Introduction to Discourse Analysis

A Handbook for English Language Education Student

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INTRODUCTION TO DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

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FOREWORD

Discourse analysis is the examination of language use by members of a speech community. It involves looking at both language form and language function and includes the study of both spoken interaction and written texts. It identifies linguistic features that characterize different genres as well as social and cultural factors that aid in our interpretation and understanding of different texts and types of talk. A discourse analysis of written texts might include a study of topic development and cohesion across the sentences, while an analysis of spoken language might focus on these aspects plus turn-taking practices, opening and closing sequences of social encounters, or narrative structure.

The study of discourse has developed in a variety of disciplines-sociolinguistics, anthropology, sociology, and social psychology. Thus, discourse analysis takes different theoretical perspectives and analytic approaches: speech act theory, interactional sociolinguistics, ethnography of communication, pragmatics, conversation analysis, and variation analysis. Although each approach emphasizes different aspects of language use, they all view language as social interaction.

This book is based on the importance of the discourse as described above. It is hoped that this book can be a reference source for students in studying discourse analysis and seeing its application in English Language teaching. Although it is simple, the writer hopes that this book will bring and provide extensive knowledge for readers. In closing, the writer would like to thank all those who have helped and supported the completion of the Introduction to Discourse Analysis textbook.

Banjarmasin, October 2nd, 2019

Writer

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CHAPTER I

WHAT IS DISCOURSE ANALYSIS?

1.1 What do Speakers Do in Conversation?

Discourse analysis is sometimes defined as the analysis of language 'beyond the sentence'. This contrasts with types of analysis more typical of modern linguistics, which are chiefly concerned with the study of grammar: the study of smaller bits of language, such as sounds (phonetics and phonology), parts of words (morphology), meaning (semantics), and the order of words in sentences (syntax). Discourse analysts study larger chunks of language as they flow together (Tannen, Linguistic Society of America, 2019).

Some discourse analysts consider the larger discourse context in order to understand how it affects the meaning of the sentence. For example, Charles Fillmore points out that two sentences taken together as a single discourse can have meanings different from each one taken separately. To illustrate, he asks you to imagine two independent signs at a swimming pool: "Please use the toilet, not the pool," says one. The other announces, "Pool for members only." If you regard each sign independently, they seem quite reasonable. But taking them together as a single discourse makes you go back and revise your interpretation of the first sentence after you've read the second.

1.2 Discourse and Frames

'Reframing' is a way to talk about going back and re-interpreting the meaning of the first sentence. Frame analysis is a type of discourse analysis that asks, what activity are speakers engaged in when they say this? What do they think they are doing by talking in this way at this time? Consider how hard it is to make sense of what you are hearing or

reading if you don't know who's talking or what the general topic is. When you read a newspaper, you need to know whether you are reading a news story, an editorial, or an advertisement in order to properly interpret the text you are reading. Years ago, when Orson Welles' radio play "The War of the Worlds" was broadcast, some listeners who tuned in late panicked, thinking they were hearing the actual end of the world. They mistook the frame for news instead of drama.

1.3 Turn-taking

Conversation is an enterprise in which one person speaks, and another listens. Discourse analysts who study conversation note that speakers have systems for determining when one person's turn is over and the next person's turn begins. This exchange of turns or 'floors' is signaled by such linguistic means as intonation, pausing, and phrasing. Some people await a clear pause before beginning to speak, but others assume that 'winding down' is an invitation to someone else to take the floor. When speakers have different assumptions about how turn exchanges are signaled, they may inadvertently interrupt or feel interrupted. On the other hand, speakers also frequently take the floor even though they know the other speaker has not invited them to do so.

Listenership too may be signaled in different ways. Some people expect frequent nodding as well as listener feedback such as 'mhm', 'uhuh', and 'yeah'. Less of this than you expect can create the impression that someone is not listening; more than you expect can give the impression that you are being rushed along. For some, eye contact is expected nearly continually; for others, it should only be intermittent. The type of listener response you get can change how you speak: If someone seems uninterested or uncomprehending (whether or not they truly are), you may slow down, repeat, or overexplain, giving the impression you are 'talking down.' Frederick Erickson has shown that this can occur in

conversations between black and white speakers, because of different habits with regard to showing listenership.

1.4 Discourse Markers

'Discourse markers' is the term linguists give to the little words like 'well', 'oh', 'but', and 'and' that break our speech up into parts and show the relation between parts. 'Oh' prepares the hearer for a surprising or just-remembered item, and 'but' indicates that sentence to follow is in opposition to the one before. However, these markers don't necessarily mean what the dictionary says they mean. Some people use 'and' just to start a new thought, and some people put 'but' at the end of their sentences, as a way of trailing off gently. Realizing that these words can function as discourse markers is important to prevent the frustration that can be experienced if you expect every word to have its dictionary meaning every time it's used.

1.5 Speech Acts

Speech act analysis asks not what form the utterance takes but what it does. Saying "I now pronounce you man and wife" enacts a marriage. Studying speech acts such as complimenting allows discourse analysts to ask what counts as a compliment, who gives compliments to whom, and what other function they can serve. For example, linguists have observed that women are more likely both to give compliments and to get them. There are also cultural differences; in India, politeness requires that if someone compliments one of your possessions, you should offer to give the item as a gift, so complimenting can be a way of asking for things. An Indian woman who had just met her son's American wife was shocked to hear her new daughter-in-law praise her beautiful saris. She commented, "What kind of girl did he marry? She wants everything!" By

comparing how people in different cultures use language, discourse analysts hope to make a contribution to improving cross-cultural understanding.

EVALUATION

Answer the following questions and discuss with your friends.

1. What is discourse analysis?
2. Why do we have to analyze a discourse?
3. Do you think analyzing discourse can help you learn English better? Why or why not?
4. What do you think of discourse analysis and the real-life situation? Do they have connection? Elaborate your answer!
5. What do you think is the best reason to learn discourse analysis?

CHAPTER II

UTTERANCE, TEXT, AND DISCOURSE

2.1 What is an Utterance?

An utterance is considered the smallest unit of speech. It can be defined as "a natural unit of speech bounded by breaths or pauses." Thus, it necessarily doesn't covey a complete meaning. An utterance can, therefore, be a clause, a single word, pause, and even a meaningful statement.

However, unlike a sentence that can exist in both oral and written form, utterance exists only in the oral form. However, they can be represented and delineated in the written form using many ways.

An utterance, since it happens primarily in the oral speech, has several related features such as facial expressions, gestures, and posture. These include stress, intonation, and tone of voice, as well as ellipsis, which are words that the listener inserts in spoken language to fill gaps. In addition to these, an utterance may also include voiced/un-voiced pauses like "umm", tag questions, false starts, fillers like "and stuff", deictic expressions such as "over there" with other simple conjunctions like "and," "but," etc.

Moreover, "We use the term 'utterance' to refer to complete communicative units, which may consist of single words, phrases, clauses and clause combinations spoken in context, in contrast to the term 'sentence' which we reserve for units consisting of at least one main clause and any accompanying subordinate clauses, and marked by punctuation (capital letters and full stops) in writing." (Carter & McCarthy, 2008)

Hence some examples for utterances can be:

“Umm, what I …. No, don’t mind.”

“Well.. you know…. Errr”

2.2 What is a Text?

A text includes some information, specifically in the written form or printed form. Thus, it is noteworthy that the agent of a text is not crucial: there may or may not be an agent. And the agent has no direct impact of the content to the reader. For example, consider the text in a subject textbook, an essay, or a press release where the information is merely reported with or without an agent or the speaker. The information present in a text is usually non-interactive, or it does not contain an indication of conversational speech. Thus, the reader only reads and becomes aware of the facts presents. As defined by the Linguistic glossary terms, text is “a sequence of paragraphs that represents an extended unit of speech.” Therefore, the grammatical cohesion is a fundamental factor in a text.

In order to analyze the content of a text, one should be aware of the linguistic and grammatical categories of the language, and the information provided according to the meaning, grammatical devices used, structure, meaning, etc. Therefore, by analyzing the overall structure of the text, one is able to grasp the meaning of the text. Thus, textual analysis, in brief, is the analysis of these grammatically cohesive sentences, imparting some information.

2.3 What is Discourse?

A discourse is necessarily interactive, which means there is always an agent to the information in discourse. In simple terms, discourse is often conversational communications between people. Therefore, under linguistics and literary theory,

discourse is defined as “a social event of multi-layered communication in a variety of media: verbal, textual, visual and audial, that has an interactive social purpose.”

Thus, interactive quality is a primary requirement in discourse. In other words, the existence of an agent to the information defines what discourse means. Therefore, unlike a text, a discourse can have cohesive sentences as well as utterances of the communicating agents. In other words, discourse depicts the usage of language in for social purposes. This is the basic difference between text and discourse.

Therefore, to analyze a discourse, one should study the persons or the agents involved in the communication (who to whom), the purpose of them (the social purpose), and medium used (verbal, written, audio or visual). Thus, to grasp the meaning of discourse, one should analyze all these three basic elements in the discourse.

2.4 Difference between Text and Discourse

The difference between text and discourse (Hardison, 2011) can be summarized as follows:

Definition

Text is usually a written form of communication information, which is a non-interactive nature. In contrast, discourse can be from spoken, written, visual and audial form, communicating information that is interactive in nature.

Agent

The agent is not crucial for the text. However, the agent is crucial, and it is that what makes up a discourse. This is the main difference between text and discourse.

Nature

Also, the text is non-interactive in nature; on the contrary, discourse is interactive in nature.

Analysis Parts

In a text, the grammatical cohesion and the structure of sentences are analyzed whereas, in discourse, the agents involved in the communication, the social purpose and the medium utilized are analyzed to comprehend the meaning of it. This is an important difference between text and discourse.

Medium or Form

Furthermore, the text is usually in written form whereas discourse can be either in written, verbal, visual or audio form.

Examples:

Examples of texts include press reports, street signs, documents, etc. whereas discourse can be dialogues, conversations, interactions in audio-visual programmes, etc, anything that depicts the social usage of the language.

EVALUATION

Answer the following questions and discuss with your friends.

1. What is utterance?
2. What is text?
3. What are the differences between utterance and text?
4. What are the differences between text and discourse?
5. What is the relationship between utterance, text and discourse?

CHAPTER III

CLASSIFICATION OF DISCOURSE

3.1 Discourse and It's Classification

Discourse is any written or spoken communication. Discourse can also be described as the expression of thought through language. While discourse can refer to the smallest act of communication, the analysis can be quite complex. Several scholars in many different disciplines have theorized about the different types and functions of discourse. The word discourse comes from the Latin word discursus, which means "running to and fro." The definition of discourse thus comes from this physical act of transferring information "to and fro," the way a runner might.

While every act of communication can count as an example of discourse, some scholars have broken discourse down into four primary types: argument, narration, description, and exposition. Many acts of communicate include more than one of these types in quick succession.

a) Argument: A form of communication meant to convince an audience that the writer or speaker is correct, using evidence and reason.
b) Narration: This form of communication tells a story, often with emotion and empathy involved.
c) Description: A form of communication that relies on the five senses to help the audience visualize something.
d) Exposition: Exposition is used to inform the audience of something with relatively neutral language, i.e., it's not meant to persuade or evoke emotion.

Other literary scholars have divided types of discourse into three categories: expressive, poetic, and transactional.

a) Expressive: Expressive discourse comprises those acts of literary writing that is creative, yet non-fiction. This could include memoirs, letters, or online blogs.
b) Poetic: Poetic discourse comprises creative, fictional writing. Poetic discourse includes novels, poems, and drama. These types of work often prioritize emotion, imagery, theme, and character development, as well as the use of literary devices like metaphor and symbolism.
c) Transactional: Transactional discourse is used to propel something into action, such as advertising motivating a customer to buy, or showing a customer how to use a product via a manual. This type of discourse generally does not rely so much on literary devices.

3.2 Common Examples of Discourse

Let us look at some examples of the different types of discourse from everyday life:

When you buy a box of Ritz crackers, on the back of the box, they have all these suggestions as to what to put on top of the Ritz. "Try it with turkey and cheese. Try it with peanut butter." But I like crackers man, that's why I bought it, 'cause I like crackers! I don't see a suggestion to put a Ritz on top of a Ritz. I didn't buy them because they're little edible plates! You've got no faith in the product itself.

—Mitch Hedberg

Jokes are examples of discourse like all other communication; here, Mitch Hedberg is mainly using narration to tell a funny idea.

In a sense we've come to our nation's capital to cash a check. When the architects of our republic wrote the magnificent words of the Constitution and the Declaration of Independence, they were signing a promissory note to which every American was to fall heir. This note was a promise that all men, yes, black men as well as white men, would be guaranteed the "unalienable Rights" of "Life, Liberty and the pursuit of Happiness." It is obvious today that America has defaulted on this promissory note, insofar as her citizens of color are concerned. Instead of honoring this sacred obligation, America has given the Negro people a bad check, a check which has come back marked "insufficient funds."

—"I Have a Dream" speech, Martin Luther King, Jr.

In this speech, Martin Luther King, Jr. blended different types of discourse, such as narration and argument.

3.3 Significance of Discourse in Literature

Discourse of any type is one of the most important elements of human behavior and formation. Countless studies have been done on the way the brain shapes thoughts into words and, indeed, the way that communication shapes the brain. Many studies have specifically targeted the way that speakers of different languages understand concepts differently. Thus, the creation and dispersion of discourse is of the utmost importance to the perpetuation of the human race. Literature is one of the primary ways of maintaining a record of discourse and creating new ways of understanding the world. By reading texts from other cultures and other time periods, we are better able to understand the way in which the authors of those texts thought. Indeed, reading literature from our own ostensible cultures can better highlight the ways in which we think and interact. Since

each piece of literature ever created is an example of discourse, our understanding of discourse is vital to our understanding of literature.

Examples of Discourse in Literature

Example #1

MACBETH: She should have died hereafter;

There would have been a time for such a word.

— To-morrow, and to-morrow, and to-morrow,

Creeps in this petty pace from day to day,

To the last syllable of recorded time;

And all our yesterdays have lighted fools

The way to dusty death. Out, out, brief candle!

Life's but a walking shadow, a poor player

That struts and frets his hour upon the stage

And then is heard no more. It is a tale

Told by an idiot, full of sound and fury

Signifying nothing.

(Macbeth by William Shakespeare)

In this beautiful and haunting soliloquy from William Shakespeare's tragedy Macbeth, the character of Macbeth is lamenting the death of his wife, Lady Macbeth. Shakespeare uses many different literary devices in this poetic discourse example, such

as repetition in "To-morrow, and to-morrow, and to-morrow," as well as imagery and metaphor. The function of this passage is primarily to make the audience feel strong emotion, even catharsis, as Macbeth thinks about what could have been.

Example #2

The Sun never shined on a cause of greater worth. 'Tis not the affair of a City, a County, a Province, or a Kingdom; but of a Continent — of at least one-eighth part of the habitable Globe. 'Tis not the concern of a day, a year, or an age; posterity are virtually involved in the contest, and will be more or less affected even to the end of time, by the proceedings now. Now is the seed-time of Continental union, faith and honor. The least fracture now will be like a name engraved with the point of a pin on the tender rind of a young oak; the wound would enlarge with the tree, and posterity read in it full grown characters.

("Common Sense" by Thomas Paine)

Thomas Paine's "Common Sense" is an excellent example of transactional discourse. In his essay, Paine lays out the reasons that the American colonies should rebel against Great Britain. Paine relies mostly on the discourse of argument, but also calls on the emotions of his readers in this passage by asking them to think of how much territory is at stake. Paine uses literary devices such as imagery and simile as well in invoking the image of the colonies as a young oak,

Example #3

In the meantime, things are getting more and more wonderful here. I think, Kitty, that true love may be developing in the Annex. All those jokes about marrying Peter if we stayed here long enough weren't so silly after all. Not that I'm thinking of marrying him, mind you. I don't

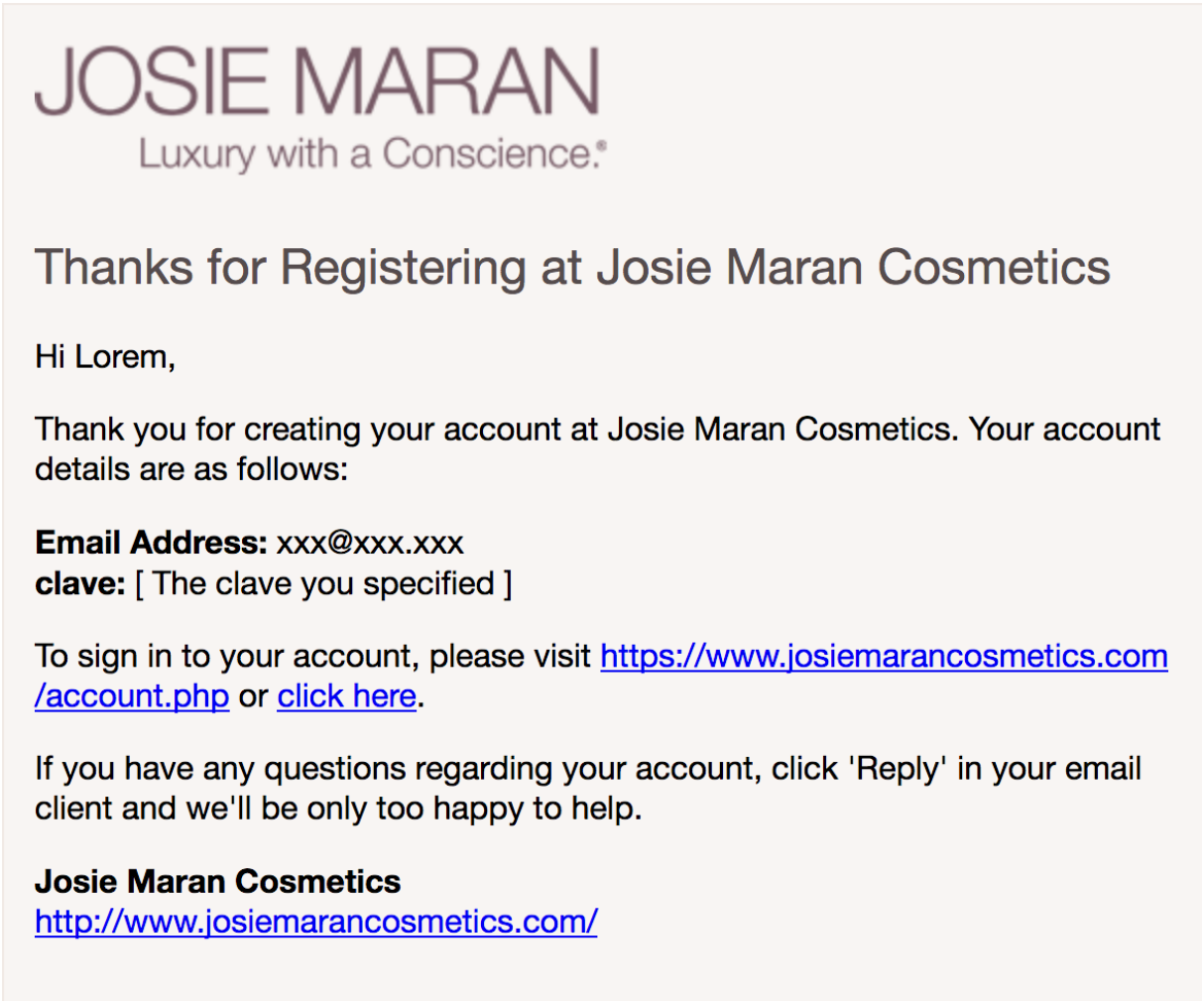
even know what he'll be like when he grows up. Or if we'll even love each other enough to get married.

(The Diary of Anne Frank by Anne Frank)

Anne Frank's diary is one of the most famous examples of expressive discourse. Anne Frank was in hiding during World War II for many years in an Annex in Amsterdam, and spent her time recording her emotions and thoughts in her diary, which she named Kitty. We can see that the entries are non-fiction—that is, she truly lived them—but they are creative and expressive all the same.

EVALUATION

Decide what discourse is suitable for the following pictures and discuss with your friends!



JOSIE MARAN

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Thanks for Registering at Josie Maran Cosmetics

Hi Lorem,

Thank you for creating your account at Josie Maran Cosmetics. Your account details are as follows:

Email Address: xxx@xxx.xxx
clave: [The clave you specified]

To sign in to your account, please visit https://www.josiemarancosmetics.com/account.php or click here.

If you have any questions regarding your account, click 'Reply' in your email client and we'll be only too happy to help.

Josie Maran Cosmetics
http://www.josiemarancosmetics.com/

Hi Linda,

We've received a request to reset your password.

If you didn't make the request, just ignore this message. Otherwise, you can reset your password using this link:

Click here to reset your password

Thanks,
The Airbnb Team

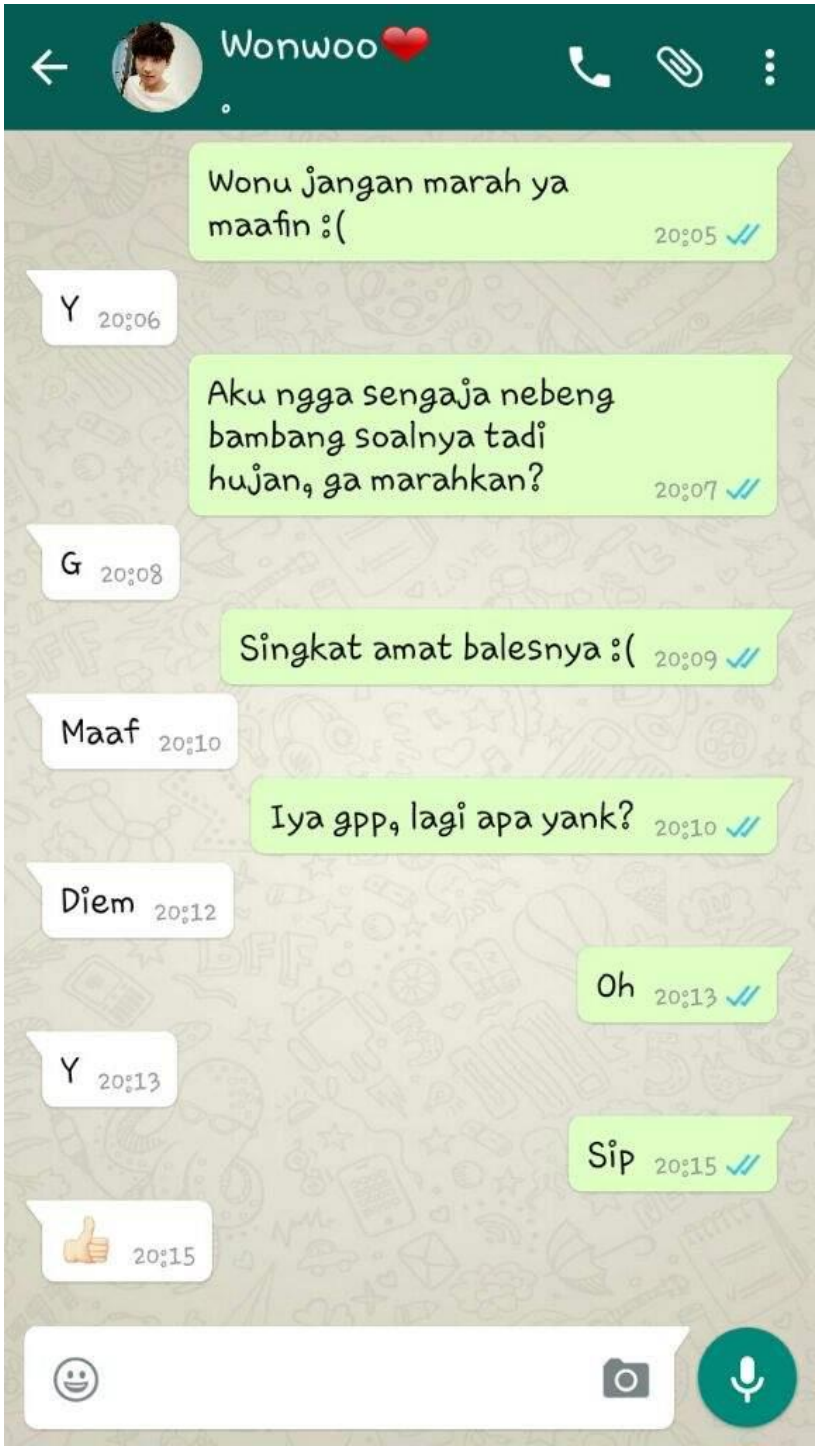
Sent with ♥ from Airbnb

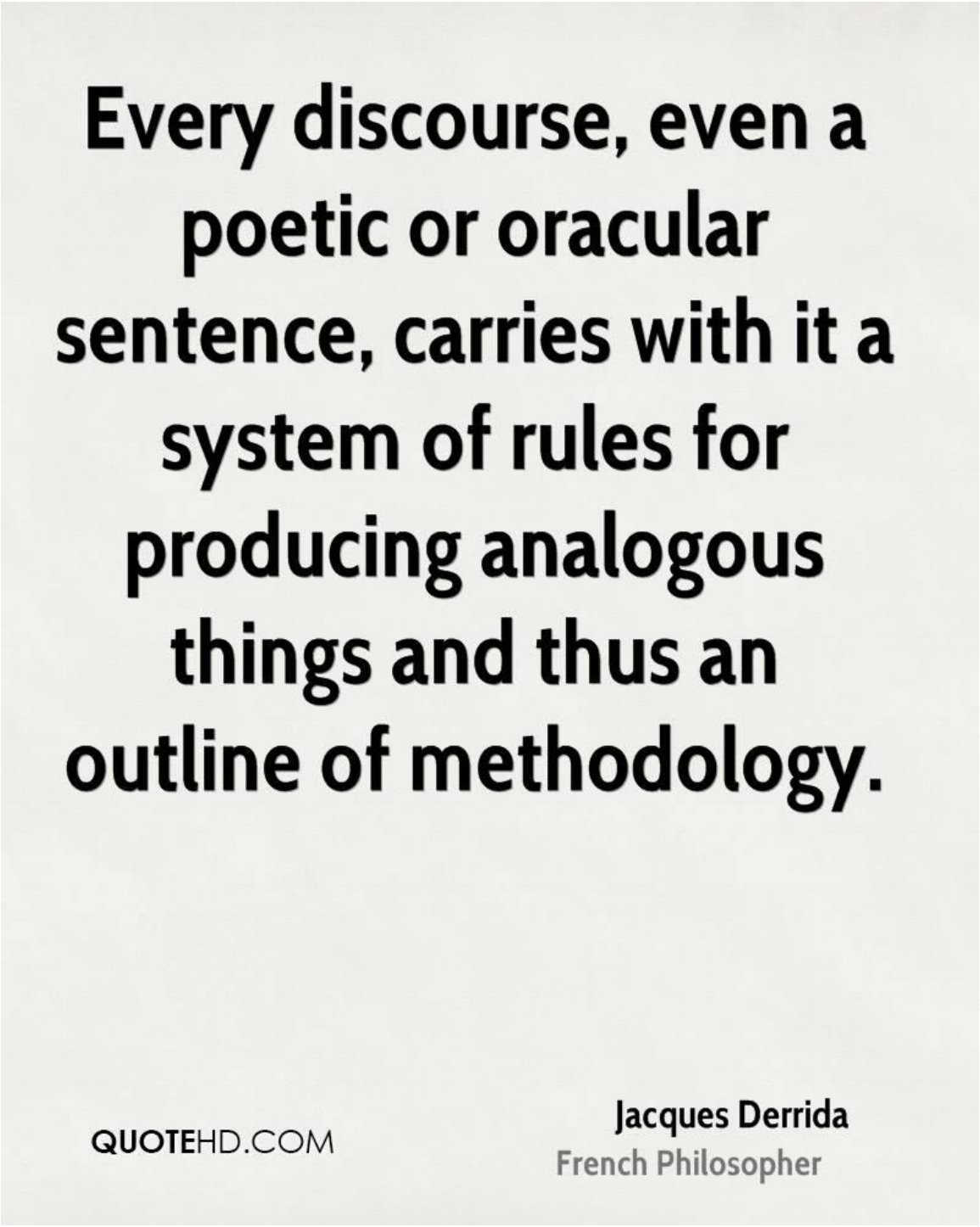
Airbnb, Inc., 888 Brannan St, San Francisco, CA 94103

Earn travel credit

Whale you be my valentine?
Dolphinately
Delivered

12:56
1
Reply privately
Message Eunice 'Cakes' Manalo
Messages to this group are now secured with end-to-end encryption. Tap for more info.
You created group "Caleb's Birthday"
Hi guys, as you know, Caleb's birthday is coming up. What color socks should I buy him as a present? Gold or plain white??
11:44 AM
Floyd
white and long ones
11:54 AM
White with gold stripes??
11:54 AM
Floyd
addidas have those but just buy cheap
12:09 PM
12:10 PM
Eunice 'Cakes' Manalo
Wth is this babe
12:52 PM
A serious conversation about socks!
12:53 PM
Type a message

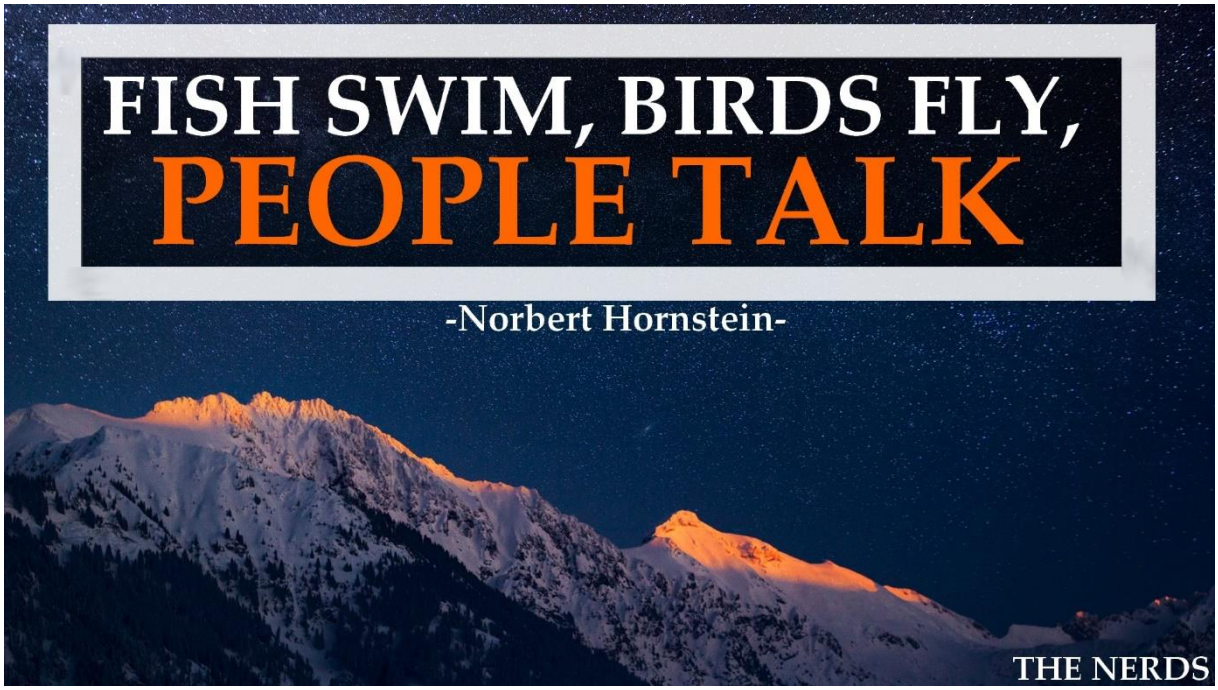

Wonwoo❤
Wonu jangan marah ya maafin :(20:05
Y 20:06
Aku ngga sengaja nebeng bambang soalnya tadi hujan, ga marahkan? 20:07
G 20:08
Singkat amat balesnya :(20:09
Maaf 20:10
Iya gpp, lagi apa yank? 20:10
Diem 20:12
Oh 20:13
Y 20:13
Sip 20:15
20:15


Every discourse, even a poetic or oracular sentence, carries with it a system of rules for producing analogous things and thus an outline of methodology.
QUOTEHD.COM
Jacques Derrida
French Philosopher

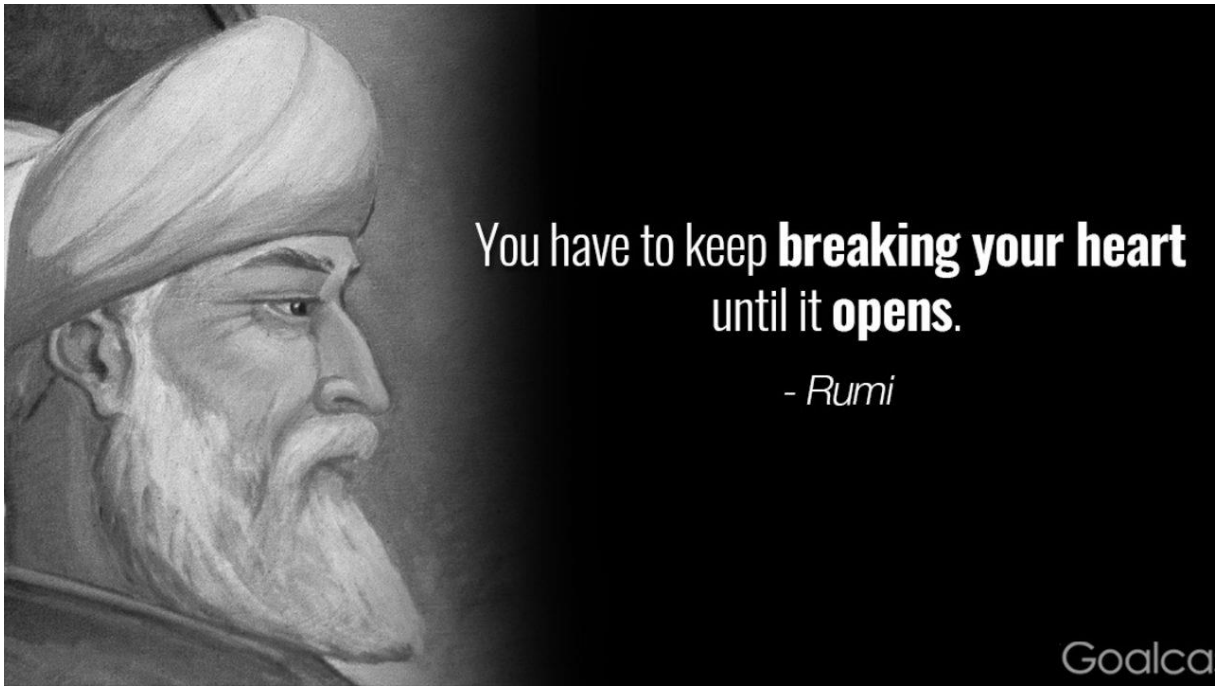
There's an apostrophe in today's soup
Sorry, I'll bring you another one
TODAYS SOUP
OXTAIL

Donut
GIVE UP
ALCOHOL
YOU LATER

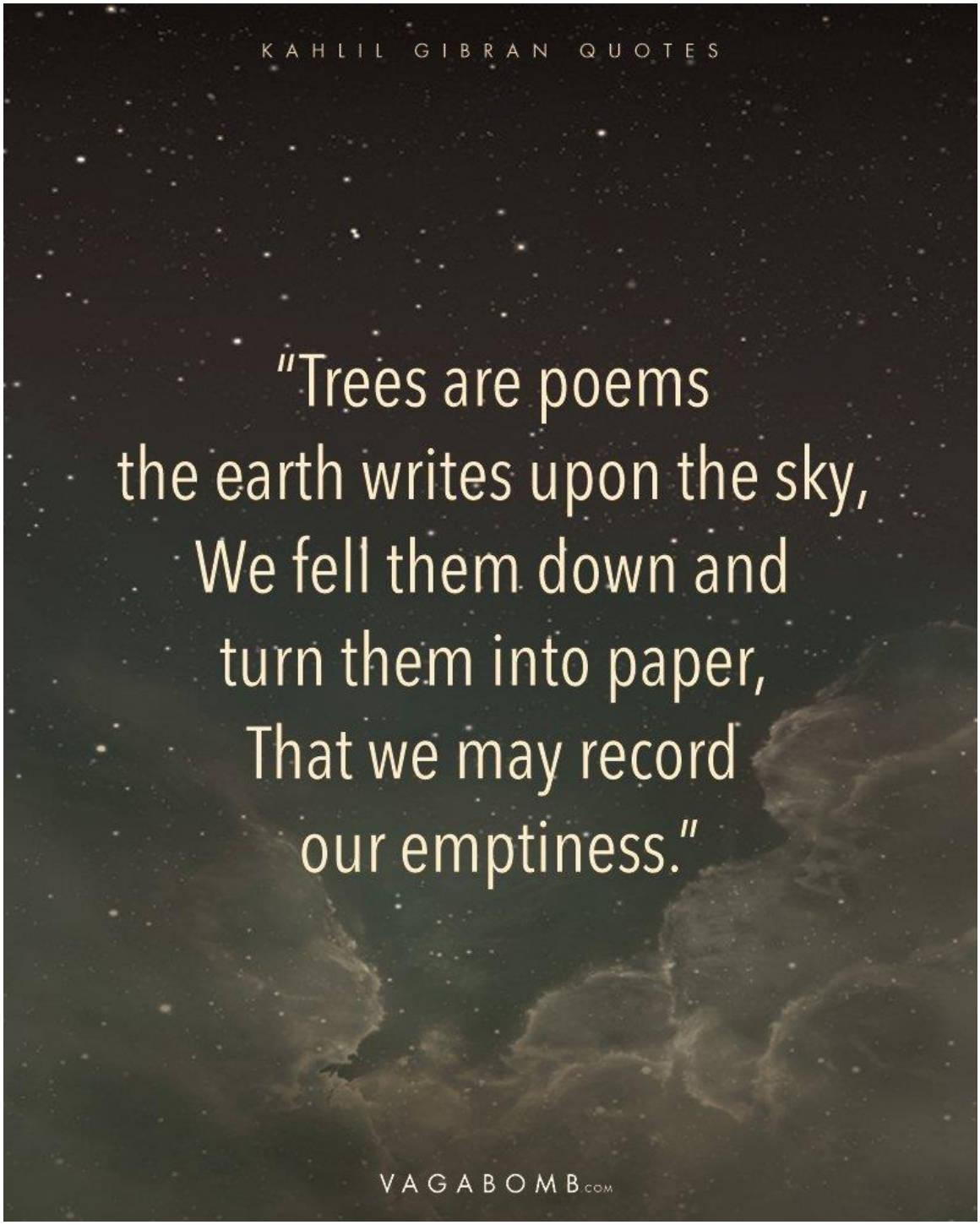
she walked in moon dust
and stars were sprinkled
in her hair

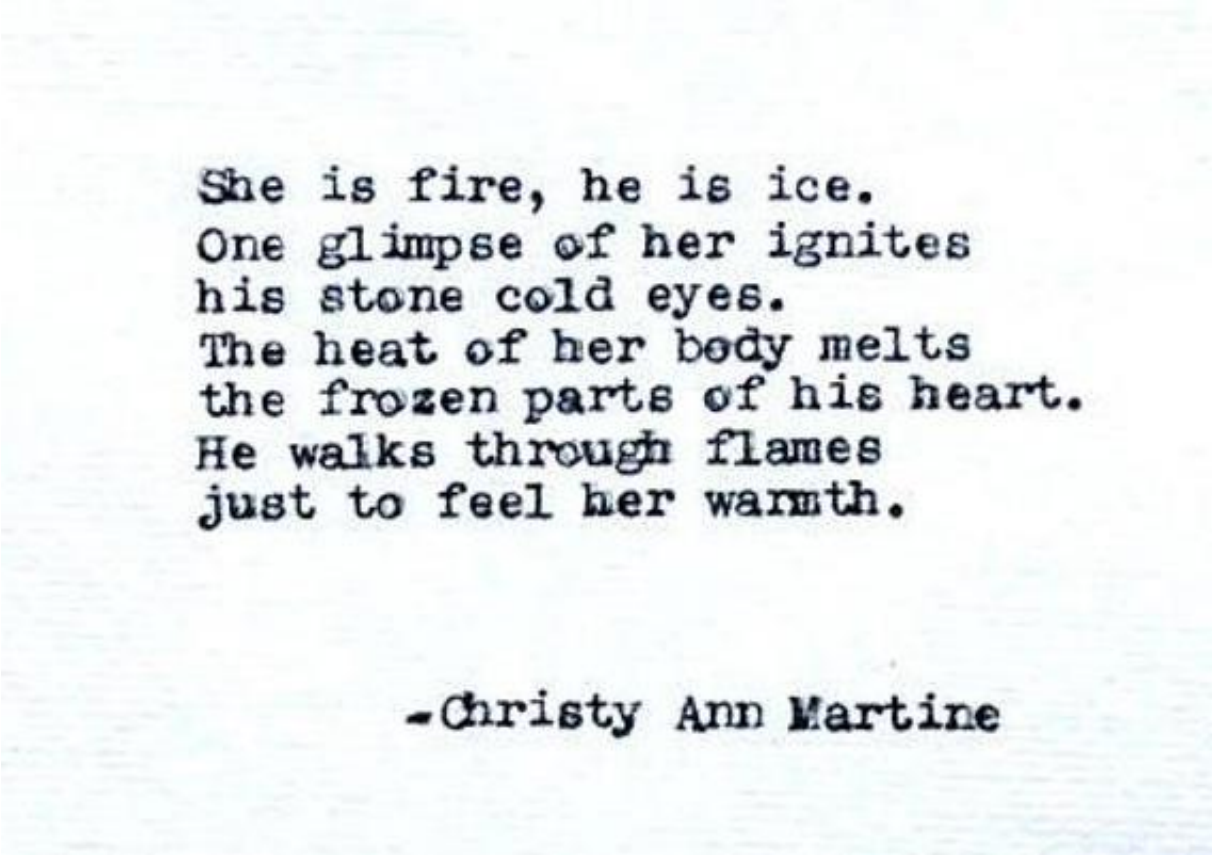

FISH SWIM, BIRDS FLY,
PEOPLE TALK
-Norbert Hornstein-
THE NERDS

Don't be angry with people who don't have the capacity to change.
DAU - @COSMICEXTENSION


You have to keep **breaking your heart**
until it **opens**.
- *Rumi*
Goalca

Daun
Yang Jatuh
Tak Pernah
Membenci
Angin
Tere Liye


KAHLIL GIBRAN QUOTES
"Trees are poems
the earth writes upon the sky,
We fell them down and
turn them into paper,
That we may record
our emptiness."
VAGABOMB.COM


She is fire, he is ice.
One glimpse of her ignites
his stone cold eyes.
The heat of her body melts
the frozen parts of his heart.
He walks through flames
just to feel her warmth.
-Christy Ann Martine

CHAPTER IV

CONTEXT, INTERPRETATION AND INTUITION

4.1 Context

In comprehension, information from the immediate setting surrounding an item in a text and which provides information that can be used to understand the meaning of an item. Such clues may be lexical or grammatical. In speech context clues include the verbal, paralinguistic and non-verbal signs that help speakers understand the full meaning of a speaker's utterances in context.

Communication occurring in a context that offers help to comprehension through such things as the situation and setting, visual clues, gestures and actions. In such a situation the learner can make more use of top-down processing to infer meanings. At the same time the speaker may communicate less explicitly since much of the meaning is known from the context.

The meaning a linguistic item has in context, for example the meaning a word has within a particular sentence, or a sentence has in a particular paragraph. The question Do you know the meaning of war? For example, may have two different contextual meanings:

a. it may mean Do you know the meaning of the word war? when said by a language teacher to a class of students.
b. it may mean War produces death, injury, and suffering, when said by an injured soldier to a politician who favors war.

4.2 Interpretation

Interpretation is the act or result of explaining or interpreting something: the way something is explained or understood. Interpretation concerns the act of finding meaning

which involves three stages: finding literal meaning based on the semantic information, finding explicature or a basic interpretation of an utterance using contextual information and world knowledge, and finding an implicature or what is hinted at by an utterance in its particular context.

4.3 Intuition

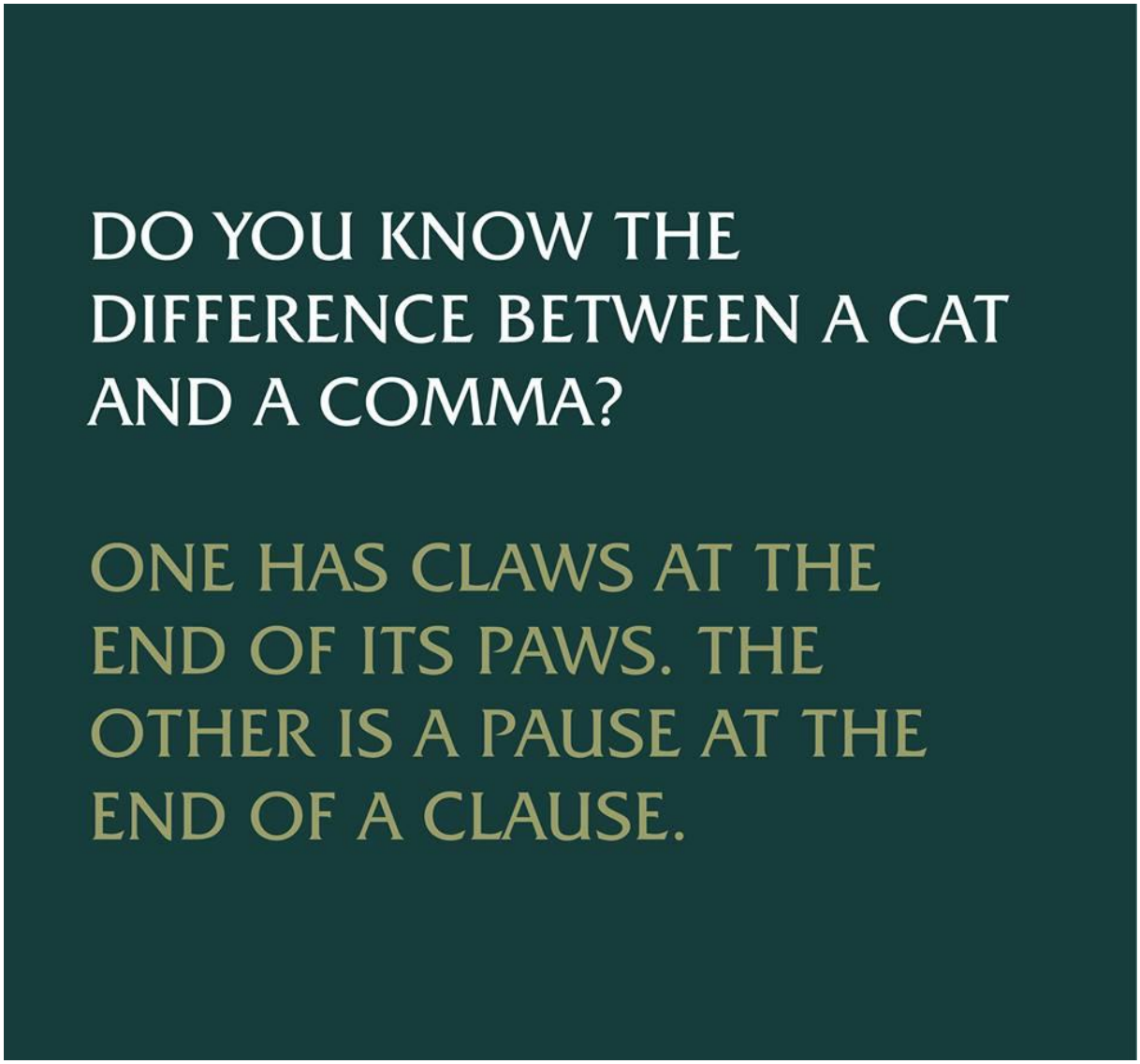
Intuition is a process that gives us the ability to know something directly without analytic reasoning, bridging the gap between the conscious and nonconscious parts of our mind, and also between instinct and reason. Our discomfort with the idea of relying on our instincts is based on millennia of cultural prejudice.

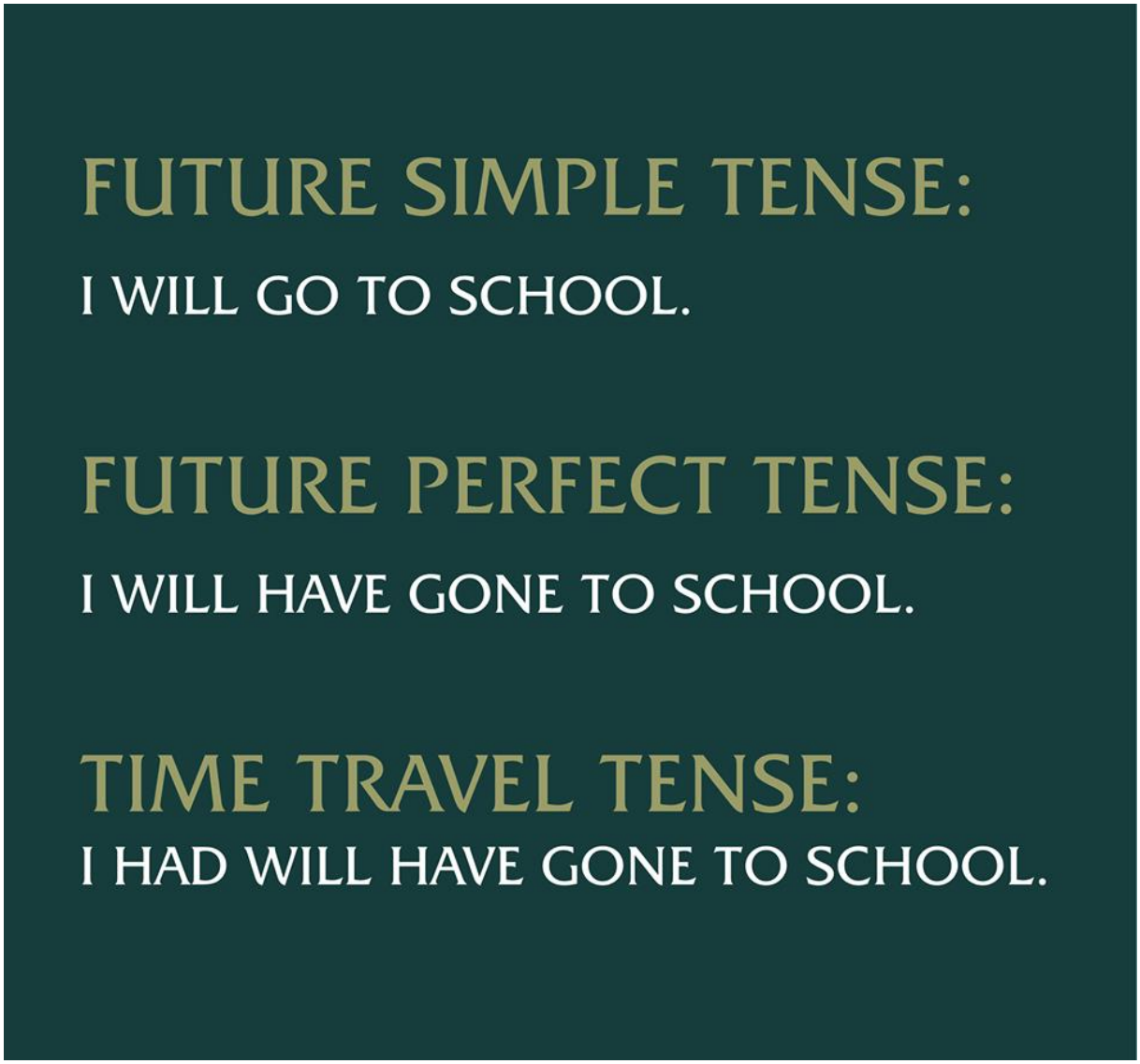
Our intuition comes from our spiritual core and can be felt first up in the solar plexus area. The waves of the intuition travel to the back brain, where they are encoded into images and then forwarded to the frontal brain, where speech, action, and thought arises. The solar plexus — also called the celiac plexus — is a complex system of radiating nerves and ganglia. It's found in the pit of the stomach in front of the aorta. It's part of the sympathetic nervous system.

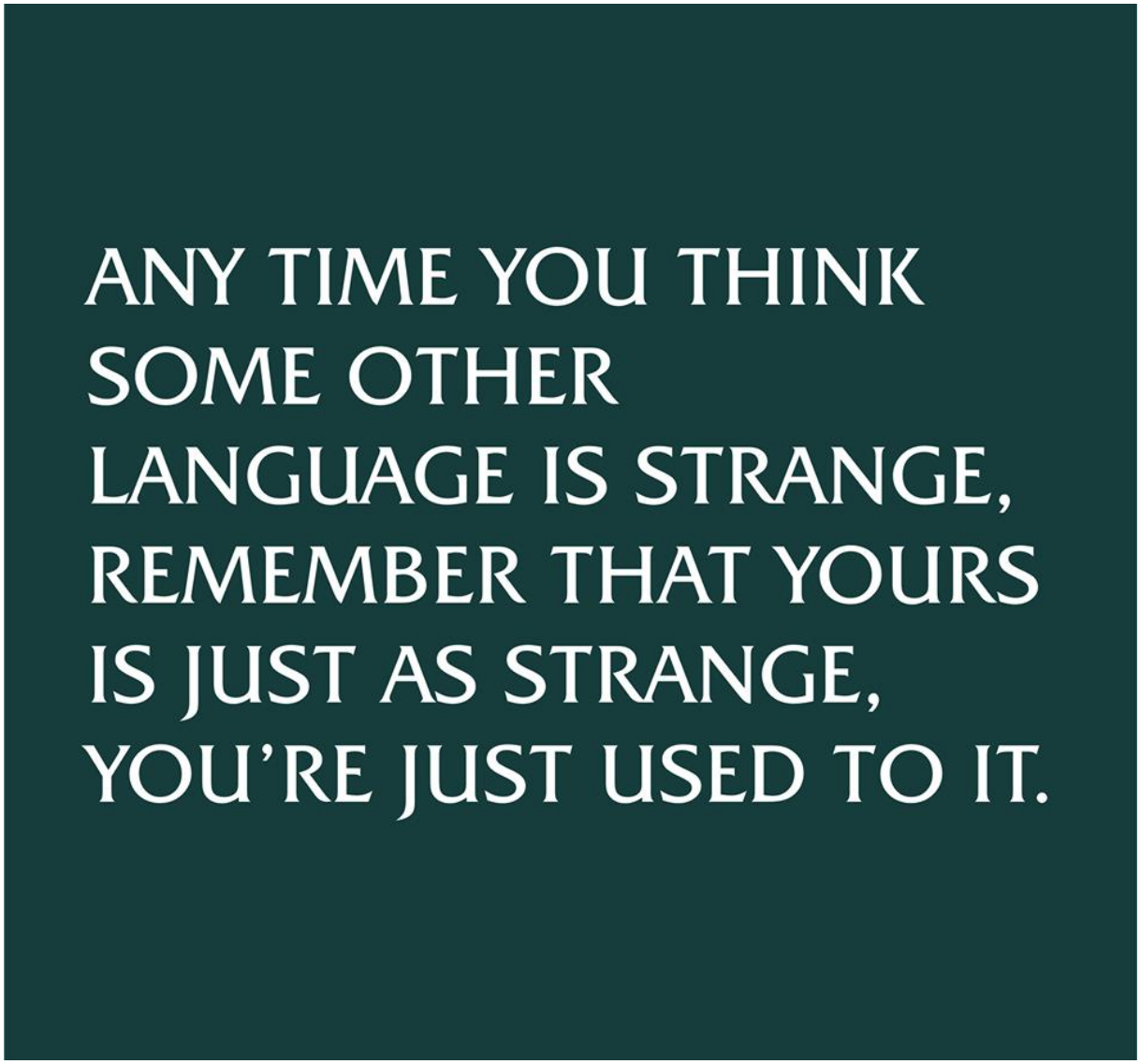
Simply, we can say that intuition is the ability to know something without any proof. It is sometimes known as a “gut feeling,” “instinct,” or “sixth sense.” ... Like our ability to reason, sometimes our intuition is accurate and sometimes it's not.

EVALUATION

How do you understand the following text? Interpretation or Intuition? Discuss with your friends.

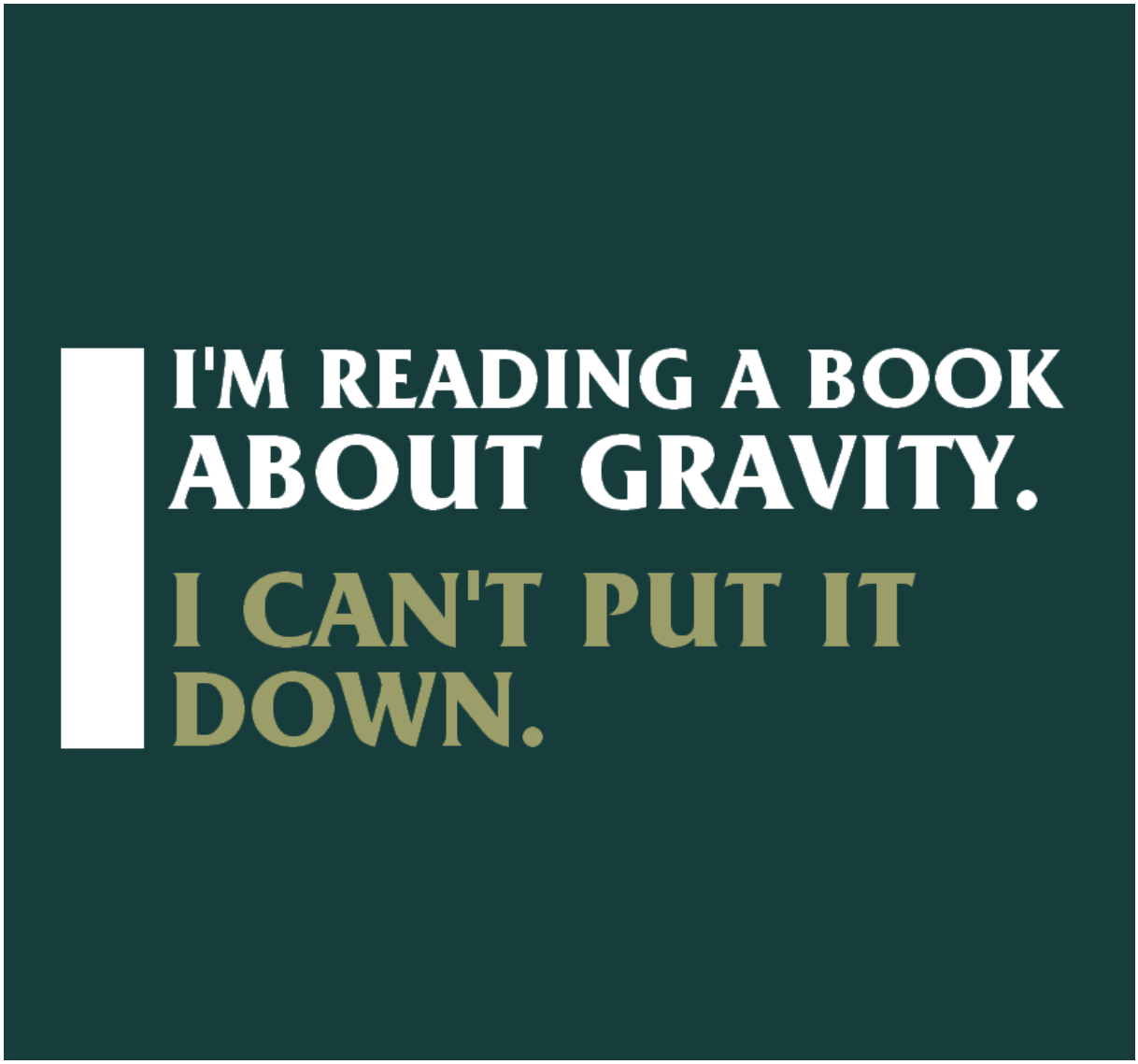

DO YOU KNOW THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN A CAT AND A COMMA?
ONE HAS CLAWS AT THE END OF ITS PAWS. THE OTHER IS A PAUSE AT THE END OF A CLAUSE.


FUTURE SIMPLE TENSE:
I WILL GO TO SCHOOL.
FUTURE PERFECT TENSE:
I WILL HAVE GONE TO SCHOOL.
TIME TRAVEL TENSE:
I HAD WILL HAVE GONE TO SCHOOL.


ANY TIME YOU THINK
SOME OTHER
LANGUAGE IS STRANGE,
REMEMBER THAT YOURS
IS JUST AS STRANGE,
YOU'RE JUST USED TO IT.

YOU: Cough
Me, a linguist: aspirated glottal stop.

DID YOU GET A HAIRCUT?
NO, I HAD THEM ALL CUT.


I'M READING A BOOK ABOUT GRAVITY.
I CAN'T PUT IT DOWN.

WHY CAN'T A BICYCLE STAND ON ITS OWN?
IT'S TWO TIRED.

I DON'T TRUST ATOMS.
THEY MAKE UP EVERYTHING.

CHAPTER V

APPROACHES IN DISCOURSE ANALYSIS I

PRAGMATICS

5.1 Pragmatics

Pragmatics is a subfield of linguistics and semiotics that studies the ways in which context contributes to meaning. Pragmatics encompasses speech act theory, conversational implicature, talk in interaction and other approaches to language behavior in philosophy, sociology, linguistics and anthropology (Mey, 2001). Unlike semantics, which examines meaning that is conventional or "coded" in a given language, pragmatics studies how the transmission of meaning depends not only on structural and linguistic knowledge (grammar, lexicon, etc.) of the speaker and listener but also on the context of the utterance, (Linguistic Society, 2017) any pre-existing knowledge about those involved, the inferred intent of the speaker, and other factors . In that respect, pragmatics explains how language users are able to overcome apparent ambiguity since meaning relies on the manner, place, time, etc. of an utterance (Mey, 2001).The ability to understand another speaker's intended meaning is called pragmatic competence (Kim & et.al, 2002).

5.2 Areas of Study

There are some areas that become the concern of pragmaticians, such as:

1. The study of the speaker's meaning focusing not on the phonetic or grammatical form of an utterance but on what the speaker's intentions and beliefs are.

2. The study of the meaning in context and the influence that a given context can have on the message. It requires knowledge of the speaker's identities, and the place and time of the utterance.
3. The study of implicatures: the things that are communicated even though they are not explicitly expressed.
4. The study of relative distance, both social and physical, between speakers in order to understand what determines the choice of what is said and what is not said.
5. The study of what is not meant, as opposed to the intended meaning: what is unsaid and unintended, or unintentional.
6. Information structure, the study of how utterances are marked in order to efficiently manage the common ground of referred entities between speaker and hearer
7. Formal Pragmatics, the study of those aspects of meaning and use for which context of use is an important factor by using the methods and goals of formal semantics.

5.3 Speech Act

Jakobson's six functions of language

Roman Jakobson, expanding on the work of Karl Bühler, described six "constitutive factors" of a speech event, each of which represents the privileging of a corresponding function, and only one of which is the referential (which corresponds to the context of the speech event). The six constitutive factors and their corresponding functions are diagrammed below.

The six constitutive factors of a speech event

Context

Message

Addresser----------Addressee

Contact

Code

Jakobson stated that there are six function of a language. The description can be seen as follows:

Referential

Poetic

Emotive----------Conative

Phatic

Metalingual

The elaboration of each function is as follows:

1. The Referential Function corresponds to the factor of Context and describes a situation, object or mental state. The descriptive statements of the referential function can consist of both definite descriptions and deictic words, e.g. "The autumn leaves have all fallen now."
2. The Expressive (alternatively called "emotive" or "affective") Function relates to the Addresser and is best exemplified by interjections and other sound changes that do not alter the denotative meaning of an utterance but do add information about the Addresser's (speaker's) internal state, e.g. "Wow, what a view!"

3. The Conative Function engages the Addressee directly and is best illustrated by vocatives and imperatives, e.g. "Tom! Come inside and eat!"
4. The Poetic Function focuses on "the message for its own sake" and is the operative function in poetry as well as slogans.
5. The Phatic Function is language for the sake of interaction and is therefore associated with the Contact factor. The Phatic Function can be observed in greetings and casual discussions of the weather, particularly with strangers.
6. The Metalingual (alternatively called "metalinguistic" or "reflexive") Function is the use of language (what Jakobson calls "Code") to discuss or describe itself.

CHAPTER VI

APPROACHES IN DISCOURSE ANALYSIS II

INTERACTIONAL SOCIOLINGUISTICS

6.1 Interactional Sociolinguistics

Interactional sociolinguistics is a subdiscipline of linguistics that uses discourse analysis to study how language users create meaning via social interaction (Tannen, An Introduction to Language and Lingusitics, 2006). It is one of the ways in which linguists look at the intersections of human language and human society; other subfields that take this perspective are language planning, minority language studies, quantitative sociolinguistics, and sociohistorical linguistics, among others (Tannen, Sociolinguistics, 1992). Interactional sociolinguistics is a theoretical and methodological framework within the discipline of linguistic anthropology, which combines the methodology of linguistics with the cultural consideration of anthropology in order to understand how the use of language informs social and cultural interaction. Interactional sociolinguistics was founded by linguistic anthropologist John J. Gumperz (Tannen, An Introduction to Language and Lingusitics, 2006) (Gumperz, 1982). Topics that might benefit from an Interactional sociolinguistic analysis include: cross-cultural miscommunication, politeness, and framing.

In terms of research methods, interactional sociolinguists analyze audio or video recordings of conversations or other interactions. Concerning the methodology of discourse analysis, by which instances of interactional sociolinguistics can be isolated, there are many ways in which language can be analyzed. Though Gumperz pioneered his

framework several decades ago it is still being used by anthropologists today in their research.

Oftentimes researchers will focus on specific linguistic components. Some focus on specific word use including connotation and indexicality. An example of an anthropologist who employed this type of methodology in her work is Deborah Schiffrin who isolated 12 words to analyze in her study of Jewish communities and their use of speech in Philadelphia (Schiffrin, 1987). Linguistic analysis, methods such as examining linguistic structures and the roles they play within conversational discourse, play a large role in using discourse analysis to establish relational frameworks (Schiffrin, 1987). Analysis focuses not only on linguistic forms such as words, sentences, grammar, phonology, etc. but also on subtle cues such as prosody and register that signal contextual presupposition.

Linguistic based analysis is not the only component that is useful for establishing instances of Interactional sociolinguistics. Culture also plays a large role in understanding this phenomenon. Many linguistic anthropologists have come to understand that language and culture are not separate entities, but are in fact processes that work hand in hand (Ahearn, 2012). These contextualization cues are culturally specific and usually unconscious. Linguistic anthropology helps make explicit the implicit features of culture that can often be unknown to the speaker. When participants in a conversation come from different cultural backgrounds, they may not recognize these subtle cues in one another's speech, leading to misunderstanding (Gumperz, 1982). This very idea of misunderstanding, contextualization, and culture, has been widely explored using Gumperz's framework of Interactional sociolinguistics. One of the main ways that Gumperz's framework is often utilized is in the context of jokes and how, when and why they are used by a specific culture in conversation. One anthropologist who has conducted

research using the methodology of interactional sociolinguistics is Catherine Evans Davies. She uses it her ethnographic research to understand how beginning language learners start to make sense of social interaction in that language by using jokes in conversation with native speakers (Davies, 2003). In her work she discusses the usefulness of Gumperz's theory in her methodology as it stresses conversational analysis for the purpose of interpreting different linguistic practices, in this case humor and joking. Jokes, and humor are not the only area in which interactional sociolinguistic discourse analysis is useful. It is a valid and effective research framework for anyone interested in how language interacts with culture and meaning. Karen Grainger utilized it in her work involving relationships between care givers the elderly. In her article Reality Orientation in Institutions for the Elderly: The Perspective from Interactional Sociolinguistics, Karen Grainger uses Interactional sociolinguistics to push back against a process of elder therapy called "Reality Orientation." (Grainger, 1998) In this piece Grainger uses discourse analysis to examine some of the scripts and modes of speech that the therapists abide by. Utilizing Gumperz's framework this way that showed that this type of therapy is perhaps creating a bigger divide between patients and staff. Here Grainger uses Interactional sociolinguistics to understand how power structures are established and maintained, whether deliberately or unwittingly. The theories behind Interactional sociolinguistics have no limit to the fields and areas of study to which they can be applied, for they provide answers to the ever-present question of the relationship between culture and language.

CHAPTER VII

APPROACHES IN DISCOURSE ANALYSIS III

ETHNOGRAPHY OF COMMUNICATION

7.1 Ethnography of Communication

The ethnography of communication (EOC), originally called the ethnography of speaking, is the analysis of communication within the wider context of the social and cultural practices and beliefs of the members of a particular culture or speech community (Hymes, Introduction: Toward Ethnographies of Communication, 1964). It is a method of discourse analysis in linguistics that draws on the anthropological field of ethnography. Unlike ethnography proper, though, EOC takes into account both the communicative form, which may include but is not limited to spoken language, and its function within the given culture (Cameron, 2001).

General aims of this qualitative research method include being able to discern which communication acts and/or codes are important to different groups, what types of meanings groups apply to different communication events, and how group members learn these codes, in order to provide insight into particular communities. This additional insight may be used to enhance communication with group members, make sense of group members' decisions, and distinguish groups from one another, among other things.

7.2 Ethnography of Communication Origin

Dell Hymes proposed the ethnography of communication as an approach towards analyzing patterns of language use within speech communities, in order to provide support for his idea of communicative competence, which itself was a reaction to Noam

Chomsky's distinction between linguistic competence and linguistic performance (Hymes, Foundations in Sociolinguistics: An Ethnographic Approach 8th. Ed, 1976).

Originally coined "ethnography of speaking" in Dell Hymes' eponymous 1962 paper, it was redefined in his 1964 paper, Introduction: Toward Ethnographies of Communication to accommodate for the non-vocal and non-verbal characteristics of communication (Hymes, Introduction: Toward Ethnographies of Communication, 1964), although most EOC researchers still tend to focus upon speaking as it is generally considered "to be a prominent - even primordial - means of communication." (Lindlof & Taylor, 2002)

The term "ethnography of communication" is meant to be descriptive of the characteristics that an approach towards language from an anthropological standpoint must take. Namely, according to Dell Hymes, it must 1) "investigate directly the use of language in contexts of situations so as to discern patterns proper to speech activity" and 2) "take as context a community, investigating its communicative habits as a whole." (Hymes, Introduction: Toward Ethnographies of Communication, 1964) In other words, rather than divorcing linguistic form from its function, the analysis of a culture's or community's communication, linguistic and otherwise, must occur with respect to the sociocultural context of its use and the functions of the meanings conveyed. As Deborah Cameron puts it, "If you are mainly concerned with the way a certain speech event fits into a whole network of cultural beliefs and practices, you will spend more time describing things that are external to the talk itself: who the speakers are, where they are, what beliefs and customs are important in their lives." (Cameron, 2001)

7.3 Usage

In their book Qualitative Communication Research Methods, communications scholars Thomas R. Lindlof and Bryan C. Taylor explain, "Ethnography of communication conceptualizes communication as a continuous flow of information, rather than as a segmented exchange of messages." (Lindlof & Taylor, 2002) According to Deborah Cameron, EOC can be thought of as the application of ethnographic methods to the communication patterns of a group (Cameron, 2001). Littlejohn and Foss recall that Dell Hymes suggests that "cultures communicate in different ways, but all forms of communication require a shared code, communicators who know and use the code, a channel, a setting, a message form, a topic, and an event created by transmission of the message." (Littlejohn & Foss, 2011) "EOC studies," according to Lindlof and Taylor, "produce highly detailed analysis of communication codes and their moment-to-moment functions in various contexts. In these analyses, speech communities are constituted in local and continuous performances of cultural and moral matters." (Lindlof & Taylor, 2002)

EOC can be used as a means by which to study the interactions among members of a specific culture or "speech community," which is any group of people that creates and establishes its own speaking codes and norms. Gerry Philipsen explained, "Each community has its own cultural values about speaking and these are linked to judgments of situational appropriateness." (Philipsen, 1975)

The meaning and the understanding of the presence or absence of speech within different communities will vary. Local cultural patterns and norms must be understood to analyze and interpret the appropriateness of speech act within specific communities. Thus, "the statement that talk is not anywhere valued equally in all social contexts

suggests a research strategy for discovering and describing cultural or subcultural differences in the value of speaking. Speaking is one among other symbolic resources which are allocated and distributed in social situations according to distinctive culture patterns." (Philipsen, 1975)

Hymes also used EOC to argue against the strong view of the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis, the idea that one's language determines one's cognitive ability. While Hymes believed that one's language affected one's world view, he argued that the extent of that effect depended "on the circumstances of its acquisition, and its place in the linguistic repertoire of a person and a community." (Hymes, Foundations in Sociolinguistics: An Ethnographic Approach 8th. Ed, 1976)

7.4 The SPEAKING Model

A model that Hymes developed as a framework for the analysis of a speech event within its cultural context is the mnemonic SPEAKING model. The model consists of sixteen components, which Hymes believed were necessary to consider in order to accurately and satisfactorily describe any particular speech event: message form, message content, setting, scene, speaker/sender, addressor, hearer/receiver/audience, addressee, purposes (outcomes), purposes (goals), key, channels, forms of speech, norms of interaction, norms of interpretation, and genres. These sixteen components are organized into eight divisions to form the acronym SPEAKING (Hymes, Foundations in Sociolinguistics: An Ethnographic Approach 8th. Ed, 1976).

S - ***setting and scene***: where the speech event is located in time and space

P - ***participants***: who takes part in the speech event, and in what role (e.g. speaker, addressee, audience, eavesdropper)

E - ***ends***: what the purpose of the speech event is, and what its outcome is meant to be

A - ***act sequence***: what speech acts make up the speech event, and what order they are performed in

K - ***key***: the tone or manner of performance (serious or joking, sincere or ironic, etc.)

I - ***instrumentalities***: what channel or medium of communication is used (e.g. speaking, signing, writing, drumming, whistling), and what language/variety is selected from the participants' repertoire

N - ***norms of interaction***: what the rules are for producing and interpreting speech acts

G - ***genres***: what 'type' does a speech event belong to (e.g. interview, gossip), and what other pre-existing conventional forms of speech are drawn on or 'cited' in producing appropriate contributions to talk (e.g. do people quote from mythology or poetry or scripture?) (Cameron, 2001)

While the SPEAKING model is a valuable model to EOC, as well as the descriptive framework most commonly used in ethnography of communication, Cameron cautions that Hymes' model should be used more as a guide than a template, because adhering to it too narrowly may create a limiting view of the subject of its study. Ethnography of communication, according to Cameron, should strive not only to "address such 'descriptive' questions as 'what speech events occur in such-and-such a community?' and 'what are the components of speech events X, Y, and Z?'", but also to explain "why particular events occur and why they have particular characteristics." (Cameron, 2001)

CHAPTER VIII

APPROACHES IN DISCOURSE ANALYSIS IV

CONVERSATION ANALYSIS

8.1 Conversation Analysis

Conversation analysis (CA) is an approach to the study of social interaction, embracing both verbal and non-verbal conduct, in situations of everyday life. CA began with a focus on casual conversation, but its methods were subsequently adapted to embrace more task- and institution-centered interactions, such as those occurring in doctors' offices, courts, law enforcement, helplines, educational settings, and the mass media (Garfinkel, 1967). As a consequence, the term 'conversation analysis' has become something of a misnomer, but it has continued as a term for a distinctive and successful approach to the analysis of sociolinguistic interactions.

Conversation analysis begins by setting up a problem connected with a preliminary hypothesis. The data used in CA is in the form of video- or audio-recorded conversations, collected with or without researchers' involvement, typically from a video camera or other recording device in the space where the conversation takes place (e.g. a living room, picnic, or doctor's office). The researchers construct detailed transcriptions from the recordings, containing as much detail as is possible. After transcription, the researchers perform inductive data-driven analysis aiming to find recurring patterns of interaction. Based on the analysis, the researchers identify regularities, rules or models to describe these patterns, enhancing, modifying or replacing initial hypotheses. While this kind of inductive analysis based on collections of data exhibits is basic to fundamental

work in CA, this method is often supported by statistical analysis in applications of CA to solve problems in medicine and elsewhere.

8.2 Basic Structures

8.2.1 Turn Taking Organization

The actions that make up conversations are implemented through turns at talk, and turn-taking is therefore a fundamental feature of conversational organization. The analysis of how turn-taking works focuses on two major issues: i) what are the primary units of turns; and ii) how are these units allocated between speakers. The fundamental analysis of turn-taking was described in a paper widely known as the "Simplest Systematics" (Sacks, Schegloff, & Jefferson, 1974)

1) Sacks et al. identify turn constructional units (TCUs) as the fundamental building blocks of turns. TCUs can be sentences, clauses, phrases or single words that can be recognized as units in their own right depending on context. A crucial feature of TCUs is that they are projectable: that is, a hearer can recognize what it will take for a unit to be complete. It is this projectability that enables the split-second timing that is characteristic of ordinary human turn-taking. The completion point of a current TCU is a turn-transition place (or TRP).
2) In the Sacks et al model, the allocation of units between speakers is implemented through a hierarchically organized set of rules. At any given TRP: i) If the current speaker selects a next one to speak at the end of current TCU (by name, gaze or contextual aspects of what is said), the selected speaker has the right and obligation to speak next. ii) If the current speaker does not select a next speaker, other potential speakers have the right to self-select (the first starter gets the turn),

and iii) if options i and ii have not been implemented, current speaker may continue with another TCU. At the end of that TCU, the option system applies again.

The turn-taking model sketched here is designed to accommodate a wide range of turn-taking possibilities, varying numbers of conversational participants, and circumstances in which the length of turns, and of conversations, and of their topics is not in any way pre-specified in advance. The system is implemented by the parties to the conversation without external regulation (party administered), and on a local unit-by-unit basis. Designed to account for the fact that much conversation takes place without much silence or 'dead time' but also without significant amounts of overlapping talk, the described system has multiple consequences.

1) It defines silences:

   Pause: A period of silence within a speaker's TCU.

   Gap: A period of silence between turns.

   Lapse: A period of silence when no sequence is in progress: the current speaker stops talking, does not select a next speaker, and no one self-selects. Lapses are commonly associated with visual or other forms of disengagement between speakers, even if these periods are brief.

2) It provides that speakers wanting a long turn, for example to tell a story or describe important news, must use some form of preface to get a go-ahead that provides that others will refrain from intervening during the course of the telling (the preface and its associated go-ahead comprise a "pre-sequence".

3) It provides that conversations cannot be appropriately terminated by 'just stopping', but require a special closing sequence.

4) It provides that certain types of gaps (following the 'current selects next' option) are accountable.
5) It provides that special resources be deployed in the case of overlapping talk.

The model also leaves puzzles to be solved, for example concerning how TCU boundaries are identified and projected, and the role played by gaze and body orientation in the management of turn-taking. It also establishes the relevance of problems for other disciplines: for example, the split second timing of turn-transition sets up a cognitive 'bottle neck' problem in which potential speakers must attend to incoming speech while also preparing their own contribution - something which imposes a heavy load of human processing capacity, and which may impact the structure of languages.

The turn-taking model described by Sacks et al was a landmark in the language sciences, and indeed it is the most cited paper ever published in the journal Language. However, it is designed to model turn-taking only in ordinary conversation, and not interaction in more specialized, institutional environments such as meetings, courts, news interviews, mediation hearings. All the these latter, and many more, have distinctive turn-taking organizations that depart in various ways from the Sacks et al model. Nonetheless it is fundamental that we cannot perform social actions of any kind without getting a turn at talk, and hence that turn-taking provides an omnipresent background that shapes the performance of action regardless of the particular turn-taking system in play.

Adjacency Pairs

Talk tends to occur in responsive pairs; however, the pairs may be split over a sequence of turns. Adjacency pairs divide utterance types into 'first pair parts' and 'second pair

parts' to form a 'pair type'. There are lots of examples of adjacency pairs including Questions-Answers, Offer-Acceptance/Refusal and Compliment-Response.

Sequence Expansion

Sequence expansion allows talk which is made up of more than a single adjacency pair to be constructed and understood as performing the same basic action and the various additional elements are as doing interactional work related to the basic action underway.

Sequence expansion is constructed in relation to a base sequence of a first pair part (FPP) and a second pair part (SPP) in which the core action underway is achieved. It can occur prior to the base FPP, between the base FPP and SPP, and following the base SPP.

1. Pre-expansion: an adjacency pair that may be understood as preliminary to the main course of action. A generic pre-expansion is a summon-answer adjacency pair, as in "Mary?"/ "Yes?" It is generic in the sense that it does not contribute to any particular types of base adjacency pair, such as request or suggestion. There are other types of pre-sequence that work to prepare the interlocutors for the subsequent speech action. For example, "Guess what!"/"What?" as preliminary to an announcement of some sort, or "What are you doing?"/"Nothing" as preliminary to an invitation or a request.
2. Insert expansion: an adjacency pair that comes between the FPP and SPP of the base adjacency pair. Insert expansions interrupt the activity under way, but are still relevant to that action (Jefferson, 1972). Insert expansion allows a possibility for a second speaker, the speaker who must produce the SPP, to do interactional work relevant to the projected SPP. An example of this would be a typical conversation between a customer and a shopkeeper:

Customer : *I would like a turkey sandwich, please*. (FPP base)

Server : *White or wholegrain*? (Insert FPP)

Customer : *Wholegrain*. (Insert SPP)

Server : *Okay*. (SPP base)

3. Post-expansion: a turn or an adjacency pair that comes after, but is still tied to, the base adjacency pair. There are two types: minimal and non-minimal. Minimal expansion is also termed sequence closing thirds, because it is a single turn after the base SPP (hence third) that does not project any further talk beyond their turn (hence closing). Examples of SCT include "oh", "I see", "okay", etc.
4. Silence: Silence can occur throughout the entire speech act but in what context it is happening depends what the silence means. Three different assets can be implied through silence:
    a) Pause: A period of silence within a speaker's turn.
    b) Gap: A period of silence between turns.
    c) Lapse: A period of silence when no sequence is in progress: the current speaker stops talking, does not select a next speaker, and no one self-selects. Lapses are commonly associated with visual or other forms of disengagement between speakers, even if these periods are brief.

Preference Organization

CA may reveal structural (i.e. practice-underwritten) preferences in conversation for some types of actions (within sequences of action) over others. For example, responsive actions which agree with, or accept, positions taken by a first action tend to be performed more straightforwardly and faster than actions that disagree with, or decline, those positions (Pomerantz, 1984). The former is termed an unmarked turn shape, meaning the

turn is not preceded by silence nor is it produced with delays, mitigation and accounts. The latter is termed marked turn shape, which describes a turn with opposite characteristics. One consequence of this is that agreement and acceptance are promoted over their alternatives, and are more likely to be the outcome of the sequence. Pre-sequences are also a component of preference organization and contribute to this outcome

8.2.2 Repair

Repair organization describes how parties in conversation deal with problems in speaking, hearing, or understanding. Repair segments are classified by who initiates repair (self or other), by who resolves the problem (self or other), and by how it unfolds within a turn or a sequence of turns. The organization of repair is also a self-righting mechanism in social interaction (Sacks, Schegloff, & Jefferson, 1974) Participants in conversation seek to correct the trouble source by initiating and preferring self-repair, the speaker of the trouble source, over other repair . Self-repair initiations can be placed in three locations in relation to the trouble source, in a first turn, a transition space or in a third turn.

8.3 Action Formation

This focuses on the description of the practices by which turns at talk are composed and positioned so as to realize one or another actions.

8.4 Major Dimensions

The major dimensions of CA include three terms:

1) Action: Organization of actions distinct from outside of a conversation. This could include openings and closings of conversations, assessments, storytelling, and complaints.
2) Structure: All human social action is structured and has rules, conversation is no different. In order to participate in a conversation, the participants must abide by these rules and structures to be an active participant
3) Intersubjectivity: Concerning the ways in which the participants' intentions, knowledge, relations, and stances towards the talked-about objects is created, maintained, and negotiated.

CHAPTER IX

APPROACHES IN DISCOURSE ANALYSIS V

SYSTEMIC FUNCTIONAL GRAMMAR

9.1 Systemic Functional Grammar

Systemic functional grammar (SFG) is a form of grammatical description originated by Michael Halliday. It is part of a social semiotic approach to language called systemic functional linguistics. In these two terms, systemic refers to the view of language as "a network of systems, or interrelated sets of options for making meaning"; functional refers to Halliday's view that language is as it is because of what it has evolved to do. Thus, what he refers to as the multidimensional architecture of language "reflects the multidimensional nature of human experience and interpersonal relations." (Halliday M. , 1994)

9.2 Language Metafunctions

From early on in his account of language, Halliday has argued that it is inherently functional. His early papers on the grammar of English make reference to the "functional components" of language, as "generalized uses of language, which, since they seem to determine the nature of the language system, require to be incorporated into our account of that system." (Halliday M. , Functional Diversity in Language as seem from a Consideration of Modality and Mood in English, 1970) Halliday argues that this functional organization of language "determines the form taken by grammatical structure".

Halliday refers to his functions of language as metafunctions. He proposes three general functions: the ideational, the interpersonal and the textual.

Ideational Metafunction

The ideational metafunction is the function for construing human experience. It is the means by which we make sense of "reality" (Halliday M. , The Essential Halliday, 2009). Halliday divides the ideational into the logical and the experiential metafunctions. The logical metafunction refers to the grammatical resources for building up grammatical units into complexes, for instance, for combining two or more clauses into a clause complex. The experiential function refers to the grammatical resources involved in construing the flux of experience through the unit of the clause.

The ideational metafunction reflects the contextual value of field, that is, the nature of the social process in which the language is implicated (Halliday & Hasan, Language, context and text: Aspects of language in a social semiotic perspective, 1985). An analysis of a text from the perspective of the ideational function involves inquiring into the choices in the grammatical system of "transitivity": that is, process types, participant types, circumstance types, combined with an analysis of the resources through which clauses are combined. Halliday's An Introduction to Functional Grammar (in the third edition, with revisions by Christian Matthiessen) sets out the description of these grammatical systems (Halliday & Matthiessen, An Introduction to Functional Grammar, 2004).

Interpersonal Metafunction

The interpersonal metafunction relates to a text's aspects of tenor or interactivity. Like field, tenor comprises three component areas: the speaker/writer persona, social distance, and relative social status. Social distance and relative social status are applicable

only to spoken texts, although a case has been made that these two factors can also apply to written text.

The speaker/writer persona concerns the stance, personalization and standing of the speaker or writer. This involves looking at whether the writer or speaker has a neutral attitude, which can be seen through the use of positive or negative language. Social distance means how close the speakers are, e.g. how the use of nicknames shows the degree to which they are intimate. Relative social status asks whether they are equal in terms of power and knowledge on a subject, for example, the relationship between a mother and child would be considered unequal. Focuses here are on speech acts (e.g. whether one person tends to ask questions and the other speaker tends to answer), who chooses the topic, turn management, and how capable both speakers are of evaluating the subject.

Textual Metafunction

The textual metafunction relates to mode; the internal organisation and communicative nature of a text. This comprises textual interactivity, spontaneity and communicative distance. Textual interactivity is examined with reference to disfluencies such as hesitators, pauses and repetitions. Spontaneity is determined through a focus on lexical density, grammatical complexity, coordination (how clauses are linked together) and the use of nominal groups. The study of communicative distance involves looking at a text's cohesion—that is, how it hangs together, as well as any abstract language it uses. Cohesion is analyzed in the context of both lexical and grammatical as well as intonational aspects with reference to lexical chains and, in the speech register, tonality, tonicity, and tone. The lexical aspect focuses on sense relations and lexical repetitions, while the grammatical aspect looks at repetition of meaning shown through reference, substitution and ellipsis,

as well as the role of linking adverbials. Systemic functional grammar deals with all of these areas of meaning equally within the grammatical system itself.

9.3 Children's Grammar

Michael Halliday outlined seven functions of language with regard to the grammar used by children:

a) the instrumental function serves to manipulate the environment, to cause certain events to happen;
b) the regulatory function of language is the control of events;
c) the representational function is the use of language to make statements, convey facts and knowledge, explain, or report to represent reality as the speaker/writer sees it;
d) the interactional function of language serves to ensure social maintenance;
e) the personal function is to express emotions, personality, and "gut-level" reactions;
f) the heuristic function used to acquire knowledge, to learn about the environment;
g) the imaginative function serves to create imaginary systems or ideas.

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4. **CONVERSATION ANALYSIS**
5. **SYSTEMIC FUNCTIONAL LINGUISTICS**

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