for a photograph this might mean how the interpersonal function is fulfilled through things like 'proximity', 'angle of interaction' and 'gaze'. This methodological approach is spelt out by Jewitt et al. (2016, p. 49): (1) Developing metafunctionally organized systems (2) Analysing the text according to the choices that are selected (3) Interpreting combinations of choices according to register and genre. Djonov and Zhao (2018) state, in a similar fashion, that two tenets from SFL underlie (much) multimodal research. First that ''every act of communication simultaneously constructs three broad types of meaning, or "metafunctions"'and second that 'the meaning potential of semiotic modes can be modelled as systems of interrelated choices, paradigmatically, where each has a distinctive structural realization' (ibid., p. 4). The unit of analysis is the clause in the SFL approach to language. In multimodality, the equivalent of clauses must be found for different forms of communication. Texts or semiotic artefacts are then 'annotated' according to (semantic) system choices attached to the metafunctions. In what follows we examine these stages and the theoretical assumptions in SFL which lead to these assumptions. We consider how directly these are of use for accounting for other forms of communication and for answering research questions.

3.2.1 Focus in a multimodal analysis

With information technology rapidly growing, visual language becomes more and more important in all aspects. The multimodal feature of advertising is an evidence of its use of various semiotic resources, such as language, image, sound, and color, to better convey the connotation and obtain the best advertising effect. Multimodal discourses exist widely and are taking Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) as its theoretical basis and providing new research ideas and perspectives for discourse analysis. As a new research method of discourse analysis, MDA has become a research focus, especially in the fields of linguistics and social semiotics. SFL postulates language as a meaning making semiotic potential that embodies three kinds of language metafunctions:

We see that the ideational/experiental meanings are realized by things like transitivity (verb processes) and by how things are named. ideational oriented towards the field of discourse and

construed by the experiential and the logical meanings, The interpersonal meanings are realized by moods and modality (or example for indicating certainty such as 'I will' or 'I may'). the interpersonal meaning oriented towards the tenor of discourse, and the textual oriented towards the mode of discourse. The textual function is realized by the grammar which allows it to fit together in an information structure. The textual metafunction weaves the ideational and the interpersonal meanings into a textual whole. Martinec (1998: 162) states that feature selections and structures of the textual meaning "enable the ideational and interpersonal ones to form the cohesive wholes called phases". Thus, any stretch of written text can be said to be cohesive when it realises the ideational, interpersonal, and textual meanings. So the metafunctions and systems which realize them link to contextual features such as 'field' (what is going on) which tends to be realized by the ideational/experiental metafunction,'tenor'(the relations between participants) by the interpersonal metafunction and 'mode' (the channel of communication–spoken, written, etc.) by the textual.

One reason for the emphasis on networks in SFL is that it is a meta-semantic theory. SFL has a strict content-to-expression directionality where the system networks formalize meanings. The three language metafunctions provide powerful linguistic research tools for a Systemic Functional Multimodal Discourse Analysis of texts (Alyousef 2013; O'Halloran 2008b, 2009, 2011): TRANSITIVITY (participants, processes, and circumstances) and conjunctions, MOOD (speech function) and modality (obligation and degree of certainty or uncertainty), and Theme and Information structure and the non-structural system of Cohesion (reference, substitution and ellipsis). Theme and Information Structure are the major structural systems within the textual metafunction in Halliday's (1994) SFL approach since they facilitate the development of a meaningful message, thereby providing cohesion within language. Theme involves three major systems: choice of marked or unmarked Theme, choice of predicated or unpredicated Theme, and choice of Theme type.

Eggins (2007: 318) says that an unmarked Theme means "the most typical/usual", while a marked Theme refers to "atypical, unusual" choice whereby the Theme in a declarative clause is something other than subject. A marked Theme is a variation of the unmarked whereby focused information is brought to the fore. The unmarked Theme conflates with the Mood structure constituent, that is the subject (in a declarative clause), finite (in an interrogative), predicator (in an imperative), or WH (in a WH-interrogative); the marked Theme conflates with adverbial and prepositional group/phrase to provide circumstantial details about an activity, as in: *''in this period of Covid 19,* we advise everybody to adhere to the safety procedures by health officials''*. In this example, the theme which is italicised moved to the thematic position. A clause has Theme and Rheme. Some themes are marked and some are unmarked. Marked Themes add importance and coherence to texts through the use of theme Predication, which includes thematic and informational choices. Topical, interpersonal and textual are the three theme types. All clauses contain a topical theme, whereas interpersonal and textual themes are optional. Topical Themes can be ellipsed in clauses that form a hypotactic relation.

The Rheme is the predicate part of the clause. It may involve a number of different pieces of information, each of which may be picked up and used as the Themes in subsequent clauses. Theme/Rheme conflates with the information focus functions of Given/New.

The system of Information Structure consists of two functional elements, Given (or Known) and New, that are marked off in speech by tone or a pitch contour. New information is typically marked by tonic prominence since it refers to "what is new or unpredictable" and, therefore, carries the information focus; Given information precedes New information, and it refers to "what is already known or predictable" (Halliday and Matthiessen 2014: 89). Given information is shared by the reader/writer or speaker/hearer. As the present study is concerned with written texts, the phonological indices of the Information Structure system were not investigated in the present study; instead, Kress and van Leeuwen's (1996) system of the composition of information value is employed in the analysis of the textual organization in tables and graphs.

Though note that these broad notions of field, tenor and mode are unique to SFL and have been crticised for giving a rather shallow and even arbitrary description of context, for example not accounting for the properties of participants, nor conflicting interests and power relations. This is because the 'context of situation' where language is used becomes an activity. Context is, therefore, something that unfolds together with language and is infused in language in concrete situations.

Kress and Van Leeuwen (1996) approach is one where linguistic processes realized in clauses, which a sub-system belongs to the ideational metafunction, can be taken as the basis of visual grammar. In Kress and Van Leeuwen's model, processes in visual communication are formalized in a way similar to language, so that we get 'actions', 'mental processes', 'verbal processes' and 'reaction' being part of a system network or classification which is six levels deep (p. 74). And, what in linguistics is called 'transitivity' how roles and actors are dependent on the processes realized in materials come with affordances (Gibson, 1979), with different possibilities to support action and make meaning for different actors, and as humans we develop technologies to shape and design materials and use them in acceptable combination of use At the level of affordance photographs do not represent time but captured moments. They can only index time and movement and agency. We might take look at the photograph and bodily and facial expression and pose as starting points. You can hazard a guess as to what the image in the pictures is doing or feeling. This expression indexes, in our interpretation of the image

So this is about indexing–photos do not code processes unfolding over time, as language does, which has to do with affordances, with photos being 'frozen moments', 'reality interrupted' (Sontag, 2004).

4.0 Conclusion

In this unit, we have looked at what constitute a multimodal text. How the semiotic resources in a multimodal texts, jointly work to produce meaning. Social media platforms like Facebook, Instagram, Whatsapp etc. are replete with multimodal texts. Does meaning conveyed now through space, visual images and language simultaneously make understanding easier, multimodality focuses on exploring the incorporation of the visual mode into students' texts to understand what kind of visual-verbal linkages arise.

5.0 Summary

Texts which combine more than one semiotic resource for making meaning is a multimodal text. To analyze such texts, one has to have a broad knowledge of the meaning affordance of the different semiotic elements in a multimodal text. The three meatfunctions (ideational, interpersonal and textual) as outline by Halliday are simultaneously embedded in each text. SFL defines text as 'any instance of living language that is playing some part in a context of situation' (Halliday & Hasan, 1989, p. 31).

6.0 Tutor-marked Assignment

How can the three metafunction of language be realized in a multimodal text?

7.0 REFERENCES AND FURTHER READING

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MODULE 5: PRACTICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS USING DA APPROACHES

UNIT 6: APPLYING DISCOURSE ANALYSIS METHODS (COMPUTER MEDIATED COMMUNICATION)

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     3.2 Computer-mediated discourse Analysis
     3.3 Data and Methods in Computer-Mediated Discourse Analysis

3.4 Self-Assessment Exercises

4.0 Conclusion

5.0 Summary

6.0 Tutor-marked Assignment

7.0 References and Further Reading

1.0 Introduction

This unit furthers discussion on practical discourse analysis using DA approaches. This unit will focus on computer mediated discourse analysis as a DA approach. We are going to briefly look at the background to Computer-mediated communication (CMC), CMC is the discourse that takes place through computer-mediated communication technologies and occurs on platforms as chosen by the sender of the message. We are also going to look at what Computer-mediated discourse analysis is, d**ata and methods in Computer-Mediated Discourse Analysis**

2.0 Unit **Objectives**

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

- Know what Computer-mediated communication is

- effectively apply discourse analysis methods to analyze participation, structure, meaning, interaction, and social behavior in any social media platform or elsewhere,
- carry out an original CMDA that not only captures the fundamentals of language use, but also relates it to some broader phenomenon such as social forces, community factors, cognitive/behavioral effects of discourses

3.0 Main Content

3.1 Background to CMC

Human interaction was originally done through face-to-face channel, which is oral or verbal communication, one of the downsides of oral communication is that it is fleeting. Writing is a representation of verbal communication, in that thoughts are written down on any surface which can accommodate writing. The advancement in technology has brought about electronic devices through which people send messages across to near and long distances. Any form of communication aided by electronic devices is computer mediated communication. This is a recent phenomenon. It was originally designed in the United States in the late 1960's to facilitate the transfer of computer programmes and data between remote computers in the interests of national defence (Levy, 1984; Rheingold, 1993). This form of communication made interaction easier. Computer mediated communication caught on almost immediately as a means of interpersonal communication, first among computer scientists in the early 1970's (Hafner & Lyon, 1996), then among academic and business users in elite universities and organizations in the 1980's, and from there into popular use -- facilitated by the rise of commercial Internet service providers -- in the 1990's and what Nigerians would refer to as business centres. The study of computer-mediated discourse developed alongside of interactive networking itself, as scholars became exposed to and intrigued by communication in the new medium. Scholars could design and carry out an original CMDA research project that captures the fundamentals of language use, and also relate it to some broader phenomenon such as social forces, community factors, and cognitive/behavioral effects of discourses.

Self-Assessment Exercise

How do you think computer mediated communication has made the world a global village?

3.2 Computer-mediated discourse Analysis

Computer-mediated discourse (CMD) is human-to-human communication carried out over computer networks or wireless technologies; it is produced by typing, speaking, or through using other semiotic means. It is the discourse that takes place through computer-mediated communication (CMC) technologies such as chat, text messaging, email, mailing lists, web boards, blogs, microblogs, wikis, virtual worlds, social network sites, and other digital media. Computer-mediated discourse can also be said to be the communication produced when human beings interact with one another by transmitting messages through networked computers.

The study of computer-mediated discourse is a specialization within the broader interdisciplinary study of computer-mediated communication (CMC), distinguished by its focus on language and language use in computer networked environments, and by its use of methods of discourse analysis to address that focus. Computer-mediated discourse (CMD) encompasses all kinds of interpersonal communication carried out on the Internet, e.g., by email, instant messaging, web discussion boards, and chat channels (Herring, 2001, 2004). In the last decade, CMD has attracted a great deal of research attention from linguistic—especially from socio-semiotic, pragmatic, discourse analytic, and sociolinguistic—perspectives. However, methodological reflection is lagging behind compared to other areas of discourse studies.

Computer-Mediated Discourse Analysis (CMDA) is a set of methods grounded in linguistic discourse analysis for mining CMD for patterns of structure and meaning. CMDA methods can also be used to extract indirect evidence of socio-cognitive phenomena related to networked communication, such as collaboration, dis-inhibition, engagement, identity, power dynamics, and trust. Linguistic theories and Pragmatics can be used to do CMDA. The kinds of data that can be analysed here include: verbal text, interactions, multimodal texts, videos, GIFs and so on.

Most CMC currently in use is text-based, that is, messages are typed on a computer keyboard and read as text on a computer screen, typically by a person or persons at a different location from the message sender. Text-based CMC takes a variety of forms (e.g., e-mail, discussion groups, real-time chat, virtual reality role-playing games) whose linguistic properties vary depending on the kind of messaging system used and the social and cultural context embedding particular instances of use. However, all such forms have in common that the activity that takes place through them is constituted primarily – in many cases, exclusively -- by visually-presented language. These characteristics of the medium have important consequences for understanding the nature of computer-mediated language. They also provide a unique environment, free from competing influences from other channels of communication and from physical context, in which to study verbal. In recent times, CMC has also included the use of emojis to enhance interaction and the relationship between discourse and social practice.

Self-Assessment Exercise

How is computer mediated communication different from computer mediated discourse?

3.3 Data and Methods in Computer-Mediated Discourse Analysis

In terms of methodology, language-focused research on CMD has drawn on methods and key concepts from a variety of research traditions in linguistics (including the ethnography of communication, conversation analysis, sociolinguistics, genre analysis, and pragmatics), which have been applied effectively to study and analyse how individuals use linguistic resources to establish contacts, manage interactions, impart knowledge and construct identities within computer networks. The inhibition however to CMD is critical reflection on the problems and challenges that arise when these research traditions are applied to the new settings and environments of CMD. For example, does a one-to-one transfer of research frameworks lead to

contextually rich understandings of language use and interactional processes in CMD, or does it rather conceal some of its essential new aspects? Research findings suggest that CMD has important implications for understanding key concepts in discourse studies, such as interactional coherence, participant frameworks, intertextuality, language-identity relationships, and the notion of community. Data collection on the Internet is not really easy at first. Researchers conducting CMD studies are confronted with a variety of plethora of voices in internet communication. These may relate to the size and representativeness of data samples, data processing techniques, the delimitation of genres, and the kind and amount of contextual information that is necessary, as well as to ethical issues such as anonymity and privacy protection. Much research in the area has been based on small, ad-hoc data sets; there is a lack of standard guidelines for CMD corpus design and a lack of publicly-available CMD corpora (Beißwenger & Storrer, 2008). Adapting or reconceptualizing existing concepts and methods seems a necessary step in the further development of CMD studies, and new research frameworks are already emerging, such as Herring's approach to the study of online communities (Herring, 2004). In carrying out analysis in any social media platform, you have to take into consideration the modal affordance(s) of that platform, note whether the text is a single text or multimodal one, note also, the interlocutors in the discursive event--is the discourse a monologue, a dialogue or multilogue etc.? In any time of change, new discourses become available offering us new subject positions from which to speak and read the world. The conditions of text production and text reception are gradually transformed.

Self-Assessment Exercise

Look at any multimodal text on your Whatsapp, try and see how the modal affordance(s) of the platform has helped the modes to jointly communicate.

4.0 Conclusion
Discourses are increasing being communicated through computer mediated means. This is as a result of the conveniences of using social medial platforms, and also because of the rich tools and affordance of these social media platforms.

5.0 Summary
This unit discusses what computer-mediated discourse is. We said that it is a specialization within the broader interdisciplinary study of computer-mediated communication (CMC), distinguished by its focus on language and language use in computer networked environments, and by its use of methods of discourse analysis to address that focus. We also pointed out here that CMC was originally designed in the USA in the late 1960's, this was in order to facilitate the transfer of computer programmes and data between remote computers in the interests of national defense.

6.0 Tutor Marked Assignment
1. Discuss how interlocutors make meaning on Whatsapp
2. Pick and discuss the importance of six emojis in communication

7.0 References and Further Reading

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