

# DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

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# DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

**Master 1: Literature & Civilization Option**

**(Curriculum and Lectures)**

Prepared, proposed and delivered by: **Dr. TRIKI Manel**

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### Introductory Note

Recently, teachers and students began to realize that one of the main goals of teaching English in Algeria is to cultivate and develop the communicative competence of Algerian learners since language is not a mere collection of grammatical rules to be learned and forgotten afterwards; yet, while grammatical components remain crucial, the central organizing principle in learning English is in fact communication. Consequently, many innovations have been made to promote English education contexts and cultivate the communicative competence of Algerian learners. Interestingly, with the implementation of the LMD system new courses were included in the curriculum such as *Discourse Analysis* courses for Literature and Civilization Master Students. Discourse analysis is deemed important in teaching and learning English in the Algerian foreign language context. This course was first included in the syllabuses of third year BA and first and second year Master. Later it was exclusively restricted to First and Second year Master. As far as Master students of Literature and Civilization studies are concerned, Discourse Analysis was introduced to be presented as a series of lectures in 2016/2017.

On account of the huge number of students and the specific nature of the course, it has been agreed to deliver the lectures to separated groups instead of sections. Additionally, groups were formed and grouped in two groups, however this year (2020/2021) and due to the health risk and distancing circumstances and precautions of Covid19 four groups were formed which attests to put a great deal of pressure on both teachers and students. This situation is aggravated by the shortage in electronic devices such as data-shows and OHP, absence of sound magnifiers, dim-lit lecture theaters, and broken doors.

At the beginning of every lecture students receive hand-outs to help them concentrate on the content of the lectures and discuss the information. After the presentation of the lecture, and for conformity reasons and to consolidate students' knowledge, students are asked to use the hand-outs and the lecture notes on board to summarize it at home. In fact, this teaching methodology has proved to be efficient as students actively participate in the lecture and their uptake after each lecture attests to be significant. Moreover, the students are encouraged to ask questions about any point that seems obscure.

The time allotted to this new course is limited to 1h30 per week, which amounts to 33.8 hours per school year. It should be acknowledged that this course concerns only the first year master, which means that the students do not carry on reading that course at all in the coming graduation year. A priori, the time allotted to *Discourse Analysis* proves to be insufficient to tackle the whole range of disciplines that constitute this field of research, limiting, thus, the opportunities to develop the students' background knowledge and interdisciplinary skills as well as their communicative competence. In fact, what is needed to reinforce those lectures is to supplement them with extra practice tutorials.

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The examination papers have been designed according to *Bloom's Taxonomy* to address various abilities (comprehension, analysis, etc.). The students have been exposed to different kinds of activities that target both their memory-related skills and their critical thinking abilities. The students have always expressed their satisfaction with the lay-out and content of their examination papers as they have been trained to answer the activities proposed at the end of each lecture.

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Course: Discourse Analysis

Level: First Year Master

## **Course Description & Outline**

### *Course Description*

It can be argued that who we are and what we are able to achieve socially is determined by the range of different forms of language which we have at our disposal. We use language in a variety of contexts, to fulfill a broad range of communicative and social goals. The course of *Discourse Analysis* explores the ways in which language varies according to subject area, social setting, communicative purpose and the social roles and identities of those involved. This course was recently incorporated in the Algerian tertiary curriculum. With the reforms in higher education and with the implementation of the LMD system, this course has become an essential component in the syllabuses of both first and second year master. The time allotted to Discourse Analysis is 90 mns/week, which may not be sufficient to cover the wide range of topics. Nonetheless, the course of discourse analysis is meant to introduce (concisely, though) concepts, theories and research behind the study of naturally occurring language in use.

Research into Discourse Analysis and communicative competence of adult foreign and second language learners has proven that linguistic proficiency does not really guarantee a concomitant level of communication proficiency. Even advanced learners with high linguistic

proficiency may fail to interpret or to convey messages as native speakers do in real life. Therefore, rehearsing discourse analysis skills alongside other linguistic aspects should be one of the main objectives of language teaching in formal education.

A historical overview of discourse analysis, why studying discourse analysis, definitions and types of discourses among other discourse analysis aspects and related disciplines will be discussed. Thus, opportunities to analyze both spoken and written discourse are offered. This course will help you recognize the linguistic elements of an utterance, its functions, its implicatures, the speech acts involved, and its role in conversation.

### ***Objectives of the Course***

This course aims to,

- Identify various definitions and approaches to discourse analysis.
- Discuss the purposes that discourse analysis can serve.
- Develop student ability to critically evaluate written and spoken materials in the field of discourse analysis.
- Develop student understanding of the different tools of analysis utilised specifically within Linguistics.
- Encourage awareness of the ways in which discourse practices vary across social, cultural and linguistic boundaries, and how this impacts within local and global contexts.
- Analyse discourse in its socio cultural context

### ***Expected Outcomes***

By the completion of this course, students will be able to:

- Understand principles of discourse analysis and apply them to the analysis of naturally occurring utterances

- Use language focusing on functions rather than only on forms
- Explore the central aspects of spoken and written language in its linguistic and extra-linguistic context
- Recognize the linguistic elements of an utterance, its implicatures, the speech acts involved, and its role in conversation
- Illustrate the roles of society, culture, and context in discourse.

### *Prerequisite of the Course*

Basic knowledge of general linguistics

### *Methodology of Teaching*

- I. Online (Moodle) course presentation (PDF handouts, ZOOM Conferences, Online activities and quizzes)
- II. Class Discussion
- III. Preparing small-scale projects
- IV. Written Essays/ Homework

<b>Syllabus (Subject to revision)</b>
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Tutorials need to provide an encompassing and comprehensive view of the disciplines using different methods of teaching to attain the set objectives. It should be noted that changes may occur during the academic year, students will be kept informed.

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**Semester One (22h30)**

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- IV. The Internal Structure of Discourse**
  - a. Units of Analysis*
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- V. Cohesion and Coherence**
  - a. Text, Texture and Textuality*
  - b. Cohesion and Coherence*
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- Reference
- Substitution
- Ellipsis
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**Semester Two (22h30)**

**VI. Conversation Analysis (CA)**

*a. Scope and Main Tenets of CA*

*b. Methods and Concepts of CA*

**VII. Speech Acts and Events**

*a. The Speech Acts Theory*

*b. Felicity Conditions*

*c. Speech Acts Dimensions/Components (Locutionary act, Illocutionary act, Perlocutionary act)*

*d. Speech Events and Speech Situations*

**VIII. Discourse and Ideology: Critical Discourse Analysis**

*a. The Scope and Main Concepts of CDA*

*b. Ideology, Social Cognition and Discourse*

**IX. Discourse Types and Genres**



*a. Political Discourse*

*b. Literary Discourse*

*c. Media Discourse*

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**(Major)** Literature and Civilization

**(Course)** Discourse Analysis

**(Class)** First Year Master

**(Instructor)** Dr. Manel TRIKI

### **Historical Overview**

**Outcomes of the Tutorial:** *By the end of this tutorial, you will be able to :*

1. *Define* discourse analysis
2. *Outline* its emergence and goals ;
3. *Distinguish* it from other branches of linguistics
4. *Single out* its scopes and field of inquiry.

#### **Terminology Used in this Tutorial:**

Language, linguistics, grammar, semantics, syntax, semiotics, pragmatics, discourse analysis, context, interaction, language in use, meaning, utterance, speaker meaning, utterance, and interpretation.

Since the 1950s, the two prevailing approaches to language have been structuralism and Chomskyan theory. Although these approaches present, respectively, many different views about language analysis they share a central feature that is largely responsible for the unfortunate state of the field of discourse analysis before the 1970s. Following the well-known distinction established by Saussure between *langue* and *parole*, both the structuralist and the Chomskyan approaches are (almost) exclusively preoccupied by phenomena pertaining to the realm of *langue*. These researchers are interested in the internal functioning of grammars seen as nearly closed

systems, that is, as systems defined and discussed as largely independent of contingencies observed in everyday language use. Researchers look for regular mechanisms, processes, or rules, especially in the fields of phonology and syntax. The keywords for both these fields are: units, positions, distributions, relations, and changes (Patry R., Nespoulous JL. 1990). According to linguists of this period, the sentence was the absolute boundary of language study and discourse analysis has been generally dismissed as a nonlinguistic entity by a whole generation of linguists due to several reasons. The first reason is that the study of discourse is closely related to the study of meaning. Second, discourse analysis is a multileveled object of study. Third, it rests on contextual evidence. Fourth, it is subject to individual (speaker to speaker) variation. Finally, discourse analysis implies a beyond-the-sentence approach.

The term *discourse analysis* first entered general use in a series of papers published by **Zellig Harris** beginning in **1952** and reporting on work from which he developed transformational grammar in the late 1930s. Formal equivalence relations between sentences of a coherent discourse are made obvious and explicit by using sentence transformations to regularize the text to a canonical form. Words and sentences with equivalent information then appear in the same column of a binary array (table). This work continued over the next four decades into a science of sublanguage analysis (Kittredge & Lehrberger 1982), culminating in a demonstration of the information structures in texts of an immunology sublanguage of science (Harris et al. 1989) and a fully articulated theory of linguistic information content (Harris 1991). During this time, however, most linguists pursued a succession of elaborate theories of sentence-level syntax and semantics.

Though Harris had mentioned the idea of analyzing whole discourses, he had not worked out a comprehensive model as of January 1952. A linguist working for the American Bible Society, *James A. Lorient/Lauriault* needed to find answers to some fundamental errors in

translation of Quechua in the Cusco area of Peru. He took the idea, recorded all of the legends and, after going over the meaning and placement of each word with a national; he was able to form logical, mathematical rules that transcended the simple sentence structure. He then applied the process to another dialect of Eastern Peru: Shipibo. He taught the theory at Norman, Oklahoma in the summers of '56 and '57, and entered University of Pennsylvania in the interim year. He tried to publish a paper *Shipibo Paragraph Structure*, but it was not published until 1970 (Loriot & Hollenbach 1970). In the meantime, Dr. Kenneth L. Pike, a professor at University of Michigan Ann Arbor, taught the theory. and one of his students *Robert E. Longacre* was able to disseminate it in a dissertation.

Harris's methodology was developed into a system for computer analysis of natural language by a team led by *Naomi Sager* at *NYU* which has been applied to a number of sublanguage domains, most notably to medical informatics. The software for the *Medical Language Processor* has been made publicly available on *SourceForge*.

In the late 1960s and 1970s, and without reference to this prior work, a variety of other approaches to a new cross-discipline of DA began to develop in most of the humanities and social sciences more or less concurrently with, and in relation to, other new (inter- or sub-) disciplines, such as **semiotics**, **psycholinguistics**, **sociolinguistics**, and **pragmatics**. Many of these approaches, especially those influenced by the social sciences, favor a more dynamic study of (spoken, oral) talk-in-interaction.

In Europe, *Michel Foucault* was one of the key theorists on the subject, mainly referring to discourse in his book *The Archaeology of Knowledge*.

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**Key terms in Discourse Analysis:** text, context, discourse, cohesion, coherence, genres, background knowledge, scripts, proposition, meaning, utterance, turn taking, speech acts, etc.

### QUIZ

**Are the following Statements true or false? Write (T) or (F) in the space provided.**

1. \_\_\_\_\_ Discourse analysis, semantics and pragmatics deal with meaning in the same manner.
2. \_\_\_\_\_ Discourse analysis is the study of how more gets communicated than said.
3. \_\_\_\_\_ Discourse analysis deals only with the linguistic features of utterances and sentences.
4. \_\_\_\_\_ Discourse analysis was first introduced by Searl (1970).

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### **Text Linguistics vs Discourse Analysis**

**Outcomes of the Tutorial:** *By the end of this tutorial, you will be able to:*

1. *Define* text linguistics and discourse analysis;
2. *Outline* goals of both approaches;
3. *Differentiate* between distinctive features of a text and those of a discourse;
4. *Identify* of the importance and role of context in discourse analysis.

### **Terminology Used in this Tutorial:**

Text, discourse, discourse analysis, text linguistics, context, culture, situation, linguistics, monodisciplinary, multidisciplinary, setting, evolution.

#### ***a. Text and Discourse Definitions***

In everyday popular use it might be said that the term text is restricted to written language, while discourse is restricted to spoken language. However, modern Linguistics has introduced a concept of text that includes every type of utterance; therefore a text can be a discourse and they both may be a magazine article, a television interview, a conversation or a cooking recipe, just to give a few examples. Halliday believe that text is everything that is

meaningful in a particular situation: “By text, then, we understand a continuous process of semantic choice” (1978:137). Namely, text and discourse can be used almost synonymously, yet a distinction is always there and that is discourse has some social purposes while text fulfills the function of communication of some meaning only. In other words, a text can be without a context while discourse is always related to a given context. Moreover, text may be non-interactive whereas a discourse is interactive. That is, a text fulfills only the function of conveying some meaning; however, discourse is involved in two ways responses in some formal or informal conversational and dialogues etc. “Discourse is a linguistic communication seen as a transaction between speaker and hearer; while text is also a linguistic communication (either spoken or written) seen simply as a message coded in its auditory or visual medium” (Hawthorn, 1992).

It can be said that discourse and text have something in common as both use the medium of language, both have some meaning that they try to convey. But text has limited scope as compare with discourse. In other words, discourse is somewhat broad category in the system of language; while text deals with the written form of language. Discourse has different forms as discourse of advertising, discourse of racism, discourse of medical etc. but text has no such forms. Text has its maximum interpretation in its own but discourse has a lot of things above the language level.

### ***b. Context***

It could be said that the text-internal elements constitute the text, while the text-external ones constitute the context. In its narrow sense, context refers to factors outside the discourse/text under consideration. It refers to the circumstances that form the setting for an event, statement, or idea, and in terms of which it can be fully understood. It is the parts of a discourse that surround a

word or passage and can throw light on its meaning. Context can be referred to by circumstances, conditions, factors, surroundings, situation, setting, and background.

There are three main classification of context,

- *Linguistic Context* refers to the context within the discourse, that is, the relationship between the words, phrases, sentences and even paragraphs. Take the word “bachelor” as an example. We cannot understand the exact meaning of the sentence “He is a bachelor.” without the linguistic context to make clear the exact meaning of this word.
- *Situational Context* or context of situation refers to the environment such as time and place in which the discourse occurs, and also the relationship between the participants.
- *Cultural Context* which includes participants and whether they share the same background or not. It refers to the culture, customs and background of epoch in language communities in which the speakers participate. Language is a social phenomenon, and it is closely tied up with the social structure and value system of society. Therefore, language cannot avoid being influenced by all these factors like social role, social status, sex and age, etc.

### ***c. Definition and Evolution of Text Linguistics and Discourse Analysis through Time***

Crystal (1997) defines Text Linguistics as “the formal account of the linguistic principles governing the structure of texts”. He adds that Text Linguistics focuses on the structure of written language as found in such text as essays, notices, road signs and chapters, while Discourse Analysis focuses on the structure of naturally spoken language as found in conversation interviews, commentaries and speeches (Crystal, 1997). According to Schiffrin (1994), Discourse



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Analysis involves the study of both text and context. One might conclude, then, that Text Linguistics only studies the text, while Discourse Analysis is more complete because it studies both text and context.

Harris (1952), argues that we can study discourse from different perspectives or at different levels such as form, content and use.

Text Linguistics: Mono-disciplinary Field (Semantics, Morphology, Phonetics, Phonology,  
Syntax)



Discourse Analysis: Multi-disciplinary Field (Sociolinguistics, Psycholinguistics, Pragmatics)

Interestingly, Text Linguistic studies are more concerned with the text-internal factors (i.e. cohesion and coherence), while Discourse Analysis focuses its attention more on the text-external factors, without disregarding the text-internal ones. The history of these disciplines shows that research has evolved, in many cases, from the narrower scope of Text Grammar (and later, Text Linguistics) into the broader discipline of Discourse Analysis, and therefore both disciplines have merged. For this reason and for clarifying and practical purposes, we shall consider DA as a macro-discipline that includes several sub-approaches, among which the text-linguistic ones can also be found (Alba-Juez, L. 2009).

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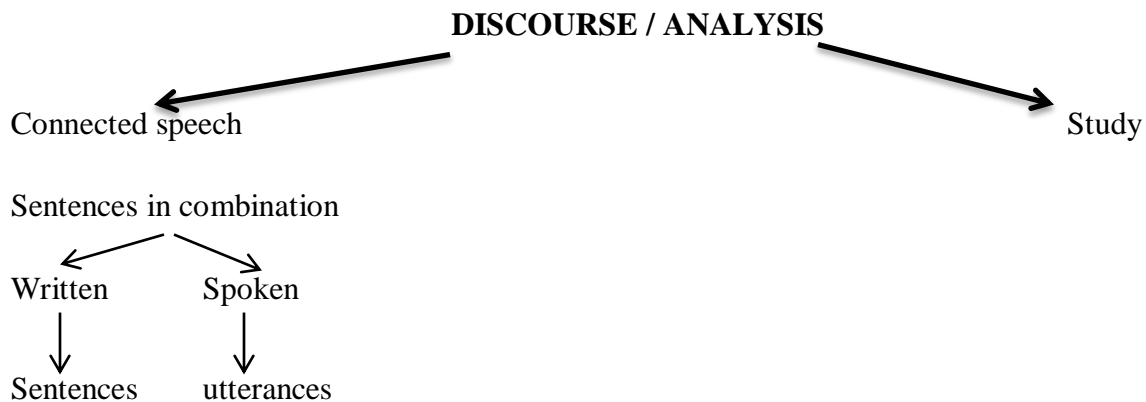
## Perspectives and Scope of Discourse Analysis

**Outcomes of the Tutorial:** *By the end of this tutorial, you will be able to:*

1. *Define* discourse and discourse analysis;
2. *Provide* a firm grounding on what discourse analysts do;
3. *Work out* an encompassing definition of discourse analysis;
4. *Learn about* form and function in discourse analysis;
5. *Point out* their main types.

### **Terminology Used in this Tutorial:**

Discourse analysis, analyzing, form, function, utterance, sentence, conversation, interactional, transactional, linguistic form, communicative, naturally occurring, pattern, context, content.



The major aim of discourse analysis is to produce explicit and systematic, descriptions of units of language use that we have called discourse. Such descriptions have two main dimensions, which we may simply call textual and contextual. Textual dimensions account for the structures of discourse at various levels of description. Contextual dimensions relate these structural descriptions to various properties of the context, such as cognitive processes and representations or socio-cultural factors.

### *a. What do discourse analysts do?*

Broadly speaking, discourse analysts investigate the use of language in context, thus they are interested in what speakers/writers do, and not so much in the formal relationships among sentences or propositions. Discourse analysis, then, has a social dimension, and for many analysts it is a method for studying how language “gets recruited ‘on site’ to enact specific social activities and social identities” (Gee 1999: 1).

Discourse analysts explore the language of face-to-face conversations, telephone conversations, e-mail messages, etc., and they may study power relations, the structure of turn-taking, politeness strategies, the linguistic manifestation of racism or sexism, and many, many other aspects of language in use. The sky is the limit.

It can be said that when analyzing language from the perspective of a discourse analyst we consider four main assumptions;

- Language is ambiguous in a way that one word or sentence may have different meanings and interpretations.

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- Language meaning is always in either “where, when or what”, i.e., what language means is always a matter of *where* and *when* it is used and *what* it is used to do.
- The way we use language is inseparable from who we are and the different social groups to which we belong.
- Language is never used all by itself, which means that speakers/writers and hearers/readers always combine language with other aspects such as tone of voice, facial expressions, gestures, fonts, layouts, graphs, etc.

In other words, every one of us is doing discourse analysis unintentionally in daily life when trying to figure out what people mean by what they say and when trying to explain or express multiple and complicated meaning to others. Discourse analysis can help us to understand how societies in which we live are put together and how they are maintained through our day to day activities of speaking/writing. Additionally, it may help us understand why people in different groups and societies interact with one another the way they do and how they exert power and influence over one another.

*Discourse analysis is the study of naturally occurring data above the sentence level and beyond language. it is the study of language in context/use.*

*Discourse analysis deals with how real people use real language as opposed to studying artificial created sentences. It is interested in how texts are structured and how they follow regular patterns in a wide range of different situations.*

*Each piece of writing/speaking has a pattern; discourse analysis tries to identify this pattern. DA identifies the structure of speech and writing according to the context and peoples' needs.*

*The principle aim of discourse analysis is to examine how any language produced by man (participants) whether spoken or written (the channel of communication) is used in communication for a given purpose (intention) in a given context (setting). (Brown & Yule, 1983).*

### ***b. Form and Function***

Discourse analysis is an umbrella of all those studies within Applied linguistics which focus on units/stretches of language beyond the sentence level. The analysis of **discourse** is, necessarily, the analysis of language in use. As such, it cannot be restricted to the description of linguistic forms independent of the purposes or functions which those forms are designed to serve in human affairs. While some linguists may concentrate on determining the formal properties of a language, the discourse analyst is committed to an investigation of what that language is used for. While the formal approach has a long tradition, manifested in innumerable volumes of grammar, the functional approach is less well documented. Attempts to provide even a general set of labels for the principal functions of language have resulted in vague, and often confusing, terminology. We will adopt only two terms to describe the major functions of language and emphasize that this division is an analytic convenience. It would be unlikely that, on any occasion, a natural language utterance would be used to fulfill only one function, to the total exclusion of the other. That function which language serves in the expression of 'content' we will describe as **transactional**, and that function involved in expressing social relations and personal attitudes we will describe

as **interactional**. Our distinction, ‘transactional / interactional’, stands in general correspondence to the functional dichotomies – ‘representative / expressive’, found in Bühler (1934), ‘referential / emotive’ (Jakobson, 1960), ‘ideational / interpersonal’ (Halliday, 1970b) and ‘descriptive / social-expressive’ (Lyons, 1977).

### TRANSACTIONAL FUNCTION

(Expression of Content)

- Use language to convey factual or propositional information.
- What primarily the speaker has in mind in to transmit information/knowledge.
- The language used is *message oriented*.
- Linguists, philosophers of language, and psycholinguists are the most concerned scholars with this function.

#### **Examples:**

- A policeman gives directions to a traveller.
- A doctor tells a nurse how to administer medicines to a patient.
- A scientist describes an experiment.

### INTERACTIONAL FUNCTION

(Expressing social relations and personal attitudes)

- Use language to establish and maintain social relationships.
- What primarily the speaker has in mind is to open a conversation/ to be friendly/ to end a conversation.
- Sociologists, sociolinguists, and anthropologists are the most concerned scholars with this function.

#### **Examples:**

- Two strangers are standing at the bus station when it is snowing

A: My goodness, it is so cold today.

The topic of *weather* is the most quoted example of interactional function in British English (and many other languages)

### ***DISCUSSION***

Discourse analysis is not concerned only with the grammatical form of an utterance; it is rather concerned with *how participants interpret each other's grammar appropriately and how the dialogue between participants is coherent.*

As far as the above examples are concerned, in the examples of the policeman, the doctor and the scientist it is clear that the speaker's main intention is to give/transmit information to the hearer, which means that a transactional function is performed here. Yet, in the example of the bus station the speaker's main intention was neither to ask for information nor to give information; it was rather to be friendly and open a conversation by breaking the ice and get involved in a weather conversation.

At the grammatical level and considering the form of examples above, it can be said that the provided examples are being presented either in a form of a statement, suggestion, affirmation, declaration, etc. however, when it comes to consider the same examples beyond the grammatical level, it can be said that the same examples may have different functions.

### **QUIZ 1**

**Analyze the following by identifying: the linguistic form, context, and function.**

1. You're leaving for London?

Yes, Immediately.

2. It seems like there is less oxygen in this room.
3. It is too late.

## QUIZ 2

### Choose the best answer

Modern Linguistics has introduced a concept of text that...

- a) is very restrictive.
- b) includes all types of utterances.
- c) includes only written discourse.

The tradition in Discourse Analysis has always been to...

- a) give more importance to the text-external criteria
- b) give more importance to the text than to the context.
- c) focus its attention more on the text-external factors, without disregarding the text-internal ones

Discourse studies are...

- a) restricted to the field of Linguistics.
- b) devoted mainly to social phenomena.
- c) essentially multidisciplinary.

Discourse analysts are...

- a) more interested in the grammatical aspects of language than in the details of its context.



b) more concerned with the actions of speakers or writers than with the formal relationships between sentences.

c) not particularly interested in body language.

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## **The Internal Structure of Discourse**

**Outcomes of the Tutorial:** *By the end of this tutorial, you will be able to:*

1. *Identify* discourse units;
2. *Familiarize with* discourse dimensions;
3. *Learn about* monologue, dialogue, written and spoken discourse;
4. *Analyze* written and spoken discourse.

### **Terminology Used in this Tutorial:**

Analysis, discourse, dimensions, spoken, written, monologue, dialogue, units, utterance, sentence, criteria, context, production, grammar, lexis, explicitness.

#### ***a. Units of Analysis***

Discourse analysts have always been looking for the unit of analysis that should be analyzed. Hence, a possible initial research question in such case might be simply formulated as: What are my units of analysis going to be? Which one of the following should I consider as a unit to be dealt with in discourse analysis?

Sentences

Utterances

Propositions

Turns

Speech acts?

Depending on the level on which they focus, researchers and discourse analysts may deal with larger or smaller units. Different approaches work with different units, but the same analyst may handle different units at the same time if s/he considers it appropriate for the purposes of his/her study (Alba Juez, 2009). According to Lakoff (1990), the term discourse is used to cover all linguistic interactions that follow predictable patterns known implicitly or explicitly to participants and which have a discernible function. In other words, Lakoff (1990) supports the view of discourse as linguistic interaction covering any length then the units chosen for analysis will also be greater or smaller depending, among other things, on the type of discourse used as data; for instance, a simple “Hi!” or “Okay!” (in a given context and situation) may constitute data for analysis.

In order to deal with discourse types one should talk about discourse dimensions. Discourses typically differ along a number of dimensions. These dimensions can be classified as the following

By means of production

By the medium of production

By the type of content (genre)

By style and register of the discourse

### ***b. Discourse Dimensions***

#### ***b.1. Means of Production: monologue and Dialogue***

This dimension or classification is defined by the number of speakers involved in a particular discourse. Accordingly, two types of discourse in this case can be identified, a monologue and a dialogue. As far as a monologue is concerned, it is a discourse which is produced by a single speaker (writer), yet a dialogue is a discourse that is produced by more than one speaker (writer).

A dialogue can be a conversation or an exchange, as it can be called a turn taking which is composed of turns; this last can be considered as one of discourse units that can be considered in discourse analysis. One conversation (turn taking) may contain two turns and more.

Example: A: Are you going home?

B: Sure, I will be leaving in ten minutes.

A: Great!

In this dialogue A has two turns while B has only one. A widely used discourse analysis unit is the turn, which is commonly defined as one or more streams of speech bounded by speech of another, usually an interlocutor. According to Crystal (1969) and Coulthard (1985), the previous definition of the unit 'turn' can be applied to the term 'utterance'. However, some scholars such as Long (1980) and Crookes and Rulon (1985) claim that one turn may include a number of utterances since utterance is a stream of speech which is under one intonation boundary, bounded by pauses and constituting a single semantic unit. (more details will be discussed in the next chapter about Conversation Analysis).

### **b.2. Medium of Production: Spoken and Written**

The distinction between speech and writing is often referred to as *channel* (Hymes, ) or *medium* as speaking and writing involve different psychological processes. Spoken and written

discourse differ for many reasons; in order to make a clear difference between both types of discourse a number of criteria should be followed such as grammatical intricacy, lexical density, nominalization, explicitness, contextualization, spontaneity, repetition and hesitation and redundancy.

- **Grammatical Intricacy:** Written discourse is more structurally complex and more elaborate than spoken discourse. That is, sentences in spoken discourse are short and simple, whereas they are longer and more complex in written discourse. Additionally, the use of passive voice is more frequent in written discourse than in spoken discourse. In written discourse we often use passive when we don't want to specify the agent while in spoken discourse we would use a subject like "people", "somebody", "they", "you" etc.
- **Lexical Density:** It refers to the ratio of *content words* (such as nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs) to *grammatical or function words* (such as pronouns, prepositions, articles) within a clause. Spoken discourse is less lexically dense than written discourse. Content words tend to be spread out over a number of clauses, whereas they seem to be tightly packed into individual clauses. In fact, spoken discourse has more pronouns, more lexical repetitions, more first person references, and more active verbs.
- **Nominalization:** It refers to presenting *actions* and events as *nouns* rather than as *verbs*. For instance, written discourse has a high level of nominalization: i.e. a large number of nouns is used compared to the use of verbs; yet, written discourse tends to have longer *noun groups* than spoken discourse.

- **Explicitness:** generally writing is more explicit than speech; however, this is not always the case since it depends on the purpose of the text. A writer/speaker can state something explicitly or infer it.
- **Contextualization:** it refers to the extent knowledge of context which is needed to interpret a text. Writing is more decontextualized than speech, in other words, speech is more attached to context than writing because speech depends on a shared situation and background for interpretation. However, some types of written discourse may show high dependence on shared contextual knowledge, for instance, personal letters between friends.
- **Spontaneity:** Spoken discourse lacks organization and is most of the time ungrammatical because it is spontaneous, whereas written discourse is organized and grammatically correct. Furthermore, spoken discourse contains uncompleted and reformulated sentences since speakers may interrupt and overlap.
- **Repetition, Hesitation and Redundancy:** Spoken discourse contains more repetition, hesitation and redundancy since it is produced on the spot (in the real time). Moreover, spoken discourse has many pauses and fillers such as *emmm, ehh, er, well, you know, I mean, etc.*

Interestingly, Biber (1988) argues that there is no absolute difference between speech and writing in English.

**QUIZ**

Study the next written discourse and try to identify any ways in which its linguistic features are determined by the context and purpose for which it was produced in regard to the aforementioned criteria.

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*Mohammed Khider University of Biskra*

*Faculty of Arabic Language Arts & Foreign Languages*

*Division of Foreign Languages*

*Department of English Studies*

(Major) Literature and Civilization

(Course) Discourse Analysis

(Class) First Year Master

(Instructor) Dr. Manel TRIKI

## **Cohesion and Coherence**

**Outcomes of the Tutorial:** *By the end of this tutorial, you will be able to:*

1. *Define* the notions of cohesion and coherence;
2. *Distinguish* between cohesion and coherence;
3. *Single out* their types and classifications;
4. *Show* understanding of the use of grammatical and lexical cohesion in discourse analysis
5. *Analyze* cohesion and coherence in discourse.

**Terminology Used in this Tutorial:**

Cohesion, coherence, lexical, grammatical, collocation, repetition, text, texture, unified, reference, tie.

### *a. Text, Texture and Textuality*

Consider the following example

*This box contains one hundred large paper clips. Applied linguistics is therefore, not the same as linguistics. The tea is as hot as it could be. Young people nowadays are exposed to a lot of bad news on TV, Internet, social media, etc.*



*We must never stop dreaming. Dreams provide nourishment for the soul, just as a meal does for the body. Many times in our life we see our dreams shattered and our desires frustrated, but we have to continue dreaming.*

Grammatically speaking the above both passages are correct and complete; semantically speaking, every sentence is meaningful. However, looking at the first passage as a paragraph it looks only like a random collection of unrelated sentences. One cannot put only one sentence after the other and hope that it will mean something, the same can be said about putting a number of words one after the other in a correct grammatical structure and consider it as a meaningful sentence. Thus, the first passage cannot be considered as a *text*; whereas, the second passage words and sentences are connected to each other in a way that makes the whole paragraph has a unified meaning.

According to Haliday and Hasan (1976), **Text** refers to any spoken or written passage that is: *unified as a whole (it is a unit of language)*

*It can be of any length (a text can be of 2 or 3 words, or 500 pages book)*

*It is not only a grammatical unit but also a semantic unit (it is grammatically correct and semantically meaningful)*

Example: No smoking (posted on the bank outside door)

Interestingly, a text without **Texture** would just be a group of isolated words or sentences with no clear relationship to one another. Take the following example

*Wash and core six cooking apples. Put them into the fire-proof dish*

The relationship between *six cooking apples* and *them* is called “a tie” which makes the two sentences tied or related to each other. The *cohesive relation* that exists between the pronoun *them* and its referent *six cooking apples* provides a texture for this text. Thus, texture occurs when language items link meanings together in a text as well as linking the meaning of the text to its social or situational context.

Considering the same previous example providing a small modification on it,

*Wash and core six cooking apples. Put the apples into a fire-proof dish.*

In this case the tie that makes this text texture is the relationship “repetition” which is *apples*. Repetition is another cohesive device that provides texture in a particular text, detailed discussion of cohesive devices will be provided in the coming titles when dealing with cohesion.

**Textuality** is a number of criteria or standards that were posited by De Beaugrande (1997) as follows:

- *Cohesion*: the relation between forms and patterns
- *Coherence*: the way meanings are understood
- *Intentionality*: what text producers intend, mean to achieve
- *Acceptability*: requires that sequences of sentence be acceptable to the intended audience in order to qualify as a text.
- *Informativeness*: the extent to which the text tells you what you do not already know
- *Situationality*: the relation between the text-event and the situation in which it occurs

- *Intertextuality*: the relation between this text and other texts

### ***b. Cohesion and Coherence***

*Cohesion* has to do with the relationships between text and syntax, and *coherence* has to do with the knowledge or cognitive structures that are implied by the language used and that contribute to the overall meaning of a given discourse. Cohesion and coherence are semantic concepts and they are both part of the system of a language (Alba Juez, 2009). Phrased differently, cohesion means the connection of ideas at the grammatical and semantic level, while coherence means the connection of ideas at the idea level or at the contextual level. Cohesion is connection existing between elements in the text; coherence is connection which is brought about by something outside the text.

Cohesion is a *textual property* and has to do with the *textualization* of contextual connections. Coherence, on the other hand, is the *discourse function* of realizing those connections, and is a *discursive property*. Cohesion is the glue that holds a piece of writing together by the use of cohesive devices that are ties which clarify for readers relationships among ideas, words and sentences. In other words, cohesion is the network of lexical, grammatical and semantic relations which provide links between various parts of a text. Cohesion can be seen in a discourse when the interpretation of a linguistic element in a text is dependent on the interpretation of another element within the same text/discourse.

A text can therefore have no cohesion but derive a coherent discourse. Conversely, a given text may be cohesive but discourse-incoherent. Examples **a** and **b** illustrate this point in a very simple manner:

a-I went to Paris last week and my grandma is a radio hostess

b-Great! Oh no!

Example **a** is an instance of a cohesive text. We find cohesive devices such as reference (I) and conjunction (And), but it is difficult to make a connection between the first clause and the second, and consequently most hearers would catalogue the whole utterance as incoherent (it is hard to find a connection between the fact that the speaker went to Paris and the fact that his grandmother is a radio hostess). Thus, the speaker would most probably be judged as lacking some mental capacities (Alba Juez, 2009). Contrary to example **a**, example **b** shows no signs of cohesion (there is no apparent use of reference, substitution or any other cohesive devices), but derives a coherent discourse if we think of the situation in which the two exclamations occurred: *A 10-year-old child sees her mother approaching with a bag in her hands and feels happy because she thinks the bag contains the present she has been waiting for, (and so she says “Great!”), but immediately after she realizes that the bag holds the books for her to do the homework (and therefore she expresses her disappointment by exclaiming “Oh, no!!”).*

Let us now examine the concepts of cohesion in more detail

### ***c. Grammatical Cohesion***

**Reference**: it is a way to tie or link sentences together. It is the relation that exists between a word and the thing it denotes in the real world or in a given discourse/text. Phrased differently, it is the relationship between a word and what it points to in context as it is the relationship of identity which holds between two linguistic expressions. Take the following

Dr. Dowson has resigned. *He* announced *his* decision *this* morning

In this example the pronoun *He* and *his* refer to Dr. Dowson, while *this* refers to morning. These three words (pronouns) are cohesive ties which make a link between parts of a particular text/discourse by the use of reference in order to avoid unnecessary repetition or to point out to something particular. Reference is a combination of grammatical and semantic relations. It has two main types: *Exophora* and *Endophora*.

***Exophoric reference*** occurs when one refers to something in the situation by something else in the discourse. It relies on the external world or context, i.e., it is context-bound which means that it is highly related/dependent on the context. Consider this example which is a note posted on a university professor's door

Sorry, I missed you. I am in my other office. Back in an hour.

This note directs the reader to the immediate context. In order to get the complete meaning of this discourse one has to know the context or the situation of this discourse.

Another example could be

The government declares new rules.

In order to get the right appropriate meaning of this discourse one has to get the exophoric reference which, in this situation, refers to the shared knowledge, for instance, to be from the same country having the same government.

***Endophoric reference*** relies on the text regardless the extra-linguistic factors of the given text. It is the use of a word or phrase to refer to something either preceding it or following it within a text. It has two types: *anaphora* and *cataphora*. Endophoric Anaphoric reference can be

defined as the use of a linguistic unit (eg. Pronoun) to refer *back* to another unit as it is the case in the following example

A well-dressed man was speaking, *he* has a foreign accent.

The pronoun HE refers BACK to the phrase WELL-DRESSED MAN, which makes it anaphoric reference.

*This is why* I have chosen this car.

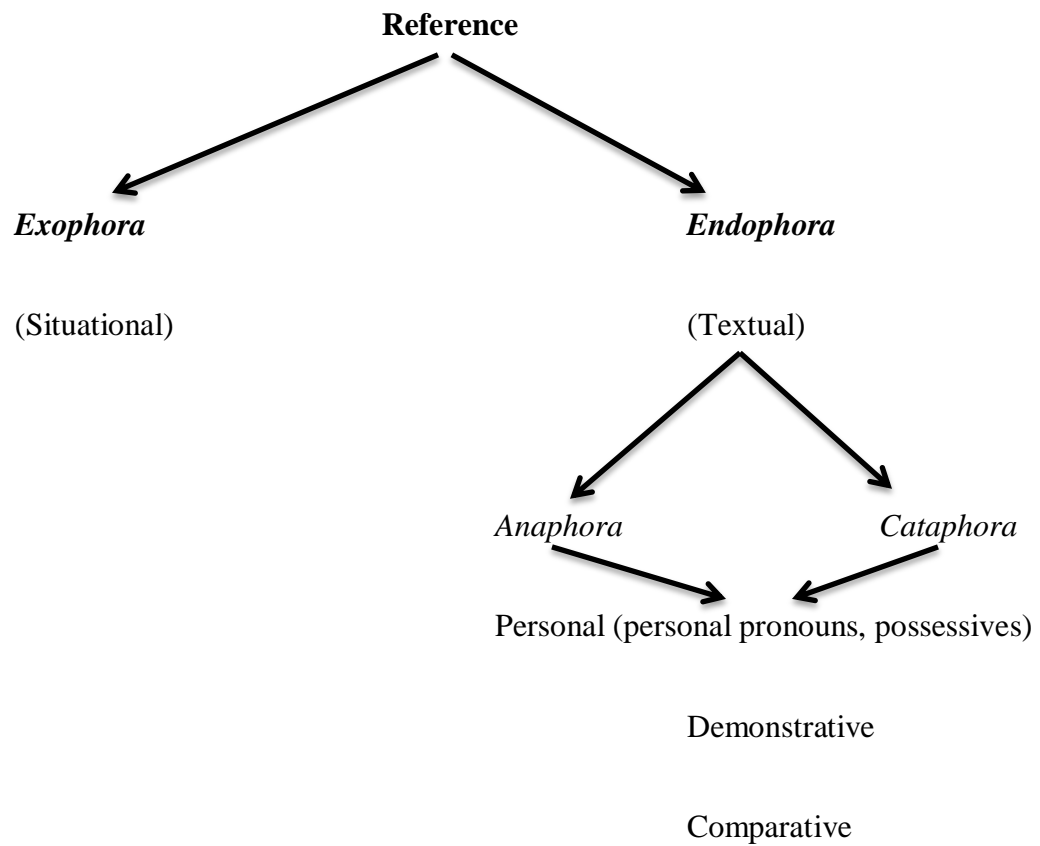
The phrase ‘this is why’ is considered as an anaphoric reference since it refers back to something that should be previously mentioned within the same text or discourse.

***Cataphoric reference*** occurs when a linguistic unit points ahead to a referent in the text.

Take the following

After *he* had received *his* order, the *soldier* left the barracks.

The pronoun *he* in this case refers FORWARD/AHEAD to the soldier, which makes it a cataphoric reference.



(Halliday, M. A. K. and Hassan, R. 1976)

### QUIZ 1

Try to give *ten* examples which four of them represent exophoric reference; while four others illustrate anaphora and four illustrate cataphora. Explain reference in your examples.

**Substitution** refers to a set of place holders that are used to signal an omission. In other words, it is the replacement of one linguistic item by another within the text. It is used mainly to avoid repetition as the following examples demonstrate

1-a: i like movies

b: and I do (verbal)

2-I have not got a pencil, do you have one? (nominal)

3-a: will we get there on time?

b: I think so. (clausal)

In example 1, the verb *like* was omitted and replaced (substituted) by the auxiliary *do* to avoid unnecessary repetition. This kind of substitution is called “verbal substitution”. Example 2 illustrates “nominal substitution” in which the noun *pencil* is substituted by the word *one*. As far as example 3 is concerned, the word *so* substitutes the whole clause *we will get there on time*. Thus, substitution in English operates either at the *verbal level*, *nominal level*, or *clausal level* by the use of “*do/does/did/done, one/ones/same, so/not*”.

### QUIZ 2

**Read the following sentences and identify the substitution used and its type**

1. I offered him a book, but he said that he did not want one.
2. You need a lift? If so wait for me, if not I will see you there.
3. She chose the roast duck, and I chose the same
4. Did Mary take that letter? She might have done.
5. Where is my purse? I cannot find it.



6. A: Have you called the doctor?

B: I haven't done it yet, but I will do it.

A: Though actually, I think you should do it

7. A: Are they still arguing in there?

B: No, it just seems so.

8. The polar bear is unaware \* of cold that cuts me through

For why? He has a coat of hair \* I wish I had one too.

**Ellipsis** has the same main concept of substitution which deals with the omission of a linguistic item to avoid unnecessary repetition, yet in ellipsis the omitted item is not replaced by another linguistic item it is rather replaced by some embedded/implied meaning. The difference between substitution and ellipsis lies in that ellipsis is described as ‘substitution by zero’. Ellipsis refers to resources for omitting a clause or part of a clause when it can be assumed by the reader/listener as it is shown in the following examples

*1-John bought some clothes and Catherine a pair of shoes.*

*2-Here are thirteen cards, take any*

In example 1, the elliptic item is the verb bought which was omitted in the second part of the sentence however the meaning does not change even if the omitted item was replaced with nothing. The same can be said about example 2 where the elliptic item is cards which is omitted in the second part of the sentence.

Ellipsis can be *anaphoric* or *cataphoric*. Whenever there is ellipsis in a sentence and in order to get the omitted item you need to look back in the same sentence or text it means it is an anaphoric ellipsis; whereas, whenever you find yourself obliged to look forward or ahead in order to get the elliptic item it is a cataphoric ellipsis. The most common type of ellipsis in English is anaphoric ellipsis. Consider these examples

1-a:have you ever been to Moscow?

b:never (anaphoric ellipsis/ the ellipted item is: I have never been to Moscow)

2-because Alice won't, Mary has to dust the furniture. (cataphoric ellipsis/ the elliptic item is: (Mary) won't dust the furniture).

### QUIZ 3

**Consider the following sentences and identify substitution and ellipsis that exist. Mention the type of each.**

1. A: Does Agatha sing in the bath?  
B1: No  
B2: No, but I do  
B3: Yes, she does
2. A: Has Barbara left?  
B: She did so
3. A: Who killed the cat?  
B: I did not
4. A: do you want the blanckets?  
B: Yes, I will take one.
5. I painted one wall and Jim painted the other.
6. A: Have you been swimming?  
B: Yes I have.
7. She will go but I won't.
8. Who wants to go shopping? You?
9. Would you like to hear another verse? I know twelve (verses).

**Conjunctions** refer to the large inventory of connectors which link clauses in discourse.

A conjunction is the relationship which indicates how the subsequent sentence or clause should be linked to the preceding or the following (parts of the) sentence. Conjunctions are the linguistic items that join and relate phrases, clauses, sentences and paragraphs together. There are four main types of conjunctions; additive (and, also, in addition, furthermore, besides, for instance, etc), adversative (but, yet, however, on the other hand, etc), causal (so, consequently, because, etc), and temporal (then, next, after that, finally, etc). Interestingly, when being used in naturally occurring data in discourse, one type of conjunctions can function as another type in different situations and contexts. Take the following

-She is intelligent *and* very reliable

-I have lived here ten years *and* I have never heard of that person

-He fell in the river *and* caught the child

-I got up *and* made my breakfast

For instance, the conjunction “and” which is mainly an additive conjunction, may be used in different functions depending on the discourse and the context in which it is used. In example 1 the conjunction *and* is being used as an additive conjunction, whereas in example 2 *and* is used as an adversative conjunction. In example 3 *and* is used as a causal or temporal or additive conjunction (depending on the context), and in example 4 it is used as a temporal conjunction. The same can be said about conjunctions: *but*, *so* and *then*.

**QUIZ 4**

Write four examples where the conjunction “so” is being used in the four main conjunction’s types; then four other examples about the conjunction “then”, and four others using the conjunction “but”.

***d. Lexical Cohesion***

It deals with connections based on the words used more than dealing with the grammatical and semantic connections. In other words, it is the complement of grammatical cohesion, involving the repetition of lexical items, synonymy, hyponymy and collocation. Lexical cohesion refers to the role played by the selection of vocabulary in organizing relations within a text or discourse. There are two types of lexical cohesion: ***reiteration*** and ***collocation***.

**Reiteration** involves different ways of repetition in a given discourse. It is of five types;

- Direct Repetition or by exploiting lexical relationships such as,

*A conference will be held on national environmental policy. At this conference the issue of salination will play an important role.*

- Synonymy or near synonymy as it is shown in the following example

*A conference will be held on national environmental policy. This environmental symposium will be primarily a conference dealing with water*

- Hyponymy or superordinate

e.g: *We were in town today shopping for furniture. We saw a lovely table*

- Metonymy or general word

e.g: *At its six-month checkup, the brakes had to be repaired. In general, however, the car was in good condition.*

- Antonymy

e.g: *The old movies just don't do it any more. The new ones are more appealing.*

For a better understanding consider the following set of examples

- There is a boy climbing the tree. The boy is going to fall if he does not take care.

- There is a boy climbing the tree. The lad is going to fall if he does not take care.
- There is a boy climbing the tree. The child is going to fall if he does not take care.
- There is a boy climbing the tree. The idiot is going to fall if he does not take care.

### QUIZ 5

**Analyze and identify different types of reiteration in the following text.**

Sue is in the race, everyone believes that she will win the race this time. The competition started at six o'clock but from the moment it began everyone was ready to watch her.

**Collocation** occurs when lexical items associate together. It deals with the relationship between words on the basis of the fact that these often occur in the same surroundings. Some examples are “sheep” and “wool” which are generally associated together; the same can be said about “congress” and politician”, “college” and “study”, “joke” and “laugh”, “flower” and “smell”, “boat” and “sea”, etc. it can be noticed that every pairs above share the lexical environment, however collocations differ from one culture and society to another. For instance, an English speaker would say “rancid butter” and “addled eggs” although both “rancid” and “addled” carry the meaning of “a taste of being rotten or stale”, still we cannot say “rancid eggs” nor “addled butter”. Here are some other examples of collocation in english

Yellow cake

Red tape

Bad blood

Dog days

Salad days

State department

Foreign office

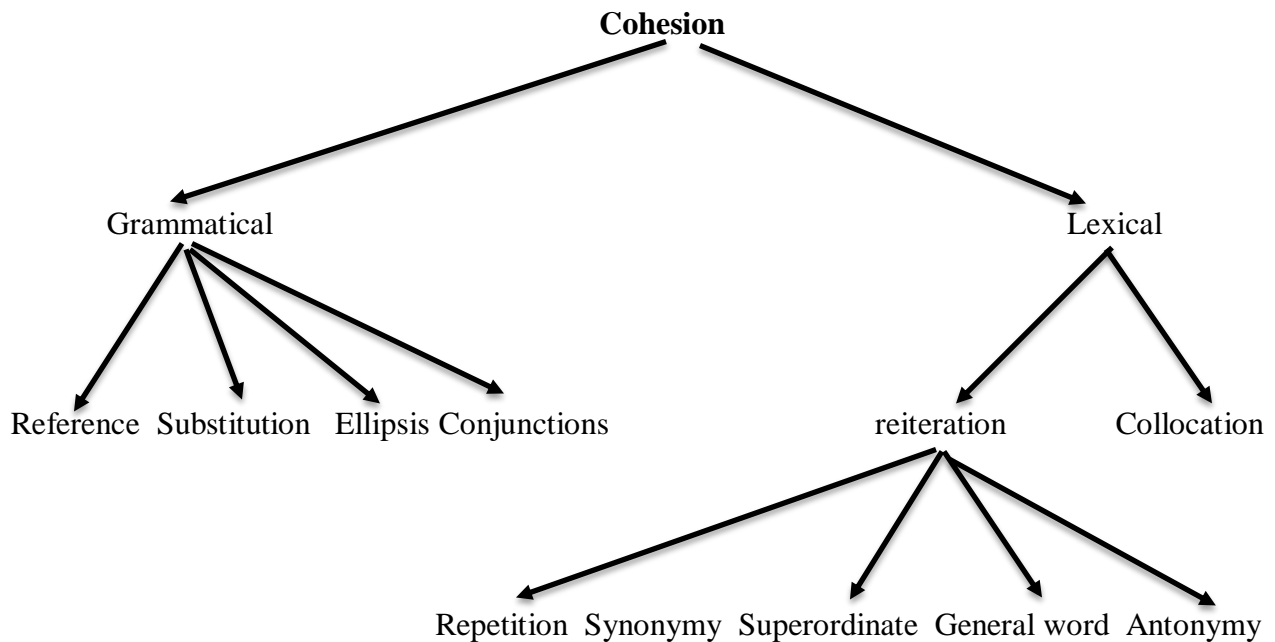
Good book

### QUIZ 6

- **As a kind of practice, try to find the meaning of every abovementioned collocation and what collocation can appropriately replace it in Arabic or any other language.**



We began this unit by saying that grammatical and lexical cohesion holds parts of discourse or text together. The following diagram summarizes what both types of cohesion consist of.



### QUIZ 7

Extract **all the cohesive devices** which exist in the following discourse.

Thank you very much, Governor Keating and Mrs. Keating, Reverend Graham, to the families of those who have been lost and wounded, to the people of Oklahoma City, who have endured so much, and the people of this wonderful state, to all of you who are here as our fellow Americans.

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I am honored to be here today to represent the American people. But I have to tell you that Hillary and I also come as parents, as husband and wife, as people who were your neighbors for some of the best years of our lives.

Today our nation joins with you in grief. We mourn with you. We share your hope against hope that some may still survive. We thank all those who have worked so heroically to save lives and to solve this crime -- those here in Oklahoma and those who are all across this great land, and many who left their own lives to come here to work hand in hand with you. We pledge to do all we can to help you heal the injured, to rebuild this city, and to bring to justice those who did this evil.

This terrible sin took the lives of our American family, innocent children in that building, only because their parents were trying to be good parents as well as good workers; citizens in the building going about their daily business; and many there who served the rest of us -- who worked to help the elderly and the disabled, who worked to support our farmers and our veterans, who worked to enforce our laws and to protect us. Let us say clearly, they served us well, and we are grateful.

**(William Jefferson Clinton. *Oklahoma Bombing Memorial Prayer Service Address*. delivered 23 April 1995 in Oklahoma City, OK)**

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**(Class)** First Year Master

**(Instructor)** Dr. Manel TRIKI

### **Conversation Analysis**

**Outcomes of the Tutorial:** *By the end of this tutorial, you will be able to:*

1. *Define* the notions of conversation analysis;
2. *Identify* its scope and main tenets;
3. *Learn* about its different methods and concepts;
4. *Show* understanding of different aspects in analyzing conversations;
5. *Analyze* conversations.

### **Terminology Used in this Tutorial:**

Turn taking, conversation, analysis, spoken discourse, written discourse, turn, unit, utterance, sequential organization, floor, overlap, pause, adjacency pair, functions, opening, closing.

#### ***a. Scope and Main Tenets of CA***

Among different types of speech or spoken interactions many studies have been devoted to conversation because it is seen as the most fundamental and pervasive means on conducting human affairs. Conversation Analysis (commonly abbreviated as CA) originated within Sociology as an approach to the study of the social organization of everyday conduct. It began

with the work of Harold Garfinkel (1967, 1974) and his approach known as *Ethnomethodology* (which had in turn been influenced by the Phenomenology of Alfred Schütz ), and then it was applied to conversation by Harvey Sacks, Emanuel Schegloff and Gail Jefferson (Alba Juez, 2009).

A major data of study in discourse analysis is conversation analysis. It is an approach to the study of social interaction, embracing both verbal and non-verbal conduct, in situations of everyday life.

Conversational analysis looks at ordinary everyday spoken discourse and aims to understand, from a fine-grained analysis of the conversation, how people manage their interactions. It also looks at how social relations are developed through the use of spoken discourse (Paltridge,2006:106).

Phrased differently, conversation analysis is an approach to social research that investigates the sequential organization of talk as a way of accessing participants' understandings of natural forms of social interaction. That is, conversational analysts do not engage solely in the analysis of ordinary conversation; rather, they are concerned with the study of talk-in-interaction (Schegloff, 2007), and this includes not only normal, casual everyday conversation but also institutionalized forms of talk (in the school, at the courts, at the doctor's office, mass media, etc.).

### ***b. Methods and Concepts of CA***

The core of CA is the exploration of sequential structures of social action. In other words, In CA talk is seen as a vehicle for action; Participants attend to talk not for its propositional content, nor as a simple medium of information transfer, but because they care about the actions

getting done through talk (such as, asking, requesting, complaining, noticing, etc.) and the real life consequences of those actions (Schegloff, 1995).

Sequential analysis can be made at different levels: *move, turn, exchange, transaction and interaction*. Sequential analysis is not interested in single utterances, but in how utterances are designed to tie with or fit prior utterances, or in how an utterance has significant implications for what kinds of utterances should come next (Wetherell et. al, 2001). Interestingly, talk is examined not as isolated utterances, but as talk-in-interaction, an activity that transpires in real settings between real people. In this respect, actions in interaction are always contextually situated; they are produced by someone, for someone else, at a certain time, in a certain way. Interestingly, there is a number of aspects that are marked in conversation analysis; they are as follows.

**Floor**: it is the current right to speak in a conversation.

**Turn**: it refers to the opportunity to speak at the same point during a conversation.

**turn-taking**: it represents the change of speaker during conversation.

**Local management system**: it is a metaphor for describing the conversation for organizing the right to speak in conversation.

**Transition Relevance Place (TRP)**: a possible change of speaker point in an interaction. Each potential speaker is expected to wait until the current speaker reaches a TRP. The most obvious markers of a TRP are the end of a structural unit (a phrase or clause) and pause. Normally, those who wish to get the *floor* will wait for a possible TRP before jumping in.

**Overlap (//)**: it occurs when more than one speaker is talking at the same time in a conversation.

In turn taking, the change of role between the speaker and listener can be seen in *overlapping speech* and *few silences*; an example of overlapping in conversation analysis could be

A: why don't you come and see me some // times?

B: // I would like to.

**Pauses**: e.g. (0,4) which means 4 second pauses.

**Backchannels**: it refers to vocal indications of attention or fillers, such as *uhhuh*, *hm*, *errr*.

Within an extended turn; however, speakers still expect their conversational partners to indicate that they are listening. Common ways on doing this are *head nods*, *smiles*, and *other facial expressions and gestures*.

**Conversational style**: it is the particular way of participating in conversation.

**High involvement style**: an active, fast-paced, overlapping way of taking part in conversation

**High considerateness style**: a non-interrupting, non-imposing way of taking part in a conversation.

**Turn-taking and Adjacency pair**: One of the central structures of interaction (and a central concept in CA) is the *adjacency pair*, which is closely connected to that of *turn-taking*. Sacks, Schegloff & Jefferson argue that “the organization of taking turns to talk is fundamental to conversation” (1974: 696). They claim the existence of *turn-taking* mechanism which was associated to the answer to three main questions:

How people take turns in conversations

How to open a conversation

How to close a conversation

According to Sacks a turn-taking procedures address the recurrent problems of ‘who speaks next?’ and ‘when do they start?’ by coordinating the ending of one turn with the start of the next. Furthermore, turn-taking is a highly skilled activity which involves many kinds of behavior in addition to speech such as eye-contact and head movements; which are initiated by precise timing and reacted to with a great accuracy by other participants. Ochs (1979) defines a turn as an utterance bounded by significant pause or by utterance of other participants. In a simple way, a turn is the speech of one person continued until another takes the floor (the turn). A clear example for this can be *taking turns to speak in the classroom where a speech is produced for instance by the teacher for pupils/students at a certain time in a certain way.*

**Following the same line, I would like to ask you to provide some examples of turn-taking.**

A worth mentioning point, speakers having a conversation are viewed as taking turns at holding the floor, a fact that may be considered a common feature of all cultures and languages; however, the manner and frequency with which the floor is held and the turns are allocated may vary substantially from one social group to another.

As far as the *adjacency pair* is concerned, it is a particular type of turn-taking structure which is used to coordinate turns, to help in opening and closing a conversation, in addition to changing topics. It is a sequence of two utterances which are adjacent and produced by different speakers. These two utterances are ordered as a first part and a second part and they are generally typed, so that a first part normally expects and requires a given second part or range of second

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parts (Schegloff & Sacks, 1973). That is to say, an adjacency pair is a sequence of two related utterances by two different speakers where the second utterance is a response to the first. Consider the following prototypical examples of adjacency pairs,

greeting-greeting: A: Hello.

B: Hello.

offer-acceptance: A: Would you care for more tea?

B: Yes, please.

apology-minimization: A: I'm sorry.

B: Oh, don't worry. That's O.K

Other examples of adjacency pairs could be

Offer-refusal: Sales clerk: Do you need someone to carry your packages out?

Customer: No thanks. I've got it

Compliment-acceptance: A: That's a great tie you've got on

B: Thanks. It was an anniversary present from my wife

Levinson states the rule that governs the use of adjacency pairs as follows: "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" (1983: 304). But this rule is not always followed to the letter in conversation. Frequently, insertion sequences occur (Schegloff, 1972) in which, for example, a question-answer pair is embedded within another, as seen in the following example

Child: Mom, can I play Nintendo now? (Question 1)

Mother: Have you cleaned up the playroom? (Question 2)

Child: No. (Answer 2)

Mother: Then, NO! (Answer 1)



Considering the *question-answer pair*, there are many responses other than answers which nevertheless count as acceptable seconds, such as “re-routes” (e.g.: *Better ask your father*), refusals to answer or challenges to the presuppositions or sincerity of the question (e.g.: *You’ve got to be kidding*). This fact, according to Levinson (1983: 307), seems “to undermine the structural significance of the concept of an adjacency pair”. However, the importance of the concept is reassured by the equally important concept of *preference organization*

### *The Preference Organization*

Let’s start this part with an example, take the following

A: Are you going out with anyone at the moment? (Question)

B: Uuuhh ... (Delay)

Well, kind of ... (Preface)

There is someone I met a while back .... (Account)

Actually I am getting married at the end of the year ... (Unexpected answer)

The above example presents two turns/actions, produced by different participants, where the *first pair part* (FPP) is followed in next position by a *second pair part* (SPP). The first pair part (which represented by A) contains a question that in a normal case needs an answer from the second pair part (B). Yet, it can be noticed that the second part pair (last utterance in B) was preceded a delay, a preface, and an account. The concept of *preference organization* underlies the idea that there is a *hierarchy* operating over the potential second parts of an adjacency pairs. Thus, there is at least one preferred and one dispreferred category of response to first parts. The preferred category of response is when for instance a compliment is followed by an ‘accept’; while the dispreferred category is when the same compliment is followed by a ‘reject’. The same

can be said about the above example where the second pair part is a dispreferred answer (unexpected) which was preceded by a delay (a pause), after that the speaker uses the marker 'well' for a preface, at the same time he gives explanation for his/her rejection (account), and provides a negative answer (I am getting married...).

### Overall Organization

It is what conversational analysts call *overall organization*, due to the fact that it organizes the totality of the exchange within some specific kind of conversation. Thus, we may speak of classes of verbal interchanges (e.g. telephone calls, a talk over the garden fence, etc.) that have some special features, for example, in their opening or closing sections (Alba Juez, 2009). We may say that telephone conversations exhibit the following overall organization:

1. Opening section
2. Main body: Topic slot 1, Topic slot 2, Topic slot 3...
3. Closing section

The first topic slot is normally the most important one, for it is the topic which caused the caller to make the call. Then there may be a succession of other topics which, according to Sacks (1971), in their preferred organization, should be related to one another. As far as the closing section is concerned, it may include the making of arrangements, the giving of regards to family members, the use of markers such as *Okay, All right, So*, etc. organized in one or more pairs of passing turns and a final exchange of terminal elements (e.g. *Bye, Cheers, Take care*, etc.).

In spite of the fact that CA gives importance to context and participants, no further speculations can be made as to, for instance, the speakers' personality or what they really meant beyond their words. *The analyst has to stick to what is there, to the actual conversation, and*

*describe it in terms of its structure and overall organization, drawing conclusions based only on these elements and not on any other far-fetched assumptions (Alba Juez, 2009).*

## QUIZ 1

**Choose the best answer from the provided choices**

Conversation Analysis originated within...

- a) Linguistics.
- b) Sociology.
- c) Psychology

Conversation Analysis began with...

- a) the approach known as Ethnomethodology.
- b) Psychoanalysis.
- c) Sacks, Shegloff and Jefferson's approach

Conversation analysts...

- a) make use of many idealizations in their every-day work.
- b) do not believe in the organized structure of interaction.
- c) argue against too many idealizations in their analysis.

One of the main assumptions of CA is that...

- a) social relations are of primary importance.
- b) many details of conversation are a priori unimportant.
- c) conversation is structurally organized

The concept of adjacency pair...

- a) has very little to do with sequential analysis.
- b) is in close connection with the concept of turn-taking.
- c) always refers to utterances produced by only one speaker.

Turn-taking is a ...

- a) description of the making of errors.
- b) local system.
- c) a form of social action

Apology-minimization...

- a) is a backchannel.
- b) refers to one of the prototypical adjacency pairs.
- c) is one part of an adjacency pair

The following could be considered as the typical overall organization of...

- a) Mass sermons .
  - b) Business transactions.
  - c) Telephone conversations.
1. Opening section (with a summons-answer adjacency pair)
  2. Main body (with different topic slots)
  3. Closing section (farewell)

## QUIZ 2

**Analyze** the following conversation by describing some aspects which occur within the conversation.

**(Situation:** three friends are discussing a personal topic \_ their reactions to a wedding reception at which vegetables rather than flowers were used to decorate the tables).

A: Actually I would not have chosen vegetables ... for my wedding either ... but they were interesting.

B: Did you LIKE them?

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A: Mmmm I wouldn't have picked them

B: I didn't think they were::: (0.5)

A: I mean, I wouldn't, I wouldn't have requested them.

B: Besides which, what're y'gonna do with five million chilis \_five million green chilis?

A: ((laugh)) I wanna // go in there.

C: // Y'could have a chili bakeoff.

B: Yeah, right \_ MY mother have a chili bakeoff

C: ((loud laughter)) Mrs. Lee's Chili Bakeoff!

A: I wanna go into Silver Birches someday. Never been in there.

B: It's kind of a near store.

*Mohammed Khider University of Biskra*

*Faculty of Arabic Language Arts & Foreign Languages*

*Division of Foreign Languages*

*Department of English Studies*

**(Major)** Literature and Civilization

**(Course)** Discourse Analysis

**(Class)** First Year Master

**(Instructor)** Dr. Manel TRIKI

## **Speech Acts and Events**

**Outcomes of the Tutorial:** *By the end of this tutorial, you will be able to:*

1. ***Develop*** an encompassing definition of speech acts;
2. ***Familiarize*** with the different types of speech acts;
3. ***Identify*** speech events;
4. ***Show*** understanding of the role of speech acts and events in discourse analysis;
5. ***Analyze*** discourse on the basis of speech acts performance;
6. ***Perform*** various speech acts with their illocutionary force.

### **Terminology Used in this Tutorial:**

Speech acts, events, setting, locutionary, illocutionary, force, perlocutionary, constative, performative, felicity conditions, analysis.

#### ***a. The Speech Acts Theory***

Many linguists examined and analysed meaning in terms of the relationship between the linguistic rules, the context in which an interaction takes place, and the speaker's intention. The philosopher of language Austin made the most concrete step towards the explanation of the relationship between saying and doing by introducing the concept of speech acts which was developed later by his student Searle. Thus, speech act theory was first initiated by Austin and

developed by Searle. Austin's lecture series in 1955 later published in the book *How to Do Things with Words*, proposes that people do things with words. According to him, actions such as apologizing, complaining, promising, complimenting, requesting ... etc. can be performed via utterances. The essential insight of speech act theory is that language performs communicative acts. Speech act theory, then, is basically concerned with what people "do" with language. Austin sees that a speech act is an act performed by a speaker when producing an utterance in order to communicate with hearers. Communication is a series of communicative acts or speech acts. Speech acts are considered the minimum functional unit in communication such as giving commands, asking questions, and making statements (Austin, 1962). "Actions performed via utterances are generally called speech acts and, in English, are commonly given more specific labels, such as apology, complaint, compliment, invitation, promise or request" (Yule, 1996: 47).

Following the same line of thought, Crystal (1993) proposes that speech acts are actions performed by means of language and defined with reference to the intention of a speaker at the moment of speaking and the effects it has on a listener. That is, a speech act represents an act that the speaker performs when uttering an utterance which serves a function in communication. Since speech acts allow people to interact in real life situations, uttering a speech act requires not only the knowledge of a language but also the appropriate use of that language within a given culture. Austin began by distinguishing between what he called *constatives* and *performatives*.

*A constative* is simply saying something true or false.

*A performative* is *doing* something by speaking; paradigmatically, one can get married by saying "I do" (Austin, 1961).

Constatives are true or false, depending on their correspondence (or not) with the facts; performatives are actions and, as such, are not true or false, but *felicitous* or *infelicitous* depending on whether or not they successfully perform the action in question. Performatives are utterances in which saying is doing, and they are only successful if certain felicity conditions are fulfilled; a sentence must not only be grammatical to be correctly performed, it must also be felicitous. In particular, performative utterances to be felicitous must invoke an existing convention and be invoked in the right circumstances.

### ***b. Felicity Conditions***

They take their name from a Latin root - “felix” or “happy”. They refer to the conditions that must be in place and the criteria that must be satisfied for a speech act to achieve its purpose. Only certain people are qualified to declare war, marry people or sentence convicted felons. Phrased differently, have you ever asked yourself why the words 'I now pronounce you husband and wife' do not create a legal marriage between two people when uttered in the context of a film set? Of course, the actors in the scene are not really legally married, even if they both say "I do," before the thespian justice of the peace or clergyperson recites these words. The conditions are not in place and the criteria are not satisfied for this speech act to achieve its purpose—namely that the "bride" and "groom" enter into a marriage that is legally binding. Moreover, the person officiating has no legal authority to pronounce the two husband and wife. Thus, the speech act in the movie marriage scene is not felicitous.

Thus, there are certain expected or appropriate circumstances, technically known as felicity conditions.



**1. General conditions:** which require participants to understand the language being used and that they are not play acting or being nonsensical (the sender believes the action should be done).

**2. Content Conditions:** For example, for both a promise and warning, the content of the utterance must be about a future event.

**3. Preparatory conditions:** where the authority of the speaker and the circumstances of the speech act are appropriate to its being performed successfully (the receiver has the ability to do the action). For instance, for a promise such conditions are significantly different from those for a warning. When I promise to do something, there are two preparatory conditions: first, the event will not happen by itself, and second, the event will have a beneficial effect. Yet when I utter a warning, there are the following preparatory conditions: it is not clear that the hearer knows the event will occur, the speaker does think the event will occur, and the event will not have a beneficial effect.

**4. Sincerity Conditions:** it is when the speech act is being performed seriously and sincerely. For a promise, the speaker genuinely intends to carry out the future action, and, for a warning, the speaker genuinely believes that the future event will not have a beneficial effect. The fact that by the act of uttering a promise, I thereby intend to create an obligation to carry out the action as promised. In other words, the utterance changes my state from non-obligation to obligation. Thus, what is important here is the utterance content, the context, and the speaker's intentions in order for a speech act to felicitously be performed. For example, "I will help you with your physics homework." (I intend to help you with your physics homework.)

**5.Essential Conditions:** it is when the speaker intends that an utterance be acted upon by the addressee. In other words, essential conditions define the act being performed in the sense that the speaker has the intention that his or her utterance will count as the identifiable act, and that this intention is recognized by the addressee. In the case of a warning, under the essential conditions, the utterance changes my state from non-informing to a bad future of informing; while in the case of a promise In other words, the utterance changes my state from non-obligation to obligation.

*For felicity conditions to exist, the speaker must utter words that are heard by receivers. The receiver then should take some kind of action based on those words. If the speaker is unintelligible, lacks the authority or status to speak those words, or is insincere, then her utterances are infelicitous. If the listener doesn't act on those words, then the speech is infelicitous. Only if all of these conditions are met are the utterances from the speaker considered felicitous (turnbull, 2003).*

Consider the following example,

"Suppose I am in a play and deliver the line 'I promise to kill the evil Don Fernando.' I have not, in fact, promised to kill anyone. ... The speech act fails because, among other things, I must have a certain institutional authority for my words to have the appropriate illocutionary force. ... [The] speech act [also] fails because the words are uttered in a context where they are not used by the speaker, but in effect quoted from a text."

In this example, Hogan's speech is infelicitous because he does not meet the propositional content condition: He is actually acting. He also does not meet the preparatory condition because he

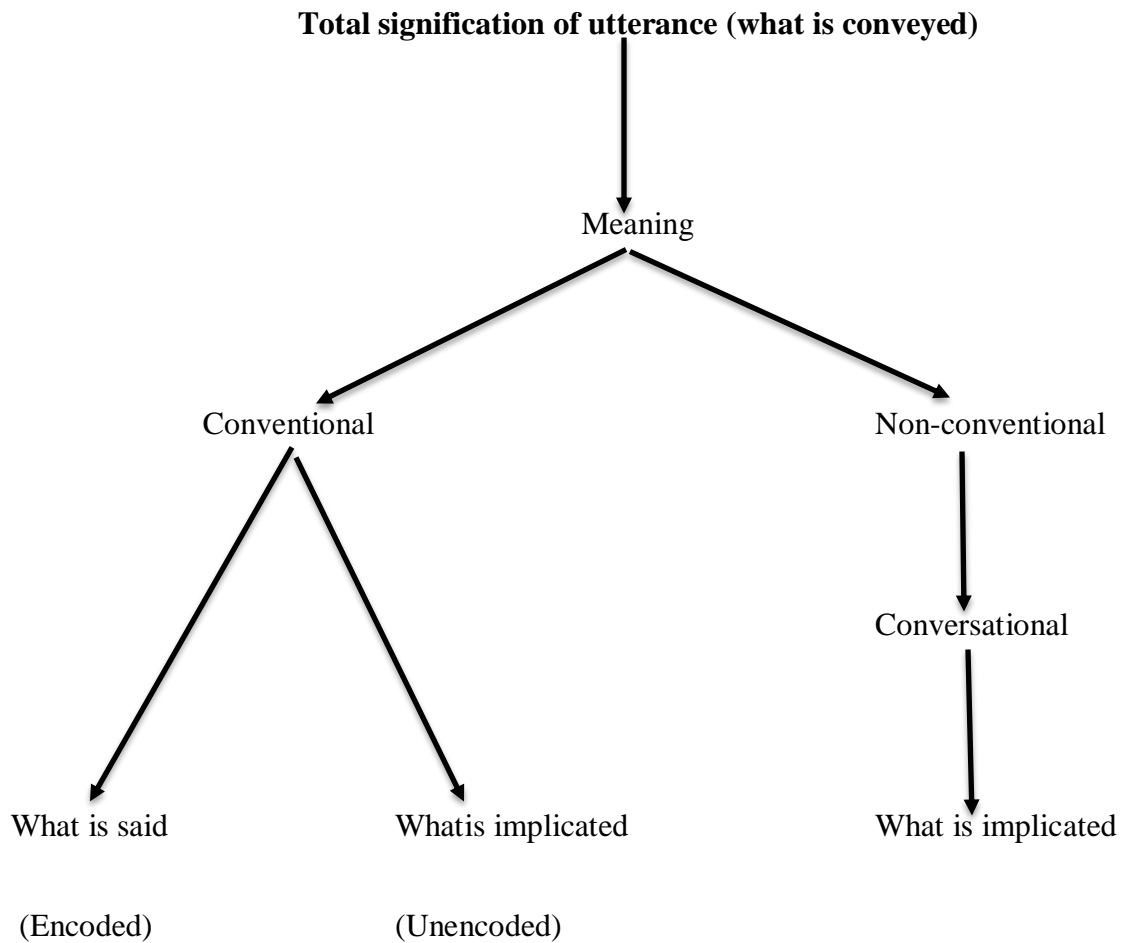
certainly does not have the authority to kill anyone. He does not meet the sincerity condition because he does not actually intend to kill anyone—as noted, he is only acting. Moreover, he does not meet the essential condition because he is not expecting that his words will be acted upon; in other words, he does not actually intend for someone else to kill Fernando. (Hogan, P. C. 2001).

### *c. Speech Acts Dimensions/Components (Locutionary act, Illocutionary act, Perlocutionary act)*

Austin (1962) identifies three distinct levels of action beyond the act of utterance itself. When someone says something, s/he performs three acts simultaneously: a locutionary act, an illocutionary act, and a perlocutionary act.

The locutionary act is the act of saying something. According to Yule (1996) the locutionary act is the first and the basic act of an utterance; it is the production of meaningful linguistic expressions. “Locutionary act is the act of using words as belonging to a certain vocabulary... and as conforming to a certain grammar... with a certain more or less definite sense and reference” (Austin, 1962: 92). Yet, Yule (1996) sees that people generally do not just produce well-formed sentences that are grammatically correct with no purpose. People utter sentences with a function and intention; this is the second level of speech acts called the illocutionary act. The illocutionary act is what one does in saying something. At this level, the speaker expresses his/her intentions according to a number of conventions shared in his speech community. To know what is meant by the illocutionary act a distinction should be made

between two aspects, what is said and what is meant. The following diagram explains this type of meaning (Kitis, 2009).



**What is Conveyed** (Kitis, 2009:76).

Consider the following example

*It's getting late (a husband says to his wife at a night party).*

In the case of uttering or producing the utterance itself, the speaker performs a locutionary act. It is the simple reference or statement at the lateness of hour. The intention of the husband is a suggestion of a proposal of it's late so let's go home, which is here the illocutionary act. When

the wife understands her husband's intention and his intended meaning from saying it's late, and accepts to leave, in this case the perlocutionary act is performed. Interestingly, a *perlocutionary act* refers to the effects a speaker's utterance has on hearers or readers. After performing the locutionary and illocutionary acts, the utterance has a third dimension (the perlocutionary act) which includes the results of the speaker's utterance on the hearer/reader.

One utterance can have two different illocutionary acts. Hence, speech acts, or more precisely illocutionary acts are of two types, *direct and indirect speech acts*. The relationship between the surface form of an utterance and its intended meaning is not always straightforward. Put differently, utterances are used to affect the reader in a way or another; some convey the information directly, others convey the message in an indirect way. Searle (1975) claims that a speaker can communicate to the hearer more than he actually says. On the basis of shared background knowledge, the hearer can infer what the speaker means. Moreover, Searle (1975) names *the indirect illocutionary act as a primary illocutionary act* and *the direct one as a secondary illocutionary act*. "Whenever there is a direct relationship between a structure and a function we have a direct speech act. Whenever there is an indirect relation between the structure and a function, we have an indirect speech act" (Yule, 1996: 54-55). To illustrate this, Yule (1996) adds that when a declarative utterance is used to make a statement, it means there is a direct speech act since there is a direct relationship between the structure and function of this utterance, (the structure is declarative; its function is to make a statement). However, when the same declarative utterance is used to make a request, the relationship between the function and the structure of the utterance becomes indirect, which means it is an indirect speech act. Take the following example:

*It's cold outside.*

This declarative statement performs two illocutionary acts, a direct and an indirect one. If the hearer considers the utterance as a statement and understands it as a description of the weather in that place, it means that the hearer understands the direct act or meaning of this utterance. If the hearer considers this utterance as a request to close the door or the window, for example, the hearer infers the indirect meaning of the utterance.

As previously mentioned, Searle (1975) distinguishes between primary illocutionary acts (indirect speech acts) and secondary illocutionary acts (direct speech acts), *where the primary act is performed through the secondary one*. The question is how can the hearer get the non-literal primary illocutionary act from the literal secondary illocutionary act? In order to answer this question, Searle (1975) proposes a list of *ten steps* that may help understand the primary illocutionary act through the secondary illocutionary act. The steps are as follows (Mey, 1993: 113- 114):

*A: Let's go to the movies tonight.*

*B: I have to study for an exam.*

Step One: A has uttered a suggestion (to go to the movies); B has uttered a statement (about studying for an exam). These are the bare facts of the case.

Step Two: A assumes B to be cooperative in the conversation situation; that is, his answer is taken to be relevant, in accordance with the maxim of relevance under the cooperative principle.

Step Three: relevant answers in the situation at hand are found among the following: acceptance, rejection, counter suggestion (why don't we make it tomorrow?), suggestion for further

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discussion (that entirely depends on what's on), and perhaps a few more, depending on the circumstances.

Step Four: none of the relevant answers in step three matches the actual answer given, so that the latter is taken at face value.

Step Five: we must therefore assume that B means more (or something entirely different) by uttering his statement than what is said at face value. That is to say, his primary intention is different from his secondary one. This follows from step two and four that it is the 'crucial link' in the argumentative chain: unless we can distinguish the primary from the literal, there is no way of making sense of indirect speech acts.

Step Six: everybody knows that one needs time to study for an exam, and that going to the movies may result in precious study time being lost- something many students cannot afford, especially in a pre-exam situation. This is factual, shared information about the world, carrying the same weight as the facts mentioned above, under step one.

Step Seven: hence, it is likely that B cannot (or doesn't want to) combine the two things: go to the cinema and study; this is an immediate consequence of the preceding step.

Step Eight: speech act theory has taught that among the preparatory conditions for any speech act having to do with proposals are the ability, and willingness, to carry out such a proposed act.

Step Nine: from this, one can infer that B's utterance in all likelihood is meant to tell me that he cannot accept my proposal (this follows from one, seven, and eight).

We must conclude that B's primary intention in mentioning his exam preparation has been to reject A's proposal (from steps five and nine). Searle (1975) adds that the above steps can be applied to any other utterance that has two illocutionary acts.

More importantly, Searle's typology of speech acts is rooted in the range of illocutionary verbs that occur in a given language. According to this author, then, there are five basic kinds of action that a speaker can perform by means of the following five types of utterance,

**1.Representatives (assertive):** Acts which commit the speaker to the truth of the expressed proposition (e.g.: concluding, asserting). Here the speaker asserts a proposition to be true, using such verbs as: affirm, believe, conclude, deny, report. As an example: "I did not eat the chocolate cake."

**2.Directives:** Attempts by the speaker to get the addressee to do something e.g.: questioning, requesting, ordering, begging, forbidding, instructing, urging, warning). Here the speaker tries to make the hearer do something, with such words as: ask, beg, challenge, command, dare, invite, insist, request. As an example: "go and close the door".

**3.Commissives:** Acts which commit the speaker to some future course of action (e.g.: promising, threatening, offering, guaranteeing, pledging, swearing, vowing, undertaking, warranting, inviting, offering, swearing, volunteering ). Here the speaker commits himself (or herself) to a (future) course of action, with verbs such as: guarantee, pledge, promise, swear, vow, undertake, warrant. As an example: "I promise to repay the money I owe."

**4.Expressives:** Acts which express a psychological state (e.g.: apologizing, welcoming, thanking, appreciating, congratulating, deploring, detesting, and regretting). Here the speaker expresses an



attitude to or about a state of affairs, using such verbs as: apologize, appreciate, congratulate, deplore, detest, regret, thank, welcome, .regret, thank, welcome. As an example: “I am sorry that I ran over your cat.”

**5.Declaratives:** Acts which bring about immediate changes in the institutional state of affairs and thus tend to rely on extra-linguistic institutions (e.g.: christening, declaring war, excommunicating, sentencing (a convict to Capital Punishment), pronouncing (a couple husband and wife), naming (e.g. a ship).

In sum, by focusing upon the meaning of utterances as acts, speech act theory offers an approach to discourse analysis in which what is said is chunked (or segmented) into units that have communicative functions that can be identified and labelled. Although we can describe such acts in different ways, the importance of such acts for discourse is that they both initiate and respond to other acts.

### QUIZ 1

**Choose the answer that best suits the information given in this lecture**

1) The term *Speech Act* has come to refer exclusively to ...

- a) the locutionary act.
- b) the perlocutionary act.
- c) the illocutionary act.

2) Which of the following is a *performative verb*?

- a) Threaten.
- b) Assure.
- c) Bother.

3) *Felicity conditions* are conditions that have to be met for...

- a) being happy after uttering a sentence.
- b) the hearer(s) to understand what the speaker says.
- c) the illocutionary act to have its desired effect.

4) Specify the type of action we perform when we thank a friend:

- a) representative act.
- b) expressive act.
- c) declarative act.

6) Specify the type of action the Church performs when one of its members is excommunicated:

- a) declarative act.
- b) commissive act.
- c) directive act.

## QUIZ 2

**Analyze the following and identify the performed speech acts**

1.A: Are you wearing gloves?

B: No.

A: What about the spiders?

B: They're not wearing gloves either. (a wife talking to her husband who is gardening).

2.A: Smith doesn't seem to have a girlfriend these days

B: He has been paying a lot of visits to New York

3. Could you pass me the salt? (at dinner)

### QUIZ 3

Choose two illocutionary acts and give three different locutions which would express each act.

Congratulate - request - apologize - warn - thank

### QUIZ 4

Read the following utterances and then

- (i) Specify two possible illocutionary forces for each.
- (ii) Provide a situation for each illocution
  - (a) Is this your coat On the floor?
  - (b) I can't hear a word.
  - (c) I'll tell your father.
  - (d) I had a flat tyre
  - (e) It is seven o'clock
  - (f) It is getting quite late.
  - (g) It is raining outside.

#### *d. Speech Events and Speech Situations*

The speaker usually expects that the listener or hearer can easily recognize her/his communicative intention through speech acts. The hearer can do that only with the help of certain circumstances surrounding the utterance, these circumstances, according to Yule (1996), are called speech events. Speech situation, speech acts and speech events are interrelated aspects,

since most of the time when performing a speech act its interpretation is determined by speech situation and speech events. According to Hymes (1979), the units of interaction are speech situation, speech event and speech act (Cited in Yule, 1996). A speech situation is the context of language use such as ceremonies, fights, classrooms, parties, etc. it is associated with speech but it is not governed by rules of speaking; however, a speech event is governed by rules of speaking and it takes place within a speech situation. Thus, speech events may be a conversation that consists of smaller units of speech acts such as a joke. “A speech event is an activity in which participants interact via language in some conventional way to arrive at some outcome” (Yule, 1996:57). Moreover, speech acts are functional units at the utterance level like thanking, requesting, etc. while speech events are larger units with multiple turns such as job interviews. To explain the relation between speech situations, events, and acts, take the following example:

*A: What time is it, please?*

*B: It is 1 o'clock*

*A: Thanks*

This conversation contains a speech situation which is the bus station, a speech event which is asking about the time, and speech acts which are the acts of requesting, thanking and responding.

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### **Discourse and Ideology : Critical Discourse Analysis**

**Outcomes of the Tutorial:** *By the end of this tutorial, you will be able to:*

1. ***Provide*** a firm grounding in critical discourse analysis;
2. ***Identify*** its scope and main tenets;
3. ***Distinguish*** between discourse analysis and critical discourse analysis;
4. ***Draw*** the relationship between ideology, social cognition and discourse;
5. ***Analyze*** discourse the way practitioners of CDA analyze it.

**Terminology Used in this Tutorial:**

CDA (Critical Discourse Analysis), ideology, social cognition, discourse, multidisciplinary, interactions, society, power, culture, politics.

***a. The Scope and Main Concepts of CDA***

Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) is an approach to discourse whose origins are found at the end of the 1970s, in the ‘critical linguistics’ that emerged (mainly in the UK and Australia) as a reaction against the dominant formal paradigms of the 1960s and 1970s. Indeed, critical linguists focused on the analysis of language as text or discourse (rather than as decontextualized sets of possible sentences in the Chomskyan fashion), and they based their analytical approach

mainly on Halliday's (1978, 1985) systemic/functional grammar<sup>1</sup>. Critical Linguistic studies were based on the premise that grammar is an ideological instrument for the categorization and classification of things that happen in the world, a premise which owed much to the theory of linguistic determinism known as the Sapir/Whorf hypothesis (Alba Juez, 2009). This hypothesis assumes that the language we use influences the way we think and that no two linguistic systems have the same way of categorizing the world.

Critical discourse analysis can best be described as a loosely networked group of scholars that began in the 1980s in Great Britain and Western Europe and has since burgeoned into an international set of approaches that explores the connections/relationships between language use, its producers and consumers, and the social and political contexts, structures, and practices in which it occurs. By studying discourse, it emphasizes the way in which language is implicated in issues such as power and ideology that determine how language is used, what effect it has, and how it reflects, serves, and furthers the interests, positions, perspectives, and values of, those who are in power.

In principle, CDA can be used for any type of topic, in any type of discourse, in any type of medium (discourse modality), using a variety of types of methodology—although a given CDA analyst or group of analysts will prefer/focus on one of these categories, according to their own predilections. With these provisos in mind, we can say that many of the topics that CDA takes up include the unjust or biased treatment of people based on differences (e.g., religion, race, sex, nationality/citizenship status, and stereotyping); the relationship between language, ideology, power, and social change; and the related use of language by groups (e.g., Wall Street chief executive officers, CEOs, corporations, Mafia, politicians, government) to gain power, stay in

power, or oppress minority groups; as well as globalization, nationalism, language planning/policy, and pedagogy, including the analysis of teaching materials and policy documents. These are treated in a wide variety of discourse contexts including media discourse of all types (e.g. film, newspapers, TV news broadcasts, internet, email), as well as elite, literary, narrative, government, advertising, educational, legal/courtroom, medical, cross-/inter-/transcultural, parental/family discourses, and conversational interaction. The discourse modalities studied are equally wide: e.g., written texts, monomodal and multimodal texts, visual, oral/aural/spoken, musical, natural/mechanical, etc. although the majority of work in CDA is on linguistic and visual modalities (Waugh, L & al, 2016).

From all what is previously mentioned, it can be deduced that CDA is essentially multidisciplinary. Rather than being a direction or a new school, it aims to offer a different mode of analysis by finding a more or less critical perspective in different areas such as rhetoric, stylistics, sociolinguistics, pragmatics, ethnography, conversation analysis, etc. Consequently, CDA does not have a unitary theoretical framework. It can be said that there are many types of CDA, which can be theoretically and analytically quite diverse. However, all will have a common perspective: they will ask and try to answer questions about the way certain discourse structures are deployed in the reproduction of social dominance, thus featuring such notions as power, dominance, hegemony, ideology, gender, race, and discrimination, among others. It is an underlying assumption of CDA that in most interactions, speakers bring with them different dispositions with respect to language which are directly related to their social positioning.

Thus, the main tenets of CDA, as summarized by Fairclough & Wodak (1997: 271-80) are the following:

1. CDA addresses social problems
2. Power relations are discursive
3. Discourse constitutes society and culture
4. Discourse does ideological work
5. Discourse is historical
6. The link between text and society is mediated
7. Discourse analysis is interpretative and explanatory
8. Discourse is a form of social action

### ***b. Ideology, Social Cognition and Discourse***

Ideology is a key notion in CDA, for it is considered to be the notion that establishes the link between discourse and society. Within CDA, it is Teun van Dijk (1997, 2004) who has developed a theory which intends to specify the internal structures and contents of ideologies. Van Dijk explains that “ideologies are developed by dominant groups in order to reproduce and legitimate their domination” (2001: 25). Discourse is the medium by which ideologies are communicated in society, thereby reproducing the power and domination of certain groups. Ideologies resemble natural languages in that they are essentially social: they are shared by the members of a group and they are used to solve the social problem of successful communicative interaction. However, while groups use languages for communication among their own members, ideologies serve not only for internal coordination, but also (and more importantly) to coordinate social interaction with members of other groups. Members of a group, thus, develop a basic



framework that allows them to act as members of such a group: they share a given identity, aims, values, etc., and take it as the general basis which will let them know how to act in normal situations as well as in situations of conflict.

In short, ideologies are both social systems and mental representations. This means that they not only have a social function but also cognitive functions of belief organization. Ideologies are the mental representations that form the basis of social cognition, and by social cognition van Dijk means “the shared knowledge and attitudes of a group” (2001: 29). This social cognition in turn influences the specific beliefs of the members of a group, which finally make up the basis of discourse.

In order to illustrate how practitioners of CDA analyze discourse in terms of ideology, the analysis that van Dijk (1997) makes of the following fragment of a politician’s (Mr Rohrabacher’s) speech is here reproduced and summarized (Alba Juez, 2009):

*We need economic growth, business expansion, not more civil rights legislation that is redundant and useless... We care about these people living in horrible situations, whatever their race, and they come in all colors... [Their horrible situation] Rarely is this a result of bigotry... They were listening to so-called liberal leaders who were telling them that they should not try [to get jobs] because they did not have a chance rather than listening to conservatives who were telling them to go for it... This first step is to recognize that racial discrimination plays only a minor role in the economic tragedy befalling our inner cities. We need to talk about our economy moving, creating new jobs and personal economic advancement of our citizens... Let us defeat this legislation. It is going to hurt those it claims to help.*

Van Dijk argues that this and other fragments of Mr Rohrabacher's speech express ideological polarization by making reference to different groups (liberals and conservatives) and their different social views of minorities. All discursive structures aim at putting emphasis on our good things, as opposed to their bad things. This principle of positive self-presentation and negative otherpresentation finds its expression at different levels of discourse description such as:

*1 Topic selection (e.g., 'We tell them to go for it' vs 'They tell them they should not try').*

*2 Schematic organization (the overall argument against civil rights legislation: 'we oppose a redundant law, and instead propose better job opportunities').*

*3 Local meanings, coherence, implications and presuppositions (e.g., 'a welfare system that provides the wrong incentives to people who need an inspiration to change, not pressure to remain the same' implies that the jobless don't want to work, and that their position is caused by welfare and not by employers who refuse to hire them); we also find disclaimers and denials of racism ('Rarely is this a result of bigotry').*

*4 Lexicalization implying our positive and their negative properties ('we care about these people' vs. 'obtrusive civil rights bill')*

*5 Style (e.g., imitation of popular oral argumentative style: 'The less fortunate of our fellow citizens. That is who will not be helped')*

*6 Rhetorical devices, such as contrasts ('It [the bill] is going to hurt those it claims to help'), metaphors ('The job explosion experienced throughout America during the Reagan years'), hyperboles and euphemisms ('less fortunate of our fellow citizens').*

This analysis is but one example of CDA, which shows that ideologies may be encoded at all levels and in all the structural properties of discourse and context; a type of analysis which eventually should enable us to fully understand the complex relation between discourse and society.

*c. Steps to Follow when Doing CDA*

Wetherell et al (2001) propose an analytical framework for doing CDA which is modelled upon Bhaskar's (1986) concept of explanatory critique. We reproduce it here as a useful guide for the student who wants to 'embark' upon CDA:

An Analytical framework for CDA

Stage 1: Focus upon a social problem that has a semiotic aspect. Beginning with a social problem rather than the more conventional 'research question' accords with the critical intent of this approach – the production of knowledge which can lead to emancipatory change.

Stage 2: Identify obstacles to the social problem being tackled. You can do this through analysis of:

- a) the network of practices it is located within
- b) the relationship of semiosis to other elements within the particular practice(s) concerned
- c) the discourse (the semiosis itself) by means of:
  - structural analysis: the order of discourse
  - interactional analysis
  - interdiscourse analysis
  - linguistic and semiotic analysis

The objective here is to understand how the problem arises and how it is rooted in the way social life is organized, by focusing on the obstacles to its resolution – on what makes it more or less intractable.

Stage 3: Consider whether the social order (network of practices) 'needs' the problem. The point here is to ask whether those who benefit most from the way social life is now organized have an interest in the problem not being resolved.

Stage 4: Identify possible ways past the obstacles. This stage in the framework is a crucial complement to Stage 2 – it looks for hitherto unrealized possibilities for change in the way social life is currently organized.

Stage 5: Reflect critically on the analysis (Stages 1-4). This is not strictly part of Bhaskar's explanatory critique but it is an important addition, requiring the analyst to reflect on where s/he is coming from, and her/his own social positioning. (2001: 236)

### QUIZ

**Choose the answer that best suits the information given in this section**

1) The origins of CDA are found ...

- a) in the U.S.A.
- b) in the U.K. and Australia.
- c) in France.

2) Critical Linguistic Studies were based on the premise that...

- a) grammar is objective.
- b) discourse structures can only be studied from a "purelylinguistic" perspective.
- c) grammar is an ideological instrument.

3) According to Fairclough, discourse involves...

- a) texts, discourse practices and social practices.
- b) only texts.
- c) social practices and context.

4) CDA is essentially...

- a) multidisciplinary.
- b) monodisciplinary.
- c) concerned with the formal aspects of language.

5) Some essential notions of CDA are...

- a) surface structure and deep structure.
- b) speech acts and speech events.

c) power, dominance, ideology.

6) CDA believes that discourse is...

a) a set of grammatical rules.

b) a form of social action.

c) a type of behavior that has to be criticized.

7) CDA uses the analysis of discourse in order to...

a) make people aware of important social and political issues.

b) facilitate the learning of languages.

c) find linguistic universals.

8) Critical discourse analysts believe that...

a) there is nothing in language beyond the text.

b) language always represents an ideological system.

c) ideology is not an important aspect of language.

9) Hegemony refers to...

a) the eventual success of a social group.

b) the financial capital a social group owns.

c) the abuse of power of a social group.

10) Hegemonic groups...

a) are the ones who control and have special access to discourse.

b) do not have a special interest in accessing discourse.

c) have no contact with the powerless groups.

11) Ideologies...

a) do not form part of the structure of a language.

b) are communicated through the medium of discourse.

c) are only found in the discourse of the powerful.

12) Ideologies...

a) have both a social and a cognitive function.

b) do not represent the shared knowledge of a group.

c) are not related to social cognition.

## DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

---

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*Faculty of Arabic Language Arts & Foreign Languages*

*Division of Foreign Languages*

*Department of English Studies*

**(Major)** Literature and Civilization

**(Course)** Discourse Analysis

**(Class)** First Year Master

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### **Discourse Types and Genres**

**Outcomes of the Tutorial:** *By the end of this tutorial, you will be able to:*

1. *Define* genre in discourse analysis;
2. *Identify* different discourse types and genres;
3. *Familiarize* with political, literary and media discourse;
4. *Analyze* political, literary and media discourse.

**Terminology Used in this Tutorial:**

Discourse, genres, types, literary, political, media, analysis.

Discourse is intrinsically dyadic, but being dyadic does not imply that it is always reciprocal. For example, in a therapy session, the therapist is entitled to ask her patients about their private life but the patients are not entitled to do the same with the therapist. Thus we could say that non-reciprocity is a characteristic of the type of discourse called *Psychotherapeutic discourse*. Depending on the analyst's perspective or on the variables taken into account, we may divide the universe of discourse into numerous different types, such as *legal discourse, political discourse, medical discourse, scientific discourse, computer-mediated discourse or family discourse*, to name a few.

Lakoff (1998) provides the following taxonomy in terms of the relationship we see between the forms used and the particular discourse. Discourse may thus be:

- Formal/informal.
- Reciprocal/non-reciprocal.
- Spontaneous/non-spontaneous.
- Face-to-face telephone conversation.
- Public private.
- Task-oriented (discourse oriented towards a particular purpose, e.g. Psychotherapy).
- Literate (includes all modes of linguistic communication in writing).
- Memorable (intended to last, to go on, to be recorded for the future).
- Empathic (we can see what each participant is feeling, e.g.: face-to-face normal conversation, dialogue).
- Monologic (one party tends to do most of the talking).
- Truthful (designed for the purpose of fact-finding, e.g. psychotherapy, legal court discourse) vs. fictional discourse (Searle, 1979b).
- Spoken visual (gestures, movements, etc.) (Fairclough, 1989).
- Dyadic/triadic/group (Various parts can take a role. Writing is generally non-dyadic, but letters are dyadic) (Simmel, 1950). (cited in Alba Juez, 2009: 292).

Bakhtin uses the term genre to refer to the different discourse types, and applies it to the whole range of human linguistic production. He notes that each sphere has its own patterns and that therefore genres are context-based, stable and diverse. However, it should be noted that no discourse belongs to a unique and exclusive type. There are no absolute distinctions among all the different discourse types, and thus we may more properly speak of a continuum of discourse types rather than of separate and distinct categories. For example, a conversation between a professor and a student at the end of a class may be situated at some point between the formal/informal range: there is some level of formality because of the distance and differences in



power between the student and her professor, but at the same time the particular situation does not require high levels of formality, thus the analyst will surely find certain features of informal speech in their conversation as well. Consequently, different categories may be found in the same linguistic event. For example, the speech of a political candidate in a public place may belong to all of the following discourse types: public, formal, nonspontaneous, memorable, spoken and visual (at the same time), group, political, non-reciprocal (Alba Juez, 2009: 293).

For the purpose of illustration, we shall try to explain, briefly, some of the characteristics of three types of discourse (*political, computer-mediated, and literary discourse*), as well as the way certain scholars have approached their study.

### ***a. Political Discourse***

Political discourse is identified by its actors or authors, viz., politicians. Indeed, the vast bulk of studies of political discourse is about the text and talk of professional politicians or political institutions, such as presidents and prime ministers and other members of government, parliament or political parties, both at the local, national and international levels. Some of the studies of politicians take a discourse analytical approach (Carbó 1984; Dillon et al. 1990; Harris 1991; Holly 1990; Maynard 1994; Seidel 1988b). In the USA, especially studies of presidential rhetoric are numerous (see, e.g., Campbell & Jamieson 1990; Hart 1984; Snyder & Higgins 1990; Stuckey 1989; Thompson 1987e; Windt 1983, 1990).

The study of political discourse covers a broad range of subject matter and draws on a wide range of analytic methods. The primary goal of political discourse analysis is to discover and point to the ways in which language is manipulated for specific political purposes (Wilson,

2001). Orwell (1969) analyzes different manners in which language is used to manipulate the thoughts of an audience. For instance, he shows how politicians manipulate the minds of people by using the term “pacification” to refer to the bombing of defenceless villages. Orwell accuses politicians of being responsible for a general decline in the use of the English language, by distorting it and constructing what the British call “political gobbledygook,” i.e. complicated language that is difficult to understand. An example of this gobbledygook can be found in President Nixon’s Press Secretary’s use of the noun-phrase “biosphere overload” to refer to overpopulation, or in the title “The Urban Conservation and Environmental Awareness Work Party” given to an anti-vandalism committee of a British District Council (Neaman & Silver, 1990). Edleman’s (1971, 1977, 1988) work also points to the symbolic manipulation of reality for the achievement of political goals. Likewise, Pêcheux (1978, 1982) notes that the meaning of words is transformed in terms of who uses them, so words in a given “discourse formation” (Foucault, 1972) may be interpreted differently within another formation. For example, the interpretation of the phrase “Social Security reform bill” within a liberal environment in the U.S. may differ radically from its interpretation within a conservative environment. This issue is related to Fairclough’s general point about not looking at isolated sentences or words, because in most cases it is the context, and not the words themselves, which carry the political message (cited in Alba Juez, 2009).

Language may be manipulated for political purposes at different levels. Thus, as was shown above, certain words or expressions (lexical level) may be strategically placed and used with certain political aims in mind. In effect, discourse can also be manipulated at the phonological level in order to achieve certain political objectives. For example, while Margaret Thatcher was Prime Minister of Britain, it was perceived that she modified her speech in very

particular ways with the intention of making herself more appealing to voters (Wilson, 2001). It is clear that all linguistic levels, from lexis to pragmatics, are involved in characterizing political discourse. Most authors within the Social Theory and Critical Discourse Analysis approaches tend to carry out studies of pragmatic aspects within political discourse, such as the use of implicatures, speech acts or metaphors, or the use and abuse of power.

It is now a growing trend in political discourse to combine social theory and linguistic theory, a trend that can be identified in Fairclough's (1992), van Dijk's (1989) or Wodak's (1995) work. Thus we are led into the reflection that the discourse used by those who analyze political discourse is also political. Hence, Wilson (2001) points out that some analyses may become as much political as linguistic, and that political discourse is made up of and must allow for both. Moreover, some authors define political discourse in such broad terms that almost any discourse may be considered political.

### ***b. Literary Discourse***

The different types of literary discourse are *transactional*, *expressive*, and *poetic*. Most fictional forms of literature use poetic discourse, although they may also incorporate the use of expressive discourse in an experiential fashion. Transactional discourse is primarily used in business communication, such as advertising or correspondence. Expressive literary discourse typically consists of creative non-fiction prose. Examples of expressive discourse include letters, diary entries, and stream of consciousness writing. Expressive discourse does not involve the presentation of facts, or the motivating of others, but is rather a reflection of our emotions that form the foundation of our expressions. This is a form of basic or entry-level discourse, and is beneficial for beginners in the field of literature. It primarily deals with generating ideas with no

concrete source. Examples include academic essays and diaries. This type of discourse highlights an individual's ability to express his personal point of view. In the digital publishing era, online blogs have become a popular form of expressive discourse.

One of the most prominent and well-known forms of literary discourse is poetic. This type of written communication includes most creative works, including fictional novels, poetry, fictional short story collections, and screenplays. Within poetic discourse are many different types of genres or styles of writing. Fictional discourse tends to focus on how language is formed and used to communicate various abstract themes, philosophical ideologies, settings and imagery. This type of literary discourse also deals with the resolution of emotional questions through character development. Phrased differently, poetic discourse is a type of literary conversation which focuses on the expression of feelings, ideas, imaginations, events, and places through specific rhymes and rhythms. Poetic discourse makes use of common words in appealing ways to present feelings and emotions. The mechanism of poetic discourse involves certain steps starting from different sources, then entering the mental process, mental realization, and then finally into a finished product as poetry.

The third main type of literary discourse is transactional. Most of this communication focuses on establishing some degree of interaction with the reader. It is the most common form of discourse used in business correspondence, advertising, instruction manuals, and editorial articles. In most cases, it tends to propel the reader into action, such as purchasing a product or asking for more information. The basic aim in this kind of discourse is to convey the message in such a way that it is clearly understood without any confusion. Whatever is said has no ambiguity – everything is clear for the reader. Usually, this type of discourse is in active voice. Examples

include instructions, guidelines, manuals, privacy policies, and patient instructions as written by doctors.

Literary discourse is usually analyzed in literature, creative writing, and English composition courses. Discourse analysis can be used to teach proper language structure, develop vocabulary, and increase an individual's ability to communicate effectively. In advanced literature courses, traditional and experiential forms are analyzed according to their effectiveness and intended meaning. Technique choices, such as point of view, scene transition, and descriptive language are typically discussed.

Likewise, expressive discourse has become a studied art form in the majority of advanced creative writing programs. This type of written communication is usually categorized as creative non-fiction and is represented by memoir-style works, collections of prose and commentary. Academic essays are a form of expressive discourse, which are assigned to students in college level English courses to help them develop their writing skills. The essay form accomplishes this by having students focus on paragraph and sentence structure, in addition to demonstrating the ability to support or disagree with a particular argument.

### ***c. Media Discourse***

Media discourse is a term that is quite difficult to define, instead, it is often easier to firstly identify what media discourse is not. Media discourse is not face-to-face communication. Instead it is an ongoing process integrated into our communications. Media discourse can be defined as *the parameters within which a particular issue is publicly discussed or framed by the*

*media*. In other words, it is the ongoing packaging of our interactions, depending on the discourse present.

Media discourse refers to interactions that take place through a broadcast platform, whether spoken or written, in which the discourse is oriented to a non-present reader, listener or viewer. Though the discourse is oriented towards these recipients, they very often cannot make instantaneous responses to the producer(s) of the discourse, though increasingly this is changing with the advent of new media technology, as we shall explore. Crucially, the written or spoken discourse itself is oriented to the readership or listening/viewing audience, respectively. In other words, media discourse is a public, manufactured, on-record, form of interaction. Because media discourse is manufactured, we need to consider how this has been done – both in a literal sense of what goes into its making and at an ideological level. One important strand of research into media discourse is preoccupied with taking a critical stance to media discourse, namely critical discourse analysis(CDA). It is important that we continually appraise the messages that we consume from our manufactured mass media. The fact that media discourse is public means that it also falls under the scrutiny of many conversation analysts who are interested in it as a form of institutional talk, which can be compared with other forms of talk, both mundane and institutional. The fact that media discourse is on record makes it attractive for discourse analysts and increasingly so because of the online availability of newspapers, radio stations, television programmes and so on. Advances in technology have greatly offset the ephemerality factor that used to relate to media discourse, especially radio and television (where it used to be the case that, if you wanted to record something, it had to be done in real time) (Bednarek, 2006).

**QUIZ**

1) Discourse...

a) is intrinsically reciprocal.

b) is intrinsically dyadic.

c) is reciprocal but not dyadic.

2) which one is the most correct

a) Every discourse genre belongs to a unique and exclusive type.

b) Genres are context-based and diverse.

c) The different genres are totally distinct and separate categories.

3) Each discourse type has...

a) a given set of practices associated with it.

b) similar discourse practices to the other types.

c) completely separate and distinct practices associated with it.

4) The analysis of political discourse is mainly concerned with...

a) the manipulation of language for specific political purposes.

b) syntactic considerations of language.

c) complicated expressions that mean nothing.

5) By adopting different phonological forms...

a) speakers may be perceived as having different political stances.

b) Margaret Thatcher won the elections.

c) people are thought to be more educated

6) Most fictional forms of literature use...

a) transactional discourse

b) poetic discourse

c) expressive discourse.



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# APPENDICES

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*Division of Foreign Languages*

*Department of English Studies*

**(Major)** Literature and Civilization

**(Course)** Discourse Analysis

**(Class)** First Year Master

**(Instructor)** Dr. Manel TRIKI

**Full Name:** .....

**Group:** .....

## First Term Examination

### Task 1:

**State similarities and differences between the following pairs : (8 pts) (respect the space provided for answers, DO NOT EXCEED IT)**

- Transactional and Interactional communicative function:

.....  
.....  
.....  
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- Texture and Textuality :

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.....

- Text Linguistics and Discourse Analysis :

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.....

## DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

Dr. TRIKI M.

.....  
.....  
- Means of Production and Medium of Production in Discourse Analysis:

### **Task 2:**

**Consider and analyse the following excerpt of a conversation: (6 pts)**

A : I told you that Tim called me last night?

B : Coming tomorrow?

A : I am so excited

### **Task 3:**

**In the following examples the word “run” has different meanings. Does the determination of the correct meaning have to do with cohesion or coherence? Justify your answer. (6 pts)**

a). I’m going to wind up these old clocks I found in the attic, but I don’t know if they will run or not.

DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

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Dr. TRIKI M.

b). A number of lesser-known candidates were promised government funding, but I don't know if they will run or not.

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**BEST OF LUCK!**

## DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

Dr. TRIKI M.

*Mohammed Khider University of Biskra*

*Faculty of Arabic Language Arts & Foreign Languages*

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**Full Name:** .....

**Group:** .....

### Second Term Examination

**Choose to answer Task 1 OR Task 2**

#### **Task 1:**

*Extract all types of cohesive devices that may exist in the following text. Identify the type of each and justify your answer.*

On behalf of the great state of Illinois, crossroads of a nation, land of Lincoln, let me express my deepest gratitude for the privilege of addressing this convention.

Tonight is a particular honor for me because, let's face it, my presence on this stage is pretty unlikely. My father was a foreign student, born and raised in a small village in Kenya. He grew up herding goats, went to school in a tin-roof shack. His father-my grandfather- was a cook, a domestic servant to the British.

But my grandfather had larger dreams for his son. Through hard work and perseverance my father got a scholarship to study in a magical place, America, that shone as a beacon of freedom and opportunity to so many who had come before.

While studying here, my father met my mother. She was born in a town on the other side of the world, in Kansas. Her father worked on oil rigs and farms through most of the depression. The

day after Pearl Harbor my grandfather signed up for duty; joined Patton's army, marched across Europe. (...)  
Barack Obama, 2004

**Task 2:**

**The following is an adapted version of the transcription of a call made by a Police Officer at a private house in the U.S.A. ANALYZE the sequence from the CA perspective, taking into account its *overall organization, turn-taking, adjacency pairs, and preference organization.***

T1 (Telephone rings)

T2 Mr. Rowlings: Hello?

T3 Police Officer: Hello, uhm... I'd like to talk to Mr. Rowlings, please.

T4 Mr. R.: Yes, this is he. Who's calling?

T5 P.O.: Good evening Mr. Rowlings. This is a police officer from the Maryland Troopers. We need some help for our people and families, and we are inviting you to collaborate with our Corps. Would you like to make your pledge?

T6 Mr. R.: Well... How much would that be?

T7 P.O.: Well, there's a minimum pledge of \$36, but we would greatly appreciate it if you could contribute to our goals with a higher amount.

T8 Mr.R.: Oh, no, I think \$36 is more than enough. I can't commit to giving you more.

T9 P.O.: O.K., thank you very much, Mr. Rowlings. We'll be expecting your check with your pledge of \$36, no later than the end of this month.

T10 Mr. R.: O.K., You're welcome. Good bye.

T11 P.O.: Good bye now.

**BEST OF LUCK!**



## DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

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Dr. TRIKI M.

*Mohammed Khider University of Biskra*

*Faculty of Arabic Language Arts & Foreign Languages*

*Division of Foreign Languages*

*Department of English Studies*

**(Major)** Literature and Civilization

**(Course)** Discourse Analysis

**(Class)** First Year Master

**(Instructor)** Dr. Manel TRIKI

### **Homework and Further Readings (1)**

**Read the following and write a summary of what you have read.**

Group ONE: An Introduction to Discourse Analysis (Malcolm Cauthard); from page1 to page12

Group TWO: Discourse Analysis (Barbara Johnstone); from page1 to page19

Group THREE: Discourse and Social Change (Norman Fairclough): from page12 to page25

Group FOUR: Discourse Analysis as Theory and Method (Marianne Jorgensen & Louise J. Philips); from page1 to page15

Here is the link to the books (you can download them all and add them to your library)

[https://drive.google.com/drive/folders/1ZibgvD2peSMND5Vft6UFZu\\_6YuE\\_288?usp=sharin](https://drive.google.com/drive/folders/1ZibgvD2peSMND5Vft6UFZu_6YuE_288?usp=sharin)

#### **IMPORTANT:**

1. Your summary should not exceed 500 words
2. Your summary should be in a form of an ESSAY

## DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

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Dr. TRIKI M.

3. Papers should be sent in PDF version
4. Your Full name and Group number should be written WITHIN the pdf file (not in the email writing space)
5. You send your papers ONLY to this email: manel.triki@univ-biskra.dz
6. Submission Deadline:...

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<h2>Homework (2)</h2>
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**For each of the utterances below**

- 1) name the speech act performed
- 2) describe two of its felicity conditions and explain whether the utterance is felicitous or not
- 3) decide whether the speech act is direct or indirect
  - a) Can you make your bed?
  - b) Have a safe journey.
  - c) Where do you live?
  - d) I wonder what happened to Mary.
  - e) I hear there's a fire in the next building.
  - f) Enjoy yourself
  - g) Can you people at the back hear me?
  - h) Is this the new dress you bought yesterday for 5000 SR?
  - i) Where is your book?
  - j) Where's the book?
  - k) I promise I'll come tonight.
  - l) I name this ship the queen Elizabeth.
  - m) Don't smoke.