

**НЕКОММЕРЧЕСКОЕ ОБРАЗОВАТЕЛЬНОЕ УЧРЕЖДЕНИЕ
УЧЕБНО-НАУЧНО-ПРОИЗВОДСТВЕННЫЙ КОМПЛЕКС
«МЕЖДУНАРОДНЫЙ УНИВЕРСИТЕТ КЫРГЫЗСТАНА»**

«СОГЛАСОВАНО»

Проректор по учебно-административной
работе НОУ УНПК «МУК»,
д.и.н., проф. Мусакызы Алина

« 16 » 10 2020 г.

«УТВЕРЖДЕНО»

Ректор НОУ УНПК «МУК»,
к.т.н., проф. Савченко Е.Ю.

« 19 » 10 2020 г.



УЧЕБНО-МЕТОДИЧЕСКИЙ КОМПЛЕКС

Название дисциплины: Дискурс и текст

Название и код направления подготовки: «531100» Лингвистика

Квалификация выпускника: Бакалавр

Форма обучения: Очная

Составитель (и): к.ф.н.доц Ибраимова Г.О., Касымова А

**График проведения модулей
7-семестр**

Недели	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
Лекц. зан.	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Прак.зан.	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	M1	1	1	1	1	1	1

«РАССМОТРЕНО»

На заседании кафедры

«Лингвистика»

НОУ УНПК «МУК»

Протокол № _____

от « ___ » _____ 20__ г.

Зав. каф, «Лингвистика»

к.ф.н., доц. Тургунова Г.А

«ОДОБРЕНО»

На заседании Учебно-методического

объединения НОУ УНПК «МУК»

Протокол № 5
от « 15 » _____ 20__ г.

Председатель Учебно-методического
объединения Матвеева Т.В

Директор Научной библиотеки

НОУ УНПК «МУК»

Асанова Ж.Ш

Бишкек 2020

**НЕКОММЕРЧЕСКОЕ ОБРАЗОВАТЕЛЬНОЕ УЧРЕЖДЕНИЕ
УЧЕБНО-НАУЧНО-ПРОИЗВОДСТВЕННЫЙ КОМПЛЕКС
«МЕЖДУНАРОДНЫЙ УНИВЕРСИТЕТ КЫРГЫЗСТАНА»**

«СОГЛАСОВАНО»

Проректор по учебно-административной
работе НОУ УНПК «МУК»,
д.и.н., проф. Муса кызы Алина

« ____ » _____ 2020 г.

«УТВЕРЖДЕНО»

Ректор НОУ УНПК «МУК»,
к.т.н., проф. Савченко Е.Ю.

« ____ » _____ 2020 г.

ОГЛАВЛЕНИЕ

Рабочая программа дисциплины	3
Аннотация	3
Учебно-методический комплекс дисциплины (модулей)	3
1. Пояснительная записка	3
1.1. Миссия и Стратегия	4
1.2. Цель и задачи дисциплины (модулей)	4
1.3. Формируемые компетенции, а также перечень планируемых (ожидаемых) результатов обучения по дисциплине (модулю) (знания, умения владения), сформулированные в компетентностном формате	4
1.4. Место дисциплины (модулей) в структуре основной образовательной программы	6
2. Структура дисциплины(модулей)	7
3. Содержание дисциплины (модулей)	8
4. Конспект лекций	10
5. Информационные и образовательные технологии	41
6. Фонд оценочных средств для текущего, рубежного и итогового контролей по итогам освоения дисциплины (модулей)	44
6.1. Перечень компетенций с указанием этапов их формирования в процессе освоения дисциплины	44
6.2. Методические материалы, определяющие процедуры оценивания знаний, умений, навыков и (или) опыта деятельности	45

6.3. Описание показателей и критериев оценивания компетенций на различных этапах их формирования, описание шкал оценивания	47
6.4. Контрольные задания или иные материалы, необходимые для оценки знаний, умений, навыков и (или) опыта деятельности	48
7. Учебно-методическое и информационное обеспечение дисциплины	49
7.1.Список источников и литературы	49
7.2. Перечень ресурсов информационно-телекоммуникационной сети «Интернет», необходимый для освоения дисциплины (модулей)	51
8. Перечень учебно-методического обеспечения для самостоятельной работы обучающихся	52
8.1. Планы практических (семинарских) и лабораторных занятий. Методические указания по организации и проведению	52
8.2. Методические указания для обучающихся, по освоению дисциплины (модулей)	53
8.3. Методические рекомендации по подготовке письменных работ	54
8.4. Иные материалы	55
9. Материально-техническое обеспечение дисциплины (модулей)	55
10. Глоссарий	55

РАБОЧАЯ ПРОГРАММА

АННОТАЦИЯ

В соответствии с рабочим планом дисциплина «Дискурс и текст» изучается на 4 году обучения. Общая трудоемкость освоения составляет 2 кредита в 7 семестре. Рабочая программа составлена в соответствии с Государственным образовательным стандартом высшего профессионального образования второго поколения и входит в перечень дисциплин базовой части профессионального цикла учебного плана по направлению подготовки по специальности 531100 –Лингвистика специализация: перевод переводоведение.

Программа и планы практических занятий включают как отечественные, так и зарубежные теоретические и практические достижения в области лингвистики и языкознания в целом и применительно к изучаемому языку. Содержание каждой темы может варьироваться в определенных пределах в зависимости от практического опыта обучаемых, качества их базовой подготовки, проявляемого интереса к тем или иным проблемам в связи с профессиональными интересами и выполняемыми должностными обязанностями, в связи со всеми изменениями, происходящими в лингвистике.

УЧЕБНО-МЕТОДИЧЕСКИЙ КОМПЛЕКС ДИСЦИПЛИНЫ (МОДУЛЕЙ)

1. Пояснительная записка

Объектом дискурса и текста как науки является слово и словарный запас языка. Основное внимание в дискурсе и текста уделяется на основные факторы и закономерности развития слов и фразеологизмов, рассмотрение основных способов, средств и устройств пополнения словарного запаса.

Курс пытается установить связь между теорией дискурса и текста и реальностью живой речи, с одной стороны, и процессом изучения языка и преподавания языка, с другой стороны, никогда не упуская из виду тот факт, что большинство предполагаемых читателей являются преподавателями и студентами.

С целью активизации самостоятельной работы студентов и проверки их знаний, умений и навыков по практическому курсу первого иностранного языка в каждом семестре проводится защита учебных работ и итоговый рейтинговый контроль в форме экзамена.

1.1. Миссия и Стратегия

Миссия: «Подготовка международного-признанных, свободно мыслящих специалистов, открытых для перемен и способных трансформировать знания в ценности на благо развития общества»

Стратегия развития НОУ УНПК «МУК» - создание динамичного и креативного университета с инновационными научно-образовательными программами и с современной инфраструктурой, способствующие достижению академических и профессиональных целей.

1.2. Цели и задачи дисциплины

Целями освоения дисциплины "Дискурс и текст" на 4 курсе являются описание словарного состава современного английского языка в теоретически обобщенном и систематизированном виде.

Основными задачами курса являются:

- ознакомление студентов с теоретическими основами предмета, существующими трактовками основных проблем в сфере словарного состава, с методами лингвистического анализа, используемыми в лексикологии;
- развитие критического
- осмысления существующих теорий на основе использования общих принципов лингвистики, что является необходимым компонентом подготовки к будущей самостоятельной рабочей деятельности молодого специалиста;

Дискурс и текст английского языка принадлежит к кругу дисциплин, основной целью которых является описание либо языкового строя в целом, либо отдельных его уровней в свете современных концепций науки о языке.

Цель и задачи курса определяют следующие требования к знаниям и умениям студентов:

- иметь понятие о структуре и тематике курса

- знать методы и приемы работы со словарным составом языка,
- знать значение терминов, употребляемых в различных теориях
- уметь работать со словарями различных типов

1.3 Формируемые компетенции, а также перечень планируемых результатов обучения по дисциплине (модулю) (знания, умения владения), сформулированные в компетентностном формате.

Дисциплина «Дискурс и текст» направлена на формирование следующих компетенций:

- ОК-3 приобретает новые знания с большой степенью самостоятельности, используя современные и информационные технологии.
- ОК-5 анализирует и оценивает социально-экономические и культурные последствия новых явлений в науке, технике и технологии, профессиональной сфере.
- ОК-6 способен на научной основе оценивать свой труд, анализировать с большой степенью самостоятельности результаты своей деятельности .

инструментальными (ИК) (код и содержание):

- ИК-1 способен к восприятию, обобщению и анализу информации, постановке цели и выбору путей их достижения.
- ИК-5 владеет основными методами, способами и средствами получения, хранения и переработки информации, навыками работы с компьютером как средством управления информацией, в том числе в глобальных компьютерных сетях и корпоративных информационных системах.

социально-личностными и общекультурными (СЛК):

- СЛК-1 готов к социальному взаимодействию на основе принятых в обществе моральных и правовых норм, проявляет уважение к людям, толерантность к другой культуре, готовность к поддержанию партнерских отношений.
- СЛК-2 умеет критически оценивать свои достоинства и недостатки, намечает пути и выбирает средства развития достоинств и устранения недостатков

профессиональными (ПК) (код и содержание):

- ПК-1 владеет системой лингвистических знаний, включающей в себя знание основных фонетических, лексических, грамматических, словообразовательных явлений и закономерностей функционирования изучаемого иностранного языка, его функциональных разновидностей.
- ПК-4 владеет методикой пред переводческим анализом текста, способствующей точному восприятию исходного высказывания.
- ПК-5 владеет методикой подготовки к выполнению перевода, включая поиск информации в справочной, специальной литературе и компьютерных сетях.

- ПК-6 знает основные способы достижения эквивалентности в переводе и умеет применять основные приемы перевода.
- ПК-7 осуществляет письменный перевод с соблюдением норм лексической эквивалентности, соблюдением грамматических, синтаксических и стилистических норм.
- ПК-9 умеет реферировать и аннотировать письменные тексты.
- ПК-10 умеет быстро переключается с одного рабочего языка на другой.
- ПК-18 умеет работать с основными информационно-поисковыми и экспертными системами, системами представления знаний, синтаксического и морфологического анализа, автоматического синтеза и распознавания речи, обработки лексикографической информации и автоматизированного перевода, автоматизированными системами идентификации и верификации личности.
- ПК-20 владеет стандартными способами решения основных типов задач в области лингвистического обеспечения информационных и других прикладных систем.
- ПК-21 умеет работать с электронными словарями и другими электронными ресурсами для решения лингвистических задач.

В результате освоения дисциплины выпускник должен:

Знать:

- основные способы достижения эквивалентности в переводе и применять основные приемы перевода (ПК-6);

Уметь:

- производить морфологический анализ слова, вычленять семы в структуре значения слова, группировать слова по сходству значения и по сходству формы.
- быстро переключается с одного рабочего языка на другой (ПК-10);

Владеть:

- целостной системой научных знаний об окружающем мире, способен ориентироваться в ценностях жизни, культуры (ОК-1);
- системой лингвистических знаний, включающей в себя знание основных фонетических, лексических, грамматических, словообразовательных явлений и закономерностей функционирования изучаемого иностранного языка, его функциональных разновидностей (ПК-1);
- основными способами выражения семантической, коммуникативной и структурной преобладности между частями высказывания - композиционными элементами текста (введение, основная часть, заключение), сверхфразовыми единствами, предложениями (ПК-2);

- методикой предпереводческого анализа текста, способствующей точному восприятию исходного высказывания (ПК-4);

1.4. Место дисциплины в структуре основной и образовательной программы

Дисциплина «Дискурс и текст» представляет собой дисциплину профессионального цикла вариативной части бакалавриатской программы «Перевод и переводоведение». Профессиональный цикл. Базовая дисциплина государственного образовательного стандарта высшего профессионального образования по направлению 531100 Лингвистика, занимает ведущее место, являясь одной из профилирующих фундаментальных дисциплин по подготовке бакалавров.

Дисциплина базируется на таких вузовских дисциплинах профессионального цикла, как «Практический курс первого иностранного языка», «Практический курс второго иностранного языка», «Практикум по культуре речевого общения первого иностранного языка», «Практикум по культуре речевого общения второго иностранного языка», «Теорию перевода», «Практический курс перевода первого иностранного языка», «Практический курс перевода второго иностранного языка», «Введение в теорию межкультурной коммуникации», которые читаются на 1-4 курсах бакалавриата.

2. Структура дисциплины (модулей)

Структура дисциплины для очной формы обучения

Изучение курса «Дискурс и текст» предусматривает 2 кредита в 7 семестре (общ. 60 часов), соответствующий к общим целям ГОС ВПО.

Распределение трудоемкости дисциплины по видам учебной работы:

Общая трудоемкость дисциплины – 60 ч

Аудиторные занятия – 32 ч

Лекции-16

Семинарские -16

СРСП - 10 ч

СРС – 18 ч

в том числе: самостоятельное изучение отдельных тем модулей, подготовка к промежуточной аттестации и рубежному контролю – экзамену.

№ n/n	Раздел, Темы Дисциплины	Семестр	Неделя семестра	Виды учебной работы, включая самостоятельную работу студентов и трудоемкость (в часах)				Формы текущего контроля успеваемости (по неделям семестра) Форма промежуточной аттестации (по семестрам)
				Лекц ии	Сем. зан.	СРС	СРС П	
1	Text and discourse in the context of linguistic studies	7	1	1	1	1	-	Asking questions, doing exercises
2	Text and discourse in the context of linguistic studies history	7	2	1	1	1	1	Asking questions, doing exercises
3	Discourse Analysis	7	3	1	1	2	1	Asking questions, doing exercises
4	Some Major Concepts in Discourse Analysis	7	4	1	1	1	1	Asking questions, doing exercises
5	Kinds of Discourse	7	5	1	1	1	1	Asking questions, doing exercises
6	Approaches to discourse analysis	7	6	1	1	1	1	Asking questions, doing exercises
7	Approaches to discourse analysis	7	7	1	1	1	1	Asking questions, doing exercises
8	Linguistic Anthropology	7	8	1	1	1	1	Asking questions, doing exercises
	Модуль №1 Письменная работа (Тест)							
9	Linguistic Anthropology	7	9	1	1	1	1	Asking questions, doing exercises
10	Approaches to discourse analysis 1) Information Structure / Thematic Structure. 2) Thematic Progression. 3) The Birmingham School Approach	7	10	1	1	1		Asking questions, doing exercises
11	Thematic Progression	7	11	1	1	1		Asking questions, doing

								exercises
12	Approaches to discourse analysis 1) Text Linguistics 2) Grammatical Cohesion. 3) Lexical Cohesion	7	12	1	1	2	1	Asking questions, doing exercises
13	Grammatical Cohesion	7	13	1	1	1		Asking questions, doing exercises
14	Unit Objectives.	7	14	1	1	1		Asking questions, doing exercises
15	Speech Acts Theory	7	15	1	1	1	1	Asking questions, doing exercises
	Модуль №2 Письменная работа (Тест)							
16	Politeness in Conversation	7	16	1	1	1		Asking questions, doing exercises
	Итого		16	16	16	18	10	

3. Содержание дисциплины. Содержание дисциплины состоит из разделов, соответствующих структуре дисциплины, подразделов и отдельных тем с той степенью подробности, которая, по мнению преподавателя-составителя, оптимально способствуют достижению цели и реализации поставленных задач.

	Themes for study	
1	Text and discourse in the context of linguistic studies	The term «lexicology» is of Greek origin / from «lexis» - «word» and «logos» - «science»/. Lexicology is the part of linguistics, which deals with the vocabulary and characteristic features of words and word-groups. The term «vocabulary» is used to denote the system of words and word-groups that the language possesses.
2	Text and discourse in the context of linguistic studies history	Three main periods. They are: Old English, Middle English and New English or Modern English.

3	Discourse Analysis	Borrowing words from other languages has always been one of the important means of replenishing of the English vocabulary. There are many words in English that are of foreign origin. The language from which the loan word was taken into English is called the source of borrowing.
4	Some Major Concepts in Discourse Analysis	The main unit of the lexical system of a language resulting from the association of a group of sounds with a meaning is a word. This unit is used in grammatical functions characteristic of it. It is the smallest language unit which can stand alone as a complete utterance.
5	Kinds of Discourse	Affixation is one of the most productive ways of word-building throughout the history of English. It consists in adding an affix to the stem of a definite part of speech. Affixation is divided into suffixation and prefixation.
6	Approaches to discourse analysis	Word Composition is the way of wordbuilding when a word is formed by joining two or more stems to form one word.
7	Approaches to discourse analysis	Conversion is a characteristic feature of the English word-building system. It is also called affixless derivation or zero-suffixation. The term «conversion» first appeared in the book by Henry Sweet «New English Grammar» in 1891.
8	Linguistic Anthropology	In the process of communication, words and word-groups can be shortened. The causes of shortening can be linguistic and extra-linguistic.
9	Linguistic Anthropology	Blending is the process of combining parts of two words to form one word. It refers to joining the beginning of one word and the end of another to make a new word with a new meaning. Sound imitation is formation of words from sounds that resemble those associated with the object or action to be named or that seem suggestive of its qualities.

10	Approaches to discourse analysis 1) Information Structure / Thematic Structure. 2) Thematic Progression. 3) The Birmingham School Approach	Sound interchange is the way of word building when some sounds are changed to form a new word. It is non-productive in Modern English; it was productive in Old English and can be met in other Indo-European languages.
11	Thematic Progression	It is the way of word-building when a word is formed by dropping the final morpheme to form a new word. It is opposite to suffixation that is why it is called back formation.
12	Approaches to discourse analysis 1) Text Linguistics 2) Grammatical Cohesion. 3) Lexical Cohesion	The part of Lexicology, which studies the meaning, and the development of meaning of words is called Semasiology . There are different approaches to the problem of word meaning in modern Semasiology: the referential or denotational approach; functional or contextual approach; and the new cognitive approach.
13	Grammatical Cohesion	The meaning of a word can change in the course of time. Changes of lexical meanings can be proved by comparing contexts of different times. Transfer of the meaning is called lexico-semantic word-building. In such cases the outer aspect of a word does not change.
14	Unit Objectives.	The word « polysemy » means «plurality of meanings» it exists only in the language, not in speech. A word which has more than one meaning is called polysemantic.
15	Speech Acts Theory	The vocabulary of a language is enriched not only by words but also by phraseological units. Phraseological units are word-groups that cannot be made in the process of speech, they exist in the language as ready-made units. They are compiled in special dictionaries.
16	Politeness in Conversation	The theory and practice of compiling dictionaries is called lexicography. The history of compiling dictionaries for English comes as far back as the Old English period, where we can find glosses of religious books / interlinear translations from Latin into English.

4. Краткий конспект лекций.

Lecture 1. Text and discourse in the context of linguistic studies

In the late twentieth century, numerous studies were conducted by Michel Foucault, Michael Halliday, Teun A. van Dijk, Robert de Beaugrande, Ernesto Laclau, Chantal Mouffe,

Wallace Chafe, Norman Fairclough, and other researchers on text and discourse, their nature and relations to the individual, knowledge, and society, and their social, semiotic, pragmatic, and cognitive aspects. In fact, by considering discourse as an object of study, those philosophers, semioticians, linguists, and sociologists fulfilled a very important mission: they managed to secure the future development of certain crucial aspects of each of these disciplines, sometimes even leading to their survival, and ultimately laying out the foundation of two new disciplines (discourse analysis and critical discourse analysis or critical discourse studies). It should be noted that there is a terminological difference between critical discourse analysis and critical discourse studies, as is highlighted by van Dijk (2016, 63):

This chapter introduces the sociocognitive approach in Critical Discourse Studies (CDS) more traditionally called critical discourse analysis (CDA). I avoid the term CDA because it suggests that it is a method of discourse analysis, and not a critical perspective or attitude in the field of discourse studies (DS) using many different methods of humanities and social sciences.

We can divide the history of the views and studies on text and discourse into two formal periods: the first period starts with the introduction of the *langue* vs. *parole* dichotomy by De Saussure (2000, 141) and ends with the views of Foucault on the relationship between knowledge and discourse (Foucault, 1972); the second period, starting with Foucault, is still underway. The first period is characterized by researches of the French-speaking followers of De Saussure, as well as works in the English-speaking linguistic tradition (Harris 1952). In general, “discourse” and “parole” were used in the French-speaking structuralist tradition (Benveniste 1954, Barthes 1970, etc.) to identify speech.

Lecture 2. Text and discourse in the context of linguistic studies. History

Meanwhile, the approach to discourse in the English-speaking tradition was quite different, as “discourse” was mostly used along with “text” to identify a stretch of language larger than a sentence (Harris 1952). This trend in the English-speaking linguistic tradition lasted until the late 1980s and early 1990s.

Despite the differences in views regarding the role and importance of text in discourse studies, not only linguists but also some philosophers and psychologists consider text (from semiotic perspectives) as an important element of discourse. (Barthes 1970). In text linguistics, a certain element of confusion was clarified by Enkvist (1989, 372): “discourse means text + context, where context contains a situational component.”

Thus, we can come to such simplistic conclusion that there is no discourse without text and context. Despite the obvious difficulties in identifying a clear difference between text and discourse (it sometimes causes the synthesis of text linguistics and the grammar of text with discourse analysis), the abovementioned definition helps to understand the difference. Text is a final product or final result, whereas discourse is a process of text construction. As we can see, text can be studied as the real product of certain activity, while discourse is more complex. If we want to study it we have to reveal the idea and intention of the sender, that is to say it is necessary to define presuppositions hidden behind the explicit linguistic form.

This trend of the treatment of text and discourse as two different phenomena has thus gained momentum in text linguistics and discourse studies. Any discourse implies the existence of text (linguistic or belonging to different semiotic systems), whereas not all texts (for example, ancient texts) can be treated as discourse.

The abovementioned issue of the terminological differences between text and discourse caused the emergence of another serious problem that requires an explicit answer to the following question: what is the difference between text linguistics and discourse analysis?

Lecture 3. Discourse Analysis: An Introduction

What is Discourse?

DA has a very strong link with many other disciplines other than language and this affects the way scholars see the discipline. In this section, we shall examine some views of DA. Before trying to define DA, it is important to define the term discourse. Originally the word 'discourse' comes from Latin 'discursus' which denoted 'conversation, speech'. Discourse is generally seen as "language in use." Johnstone (2002: 2) defines discourse as "actual instances of communication in the medium of language." Discourse can also be seen as a continuous stretch of spoke or written language larger than a sentence, often constituting a coherent unit (Pustejovsky 2006). It is also commonly referred to as connected speech or writing. The term discourse has several definitions. In the study of language, discourse often refers to the speech patterns and usage of language, dialects, and acceptable statements, within a community. It is a subject of study in peoples who live in secluded areas and share similar speech conventions. Johnson defines discourse as an institutionalized way of speaking that determines not only what we say and how we say it, but also what we do not say which can be inferred from what we say. Initially the term refers to speech, but later, its meaning extends beyond speech to include every instance of language use.

Sociologists and philosophers tend to use the term discourse to describe the conversations and the meaning behind them by a group of people who hold certain ideas in common. Such is the definitions by philosopher Michel Foucault, who holds discourse to be the acceptable statements made by a certain type of discourse community.

For linguists, discourse is an extended stretch of language, such as we find in conversations, narratives, polemical statements, political speeches, etc., is not just a string of sentences, one following the other, but rather it exhibits properties which reflect its organization, coherence, rhetorical force, thematic focus, etc.

What is Discourse Analysis

DA is generally viewed as language above the sentence or the clause. It is the aspect of linguistics that is concerned with how we build up meaning in larger communicative, rather than grammatical units. It studies meaning in text, paragraph and conversation, rather than in single sentence. Stubbs (1983:1) describes DA thus: The term discourse analysis is very ambiguous. I will use it in this book to refer mainly to the linguistic analysis of naturally occurring connected speech or written discourse. Roughly speaking, it refers to attempts to study the organization of language above the sentence or above the clause, and therefore to study larger linguistic units, such as conversational exchanges or written texts. It follows that discourse analysis is also concerned with language use in social contexts, and in particular with interaction or dialogue between speakers. Brown and Yule (1983) observe that DA examines "how addressers construct linguistic messages for addressees and how addressees work on linguistic messages in order to interpret them." From this description of DA by Stubbs, we can gather some important information about the discipline:

(a) DA studies naturally-occurring connected speech or written discourse

(b) DA studies language above the sentence or clause

(c) DA is concerned with language use in social context

Every instance of language use is situated in a particular social context, which determines the kind of meaning communicated. There are contextual features that shape the kind of language people use. These include: the interactants themselves, their discourse roles, the physical environment of the discourse, the worldview and cultural practices in the domain of the discourse, and so forth. DA looks at the language together with these features in order to interpret meaning. This is why any good DA will generate data based on observation and intuition of the language users. Discourse analysts analyze conversations (casual, telephone, gossip, etc), speeches (campaigns, formal speeches delivered by political figures, etc), written discourse (novels, plays, news, written speeches, editorials, etc). Discourse analysis is concerned not only with complex utterances by one speaker, but more frequently with the turn-taking interaction between two or more, and with the linguistic rules and conventions that are taken to be in play and governing such discourses in their given context. The overall goal of any DA is to explain how language users construct and interpret meaning in discourse.

Lecture 4: Some Major Concepts in Discourse Analysis

Text

Speech and writing are the primary medium of language use. A text is an instance of language in use. It ranges from a word to a large chunk of language. Sometimes, people associate text with just written language, but text is any instance of language use. A text could be a statement, an utterance, a sentence, a paragraph, a whole chapter, a news item, a conversation, and so forth. One aspect of Linguistics that studies written text is called Text linguistics. Text linguistics tends to focus on the patterns of how information flows within and among sentences by looking at aspects of texts like coherence, cohesion, the distribution of topics and comments, and other discourse structures. Much as syntax is concerned with the structure of sentences, text linguistics is concerned with the structure of texts. One of the criteria of a text identified by Halliday and Hasan (1976) is that it must form “a unified whole.” A text may be spoken, written, prose, or verse, dialogue, or monologue. It may be anything from a proverb to a whole play, from a momentary cry for help to an all-day discussion on a committee (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 1). A text is best regarded as a semantic unit. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), a text has a texture and this is what distinguishes it from something that is not a text. It derives its texture from the fact that it functions as a unity with respect to its context.

Context

The word context is a commonly used expression, which may mean different things to different people. Its general meaning is the set of facts that surrounds a particular event or situation. From the linguistic point of view, context is everything that surrounds the production of a piece of communication. These include the physical situation in which the communication takes place, the interactants or interlocutors, the knowledge of the communicators of their cultural norms and expected behaviour, and the expressions that precede and follow a particular expression. All these features of context help language speakers to interpret meaning appropriately. Linguists are particularly interested in the linguistic context of any form of language use

Speech and Writing

Speech and writing are the primary medium of language use. Speech however is the oldest form of language use and writing is said to be a derived form of speech. The fact that there are still a good number of languages that do not have any written form is a pointer to the fact that speech predates language in human history. Gestures are also forms of language, but they are seen by linguists as primarily complementing speech. There is a branch of Linguistics that studies signs, and this branch is called Semiotics.

In this section, we shall look through some of the features of speech and writing and how they are studied in Discourse Analysis. Speech is the primary medium of human communication. It can be said to be as old as human existence. Children automatically learn to speak because there is an inbuilt mechanism in humans that makes them to acquire whichever language is spoken in their immediate environment. Most people speak more than they write, because every human society builds relationships through speech. Speech simply refers to oral medium of transmission of language. It is the meaningful oral sound produced through the use of our respiratory, phonatory and articulatory system and perceived by our auditory system. Humans express thoughts, feelings, and ideas orally to one another through a series of complex articulation, which results in specific, decodable sounds. Speech is produced by precisely coordinated muscle actions in the head, neck, chest, and abdomen. Speech development is a gradual process that requires years of practice. During this process, a child learns how to regulate these muscles to produce understandable speech. Speech is spontaneous, so it is characterized by repetitions of speech sounds, hesitations before and during communication, and the prolonged emphasis of speech sounds. Speech, especially a casual one is susceptible to errors or slips, hence the expression “slip of the tongue.” This occurs when we say things we do not intend to say. Speakers many times self-correct their speech, when they are aware that they did not produce the correct utterance. People’s origin and identity are very often recognized from their speech. They either speak with a particular accent or intonation. Most times when people speak, one is able to identify their social roles and gender. Speech is transient and time bound which basically means that when someone speaks to you, it doesn’t really stay in your memory for that long which gives it a disadvantage. Certain human behaviours aid speech. They include body language, gesture and facial expressions and people use these modes without even realizing it. Speaking is as fundamental a part of being human as walking upright but writing is an optional extra. Writing, on the other hand is a product of a more careful thought, so it is expected as much as possible to be flawless. It is not a spontaneous act rather it is a well thought out process. Children have to be taught how to write any particular language, even their mother tongue. Unlike speech that uses the medium of phonic substance, writing uses the medium of graphic substance. Written words can be chosen with greater deliberation and thought, and a written argument can be extraordinarily sophisticated, intricate, and lengthy. These attributes of writing are possible because the pace of involvement is controlled by both the writer and the reader. The writer can write and rewrite at great length, a span of time, which in some cases can be measured in years. In writing, there is a time lag between the production and reception, while in speech, the reception is instant and extralinguistic cues help the listener to interpret. Writing is more associated with formality than speech. The chances are that we write more often to people we are less familiar with than the ones we are familiar.

Lecture 5: Kinds of Discourse

Types of Discourse:

1. Spoken Discourse

A spoken discourse is any discourse that is verbalized or spoken. It is also generally referred to as speech. Every language is spoken, so every social activity we are involved in where speech is used is referred to as spoken discourse. Some examples of spoken discourse are: casual conversation, sermon, political campaign, symposium, public lecture, classroom discourse, doctor-patient discourse, telephone exchange, service encounter, sports commentaries, etc. Though a spoken discourse is essentially verbal, certain non-verbal behaviour helps speakers to interpret the discourse. They include, our facial gestures, body movements and other sounds uttered that are not necessarily regarded as speech. Spoken discourse takes place in different forms. We have face-to-face discourse in which the speakers are together physically. Apart from this, we have distance communication, in which though the speakers are not necessarily together physically, they are still able to transmit their voice through some other media like: radio, telephone, and so forth.

a) Monologue

Monologue refers to a speech situation in which an individual is doing the talking for a long time either to himself or to other people who are not responding. The Wikipedia Dictionary defines monologue as “an extended, uninterrupted speech by one person only. The person may be speaking his or her thoughts aloud or directly addressing other persons, e.g. an audience, a character, or a reader.” Many times, we get carried away that we express our thoughts aloud even when they are not really addressing some specific people. Monologue is also used in drama to make the audience or readers to know the thought of a character. This is often referred to as dramatic monologue. However, a dramatic monologue is also called a soliloquy when it refers to a lengthy talk in which a character, alone on stage, expresses his or her thoughts aloud. Soliloquy is often used to reveal thoughts or feelings that is delivered by a character in a play to him or herself, or directly to the audience.

b) Dialogue

A general definition of dialogue is “a conversation between two persons” A dialogue is a discourse that involves 2 or more interlocutors. The roots of the word Dialogue can be traced to the Greek "dia" and "logos" which means "through meaning." In a dialogue, there is an exchange of ideas by the participants. Dialogues have some socio-cultural characteristics, such as the participants listening while the person who has the floor is speaking, respect for differences, with the believe that everyone has an essential contribution to make and is to be honored for the perspective which only they can bring equality of perspectives, and minimization of interruption as much as possible. A dialogue is not just a situation in which two or more people are interacting, it is a skillful exchange or interaction between people with shared understanding based on their cultural practice and shared world-view. For two or more people to be involved in a dialogue successfully, they must be able to share some sort of understanding about the Topic in focus.

c) Multilogue

Multilogue refers to a situation in which too many people are engaged in conversation at the same time. This may refer to the situation in which many conversations are happening at one time within a chatroom. The term is also more commonly used to describe a situation in which many interactants communicate using the aid computer mediated forms, such as online video, message boards, forums, etc.

d) Conversation

Conversation simply refers to the use of speech for exchange of ideas by two or more people. A conversation may be formal or informal. This is determined by the kind of relationship that exists between the people involved. People involved in a conversation are referred to as conversationalists or to use a more technical term interlocutors. A conversation is built on certain conventions, such as:

- the people involved do share some common grounds, such as a culture, a belief or norm,
- their conversation is guided by these culture, norms and beliefs
- the people know that ideas are being shared, so no one dominates, except they are allowed by convention or the conversationalists,
- the conversationalists respect one another's views despite their differences

The whole idea of conversation is based on the understanding that turns have to be taken. We shall soon come to deal more extensively with the term turn taking in conversation.

2. Written Discourse

A written discourse is any discourse in which the thoughts of the producer are represented graphically on a surface, such as paper and other media. Initially in the study of discourse analysis, written discourse was not considered. The attention then was on the spoken discourse. Written discourse as we have seen earlier is quite different from spoken discourse. It is more carefully constructed and gives a lot of room for correction and possible reconstruction.

3. Interpersonal Discourse

Interpersonal discourse is the kind of discourse that involves two or more person. One of the commonest forms of interpersonal discourse is a conversation. If you will remember, we earlier dealt with conversation. Interpersonal communication is not restricted to face to face communication, it may also be a feature of written or even distance communication, eg, telephone discourse, letters, communication through electronic media, such as e-mail, mobile phones, SMS texts and so forth. Interpersonal communication may not necessarily be verbal. They can also be non-verbal, using movements and body positions, such as kinesics, posture, gesture, eye gaze, etc. It is important that every human being possess the skills for interpersonal discourse. Such skills help them to build, manage and sustain intimate relationships with other people around them. Interpersonal discourse skills also help us to counsel, negotiate for prices in the market, teach or coach, mentor others and manage conflicts in our relationships and other people's relationships.

Lecture 6. Approaches to discourse analysis (Ethnomethodological Research)

What is Ethnomethodology?

Ethnomethodology is a blend of the words Ethnography and methodology. It is a branch of Anthropology, which studies people in their environment. Methodology simply refers to the way of doing things. The major focus is the cultural behaviour of the people and the methods involved in doing a particular thing. The term Ethnomethodology is a sociological term, which describes a discipline that studies how people make sense of their world. How they are able to understand one another to the extent that they are able to exist in an orderly social context.

Ethnomethodological approach was developed by a sociologist named Harold Garfinkel. The approach looks at the organization of practical actions and reasoning, the organization of talk-in-interaction. Ethnomethodologists are concerned primarily with Ethnomethodology which is concerned with the how (the methods) by which social order is produced, and shared. One thing that is of central concern to ethnomethodologist is “context.” Their focus is always on the ways in which words are dependent for their meaning on the context in which they are used.

Ethnomethodology is concerned basically with the following:

- The organization of practical actions and practical reasoning: This was the concern of earliest ethnomethodologists
- The organization of talk-in-interaction: This is known in modern times as Conversational Analysis. We shall be looking at this late in this unit.
- Talk-in-interaction within institutional or organizational settings: this is basically concerned with interactional structures that are specific to particular settings.
- The study of work: The study of any social activity within the setting in which it is performed

Language and the Social World

Language is an essential part of the human social structure. Everyday, we use it actively to create and shape the world through social interaction. Every language operates in a social world. Speakers, as part of a society, rely on a corpus of practical knowledge, which they assumed is shared, at least partly with others. This is why a group of linguists, generally referred to as Functionalists, see language as a social activity being performed in a social world. The primary concern of such linguists, who belong to the schools of Sociolinguistics, Systemic Functional Linguistics, Discourse Analysis, Text Linguistics, Critical Discourse Analysis, and so forth is that language is context-dependent and the general context is the world we live in, while the specific contexts are the contexts of a particular usage. Context here includes the knowledge of the speaker of his/her world, the culture, values, expectations and norms. One way in which language is believed to influence our understanding of social reality goes back to the ideas of Edward Sapir and Benjamin Lee Whorf. The Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis stresses that we view and perceive our world in terms of our language. It also stresses that the social reality we experience is unique to our language, since no two languages/cultures shares exactly the same social reality. This is why oftentimes terms for specific phenomena in languages do not have precise counterparts in other languages. What we have discussed in this section is really an important guiding principle for our approach to the analysis of discourse. We can only analyze any particular discourse effectively if we situate it within the social context or domain of its use. And this will take into consideration a lot of factors such as, the interlocutors, their role relationships in discourse, the mode of discourse. All these are used to create the text that will fit appropriately into the social world of the language users.

Conducting Ethnomethodological Research

Ethnomethodological research has its own peculiar characteristics. An ethnomethodological research is often referred to as a qualitative research. The goal of a researcher using this approach is to understand local knowledge and practices relating to the daily life of the people being investigated. Therefore, ethnomethodologists do not just conduct their research from a distance. They participate in the life of the people and observe daily interactions among them in formal and informal conversations among the groups and individuals. This method of doing

research is called participant observation method, and the researcher is called a participant-observer. The traditional method of doing research that distances the researcher from his field has been observed to be characterized by normative descriptions. Scholars working from the perspective of seeing language as a social phenomenon have emphasized the importance of an interaction between the researcher and the community. This makes the outcome to be that in which the researcher is present in the text. This is more authentic than the traditional research method.

Ethnomethodological research demands that the researcher reside in the community he or she is investigating to facilitate his/her interaction with the people. So, it involves months and years of fieldwork. It is usually an in depth study of the historical, demographical and cultural norms of the people alongside with the specific issue being investigated. One can summarize the features of an ethnomethodological research as follows:

- It involves the study of naturally occurring phenomena in their setting
- It involves social interaction with the community within their social context
- It involves data collection and analysis that takes place at the micro level
- It involves discovery through interaction
- It involves the study of the local knowledge, ie: identifying terms, concepts and logic used by individuals and the group to talk about specific subjects

Lecture 7. Approaches to discourse analysis (Conversational Analysis)

What is Conversational Analysis?

Conversational Analysis (CA) is an approach to discourse analysis that is concerned with the study of talk in interaction. The major aim of CA is to describe how conversationalists achieve orderliness in their interaction. It studies how interactions are structured in a sequential manner. CA studies any instance of talk, which may include institutional discourse, such as, classroom discourse between the teacher and the students, doctor-patient interaction, courtroom discourse, courtroom discourse. It also studies routine or casual conversation. CA was a method introduced by Emmanuel Schegloff, Harvey Sacks and Gail Jefferson in the early 1970s. It was inspired by Ethnomethodology. CA has now become an established force in sociology, anthropology, linguistics, speech-communication and psychology.

Turn Taking and Turn Allocation

Turn taking is a general feature of conversation. It has been observed that people involved in a conversation do not just talk in a disorderly manner. A person speaks and after his turn, another person takes the floor. It is not normal in a conversation for one person to speak all the time while others just listen. It is also the case that people are aware when it is their turn to speak. There are some clues to when a speaker's turn has finished and when another speaker should commence talk. Turn taking is a basic characteristic of any normal conversation. Speakers and listeners change their roles in order to begin their speech (Coulthard, 1985: 59). Turn taking mechanisms may vary between cultures and languages. Scholars have identified a set of rules that govern turn taking in discourse. These are:

- When the current speaker selects the next speaker, the next speaker has the right to and is obliged to commence the turn

- If the current speaker does not select the next speaker, any one of the speakers has the right to self-select and become the next speaker
- If neither the next speaker selects the next speaker nor the next speaker self-selects, the current speaker may resume his or her turn Sacks, Schegloff and Jefferson (1974:704)

There are signals to turn taking that are called turn-eliciting signals. We have the Turn Construction Unit (TCU), which is the fundamental segment of speech in conversation. It describes pieces of conversation, which may comprise an entire turn. The end of a TCU, called a Transition Relevance Place (TRP), which marks a point where the turn may be go to another speaker, or the present speaker may continue with another TCU. The change of turn occurs only in the TRP. TRP is the possible structural completion point of one-word, lexicon, phrase, clause or full sentence. There are other signals to turn taking. The dominant referring tone, the interrogative functions of tones and phatic questions serve a role in turn taking. For instance, a speaker may use a rising tone rather than a fall-rise tone in ending a sentence to hold his turn by underlining his/her present status as the dominant speaker. This indicates that the speaker expects to be allowed to go on without an interruption. Story tellers are fond of using this continuative rising tone (Brazil, 1997:93). Other signals are, the last speaker's gaze direction, the last speaker calling the name of the next speaker, the last speaker aligning his body towards the next speaker, and so forth.

Self-assessment Exercise

Observe a conversation in a "home video" and identify the mechanisms for turn taking

Adjacency Pairs

Adjacency Pair is a unit of conversation that contains an exchange of one turn each by two speakers. The turns are so related to each other that the first turn requires a range of specific type of response in the second turn. It is a sequence that contains functionally related turns. Examples of adjacency pairs are Question – Answer Pair Q. When will you be home A. At 5 o'clock

Greeting – Greeting Pair

G. Good morning Bola. G: Good morning.

Request – Acceptance/Rejection

R: Can I use your pen for one minute. A: Yes, please have it/ R: I am sorry. It's the only one I have

Inform – Acknowledgement

I: You have to see the head of department before he leaves for the Senate meeting at 4. A: Okay.

Apology – Acceptance/Rejection

App.: I am sorry, I could not make the appointment Acc.: That's okay, we can fix another time/
Rej.: You have no excuse. You just kept me waiting for nothing.

Congratulations – Thanks

C: Congratulations on your PhD. T: Oh, thanks

In an adjacency pair, the first pair part invites, constrains, and partially determines the meaning and range of possible second pair part. If somebody shouts “help”, it is an action not language that is required. If the exclamation is 'ouch', it is likely to elicit a question, 'What's the matter' which in turn starts off an adjacency pair, completed by, for example, 'I've cut my finger'. Adjacency pairs are normal in conversations, but sometimes they do not necessarily occur. Some instances may affect the flow of adjacency pair. For instance, if a person decides to ask another question after being asked a question, the flow is disrupted. This is called an insertion into what would have been a normal sequence of conversation. This is called insertion sequence. We shall treat this in the following section.

Insertion Sequences

An insertion sequence is a sequence of turns intervenes between the first and second parts of an adjacency pair. It is a kind of delay in which the response expected is not given, rather, an entirely different, though related response is given. Conversations usually occur in pairs, for instance we have question-answer, request-acceptance/rejection, invitation-acceptance/rejection, and so forth. For instance, let us see a conversation 1. Bola: When are you traveling back to London? 2. Uju: Why do you ask? 3. Bola: I would like to send you with a parcel to my auntie in Woolwich. 4. Uju: Okay, I will be going in a week's time. In this piece of conversation above, Bola asked a question and expects a direct answer. But turns 3 and 4 are together an insertion sequence, which separates the earlier question in turn 1 from the direct answer in turn 4, which comes later. Insertion sequences occur in situations when people do not want to provide a direct response to an elicitation until they are sure of the intention of the speaker as we can see in the conversation piece above.

Error and Repair Mechanisms

In conversation, we do not always say things the correct ways we desire to say them. When we did not say what we ought to say, we still have a way of saying them. This is called error repair.

Overlap in speeches

An overlap in speech occurs when two or more interlocutors are talking at the same time. It can also be described as occurrences of two or more participants trying to take their turns at the same time after the previous speaker had finished or is about to finish his turn. The real overlap occurs when the two participants start their turns simultaneously and none of them relinquishes the floor for the other. This is not always the case in a normal conversation. Earlier on we said that conversations are orderly, because speakers will naturally take turns. An overlap in speech may occur in any of the following situations:

- when a speaker deliberately comes in while another speaker is having turn,
- when a speaker thought another speaker had finished his/her turn and decided to come in.

Lecture 8. Linguistic Anthropology

Linguistic Anthropology:

Linguistic Anthropology is a branch of Anthropology. The focus of the discipline is on how language is used in various social contexts. It focuses on speech both ancient and contemporary ones. Linguistic anthropologists are interested in how many languages there are, how those languages are distributed across the world, and their contemporary and historical relationships. It

is also the study of the relationship between language and social relations. So, the concern of Linguistic Anthropology is the diachronic or historical, evolutionary, and internal structure of human languages in relation to the context. For instance, a linguistic anthropologist may decide to study the Etymology of names of places. This will require some historical data on the origin of those places. Linguistic anthropology is an interdisciplinary field. It draws a great deal from other, independently established disciplines and in particular from the two from which its name is formed: linguistics and anthropology. Linguistic anthropologists use traditional ethnographic methods such as participant-observation and work with native speakers to obtain local interpretive glosses of the communicative material they record. They also use elicitation techniques similar to those employed by typological linguists interested in grammatical patterns. Recently, these methods have been integrated with new forms of documentation of verbal practices developed in such fields as urban sociolinguistics discourse analysis, and conversation analysis. The advent of new technologies for the electronic recording of sounds and actions has broadened the range of phenomena that can be studied, increased our analytical sophistication, and, at the same time, multiplied the number of technical, political, and moral problems that a fieldworker must confront. As we enter this new technological era, it is imperative to develop a discursive arena in which to examine the pros and cons of the new tools within a general discussion of methodology for the study of human communicative behavior.

Speech community

Speech community is a group of speakers who use language in a distinct way generally accepted among them. This group of speakers may be located in the same area or situated in different locations. What is common to them is that they recognize a language or a dialect of a language as their standard means of communication.

The speech community is the locus of most sociolinguistic and anthropological linguistic research. Earliest attempts to identify speech communities date back to the Prague School notion of *sprechbond* or ‘speech bond’, which refers to “shared ways of speaking which goes beyond language boundaries.” They also talk about *sprachbond* “language bond”, which involves “relatedness at the level of linguistic forms” (Romaine, 1994: 23). Several scholars have defined of speech community in different ways. Below are some of the definitions. “The speech community is defined by the participation in a set of shared norms...which may be observed in behaviour and in the uniformity of abstract patterns of variation.” Labov (1972: 120 ff) “A speech community is made up of individuals who regard themselves as speaking the same language” Corder (1973: 53) “any human aggregate characterized by regular and frequent interaction by means of a shared body of verbal signs and set off from similar aggregates by significant differences in language usage”. Gumperz (1971: 101) “A community sharing rules for the conduct and interpretation of speech, and rules for the interpretation of at least one linguistic variety... A necessary primary term... it postulates the basis of description as a social, rather than a linguistic, entity.” Hymes (1972: 54 ff). “A speech community is a group of people who do not necessarily share the same language, but share a set of norms and rules for the use of language. The boundaries between speech communities are essentially social rather than linguistic... A speech community is not necessarily co-extensive with a language community.” Romaine (1994: 22).

Lecture 9. Linguistic Anthropology

Speech Situation/Event

A speech event is a communicative event with the main role of a speech component (planned, organized, controlled, socially significant), eg: meeting, conference, summit, wedding, funerals, elections, party, primaries. Any social activity in which speech is used can be seen as a speech event or situation.

Self-assessment Exercises

Explain the differences between the following kinds of speech community:

- a geographical speech community
- a social speech community
- a virtual speech community

Ethnography of Speaking

The term Ethnography of speaking was originally formulated by Dell Hymes in 1962 to describe what happens whenever we engage in communication through speech. Since the use of the term by Hymes, it has been developed to be known as a method in the social approach to language, which draws on the anthropological field of Ethnography to explain how we communicate our experiences in our cultures. The concept was redefined in 1964 as Ethnography of Communication to include the two major means of communication: speech and writing. Any speech event can be seen as comprising several components, and the analysis of these is a major aspect of an ethnography of speaking. Seven types of component or factor can be discerned. Every speech event involves: Setting/scene This refers to the time when a speech takes place and place. Scene does not only refer to the physical scene, but also the psychological setting. This includes the nature of the communication, the degree of its formality, which is determined by the institutionalized cultural way of behaving when engaged in such kind of communication. For instance, there are ways a priest is expected to behave when conducting a service. Informal interactions are less rule-governed when compared to formal ones. Participants This refers to the speaker and his/her audience in any particular speech situation. The speaker is the person who is performing a speech act. He/she may be informing, directing, or eliciting some form of behaviour from his/her audience. The audience is the people involved in the speech situation, usually, they are being addressed by the speaker. Participants do not have to be physically present before the speaker. There instances of communication in which the speaker is far away from the participants, eg: news, telephone, e-mail, and so forth. Ends This refers to the purpose, goal or outcome of the communication. For instance a goal might be to educate as in the speech situation involving a teacher and his/her students; to entertain, as in a comedian and his/her audience; to promote a view, as in a political campaign, an advertisement, etc. Act Sequence Every even has a form and an order it follows. This is what is being referred to here. There are always ways to order one's communication so that they can be meaningful to the other participants. For instance, a story usually starts with the following phrase "once upon a time", "a long time ago", in the year _____", and so forth. This is the point of departure and it makes the communication a story. Every meeting starts with a greeting. This is particularly more prominent in formal presentations, where protocols are observed, that is, some people have to be recognized and greeted in a particular order (usually, the order of their status).

Lecture 10. Approaches to discourse analysis 1) Information Structure / Thematic Structure. 2) Thematic Progression. 3) The Birmingham School Approach

Information Structure

Information structure is all about how speakers arrange the information in their message. It is natural for the shared message to come before the one not known to the hearer. The shared message is usually found at the beginning of the clause and it is called the Given information. The other information is the focus of the speaker's message and it is referred to as the New information. The Given and the New information make up the information structure of the clause.

The Given

The Given information is the information that is known to both the speaker and the hearer. It is normally taken for granted that the listener(s) or reader(s) know the information. So the speaker takes off from that point to supply the new information. For example:

My younger son travelled to the USA yesterday

In the sentence above, it is assumed that the hearer knows who the younger son is, so the speaker does not have to mention the name or use any descriptive term beyond the one he used. The emboldened expression is the Given. The referent therefore is obvious to both the speaker and the hearer.

The New

The new information is the rest of the clause It is called New because it is actually what is new to the hearer or reader. For instance in the sentence above, travelled to the USA yesterday is the new information. It is what the speaker actually wants the hearer to know. In writing the writer usually engages in a carefully thought-out exercise, because he wants to be understood. So the nature of information structure in writing differs from that of speaking. In informative texts, sometimes questions are used to elicit the required information. For example:

What is Linguistics?

Linguistics is the scientific study of the nature of language The Given element is put before the New information, because there is an area of mutual knowledge the writer wants to share with the readers (see Bloor and Bloor (1995; Taiwo, 2003). Sometimes, authors may not necessarily use question heading. They may just use an ordinary heading. It is also possible that the whole information in the clause is new, for example:

It is my belief that you are coming tonight.

Since the word it is a dummy or an empty subject, it carries no information, the whole stretch can be regarded as New information. Writers may also use ellipsis as a style in writing. Ellipsis is the omission of a word or a chunk from a sentence in such a way that only the given information is left. This does not render the text incomprehensible in any way, as the reader can still make up the omitted part. For example:

(a) Bola got up form the bed

(b) rushed to the bathroom (c) and took her bath. In (b) and (c) above, all the information are new, because the Given information has been omitted, but the hearer can still link it to the

subject of (a). In spoken texts, there are more assumptions, since the situation helps the interlocutors to interpret the message. For instance, in the sentence:

Please get me my slippers.

the entire information is new. This is because the speaker shares some information with the hearer, which include the fact that the hearer knows he/she is the one being addressed and that the hearer knows where the speaker's slippers are., and so forth.

Thematic Structure

This is similar to what we just finished discussing, but not exactly like it. Thematic structure refers to the organization of the message in the clause. A special status is given to one part of the clause that is called the Theme and the other part is called the Rheme. This simply has to do with what the writer or speaker chose as the starting point of the clause. Discussions on thematic structure was popularized by scholars in Systemic Linguistics and The Prague School.

Theme

The theme is defined as Halliday (1985: 39) as: the element which serves as the starting point for the message He went further to say that the Theme is what the clause is all about. In most cases, the Theme assumes the first position in the clause.

For example: *The president of Nigeria is from the northern part of the country.*

The Theme here refers to a person. In other instance, it may refer to places, time, attitude, and so forth, as we can see in the following examples respectively:

In Ghana, Nigeria lost a football match

Last week, I went to Cotonou by road

In my own opinion, you are wrong

Rheme

The Rheme is defined by Eggins (1993: 275) as: that part of the clause in which the Theme is developed. It is every other part of the clause apart from the Theme. The Rheme is the part of the clause that contains the real message of the clause. The speaker/writer departs at the point of the Theme to supply the message to the hearer/reader. Self-assessment Exercises Take two newspaper editorials and identify the Themes and Rhemes in them. Also, identify the Given and New information in them. Now, compare the differences and similarities in the Theme/Rheme and Given/New information.

Marked and Unmarked Themes

A marked theme is the unusual Theme. The usual Theme is the one that occupies the position of the subject. This shows that in most cases, the subject position and that of the theme overlap. When there is this overlap, which is often the case, we are said to have an Unmarked Theme. However, when other elements apart from the subject are given prominence by being placed in the initial position, they are called Marked Theme. Examples of Marked Theme are given below:

8.9. *While in school, I was very sickly.*

8.10. *Away it flew.*

8.11. *Strangely, I could not recognize he.*

8.12. *Before you arrived, my father had spoken about you.*

In the examples above, we can see other elements functioning as Theme apart from the subject, thereby pushing the subject to a second position in the clause. In 8.9, we have an adverbial group indicating time. In 8.10, we have a complement. In 8.11, we have a comment adjunct, while in 8.12, we have a subordinate adjunct of time.

Multiple Themes

Multiple Themes do sometimes occur in clauses when more than one constituent in the clause are given thematic status. Halliday (1985) identifies three types of theme that can feature in the multiple themes. He used the three dimensional metafunctions: Experiential, Textual and Interpersonal. The three types of theme recognized are the Textual Theme, the Interpersonal Theme and the Topical Theme. The latter, Topical Theme is typically unmarked, because it is the usual Theme. Textual Theme are used mostly in conversation to indicate argument. Interpersonal Themes are used to address listeners in conversation. They are usually signified by first names (David), terms of affection (darling), mood adjuncts (maybe), comment adjuncts (fortunately). Now let us see how multiple themes operate in clauses .

Lecture 11 Thematic Progression

Thematic Progression

In the last Unit, we looked at the concepts of Theme and Rheme in clauses. We did not go beyond the clause. However, in looking at Thematic Progression, we will look at how themes in different clauses associate and how the entire text becomes a meaningful whole through this interaction. Thematic Progression (TP) refers to how one theme progresses into another from clause to clause. Danes (1974) identified four types of Thematic Progression. In the following sections, we shall discuss each of these in succession.

The Constant Theme Pattern

The first kind of TP is called the Constant Theme Pattern. The constant theme pattern occurs when a common theme is shared by clauses that follow one another in a text. The theme of each clause either refers wholly to the first theme or partly to it. This TP pattern is common in biographical information and other narratives. Example of Constant TP is 1. Mr Sawyer is my friend. 2. He attended Kings College Lagos. 3. After his secondary education, 4. he travelled to England, 5. where he was trained as a lawyer. 6. He was one of the foremost lawyers in Nigeria. You will see that in all the six clauses in this short text, the themes have something to do with Mr. Sawyer either directly or indirectly through the use of first person pronoun he. In the third clause, the expression, his secondary education still refers to Mr. Sawyer.

The Linear Theme Pattern

The Linear Theme Pattern is a pattern in which a rheme is taken up as a theme in a subsequent clause. In other words, the rheme of the last clause becomes the theme of the following clause. An example of this is produced below. 1. The president of the Federal Republic of Nigeria is Umaru Yar'Adua. 2. Umaru Yar'Adua was the last Civilian governor of Katsina State. 3. Katsina State is one of the states in the North Central Nigeria. 4. The North Central Nigeria is

regarded as the power base of most politicians in the Northern Nigeria. In the text above, part of the rheme of the first clause (Umaru Yar'Adua) is taken up as the theme for the second clause. Likewise, the nucleus of the rheme for the second clause (Katsina State) is taken up as the rheme for the third clause, and so forth.

The Split Rheme Pattern

The third type of TP is called the Split Rheme Pattern. The split Rheme TP is the type in which the Rheme of the clause has two component and each of the component is taken in turn as the them of subsequent clause. So, the idea is that the components of the rheme are split and elaborated upon in subsequent clauses. An example of the Split Rheme TP is produced below. 1. Nigeria can be conveniently divided into three major regions: the Northern, Western and the Eastern regions. 2. The Northern Region is mainly populated by Hausa speakers and they are mostly Moslems. 3. The Western Region has mainly Yoruba people who are well-exposed to Western education and it has a mixture of Islam and Christianity. 4. The Eastern Region is inhabited mainly by the Igbo speakers, who can be described as the economic livewire of the nation. This text shows clearly that the rheme of the first clause is what is split to develop the text. The rheme has three major components and each of these components was taken in turn to develop each of the subsequent clause.

The Derived Theme Pattern

This kind of TP is a feature of longer text with a variety of topics for discussion. The author may pick any of the topics earlier mentioned and use it as the theme for a clause. An example is given below. 1. Lion is one of the most dreaded animals. 2. The large cat is fierce-looking and always looking ferocious. 3. Its cubs are just like domestic cats. 4. The mane of male lions makes them look dreadful. 5 Its powerful claws can tear even the hardest skin 6. and its canines are equally very strong. The text contains some derived items that have been give thematic positions. They include its cubs, the mane of the male lion, its canines. All these are themes derived from the hypertheme lion. Self Assessment Exercise Use your own texts to illustrate the four Thematic Progression Patters discussed in this Unit.

Identifying Themes in Discourse

There are some specific ways a theme can be identified in a clause. We have seen that themes are not just chosen. They are chosen to agree with the message and they are chosen so that the entire text can be seen a unified whole. One major way a theme can be identified is through identical wording. This means, the writer of speaker simply repeats the same word as theme in subsequent clauses. For example:

9.1. Mr. Brown is my boss. Mr. Brown is a very nice man. In the sentence above the theme Mr. Brown is repeated in the second sentence. Another way is through the use of synonymous expression, ie occurrence of an element which communicates information similar in meaning to an expression in the preceding context, eg: 9.2. My little boy came home from school weeping. The lad was beaten by a bully. The theme can also be identified by semantic inference. Words that are related to the ones used earlier can still be used as themes of subsequent clauses (see the example under split rheme)

Lecture 12. Approaches to discourse analysis 1) Text Linguistics 2) Grammatical Cohesion. 3) Lexical Cohesion

1) What is Text?

A text can simply be described as a type of written or spoken discourse or a sequence of paragraphs that represents an extended unit of speech. A text is not just a random collection of sentences. A text must be meaningful, in the sense that the ideas of the communicator of the text must be understood by the communicatee. A text must be seen as a unified whole, whose meaning can be summarized. Halliday and Hasan (1976) describes a text as “a semantic unit.” Typically in any text, every sentence except the first exhibits some form of cohesion with the preceding (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 292). Texts are classified into genres on the basis of the intent of the communicator. Although there are different ways of classifying texts, six text types are generally recognized, and they are: recount, report, procedure, explanation, exposition, and experimental report. Each of these text types has different linguistic structures and features. For instance, a report is written in the past tense since it is an account of something the communicator had experienced sometime ago.

Textuality

A text is said to have textuality if it has unity with respect to its context. What distinguishes a written text from a random collection of sentences is the quality of textuality. It is also referred to as connexity or connectivity. Every text has certain resources that enable the reader/listener to identify that it is a text with respect to the context in which it is produced. Let us look at a stretch of sentence to explain more clearly what we mean by textuality. I bought two pairs of shoes when I went to Lagos yesterday. They were both black. One was made in Italy, while the other was made in England. I hope to wear both on alternative days to work. Any good speaker of English should not have any problem with the stretch above. There are some elements in the four sentences that signal meaning and unity.

- The word they refers back to the another group of words two pairs of shoes
- One refers implicitly to a pair of the shoes
- The other refers the other pair of shoes
- The word both refers to the two pairs of shoes.

It is not difficult to identify all these references in the text. That is why we can easily say there is texture because those items signify that we have a text before us and not just a collection of unconnected sentences. Textuality therefore is those things that make a collection of sentences to qualify as a text rather than just a collection of sentences. Shortly, we shall look in details into the technicalities involved texture.

Sentence Connection

Sentence connection is a term used to describe how sentences are connected in larger texts and the resources used to signal such connection. Every collection of sentences cannot be seen as being connected unless they possess some elements that signal their connection. Sometimes the term is referred to as inter-sentence connection to differentiate it from intra –sentence connection – the way words in a sentence are connected as opposed to the way sentences in a text are connected. The whole of this Unit and two others that will follow are all about sentence connection

Cohesion and Coherence

Cohesion is a term used to describe the relation of meanings that exist within a text. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976: 4), “cohesion occurs where the interpretation of some element in the discourse is dependent on that of another.” They went further define cohesion as: A set of possibilities that exists in the language for making text hang together: The potential that the speaker or the writer has at his disposal... Thus, cohesion as a process always involves one item pointing to another; whereas, the significant property of the cohesive relation... is the fact that one item provides the source for the interpretation of another. (P.19) This happens in the sense that the occurrence of one element presupposes the other. That is that element cannot be effectively decoded without recourse to the other element. For instance, in the text we looked at earlier in Section 11.4, the words they, one, the other, both are elements that one cannot effectively interpret without recourse to the text that has gone before them. Cohesion in the text is expressed through the ties of reference. Items referring to others are used to signal cohesion in a text. The interpretation of these words cannot just stop by looking at them, but by looking beyond them to other words in the text. This may not be the case with some other words in the text, such as shoes, black, days, and so forth whose meanings are completely interpreted by just looking at them. Cohesion is signaled both by grammatical and lexical items in a text.

Coherence works together with cohesion. Coherence refers to the continuity of ideas in a text and the relations between them. When sentences, ideas, and details fit together clearly, readers can follow along easily, and the writing is coherent, ie, the ideas tie together smoothly and clearly. A text is coherent when the ideas are seen to hang together and present the text as a united whole. Coherence goes beyond just the connection of the sentences, but that of the whole idea. The two terms, cohesion and coherence are the two primary ways of signaling textuality. Some ways of signaling cohesion in a text are through the use of pro-forms that indicate co-reference, definite articles, ellipsis, repetition, connectives or conjunctions, substitution and so forth. In the next two units we shall examine these. 4.0 Conclusion A collection of sentences that are well connected are said to be cohesive and coherent. Textuality is a property of such collection because it is what shows that what we have is not just a random collection of sentences, but a well-connected piece. Cohesion and coherence are the two technical terms used to describe the connectedness of sentences and ideas in a text. Cohesion is signaled by the use of certain items that cannot be decoded without recourse to what had gone before them.

Lecture 13. Grammatical Cohesion

What is Grammatical Cohesion

Grammatical cohesion is a means of creating links between sentences in a text through the use of the grammatical resources of the language, ie, items that are grammatical in nature, as opposed to the ones that are lexical in nature, such grammatical resources include: Reference, Substitution, Identification, Conjunction, and Ellipsis.

Reference

Reference is a grammatical device commonly used for cohesion in texts. A reference item is an item that cannot be interpreted semantically in its own rights. It has to be interpreted by looking at other elements that have been used before it or the ones that will be used after it. Reference is typically signified through the use of pronouns, such as personal pronouns (he, she, it, they, them, we, etc) and comparative pronouns (this, that, these, etc). Reference is typically signified through phoric relations. Reference can generally be divided into two different types:

Endophoric (Textual) Reference Exophoric (Situational/Contextual) Reference Endophoric

Reference is also known as Textual Reference. It is a kind of reference that is within the text. For endophoric reference, we can find the referent (what it refers to) within the text. Such a referent can either be anaphoric or cataphoric. An anaphoric reference is a reference whose referent precedes it, ie, the reference is to the preceding text. This kind of reference is the most common in any form of text. For example 3.1. The man came yesterday, but he did not meet me. In the text above, the pronoun he is anaphoric in nature because it refers back to another item in the text – the man. Pronouns are typically anaphoric in English. However, sometimes, they could be cataphoric, when the referent precedes the reference, ie the item that refers comes before what it refers to, eg:

3.2. He walked into the room looking haggard. The man stood by the door to my living room and I was wondering who he was. His look was expressionless, so I kept looking at him. I later beckoned to him to come in. It took me some time to recognize Mr. Adams. But much later, I was able to identify some of his old features that I used to know when we were at the Teachers' College. I quickly embraced him. "Sit down Mr. Adams, I am sorry, I did not quickly recognize you", I said. He sat down and we started talking. The first sentence in the text starts with a third person personal pronoun he, and continues using pronouns to refer to somebody not identified until the fifth sentence and seventh clause. By the end of the text we can see clearly that the pronoun refers to Mr. Adams, who was an old classmate of the writer at Teachers' College. This is a cataphoric reference. Cataphoric references are sometimes employed for literary effects to create suspense in the mind of the reader as you can observe in the text. If you will notice, you will realize that anaphoric references are also used to refer to the same person in sentences six, seven and the last sentence. We also have Exophoric Reference, which is a reference to the context of situation and not any element within the text. An example of Exophoric Reference is produced below. 3.3. Will you come here and let me have that. In the text above, the words her and that are exophoric items. We can only get their meanings by looking at the context in which they are produced. For instance, here will refer to somewhere close to the speaker and that will refer to something with the addressee. Halliday and Hasan (1976) recognized three types of reference: Personal Reference, Demonstrative reference and Comparative Reference. Each of these are discussed below 3.2.1 Personal Reference: This is defined by its function in the speech situation 3.4. The girls just returned from the party. They are all very tired. 3.5. My father is a consultant to many oil companies in Nigeria. He will be returning from Denmark where he went to represent one of his clients. 3.6. Bola just came back from the youth camp. I saw her yesterday. The Personal References are: they in 3.4; he and his in 3.5; I and her in 3.6.

3.2.2 Demonstrative Reference

This is reference by means of location. The writer or speaker locates this kind of reference along a scale of proximity defined in terms of selective participation and circumstances that define the textual occasion (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 37). Examples are:

3.7. Leave the book on the table and come here

3.8. Please bring the red apples. Those are my favourite.

3.9. He said something just before we left his office. That I can't remember.

The Demonstrative References are: her in 3.7; those in 3.8 and that in 3.9.

3.2.3 Comparative Reference

This is a form of indirect reference that is established by means of identity. Examples are: 3.10 I love those oranges. Can I have more. 3.11. The little cats are very playful. But one is not as playful as others.

3.12. You have taken enough apples. Other people will also need some.

The Comparative References are: more in 3.10; one and others in 3.11; some in 3.12. Halliday and Hasan emphasize the uniqueness of reference by pointing out that: What distinguishes reference from other types of cohesion is that it is overwhelmingly nominal in character. With the exception of demonstratives and some comparative adverbs, all reference items are found within the nominal group. (p. 43) 3.3 Substitution Substitution simply refers to the replacement of one item by another in a text that has the same meaning. Initially, Substitution and Reference may appear to be similar but they are not. Reference is a relation between meanings. For instance, the reference items he, she, they are related to some nouns in terms of the meaning connections they have. The relationship between these reference items and their referents lies in the semantic identity between the reference and the referent. Substitution however is a relation in wording, between linguistic items such as words and phrases. A substitute is a sort of counter used in place of repetition of a particular item. Examples of substitute are given below: 3.13 My notes are not complete. I need to get an up to date one. 3.14. You don't seem to like bread, but I do 3.15. Many people think reducing your age gives you the advantage of more time in the civil service. But I don't think so

In 3.13 – 3.15, we have words that are used as substitute for others – one in 3.13; do in 3.14, and so in 3.15. These substitutes represent the three types of substitute recognized in Halliday and Hasan (1976) – Nominal, Verbal and Clausal Substitution respectively. Nominal substitution refers to the use of a nominal substitute to replace a nominal item. Verbal substitution is the use of a verbal substitute, typically do to replace a verbal item and clausal substitution is the use of a substitute to replace an entire clause. Other items used as substitute are cardinal numerals, as in the text below.

3.16. There are seven oranges in the bowl. Can I have two?

Here the word two is a cardinal numeral used as a substitute for orange.

Ellipsis

Ellipsis is the omission of a lexical item, which is usually easily recoverable from the linguistic context of the text. Halliday and Hasan define ellipsis as “substitution by zero” (p. 89). This means Ellipsis a kind of Substitution. Unlike in Substitution, where something is used to replace an item, in Ellipsis, nothing is used to replace the item, yet the reader or hearer is able to identify the zero element. In Ellipsis, something is not said, yet it is understood. In Ellipsis, there is a structural slot with missing information, which is not misunderstood in spite of the missing information. It is important to note that by Ellipsis, we are not referring to every instance in which something is not said. If this were to be so then that would apply to every sentence ever spoken or written. We are referring here to only instances of sentences, clauses, etc, whose construction leaves us to presuppose some missing items. Just like Substitution, there are three types of Ellipsis: Nominal, Verbal and Clausal. In Nominal Substitution, there is an ellipsis within the nominal group, eg:

3.16. He came in quickly had his bath and rushed out.

In the text above, the pronoun he is conspicuously missing, but we are still able to understand that it is the same person who came in quickly, who had his bath and rushed out. We do not have to keep repeating the pronoun he to communicate meaning in the text. Verbal Ellipsis is ellipsis within the verbal group, eg,

3.17. He may come or may not

3.18. Some were sweeping and others mopping the floor.

In 3.17 and 3.18, we can see two different types of Verbal Ellipsis. In 3.17, the ellipsis affected the lexical verb come, hence it can be tagged lexical verb ellipsis. In 3.18, the ellipsis affected the operator, which is an auxiliary verb were. This may be regarded as operator or auxiliary ellipsis. There is also clausal ellipsis, ie: the omission of a whole clause or at least a substantial portion of the clause. This is very common in conversation, where there are enough contextual clues to help in the comprehension of meaning, eg, 3.19. A: What are you doing Cynthia? B: Reading. 3.20. A: Will you go home now? B: Yes. In 3.19, a substantial part of the clause is omitted, yet the meaning is not lost. In 3.20, the whole clause is omitted. The word yes has rendered redundant any other thing B may want to say.

Identification

Identification is the use of determiners to point out that their noun phrase is co-referential with some earlier item, usually a noun or noun phrase (Aremo, 2004: 629). Identification is different from Reference, because reference makes use of pro-forms, while Identification, as the name goes, identifies a nominal item/group through the use of determiners and a nominal item. Determiners used include the definite article the and demonstrative adjectives, such as this, that, those, etc. Examples of texts with Identification are given below.

3.21. A man came to my office yesterday. The man was sent by my uncle.

3.22. I have heard a lot of terrible stories about kidnapping in Lagos. Those stories made me afraid whenever I visit the city.

3.23. She is married to a well-respected man in the country. That man is generous and humble.

3.24. When he came yesterday he asked me where he could get a young girl to play with. The question keeps bothering me because I do not consider him that irresponsible.

In the three texts above, the nominal groups the man, those stories, that man and the question are elements signifying identification, because they identify the nominal groups in the clauses that precede the ones in which they occur. Sometimes, the identifying element may be more complex than just a determiner and a noun. It may include some adjectives, as in the example below:

3.25. You walked out on me yesterday because I called you to order at the meeting.

Your irresponsible behaviour may get you sacked if you don't exercise some caution. The expression your irresponsible behaviour is an identification of what the addressee did to the speaker the previous day. The word irresponsible is used to qualify the addressee's behaviour.

Self-assessment Exercises Using your own adequate and copious examples, explain the differences between Reference, Substitution and Identification

Conjunction

Conjunction is an explicit marker of meaning connection between two clauses. Though the term is used generally to include any linker or connector, in this Unit, we are using it in the sense of items used to link clauses and sentences together. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), conjunctive elements are not cohesive in themselves but by virtue of their specific meanings; they are not primarily devices for reaching out into the preceding (or following) text, but they express certain meanings, which presuppose the presence of other components in the discourse (p. 226). There are several conjunctive items for signaling meaning in sentence connection. Halliday and Hasan (1976) identify four categories of conjunctive relations. They are Additive, Adversative, Causal and Temporal. We shall discuss each of them below.

Additive Conjunction

This is a conjunction that introduces an addition to the erstwhile clause. The most prominent Additive Conjunction is and. Other Additive Conjunctions are yet, so, further, moreover, etc. Examples of texts with Additive Conjunction are:

3.26. He drove 800 kilometres, and he was very tired after his arrival

3.27. The thieves were caught, yet they denied being thieves.

3.28. I was so tired last night, so, I could not visit Gbade as promised

3.29. Bisola does not need the scholarship. Moreover, she is got full sponsorship for her PhD.

Adversative Conjunction

This signals a relationship contrary to expectation. The proposition expressed in the second clause is contrary to what is stated in the preceding clause. Adversative Conjunctions are signaled by words such as; but, however, instead, rather, etc, as can be seen in the following example:

3.30. He took the money, but he denied it.

3.31. The bus broke down somewhere very lonely. However, we miraculously found a mechanic to fix it before we continued with the journey.

3.32. You were planning to go to Lagos before. Instead, please go to Abuja as I would need something urgent from our client there.

Causal Conjunction

Causal relation expresses that something caused another to happen. It signifies, result, purpose or reason for the erstwhile proposition. It is signaled by words such as: so, hence, therefore, consequently, etc. Examples are seen in the following texts:

3.33. He lost his money, so he could not travel again.

3.34. She got late to school. Consequently, he was punished.

3.35. The Lord is my Shepherd, therefore, I shall not want

Temporal Conjunction

Temporal Conjunction is a relation between two successive sentences in sequence of time. This could be sequential (then, next), simultaneous (simultaneously, at the same time), preceding (earlier, previously), immediate (at once, immediately), durative (meanwhile). Examples:

12.36 I found the money on the grass. Then I reported to the police.

12.37 My father died in June last year. Earlier he had been in and out of the hospital.

12.38 He got the news of his shortlisting for the interview. Immediately, he started preparing for it.

12.39 I was busy planning for my wedding. Meanwhile, my mother-in-law was busy arranging for how my fiancé would travel to go and meet a boy she would prefer her to marry.

Lecture 14. Unit Objectives

What is Lexical Cohesion?

Lexical cohesion is the use of lexical items to connect and unify a text. The connection of a text through the use of lexical items is sometimes referred to as a lexical chain. A lexical chain is a sequence of related words in the text, spanning short (adjacent words or sentences) or long distances (entire text). A chain is independent of the grammatical structure of the text and in effect it is a list of words that captures a portion of the cohesive structure of the text. A lexical chain can provide a context for the resolution of an ambiguous term and enable identification of the concept that the term represents. Lexical cohesion involves the selection of a lexical item that is in some way related to one occurring previously. It is established through the structure of the lexis or vocabulary. Lexical cohesion or chain may be achieved by repetition of the same lexical item or reiteration. It could also be achieved through the use of lexical items that are similar or nearly similar in meaning. Other ways of achieving cohesion through the selection of lexical item are hyponymy (use of general and specific items), meronymy (part-whole relationship), and collocation (habitual lexical co-occurrence). We shall be discussing each of the lexical devices, one after the other in the following sections of the Unit.

Reiteration

Another word for reiteration is repetition. Reiteration is the clearest way to show that two lexical items are related. The whole idea is that the writer or speaker keeps repeating a particular word each time he needs to make reference to it in a text. Sometimes Repetition can be boring to the reader and the listener, therefore some scholars do not see it as a very effective means of signaling lexical connectedness. Examples of texts with lexical reiteration are:

13.1. Kunle is my friend. Kunle and I attended the same primary and secondary school. Kunle was the best student in my set in the secondary school.

13.2. Man is a social animal. The biblical account spells it out that man was created to have dominion over all other animals. Man in the 20th century has really maintained dominion over the world. One significant things that has happened to man in the century is the invention of computer.

From the two text produced above, we can see clearly instances of repetition. In 13.1, Kunle is repeated in the three sentences in the text. Likewise in 13.2, man keeps recurring in each of the sentences. These are clear instances of use of reiteration or repetition to achieve cohesion.

Synonymy

We mentioned earlier that Repetition sometimes can make a text boring. As a result, sometimes, rather than repeating the same word, a writer/reader may vary his/her use by selecting a synonymous item to replace the one being referred to. Synonymy as a lexical device is a device that employs the use of words that have similar meaning interchangeably in a written or spoken text. It is also referred to as Equivalence Relation. Sometimes, writers or speakers create synonymy rings (a list of synonyms or near synonyms that are used interchangeably. For example, a writer may use any of the following terms interchangeably: speech disorder, speech defect, defective speech, speech problem, disorder of speech, etc.

Mundane, earthly, secular, temporal, worldly, etc.

Energy, drive, strength, vigour, stamina, zeal, power, etc. Flimsy, shallow, superficial, weak, trivial, etc. Ancient, primitive, archaic, obsolete, pristine, antiquated, old, etc. Now, let us look at instances in which synonymy is used to achieve lexical cohesion in texts, using some of the synonyms we have identified above.

13.3. When asked why he came late, he gave a flimsy reason. His weak reason did not in any way absolve him from punishment.

13.4. Christianity discourages adherents from engaging in worldly pleasures, as such earthly practices will perish with the world. They are temporal.

13.5. His ideas are always archaic. I guess he got such obsolete ideas from

his grandfather, who brought him up. He grew up in the village, where primitive ideas are still celebrated in the name of culture and tradition. 13.6. My children are always full of energy. Sometimes I wonder where they get the strength from. They play with so much vigour during the day that when they sleep, they sleep like log of wood.

Antonymy

Antonymy as a lexical device is the use of relationship of oppositeness to signal cohesion in a text. Examples of antonyms are listed below. quick, fast and slow, sluggish, big, large, enormous, mighty and small, little, tiny, petit happy, glad, joyful and sad, dejected, unhappy rich, affluent, wealthy and poor, indigent, strange and familiar Now, let us construct texts that portray the use of antonymy as lexical device for connection. Note: That no two words are absolutely synonymous in every context of use, likewise, no two words are absolutely antonymous.

13.7. Goliath was a mighty man. Despite that David was a little shepherd boy, he was not intimidated by Goliath's enormous size.

13.8. The man was so unhappy when he got sentenced to six months imprisonment.

However, a few weeks later, when he was set free he was so joyful.

13.9. In Lagos, the places where you find the affluent are Ikoyi, Victoria Island,

Victoria Garden City, Ikeja GRA, and so forth. The indigent are found in parts of Ajegunle, Mushin, and Agege 13.10. The twins have different traits. Taiwo is fast, though oftentimes shoddy in doing things. However, Kehinde is sluggish, but always comes out perfect in most of the things he does.

Hyponymy

Hyponymy is a relationship of inclusion. In Hyponymy, the meaning of a lexical item is included in the meaning of another one. Hyponymy operates in such a way that there is an item regarded as the general item, also technically called the superordinate, which subsumes other words, which are the hyponyms. Readers/listeners are able to connect hyponyms and superordinates in texts, even when there is no proximity in their occurrence within the text.. Examples of some English words that have relationship of hyponymy are listed below. vegetable – lettuce, okra, cabbage, water leaf, beans, potato, carrot insect – grasshopper, cockroach, termite, praying mantis computer – laptop, desktop, palmtop, digital wrist watch, mobile phone cat – pussy cat, tiger, puma, leopard, lion, cheetah clothes – shirt, trousers, blouse, skirt, coat, cardigan, flower – hibiscus, rose, daffodil, rose periwinkle, lilly Now, let us use some of these hyponyms in text to signal cohesion. 13.11. My mother loves flowers. Her favourite ones are rose and lilly.

13.12. A lion is such a fearful animal. Nobody dares to stand without shaking at the first sight of the big cat.

13.13 Most of my clothes are now dirty. I hardly get a clean shirt to wear to

work. I still manage the trousers because of their dark colours. The cold weather has really helped me, as I often put on cardigans. They help to cover my dirty shirts. 13.14 Computers are indispensable for every average person. One needs a desktop for the home and possibly the office. You also need a laptop to help you work anywhere you find yourself. And of course, our mobile phones are needed for communication without boundary. Self-assessment Exercises Identify and discuss the lexical cohesive devices used in Scene One of The Trials of Brother Jero by Wole Soyinka.

Meronymy

Meronymy is the technical name coined by Raquiya Hasan to refer to a Part-whole relationship. In this kind of relationship, a lexical item represents the part and the other or others represent the whole. Just like Hyponymy, it is a relationship of inclusion. However, while Hyponymy involves general items and specific ones, Meronymy involves whole items and part ones. Below are some examples of Part- whole relationship. Car – dashboard, fender, rear light, bonnet, boot, tyre, radiator, throttle Computer – monitor, CPU, keyboard, mouse, House – living room, bedroom, kitchen, bathroom, toilet, pantry, balcony Tree – trunk, leaves, branch, stem Book – preface, foreword, chapter, index, cover, contents

Examples of lexical cohesion, using meronymy in texts:

13.15. My driver took the car out yesterday. After his return, I discovered that the bumper had been dented and the mirror at the passenger's side had cracked.

13.16. When I checked the computer supplied by the company yesterday, I discovered that the mouse was missing. The keyboard was also defective, because it is very stiff. However, the monitor met our specification.

13.17. The house is quite a big one. Each of the bedrooms has its toilet and bathroom. The living room is massive. I also love the design because of the courtyard.

13.18. Our new book came out yesterday. We were commended for the contents, which covers a wide range of issues in the discipline of Discourse Analysis. A renowned professor of English at the University of Lagos wrote the foreword. It has all together twenty chapters.

Collocation

Some words frequently occur together than others. Most times, when you mention a particular lexical item, another one usually associated with it comes to the mind of your listener. This shows that words keep company of one another. This habitual co-occurrence of words is generally referred to as Collocation. According to J.R. Firth, who first talked about collocation, “you know a word by the company it keeps.” Collocation is one of the most important lexical devices used for cohesion. Any good text can be said to reflect the writer’s/speaker’s choice of the right kinds of words – words that collocate. Only such combinations can form a unified text. The following pair of words are said to collocate in English: shoulder – shrug pharmacy – drug hospital – doctor car – accident class – teacher fish – swim bed – sleep wardrobe – clothes zoo – animal sports – stadium king – palace book – read dark – night fan – air key – door One can go beyond the pairs we have above to provide a range of words that a particular word will naturally co-occur with in English. Find the examples below. Library – read, silent, borrow, catalogue, book, shelves, Car – drive, road, engine, garage, mechanic, highway, seat belt, petrol,

Hospital – patient, doctor, ward, out-patient, theatre, nurse, casualty, diagnose Computer – program, word-process, Internet, document, Microsoft, flash drive, CD, type Newspaper – headlines, editor, advert, editorial, news, report, beat, proof-read, vendor Language – tongue, speak, write, conversation, communication linguist,

Unit 15: Speech Acts Theory

Speech Act

Every sentence we make is designed to perform certain functions. Such functions include, just informing people about something, warning, ordering somebody or a group of people to do something, questioning somebody about a fact, thanking somebody for a gift or an act of kindness, and so forth. When we utter statements, we expect our listeners to recognize and understand the functions such statements are meant to perform. For instance, when we ask a question, we expect our addressee to realize that we are requesting for information. If they failed to appreciate our intention, then we can say they have ‘misunderstood’ us. This is what is termed as speech act. The theory of speech act therefore states that whenever we utter a statement, we are attempting to accomplish something with words (see Austin, 1962 and Searle, 1969). Below, we have a table indicating some utterances and their forms and their functions.

Utterance	Form	Function
Did you see him yesterday?	Interrogative	Question
My son is a medical doctor	Declarative	Statement

Shut the door please	Imperative	Command

Other examples of utterances that perform some speech act.

15.1. I pronounce you husband and wife (uttered by a pastor when joining a couple together)

15.2. I hereby sentence you to ten years in jail (uttered by a judge in a court)

15.3. I promise to pay you by month end (uttered by a debtor to a creditor)

Performative Verbs

Performative verbs are verbs used to indicate that certain acts are meant to be performed by the utterance. For instance each of utterances 15.1 – 15.3 above has a performative verb – pronounce (15.1); sentence (15.2), and promise (15.3). There are several other verbs in English that can be considered as performative verbs. They include the following:

Appoint - I appoint you as the director of the institute.

Thank - I thank you for you kind gestures.

Warn - I warn you to desist from that act.

Congratulate - I congratulate you on call to the Bar.

Announce - We hereby announce the death of our grandfather.

Guarantee - I guarantee you that the product will last.

Request - I hereby request for my transcript

Offer - I offer you the job on a monthly salary of N10,000

Looking at the structural pattern of these utterances, you can see that the performative verbs have a special place in the utterances fitting into the sentence frame like this

I (hereby) [verb] you [complement].

Such utterance we have above are also referred to as performative utterances.

Locutionary, Illocutionary and Perlocutionary Acts

Austin identifies three kinds of acts that are performed when a language is used. He made a distinction between locutionary act, illocutionary acts and perlocutionary acts.

Locutionary acts are considered as acts of speaking – acts involved in the construction of speech. They include using particular words in conformity with the particular rules of a language and with certain senses and references as determined by the rules of the language from which they are drawn. (Sadock, 2006:54). Illocutionary acts are acts done in speaking – acts that are the

apparent purpose for using a performative utterance, such as promising, sentencing, guaranteeing, thanking, and so forth.

Perlocutionary acts are the consequences or the by-product of speaking. They produce some effect upon the thoughts, feelings and actions of the addressee and the speaker.

Felicity Conditions

Felicity conditions are the conditions that have to be fulfilled before an utterance can be said to be successful. They are the conditions that have to be met before one can say that a speaker has made a sincere statement. For instance, for A to request B to shut the door, the following conditions must be met:

- a. A must believe that B has the ability to shut the door.
- b. A must have the desire that B should shut the door.
- c. A must believe that B will shut the door, if requested.
- d. A must have good reasons for B to shut the door.

Direct and Indirect Speech Acts

A direct speech act is one whose proposition is clearly represented in the utterance and understood by the addressee. For instance, the statement:

15.4. Please put on the fan.

Is a direct speech act because it is clearly seen as a request that the addressee do something – put on the fan. Some speech acts are not this direct in their proposition, yet the addressee will still through inference and implicature understand the intention of the speaker. For example, the statement:

15.5. It's hot in here.

May be an indirect counterpart of 15.4. The addressee will by inference understand that being hot is uncomfortable. So the addressee will recognize the utterance as an indirect speech act that is making a request of him to put on the fan. Even though the utterance is a statement, its function is that of a command. It is also possible for the speaker to accomplish his intention by using the utterance:

15.6. Do we have to stay in this heat all day?

which is a question, but still achieving the same purpose of indirectly requesting the addressee to put on the fan. The addressee would not have understood the speaker's intention if he/she had taken 15.4 as a mere statement of fact or 15.6 as a Polar or Yes/No question.

Unit 16: Politeness in Conversation

What is Politeness?

Politeness is a kind of disposition we have towards other people that makes us not to want to hurt their feelings or do things that we know will make them feel unwanted. When we speak to others, we try to be polite in the kinds of things we say to them by carefully choosing our words. We are tactful and nice in what we say, even when we do not sometimes mean it. We choose our

words to fit the different occasions we experience everyday. Even when we say things that are not too polite, especially when they are not said deliberately, we try to apologize. We are quick to recognize it when people are not polite in their speech because we have a sense of what it means to be polite when we address other people. For instance, respect is a form of politeness. In the Yoruba culture, greeting is considered as part of politeness, especially when we are meeting people for the first time in a day or after a very long time, or even people we have never met before. We are more polite with people we are meeting people for the first time than we are with people we are familiar with. We are also more polite in formal situations than in informal ones. We are more polite when we speak with people older than us than we are with people who are our contemporaries or people who are junior to us. It is important to note that what constitutes politeness differs from one culture to another. For instance, it is impolite for a child to speak where adults are speaking in the Yoruba culture unless such a child was permitted to do so. However, in the English culture it may not be necessarily seen as an impolite act

Face and Politeness

The most relevant concept in politeness is face. Face refers to the respect an individual has for himself or herself. According to Brown and Levinson (1986), speakers develop politeness strategies to maintain their self esteem. One's face is one's public self-image. Every person has an emotional sense of self that they want every other person to recognize. So when we are polite, we have shown awareness of another person's face. If you say things that make people embarrassed or uncomfortable, or something that threatens another person's self image, you are said to have employed a face threatening act (FTAs). Politeness strategies are developed to deal with FTAs. For instance, if one uses a direct imperative to demand something from somebody, the impression you are creating is that you are better placed socially than the person, ie, you have a more superior social power than the person. It is alright to use direct imperative for people who have lower social power than to use the same for people one is not socially superior to. To do the later is to use a FTA. On the other hand, when you say something that lessens possible threat to another person's face, you are said to be performing a face-saving act.

Everybody has what Brown and Levinson call a negative face and a positive face. A negative face is the tendency in a person to be independent and have freedom from imposition. When a speaker says I am sorry to bother you for instance to someone he is trying to make an enquiry from, then he/she has used a face-saving act that emphasizes the addressee's negative face. A face-saving act that emphasizes the addressee's positive face draws attention to a common goal, eg, such a person is likely going to make a statement such as: You and I have a common problem or We can do it together.

Politeness Strategies

Brown and Levinson (1987) identified four major types of politeness strategies, namely

- bald on record
- negative politeness
- positive politeness, and
- off-the-record or indirect strategy.

Bald on record strategies are strategies that do not attempt to minimize the threat to the hearer's face. It is commonly used by speakers who know their addressees very closely. With the bald on

record strategies there is a direct possibility that the audience will be shocked or embarrassed by the strategy. For instance, a bald on record strategy might be to tell your brother to wash the car, by saying "it's your turn today."

Positive politeness will attempt to minimize the threat to the hearer's face. This strategy is most commonly used in situations where the interlocutors know each other fairly well. In many instances attempts are made to avoid conflicts. For example, a positive politeness strategy might be the request such as, "I know you are very busy now, but could you please spare me five minutes."

Negative politeness presumes that the speaker will be imposing on the listener. It is the desire to remain autonomous. For instance, a speaker may request this way "I know you just paid your children's school fees, but please can you lend me N1,000 till the weekend?" The addressee is likely to accede to the request if he/she has the means because the request shows a respect for their ability to maintain autonomy.

The final politeness strategy outlined by Brown and Levinson is the indirect strategy. Here the language is indirect, but the intention is usually clear from the context. For instance, a request can be made this way "Is there any eatery under the corner?" by someone who is hungry and wants to eat. This question insinuates that the speaker is hungry and would want to go and eat, but it is not put so directly. Self-assessed Exercises

(i) Discuss in details how the concept of face is related to politeness.

(ii) Describe how you would politely make at least ten different requests.

Politeness Principle

Politeness Principle is a set of maxims, just like the Cooperative Principle discussed in the last unit. These maxims were proposed by Geoffrey Leech. Leech observes that participants in social interactions try to interact in an atmosphere of relative harmony. Below are the maxims.

Tact Maxim: minimize cost to other, maximize benefit to other. The first part of this maxim aligns with Brown and Levinson's strategies of minimizing imposition, while the second part reflects the positive politeness strategy of attending to the hearer's interests, wants, and needs. For example: "Can you spare me just two minutes please."

Generosity Maxim: Minimise benefit to self; maximize cost to self. This maxim makes it clear that to really express politeness in conversation, the speaker should put others first before him/her. For instance: "Don't worry, it's my pleasure to serve you." Or "Never mind, I'll do it."

Approbation Maxim: Minimise dispraise of other; maximize the expression of beliefs which express approval of other. This maxim implies that we should make others feel good by giving them complements and we should not praise ourselves, but rather allow others to do so. This also implies that we should as much as possible avoid disagreement with others. For instance: "I know you are good at electronics, can you check what the matter is with this tape recorder?"

Modesty Maxim: Minimise praise of self; maximize praise of others. We should find opportunities to praise others, while we dispraise self. For example: "I'm so stupid, can you imagine that I forgot my pen. Do you have an extra one for this exam? I will get one immediately after the paper"

Agreement Maxim: Minimise disagreement between self and other; maximize agreement between self and other. This is in line with Brown and Levinson’s positive politeness strategy. In expressing politeness in conversation, we should avoid disagreement with other people. For example: “I thought we agreed that you would have to call before setting out to see me.”

Sympathy Maxim: Minimise antipathy between self and other; maximize sympathy between self and other. One way of expressing politeness is to identify with people by congratulating them, commiserating with them or expressing condolences when they are bereaved. These, according to Brown and Levinson shows that we are interested in the welfare of other people. For example: “I am sorry to hear about your mother’s demise.”

Exercises

Visit any shop where there is service-encounter, like a post office or restaurant and observe how the people at the counter observe or disregard politeness principle.

5. Информационные и образовательные технологии

Изучение курса рекомендуется проводить в такой последовательности

- а) ознакомление с содержанием тем по рабочей программе
- б) внимательное изучение рекомендуемой специальной литературой конспектирование прочитанного материала
- в) выполнение текстовых заданий по каждой теме дисциплины

В учебном процессе используются следующие образовательные технологии.

- лекции
- семинары (практические занятия) на которых обсуждается основные проблемы, освещенные в лекциях и сформулированные в домашних заданиях
- групповая и индивидуальная работа по исследованию курса, и анализу освоения теорий, концепций и проблемы курса
- решение упражнений, задач ситуативных моделей
- проведение дискуссий, мозговых штурмов и круглых столов

№ п/п	Наименование раздела	Виды учебной работы	Формируемые компетенции (указывается код компетенции)	Информационные и образовательные технологии
1	2	3	4	5
1	Text and discourse in the context of linguistic studies	Лекция Семинар Самостоятельная	ИК-1 ОК-3, ПК-1, ПК-4, ПК-9 . ПК-21	Дискуссия/Консультирование Дополнительные материалы в бумажном носителе.

		работа		
2	Text and discourse in the context of linguistic studies history	Лекция Семинар Самостоятельная работа	ИК-1 ОК-3, ПК-1, ПК-4, ПК-9 . ПК-21	Дискуссия/Консультирование Дополнительные материалы в бумажном носителе.
3	Discourse Analysis	Лекция Семинар Самостоятельная работа	ИК-1 ОК-3, ПК-1, ПК-4, ПК-9 . ПК-21	Дискуссия/Консультирование Дополнительные материалы в бумажном носителе.
4	Some Major Concepts in Discourse Analysis	Лекция Семинар Самостоятельная работа	ИК-1 ОК-3, ПК-1, ПК-4, ПК-9 . ПК-21	Дискуссия/Консультирование Дополнительные материалы в бумажном носителе.
5	Kinds of Discourse	Лекция Семинар Самостоятельная работа	ИК-1 ОК-3, ПК-1, ПК-4, ПК-9 . ПК-21	Дискуссия/Консультирование Дополнительные материалы в бумажном носителе.
6	Approaches to discourse analysis	Лекция Семинар Самостоятельная работа	ИК-1 ОК-3, ПК-1, ПК-4, ПК-9 . ПК-21	Дискуссия/Консультирование Дополнительные материалы в бумажном носителе.
7	Approaches to discourse analysis	Лекция Семинар Самостоятельная работа	ИК-1 ОК-3, ПК-1, ПК-4, ПК-9 . ПК-21	Дискуссия/Консультирование Дополнительные материалы в бумажном носителе.
8	Linguistic Anthropology	Лекция Семинар Самостоятельная работа	ИК-1 ОК-3, ПК-1, ПК-4, ПК-9 . ПК-21	Дискуссия/Консультирование Дополнительные материалы в бумажном носителе.
9	Linguistic Anthropology	Лекция Семинар Самостоятельная работа	ИК-1 ОК-3, ПК-1, ПК-4, ПК-9 . ПК-21	Дискуссия/Консультирование Дополнительные материалы в бумажном носителе.

10	Approaches to discourse analysis 1) Information Structure / Thematic Structure. 2) Thematic Progression. 3) The Birmingham School Approach	Лекция Семинар Самостоятельная работа	ИК-1 ОК-3, ПК-1, ПК-4, ПК-9 . ПК-21	Дискуссия/Консультирование Дополнительные материалы в бумажном носителе.
11	Thematic Progression	Лекция Семинар Самостоятельная работа	ИК-1 ОК-3, ПК-1, ПК-4, ПК-9 . ПК-21	Дискуссия/Консультирование Дополнительные материалы в бумажном носителе.
12	Approaches to discourse analysis 1) Text Linguistics 2) Grammatical Cohesion. 3) Lexical Cohesion	Лекция Семинар Самостоятельная работа	ИК-1 ОК-3, ПК-1, ПК-4, ПК-9 . ПК-21	Дискуссия/Консультирование Дополнительные материалы в бумажном носителе.
13	Grammatical Cohesion	Лекция Семинар Самостоятельная работа	ИК-1 ОК-3, ПК-1, ПК-4, ПК-9 . ПК-21	Дискуссия/Консультирование Дополнительные материалы в бумажном носителе.
14	Unit Objectives.	Лекция Семинар Самостоятельная работа	ИК-1 ОК-3, ПК-1, ПК-4, ПК-9 . ПК-21	Дискуссия/Консультирование Дополнительные материалы в бумажном носителе.
15	Speech Acts Theory	Лекция Семинар Самостоятельная работа	ИК-1 ОК-3, ПК-1, ПК-4, ПК-9 . ПК-21	Дискуссия/Консультирование Дополнительные материалы в бумажном носителе.
16	Politeness in Conversation	Лекция Семинар Самостоятельная работа	ИК-1 ОК-3, ПК-1, ПК-4, ПК-9 . ПК-21	Дискуссия/Консультирование Дополнительные материалы в бумажном носителе.

6. Фонд оценочных средств для текущего, рубежного и итогового контролей по итогам освоения дисциплины

Правила поведения в классе: Согласно Общему положению МУК, преподаватель ожидает, что: студенты не опаздывают на занятия, не пропускают занятия без уважительной причины, отрабатывают пропущенные занятия по согласованию с преподавателем. Во время занятий нельзя разговаривать, пользоваться сотовыми телефонами, покидать аудиторию, слушать музыку, жевать резинку, кушать, читать газеты и журналы...

Политика академического поведения и этики: Быть толерантным, уважать мнение окружающих. Возражения формулировать в корректной форме. Плагиат и другие формы нечестной работы недопустимы. К плагиату относится следующее: отсутствие ссылок при использовании печатных и электронных материалов, цитат, мыслей других авторов. Недопустимы подсказывание и списывание во время тестов, экзаменов, занятий; сдача экзамена за другого студента, неразрешенное копирование материалов. В случае нарушения одного из вышеперечисленных пунктов студент не аттестовывается по курсу.

Требования к студенту при изучении курса: прочитать необходимую литературу, выполнить весь комплекс практических работ, посетить все занятия, своевременно сдать СРС и СРСП.

6.1. Перечень компетенций с указанием этапов их формирования в процессе освоения дисциплины

№ п/п	Контролируемые разделы дисциплины (модулей)	Код контролируемой компетенции (компетенций)	Наименование оценочного средства
1.	Модуль 1 Text and discourse in the context of linguistic studies Text and discourse in the context of linguistic studies history Discourse Analysis Some Major Concepts in Discourse Analysis Kinds of Discourse Approaches to discourse analysis Approaches to discourse analysis Linguistic Anthropology	ОК-1, СЛК-2, ПК-18, ПК-21, ОК-5	Балл
2.	Модуль 2 Linguistic Anthropology		Балл

	Approaches to discourse analysis 1) Information Structure / Thematic Structure. 2) Thematic Progression. 3) The Birmingham School Approach Thematic Progression Approaches to discourse analysis 1) Text Linguistics 2) Grammatical Cohesion. 3) Lexical Cohesion Grammatical Cohesion Unit Objectives. Speech Acts Theory Politeness in Conversation	ОК-1, СЛК-2, ПК-18, ПК-21, ОК-5	
--	--	------------------------------------	--

6.2. Методические материалы, определяющие процедуры оценивания знаний, умений, навыков и (или) опыта деятельности

Текущий контроль осуществляется в виде опроса, участие в дискуссии на семинаре, выполнение самостоятельной работы и других видов работ, указанных в УМК, а также посещаемости студентов занятий - оценивается до 80 баллов.

Рубежный контроль (сдача модулей) проводится преподавателем и представляет собой письменный контроль, либо компьютерное тестирование знаний по теоретическому и практическому материалу. Контрольные вопросы рубежного контроля включают полный объём материала части дисциплины (модулей), позволяющий оценить знания, обучающихся по изученному материалу и соответствовать УМК дисциплины, которое оценивается до 20 баллов.

Итоговый контроль (экзамен) знаний принимается по экзаменационным билетам, включающий теоретические вопросы и практическое задание, и оценивается до 20 баллов.

Форма контроля	Срок отчетности	Макс. количество баллов	
		За-одну работу	Всего
<i>Текущий контроль:</i> - опрос - участие в дискуссии на семинаре - посещаемость	1, 2, 3, 4 недели 3, 4, 5, 6, 7 недели 1,2,3,4,5,6,7 недель	10 баллов 6 баллов 0,2	До 40 баллов До 30 баллов 10 баллов
<i>Рубежный контроль:</i>	8 неделя	100%×0,2=20 баллов	

(сдача модуля)			
Итого за I модуль			До 100 баллов

Форма контроля	Срок отчетности	Макс. количество баллов	
		За одну работу	Всего
Текущий контроль:			
- опрос	9, 10, 11, 12 недели	10 баллов	До 40 баллов
- участие в дискуссии на семинаре	13, 14, 15, 16, недели	6 баллов	До 30 баллов
- посещаемость	9,10,11,12,13,14,15,16, недели	0,2	10 баллов
Рубежный контроль: (сдача модуля)	15 неделя	100%×0,2=20 баллов	
Итого за II модуль			До 100 баллов
Итоговый контроль (экзамен)	Сессия	$ИК = Бср \times 0,8 + Бэкз \times 0,2$	

Экзаменатор выставляет по результатам балльной системы в семестре экзаменационную оценку без сдачи экзамена, набравшим суммарное количество баллов, достаточное для выставления оценки от 55 и выше баллов – автоматически (при согласии обучающегося).

Полученный совокупный результат (максимум 100 баллов) конвертируется в традиционную шкалу:

Рейтинговая оценка (баллов)	Оценка экзамена
От 0 - до 54	Неудовлетворительно
от 55 - до 69 включительно	Удовлетворительно
от 70 – до 84 включительно	Хорошо
от 85 – до 100	Отлично

6.3. Описание показателей и критериев оценивания компетенций на различных этапах их формирования, описание шкал оценивания (На усмотрение ППС):

Текущий контроль (0 - 80 баллов)

При оценивании посещаемости, опроса и участия в дискуссии на семинаре учитываются:

- посещаемость (1 балл);
- степень раскрытия содержания материала (4 баллов);
- изложение материала (грамотность речи, точность использования терминологии и символики, логическая последовательность изложения материала (6 баллов);
- знание теории изученных вопросов, сформированность и устойчивость используемых при ответе умений и навыков (8 баллов).

Рубежный контроль (0 – 20 баллов)

При оценивании контрольной работы учитывается:

- полнота выполненной работы (задание выполнено не полностью и/или допущены две и более ошибки или три и более неточности) – 8 баллов;
- обоснованность содержания и выводов работы (задание выполнено полностью, но обоснование содержания и выводов недостаточны, но рассуждения верны) – 8 баллов;
- работа выполнена полностью, в рассуждениях и обосновании нет пробелов или ошибок, возможна одна неточность - 8 баллов.

Другие виды учебной деятельности (доклады, рефераты, презентации) 10 баллов

Итоговый контроль (экзаменационная сессия) - ИК = Бср × 0,8 + Бэкз × 0,2

При проведении итогового контроля обучающийся должен ответить на 3 вопроса (два вопроса теоретического характера и один вопрос практического характера).

При оценивании ответа на вопрос теоретического характера учитывается:

- теоретическое содержание не освоено, знание материала носит фрагментарный характер, наличие грубых ошибок в ответе (2 балла);
- теоретическое содержание освоено частично, допущено не более двух-трех недочетов (4 балла);
- теоретическое содержание освоено почти полностью, допущено не более одного-двух недочетов, но обучающийся смог бы их исправить самостоятельно (6 баллов);
- теоретическое содержание освоено полностью, ответ построен по собственному плану (8 баллов).

При оценивании ответа на вопрос практического характера учитывается:

- ответ содержит менее 20% правильного решения (4 балла);
- ответ содержит 21-89 % правильного решения (6 баллов);
- ответ содержит 90% и более правильного решения (10 баллов).

6.4. Типовые контрольные задания или иные материалы, необходимые для оценки знаний, умений, навыков и (или) опыта деятельности.

Вопросы к модулям

Вопросы к 1 модулю

The fourth course

Group name: _____ **Student name:** _____

1. Text and discourse in the context of linguistic meanings?
2. What is discourse?
3. Origin of discourse analysis?
4. Earliest studies of discourse analysis?
5. What are the basic concepts of discourse analysis?
6. How are speech and writing used in discourse?

Вопросы к 2 модулю

The fourth course

Group name: _____ **Student name:** _____

1. Языковая игра в компьютерном дискурсе: лингво-культурные характеристики.
2. Каков лингвистический статус теории дискурса
3. Что такое языковая личность?
4. Что понимается под речевыми жанрами?
5. Как связаны языковая личность и речевая субкультура?

Примерные экзаменационные вопросы

1. Структура и компоненты речевой деятельности.
2. Многозначность термина дискурс.
3. Междисциплинарность теории дискурса.

4. Лингвистический статус теории дискурса.
5. Формальный и функциональный подходы к толкованию понятия дискурс.
6. Истоки двух подходов к интерпретации понятия дискурса. (З.Харрис, Э.Бенвенист)
7. Дискурс как сложное коммуникативное явление. (Ван Дейк, Фуко)
8. Коммуникативная теория текста как продукта реализации языковой системы в определенной сфере общения
9. Дискурс как речевая практика, интерактивная деятельность участников общения. (В.И.Карасик)
10. Дискурс – текст, взятый в событийном аспекте (Лингвистический энциклопедический словарь, Апресян).
11. Понятие институционального дискурса.
12. Дискурс как речевая практика, интерактивная деятельность участников общения. (В.И.Карасик)
13. Социо-психологический портрет языковой личности в дискурс-анализе.
14. Языковая личность и речевые жанры.
15. Языковая личность и речевая субкультура. Становление дискурсивного мышления языковой личности.
16. Самопрезентация языковой личности в дискурсах различных типов.
17. Компьютерная лингвистика: идеи и методы.
18. Структура и основные параметры современной интернет-коммуникации.
19. Речевые стратегии и тактики интернет-коммуникации.
20. Теория языковой личности. Виртуальная языковая личность.

7. Учебно-методическое и информационное обеспечение дисциплины

7.1 Список источников и литературы

Занятия по дисциплине «Дискурс и текст» проводятся в аудиториях. Дополнительно можно использовать фонд библиотеки университета, читальный зал и информацию всемирной информационной сети Интернет, использовать библиотечный фонд периодической литературы. Изучение данной дисциплины библиотечным фондом МУК полностью не обеспечивается, исходя из чего необходимо дополнительное использование

библиотечных фондов Национальной библиотеки и Республиканской научно-технической библиотеки, а также материалом и ресурсного отдела фонда “Сорос-Кыргызстан”.

Рекомендуемая литература:

- Барт Р. Лингвистика текста//Новое в зарубежной лингвистике, вып.8. Лингвистика текста. М.:Прогресс, 1978.
- Бахтин М.М. Эстетика словесного творчества. – М.: Искусство, 1979.
- Горелов И.Н., Седов К.Ф. Основы психолингвистики. М.: Лабиринт, 2001. С. 3 – 8.
- Дейк Т.А. Ван. Язык. Познание. Коммуникация. Сборник работ. – М.:Прогресс, 1989.
- Кубрякова Е.С. Краткий словарь когнитивных терминов. – М, 1996..
- Николаева Т.М. Краткий словарь терминов лингвистики текста.// Новое в зарубежной лингвистике. Вып.8. Лингвистика текста – М.: Прогресс, 1978 2 История возникновения 2/ 2 6 Работа с содержанием лекционного 1
- Демьянков В.З. Текст и дискурс как термины и как слова обыденного языка.//Вопросы филологии. – 2007. – 15 и развития теории дискурса курса, изучение теоретического материала, подготовка рефератов, выполнение индивидуальных заданий. №9.-С.86-95. 2.
- Горелов И.Н., Седов К.Ф. Основы психолингвистики. М.: Лабиринт, 2001. Дейк Т.А. Ван. Язык. Познание. Коммуникация. Сборник работ. – М.:Прогресс, 1989. 3. Жинкин Н.И. Развитие письменной речи учащихся 3-8 классов. Известия АПН РСФСР, вып. 78, 1956.. 4. Кубрякова Е.С. Краткий словарь когнитивных терминов. – М, 1996..
- Николаева Т.М. Краткий словарь терминов лингвистики текста.// Новое в зарубежной лингвистике. Вып.8. Лингвистика текста – М.: Прогресс, 1978. 5. Benveniste E. On Discourse//The Theoretical Essays:Film, Linguistics, Literature. – Manchester: Manchester Univ. Press, 1985. 6. Жинкин Н.И. Развитие письменной речи учащихся 3-8 классов. Известия АПН РСФСР, вып. 78, 1956. 3 Общая характеристика, категории и типы дискурса 2/ 3-4 6 Работа с содержанием лекционного курса, изучение теоретического материала, подготовка рефератов, выполнение индивидуальных заданий.
- Арутюнова Н.Д. Дискурс //Лингвистический энциклопедический словарь. – М.: Советская энциклопедия, 1990, с. 136-137. 2. Арутюнова Н.Д. Язык и мир человека. – М: Школа «Языки русской культуры», 1998.

Дополнительная литература:

- Апресян Ю.Д. Образ человека по данным языка: Попытка системного описания//Вопросы языкознания. 1995, 31, с.37-66.
- Борботько В.Г. Принципы формирования дискурса. – Сочи, 1999.
- Выготский Л.С. Мышление и речь. – М.: Лабиринт, 1999. 5. Гольдин В.Е. Этикет и речь. – Саратов: изд-во СГУ, 1978.
- Горелов И.Н. Невербальные компоненты коммуникации. – м.: КомКнига, 2006. 7. Карасик В.И., Слышкин Г.Г. Базовые характеристики лингвокультурных концептов//Антология концептов. – Волгоград: Прогресс, 2005. 8. Карасик В.И. Языковые ключи. – 16 Волгоград: Парадигма, 2007.
- Седов К.Ф. Становление дискурсивного мышления языковой личности: психо- и социолингвистические аспекты. – Саратов: Изд-во СГУ, 1999. 10.

- . б. Седов К.Ф. Человек в жанровом пространстве повседневной коммуникации// Антология речевых жанров. - М.: Лабиринт, 2007.
- Ступина Т.Н. . Лингвистический эксперимент в изучении немецкого и русского ритуального дискурса. //Профессионально ориентированное обучение иностранному языку и переводу в вузе. Материалы международной конференции (Москва, март 2013). – Москва: Изд-во РУДН, 2013. – С. 308- 314.
- Ступина Т.Н., Кулакова Е.И. Чатдискурс в социолингвистическом аспекте.// Прикладная лингвистика сегодня и завтра: актуальные проблемы. Материалы 4 Межвузовского студенческого форума по прикладной лингвистике, 20 февраля 2013г.: Вып.3. – Жуковский: МИМ 17 ЛИНК, 2013.- с.94-99.
- Ступина Т.Н. Нарративный металеписис как маркер идиостипия современного немецкоязычного молодежного романа.// Профессионально ориентированное обучение иностранному языку и переводу в вузе. Материалы международной конференции (Москва, март 2014). – Москва: Изд-во РУДН, 2014. – С. 308- 312.
- Ступина Т.Н., Леонова Е.В. Реализация тактики самоатрибуции в дневниковом дискурсе.// Вестник Восточно-Сибирского гос. ун-та технологий и управления: Научнотехнический журнал. №1 (46) – УланУдэ: Изд-во ВСГУТУ, 2014, с.146-152.
- Виртуальное общение и компьютерн оопосредован -ный дискурс как новая речевая формация 2/ 7-8 6 Работа с содержанием лекционного курса, изучение теоретического материала, подготовка рефератов, выполнение индивидуальных заданий. 1. Галичкина Е.Н. Компьютерная коммуникация: Лингвистический статус, знаковые средства, жанровое пространств – Автореф. дисс.д.ф.н., Волгоград, 2012.
- Галкин Д. Виртуальный дискурс в культуре постмодерна. //Критика и семиотика. Вып. 1-2, Томский госуниверситет, 2000, с. 26-34. 3. Горошко Е.И. Электронная коммуникация (гендерный анализ//Общение, языковое сознание и межкультурная коммуникация. – М.: Институт языкознания. 2005.
- Интернет-коммуникация как новая речевая формация. Коллективная монография. – М.: Флинта, Наука, 2012. 2. Лутовинова О.В. Лингвокультурологические характеристики виртуального дискурса. – Автореф. дисс....д.ф.н. Волгоград, 2012. 3. Ступина Т.Н., Леонова Е.В. Реализация тактики самоатрибуции в дневниковом дискурсе.// Вестник Восточно-Сибирского гос. ун-та технологий и управления: Научнотехнический журнал. №1 (46) – УланУдэ: Изд-во ВСГУТУ, 2014, с.146-152.

7.2.Перечень ресурсов информационно- телекоммуникационной сети «Интернет», необходимый для освоения дисциплины

Электронные журналы:

Образование. Лингвистика. Технологии & Коммуникация <http://alumni.iubip.ru/Sokolova/index.htm> Proficiency in English communication, English for Academic purposes http://www.esp-world.info/ESP_list.htm Language Learning & Technology <http://ilt.msu.edu/> Internet TESL Journal (For ESL-EFL Teachers) <http://iteslj.org/> Reading in a Foreign Language <http://nflrc.hawaii.edu/rfl/>

Интернет-сайты: Словари.

<http://www.englishclub.com> <http://www.en.iscolltctive.com> <http://www.rfcmd.ru/dictionary>
<http://idioms.ru> <http://www.multitran.ru> <http://online.multilex.ru> <http://www.lingvo.ru>
<https://www.booksite.ru/fulltext/1/001/008/069/404.htm>

<http://www.bse.chemport.ru> <http://www.shootdotedit.com> <http://www.entrepreneur.com>
<http://www.nytimes.com> <http://www.bbc.com> <http://www.profitbooks.net>

<https://www.examen.ru/add/manual/school-subjects/languages/russian/morfologiya-slovoobrazovanie-leksika-stilistika/leksika-i-frazeologiya-leksikologiya/>

<https://www.google.com/>

<http://www.multitran.ru/>

<http://kyrlibnet.kg/ru/ec/>

<http://www.biblioteka.kg/>

<http://www.iprbookshop.ru>

<http://www.ilim.box/>

<http://www.who.int./hinari/en/>

<http://www.search.epnet.com/>

<http://www.cambridge.org/core>

<https://library.iuk.kg/ru/>

8. Перечень учебно-методического обеспечения для самостоятельной работы обучающихся.

8.1. Планы практических (семинарских) и лабораторных занятий. Методические указания по организации и проведению

Прежде чем приступить к выполнению семинарских и лабораторных заданий необходимо изучить материал лекций и сопоставить его с трактовками, предлагаемыми в источниках в списке рекомендованной (основной и дополнительной) литературы (страницы указываются после каждой темы в практикуме и в учебно-методическом пособии).

Следует учитывать тот факт, что отводимые на изучение дисциплины часы не позволяют охватить все существующие на сегодняшний день подходы и взгляды на развитие зарубежной литературы. Некоторые из альтернативных точек зрения кратко формулируются в теоретической части раздела, некоторые излагаются в практической части в виде отдельных цитат или терминологических толкований, предлагаемых для обсуждения на семинарских занятиях. При наличии времени различные трактовки могут быть дополнительно включены в обсуждение в виде докладов и рефератов на усмотрение преподавателя.

В процессе освоения дисциплины необходимо регулярно обращаться к списку терминов, используемых в лекционных темах, с тем, чтобы к концу изучения курса каждым слушателем был составлен полный глоссарий терминов. При возникновении затруднений

в подготовке к семинарским занятиям рекомендуется обратиться к учебным пособиям и восстановить утраченные знания по данным темам.

The following issues are offered to the learners for individual work:

1	The structure and components of speech activity.
2	The ambiguity of the term discourse. Interdisciplinary discourse theory.
3	The linguistic status of discourse theory.
4	Formal and functional approaches to the interpretation of the concept of discourse.
5	The origins of two approaches to the interpretation of the concept of discourse.
6	Discourse as a complex communicative phenomenon.
7	Communicative theory of text as a product of the implementation of the language system in a certain area of communication
8	Discourse as speech practice, interactive activity of communication participants.
9	Discourse is a text taken in the event aspect (Linguistic Encyclopedic Dictionary, Апресян). The concept of institutional discourse.
10	Discourse as speech practice, interactive activity of communication participants. (V. I. Karasik)
11	Socio-psychological portrait of a linguistic personality in discourse analysis.
12	Linguistic personality and speech genres.
13	Linguistic personality and speech subculture.
14	Formation of discursive thinking of a linguistic personality.
15	Self-presentation of a linguistic personality in various types of discourses.
16	The structure and basic parameters of modern Internet communication.

8.2. Методические указания для обучающихся по освоению дисциплины

Содержание самостоятельной работы студентов с преподавателем очной формы обучения в значительной мере определяется заданиями, получаемыми от преподавателей в рамках аудиторных занятий. В ходе самостоятельной работы каждый студент обязан прочитать основную и по возможности дополнительную литературу по изучаемой теме. Выделить непонятные термины, найти их значение в литературе. Студент должен готовиться к предстоящему семинарскому занятию по всем, обозначенным в учебно-методическом комплексе вопросам. Не проясненные (дискуссионные) в ходе самостоятельной работы вопросы следует выписать в конспект и впоследствии прояснить их на семинарских занятиях или индивидуальных консультациях с ведущим преподавателем.

К особенностям самостоятельной работы очной формы обучения относятся:

- ✓ использование электронной библиотеки и иных электронных ресурсов;

- ✓ активное участие в научно-практических конференциях, научных конкурсах, олимпиадах, факультативных курсах;
- ✓ сбор, обобщение и анализ нормативных источников и иных материалов для участия в диалогах, дискуссиях, ролевых играх, предусмотренных планами практических занятий.
- ✓ использование опыта своей практической деятельности для подготовки к аудиторным занятиям. Объем самостоятельной работы студентов очной формы обучения, предусмотренный учебным планом, определяет важнейшее значение данного вида учебной деятельности. В рамках самостоятельной работы студент, обучающийся очно, работает со значительными объемами информации, выполняет поставленные перед ним учебные задания, осуществляет подготовку к промежуточной аттестации.

При этом студент использует все предусмотренные рабочей программой учебной дисциплины виды самостоятельной работы с учетом рекомендаций, полученных им от преподавателя в рамках практического занятия.

Виды самостоятельной работы по всем темам:

- ✓ изучение учебной литературы;
- ✓ изучение дополнительной научной литературы;
- ✓ подготовка презентаций Power Point;
- ✓ выполнение заданий преподавателя;

Одной из интересных форм самостоятельной работы студентов является изучение наизусть топиков. Эта форма работы дает возможность закрепления знаний, речевую практику, словарного запаса, полученных на занятиях, расширения эрудиции у студентов, уяснения терминологии по дисциплине, активизации творческих возможностей студента. Самостоятельное составление топиков студентами осуществляется после освоения половины тематических занятий по дисциплине. Содержание и сдача тестов фиксируется и проверяется преподавателем. На семинарских занятиях все студенческие тесты оглашаются и разбираются.

8.3 Методические рекомендации по подготовке письменных работ

Методические рекомендации по СРС

Тематические топики являются важным процессом самостоятельной работы студентов. Она позволяет расширить и углубить знания, полученные при аудиторной форме занятий по изучаемому курсу, проверить умение студента самостоятельно выделять и структурировать определенную тематику, работать со справочной, учебной, научно-исследовательской литературой, специфическими по форме (особенно электронными) и содержанию (в данном случае – правовыми) источниками, анализировать и синтезировать информацию.

Тематика топиков является примерной (ориентировочной). Тематика в значительной степени повторяет содержание аудиторных занятий и экзаменационных вопросов. Это определяется тем, что, во-первых, она является ориентировочной, а во-вторых, дает

возможность использовать для подготовки к итоговым контрольным занятиям максимально использовать все формы учебной работы.

В работе формулируется основная тема, и ставятся задачи по ее реализации, выделяется объект и предмет исследования. Основная цель работы посвящена раскрытию темы. Требования по структуре топика: каждый топик должен иметь минимум 1 страницу текста на английском языке. Простые, не усложненные предложения должны объяснить и раскрыть основную тему, которая написано каждым студентом индивидуально.

Примерные критерии оценки СРС

Таблица

Параметры оценивания	Кол-во баллов
	Максимальное
Содержание текста	4
Умение кратко и четко изложить основные вопросы и задачи	6
Итого	10

8.4 . Иные материалы

В конце курса дисциплины, студенты должны написать свои рефераты, доклады по изученным темам.

9. Материально-техническое обеспечение дисциплины

В качестве материально-технического обеспечения дисциплины указывается необходимое для обучения оборудование, демонстрационные приборы, мультимедийные средства, учебные фильмы, плакаты, наглядные пособия; требования к аудиториям – компьютерные классы, академические или специально оборудованные аудитории и лаборатории, наличие доски и т.д.

10.Глоссарий.

Abbreviation

Words which are formed from initial letters of phrasal terms. E.g. MP -member of Parliament
acronyms: read as if they were words. E.g. UNO - [ˈju:nou]

initialisms: items read as individual letters. E.g. B.B.C - [ˈbi:ˈbi:ˈsi:]

Affix

Non-root morphemes used for forming new words which belong to a different part of speech or to a different subcategorisation group within the same part of speech. According to their position they can be prefixes (Reread) and suffixes (developMENT)

Amelioration

A result of change of meaning in connotation, positive connotations acquired by the word previously neutral or with negative connotations

Antonym

A kind of oppositives. Words of the same part of speech and the same semantic field, denotative components of LSVs of which render contradictory or contrary notions. Contradictory antonyms are mutually opposed and deny each other. E.g. *impatient*=*not patient*. Contrary antonyms denote opposite notions on a scale. They are gradable, as there are possibilities between them. E.g. *cold-cool-warm-hot*

Canadianism

A specific group of lexemes used only in Canadian variant of English

Causes of semantic change

Extralinguistic: a) appearance of new things. They are called by already existing words which denote things and notions in some way correlated with new things. Thus the old word acquires a new meaning. E.g. the meaning 'piece of news obtained and published by one newspaper before its competitors' entered the semantic structure of the word *scoop* only after the appearance of newspapers and competition among them for sensational news: b) appearance of new knowledge about familiar things. E.g. the word *earth* developed the meaning 'the third planet from the sun' only after people learnt more about our solar system.

Linguistic: a) ellipsis, b) linguistic analogy, c) discrimination of synonyms

Compound

The morphemic structure of a word with two or more stems, simple or derived. E.g. *shockproof*, *self-praise*, *frost-bitten*

Compound words

Words consisting of two (or more) stems which can be used as free forms. E.g. *world-famous*. *to blacklist*, *a holdall*, *psycho-therapy*

Connotation

The part of word-meaning, often optional, which conveys the speaker's attitude to social circumstances and the appropriate functional style, his approval or disapproval of his speech partner or the object spoken, his emotions or the degree of intensity. In fact it is implicit information about the communicative conditions under which the word may be appropriately used without causing puzzlement, embarrassment or misunderstanding. You wouldn't make friends with a politician whose party you call *a clique*. You will sound ridiculous if you turn to your very grown-up boss with ' *Your mummy wants you on the phone*'. Your little son will not understand you if you say: ' *Show me your abdomen*' .

Conversion

The way of forming words of one part of speech from words of another part of speech without any morphological change in their basic forms. However, grammatical paradigms would be different, so conversion may be defined as a formation of the new word through change in its paradigm.

Conversives

words denoting names of unsymmetrical relations or names of arguments of these relations which acquire opposite meanings in these relations. E.g. *to buy - to sell, to give-to receive* (names of relations), *an addressee -an addresser, the boss -an employee* (names of arguments)

Denotation

The conceptual content of a word-meaning.

Derivational compound

The morphemic structure of a word based on a phrasal structure; words of a phrase are joined together by composition or affixation. E.g. *kind heart = (kind+heart)+ ed) =kind-hearted, dark-haired, good-neighbourly*

Euphemism

a word which indirectly names an object which is unmentionable for some reasons

Extension of meaning

A result of change of meaning in denotation; a word with a previous meaning of a smaller extension acquires a meaning with a larger extension. E.g. Target -1) 'мишень для стрельбы из лука' 2) 'любая мишень'

Generalization of meaning

A result of change of meaning in denotation, a process in accordance with which the word previously used in some special sublanguage is transferred into a national language, often with an extension of meaning

Homonymy

words which are different in meaning but similar in a) sound-form, b) spelling, c) both. Meanings of homonyms are not correlated

A result of semantic change in denotation; restriction of the extension of the word-meaning. E.g. *fowl* meant in OE 'any bird'. now it means 'domestic hen or cock'

Phraseological fusions

Set-expressions which are characterised by idiomaticity (lack of motivation: the meaning of the expression is not deducible from the direct meanings of the components) and structural stability: *a dead heat, to pull smb's leg, to get the wind up*

Phrasemes

Set-expressions which are built on the pattern Adj.+N with one of the components having its direct meaning. The other component, usually the adjective, is used in a phraseologically bound meaning which is realized only in combination with the noun - part of the set-phrase: *small talk* (пустая, светская болтовня), *mellow judgement* (мудрое, снисходительное суждение), and *material evidence* (важные доказательства)

Paradigm

System of word-forms (grammatical forms) of a word or part of speech. In a wide sense - any system.

Polysemy

An inherent property of a natural language in which one linguistic unit (a word, a morpheme, a phrase, a sentence) is associated with a number of meanings. In lexicology polysemy refers to lexemes, usually word having more than one meanings. The meanings are called lexico-semantic (or lexico-grammatic) variants and all together they constitute a semantic structure of a polysemantic word

Referent

A thing, phenomenon, object, event of the outside world, to which language units refer

Semantic change

The process of enriching the semantic structure of a polysemantic word with new meanings; old meanings may become obsolete and fall out of use.

Seme

A component of word-meaning which is not expressed formally and can be singled out only relationally, while comparing the word-meanings of lexemes of one and the same semantic field

Set-expressions (phraseology)

Ready-made phrases with different degree of motivation of meaning - from completely unmotivated (idioms) to partially motivated (through direct meaning of one of the components or metaphorical extension) and a certain but not absolute stability of phrase structure.

Slang

Language of highly colloquial type, the lower, most informal layer of the national language (general slang) and of jargon, which uses new words or current words in special uses.

Specialization of meaning

The result of a semantic change in accordance with which the word of a national language passes into a sublanguage used by a limited group of people, with a certain modification of meaning

