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Contents

Introduction

After getting the Independence the Republic of Uzbekistan has worked out an own model of development, talking into account the specific social and political traditions in the country. One of the most important conditions for the development of any country is a well functioning education system. As the education system ensures the formation of a highly developed that must be able to live in a highly, with social and personal activity, ability to function independently in the public and political life.

By 1997 on the basis of the National Model of development there had been worked out the national program for Personal Training which defined conceptional way and concrete details, mechanisms for radical reforming the education system and personal training.

The program is the normative scientific basis for reforms. Starting from 1997 it is being put into practice stage by stage. The document paves the way for radical reforms in the structure and content of education system of the National Program we need to change some ways of teaching the English language under school conditions as the old approaching longer meet the requirements of the last year. The historic changes took place in Uzbekistan, since there have been obtained. Independence and sovereignty after September 1991, in Independent Uzbekistan many political, economical, cultural and social factors have changed. Therefore, the very time of getting Independence the head of the republic I.A. Karimov attended to change Educational system and personal Training so high developed before Independence no longer meets requirement of democratic and marked changes occurred in the republic today[1].

It should be noted that the National Program of Personal Training had some unique features. The reforms are carried out on a extensive scale and are supported scientifically.

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[1] I.A.Karimov «Uzbekistan along the rood of Independence and progress» Tashkent. 1993, p.p.67

As the President I.A. Karimov emphasized in his book "Uzbekistan along the road of Independence and progress". There are four path of reform and development is based:

- Adherence to universal human values
- Consolidation and development of the nation's spiritual heritage
- Freedom for the individual's realization
- Patriotism

The highest objective the reformation in Uzbekistan is to revive those traditions, fill them with new content and set up all necessary conditions achieving peace and democracy, prosperity, cultural advancement freedom of conscience and intellectual maturity for every person on earth.

According to the requirement on the National Program of Personal training and reforming of highest education in the republic of Uzbekistan it is important to make effective changes in the system of Higher Education[2].

As Karimov I.A. highlighted "Our young generation must be quick-cutter, wiser, healthier and of course, must be happier than us".
In order to achieve "Harmoniously developed generation" Educators should use all the suitable aids[3].

The graduate qualification work under discusssion is devoted to the discourse analysis, mainly discourse analysis of the spoken English. The target work consists of the introduction, the main part including the main principles of discourse analysis discipline and its role in language learning, discourse analysis of the spoken English, conclusion and bibliography.

This research work is a result of a keen and long-lasting interest in applied linguistics in combination with the factors that enable people to interpret sophisticated texts in both native and foreign language. All in all, although many coursebooks authors try to include genuine texts in their publications, activities that accompany them are generally limited. Tasks which would not only check the

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[2] .I.A.Karimov "Uzbekistan along the road of Independence and progress" Tashkent 1993, p. 67

[3] I.A.Karimov "There is no future without history".Tashkent.1997.p:47

understanding of the gist or key vocabulary, but also important details are scarce. The question is whether on the basis of discourse analysis theories it is possible to make it easy for foreign language learners to read texts with full comprehension. The reader of this graduate qualification work should bear in mind that following the authorities on discourse analysis the author of this work uses the terms 'discourse' and 'text' synonymously.[4]

This work is divided into two parts: theoretical, where a scholarly set of ideas is presented, and practical, devoted to the account of the study conducted by the author of this paper in order to either undermine or support the ideas presented in the main chapter. The former section is subdivided into three chapters. The first of them provides a thorough description of the term 'discourse' itself, including examples of its various types and functions. The second one presents a historical background of how scholars became interested in the use of language, the manners in which they examined speech and writing, as well as it depicts the division of discursive devices. The last chapter of the theoretical part describes the ways of applying the theory to teaching various aspects of language.

Since its introduction to modern science the term 'discourse' has taken various, sometimes very broad meanings. In order to specify which of the numerous senses is analyzed in the following dissertation it has to be defined. Originally the word 'discourse' comes from Latin 'discursus' which denoted 'conversation, speech'. Thus understood, however, discourse refers to too wide an area of human life, therefore only discourse from the vantage point of linguistics, and especially applied linguistics, is explained here.

There is no agreement among linguists as to the use of the term discourse in that some use it in reference to texts, while others claim it denotes speech which is for instance illustrated by the following definition: "Discourse: a continuous stretch of (especially spoken) language larger than a sentence, often constituting a

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[4] Brown Gillian, Yule George Discourse Analysis Cambridge University Press, 2003, p. 288

coherent unit such as a sermon, argument, joke, or narrative". On the other hand Dakowska, being aware of differences between kinds of discourses indicates the unity of communicative intentions as a vital element of each of them. Consequently she suggests using terms 'text' and 'discourse' almost interchangeably betokening the former refers to the linguistic product, while the latter implies the entire dynamics of the processes[5].

Discourse, in Collins dictionary of English, is defined as "verbal communication; talk or conversation" that shows the discipline's – discourse analysis - major concern with analysing real conversation. Discourse, according to Stubbs, is "language above the sentence or above the clause" and 'the study of discourse is the study of any aspect of language use. In simple words, discourse analysis is "the study of language in use". The discipline is based on the fact that language needs a context for its existence and it is impossible to understand the linguistic items, used in discourse, without a context. As Fairclough states:

"Discourse constitutes the social. Three dimensions of the social are distinguished – knowledge, social relations, and social identity – and these correspond respectively to three major functions of language. Discourse is shaped by relations of power, and invested ideologies."

Discourse analysis, being a relative social phenomenon solely depends on the wide range of disciplines, such as sociology, anthropology, cognitive and social psychology, philosophy, for knowledge and methodologies and it is difficult to draw a clear line of demarcation between certain linguistic fields, such as anthropological linguistics, psycholinguistic, discourse analysis and cognitive linguistics, as the approaches to " study of language in use" are borrowed from these sub fields and most of the times the findings are independently supported by the fresh evidences. Discourse analysis, in turn, is composed of a wide range of sub-disciplines, such as pragmatics, conversational analysis, speech act theory and ethnography of speaking. The discipline studies language used in the context, so its

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[5] McCarthy, M. 1991. *Discourse analysis for language teachers.* Cambridge:CUP

subject matter is language as a whole, either written or spoken, in terms of transcriptions, larger texts, audio or video recordings, which provides an opportunity to the analyst to work with language rather than a single sentence. Discourse, according to Zellig Harris, who first used the term, is a sequence of the utterances. He observes that: "Stretches longer than one utterance are not usually considered in current descriptive linguistics. The linguist usually considers the interrelations of elements only within one utterance at a time. This yields a possible description of the material, since the interrelations of elements within each utterance (or utterance type) are worked out, and any longer discourse is describable as succession of utterances, i.e. a succession of elements having the stated interrelations. This restriction means that nothing is generally said about the interrelations among whole utterances within a sequence."

Grenoble , explaining Harris's definition of discourse, states that:

"Harris interestingly enough ruled out the kind of study which discourse analysis aims to do. He is of the view that linguistic research focuses on the elements within an utterance; discourse can be considered as a sequence of utterance. Harris argues that the study of the interrelations between utterances within a discourse; the scope of a discourse analysis required much more information than the theoretical apparatus of that time could handle. While this held true for 1950s and 1960s, roughly, but 1970s saw an emerging body of different approaches including pragmatics, conversation analysis, textual linguistics, and relevance theory.[6]

"Pragmatics as a general term, according to Grenoble, can be understood in at least as many ways as discourse analysis; some linguists equate the two terms. In its narrow sense, it refers to linguistic theory that has been directly influenced by the philosophy of language. In this scientific work I am concerned with the

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[6] Carter, R. *Introducing applied linguistics.* Harlow: Penguin. 1993, pp. 78-89

approaches, either similar or different, used by stylistics and discourse analysis to analyse different literary genre.

Seven criteria which have to be fulfilled to qualify either a written or a spoken text as a discourse have been suggested by Beaugrande. These include:

- **Cohesion** - grammatical relationship between parts of a sentence essential for its interpretation;

- **Coherence** - the order of statements relates one another by sense.

- Intentionality - the message has to be conveyed deliberately and consciously;

- **Acceptability** - indicates that the communicative product needs to be satisfactory in that the audience approves it;

- **Informativeness** - some new information has to be included in the discourse;

- **Situationality** - circumstances in which the remark is made are important;

- **Intertextuality** - reference to the world outside the text or the interpreters' schemata.

Not only is discourse difficult to define, but it is also not easy to make a clear cut division of discourse as such. Apart from obvious differences between speech and writing like the fact that writing includes some medium which keeps record of the conveyed message while speech involves only air, there are certain dissimilarities that are less apparent. Speech develops in time in that the speaker says with speed that is suitable for him, even if it may not be appropriate for the listener and though a request for repetition is possible, it is difficult to imagine a conversation in which every sentence is to be rephrased. Moreover, talking might be spontaneous which results in mistakes, repetition, sometimes less coherent sentences where even grunts, stutters or pauses might be meaningful. The speaker usually knows the listener, or listeners, or he is at least aware of the fact that he is being listened to, which enables him to adjust the register. As interlocutors are most often in face-to-face encounters (unless using a phone) they take advantage of extralinguistic signals as grimaces, gesticulation, expressions such as 'here', 'now',

or 'this' are used. Employment of nonsense vocabulary, slang and contracted forms (we're, you've) is another feature of oral discourse. Among other significant features of speech there are rhythm, intonation, speed of uttering and, what is more important, inability to conceal mistakes made while speaking.

In contrast, writing develops in space in that it needs a means to carry the information. The author of the text does not often know who is going to read the text, as a result he cannot adjust to readers' specific expectations. The writer is frequently able to consider the content of his work for almost unlimited period of time which makes it more coherent, having complex syntax. What is more, the reader might not instantly respond to the text, ask for clarification, hence neat message organization, division to paragraphs, layout are of vital importance to make comprehension easier.

Since it is not easy to unambiguously clarify what a discourse is it seems reasonable to describe features which are mutual to all its kinds. To do it thoroughly Saussurean concepts of langue and parole are of use. Ferdinand de Saussure divided the broad meaning of language into langue, which is understood as a system that enables people to speak as they do, and parole - a particular set of produced statements. Following this division discourse relates more to parole, for it always occurs in time and is internally characterized by successively developing expressions in which the meaning of the latter is influenced by the former, while langue is abstract. To list some additional traits: discourse is always produced by somebody whose identity, as well as the identity of the interpreter, is significant for the proper understanding of the message. On the other hand langue is impersonal that is to say more universal, due to society. Furthermore, discourse always happens in either physical, or linguistic context and within a meaningful fixed time, whereas langue does not refer to anything. Consequently, only discourse may convey messages thanks to langue which is its framework.[7]

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[7] Fairclough, N Longman. Critical Discourse Analysis, London:, 1995, pp. 5-23

Not only is discourse difficult to define, but it is also not easy to make a clear cut division of discourse as such. Therefore, depending on the form linguists distinguish various kinds of communicative products. A type of discourse might be characterized as a class of either written or spoken text, which is frequently casually specified, recognition of which aids its perception, and consequently production of potential response. One of such divisions, known as the Organon model, distinguishes three types of discourse depending of the aspect of language emphasized in the text. If the relation to the context is prevailing, it conveys some knowledge thus it is an informative type of discourse. When the stress is on a symptom aspect the fulfilled function is expression, as a result the discourse type is narrative. Last but not least in this division is argumentative discourse which is characterized by the accent on the signal aspect.

This distinction due to its suitability for written communicative products more than for spoken ones, faced constructive criticism whose accurate observation portrayed that there are more functions performed. Consequently there ought to be more types of discourse, not to mention the fact that these often mix and overlap. Thorough examination of the matter was conducted, thus leading to the emergence of a new, more detailed classification of kinds of spoken texts.

The analysis of oral communicative products was the domain of Steger, who examined features of various situations and in his categorization divided discourse into six types: presentation, message, report, public debate, conversation and interview. The criteria of this division include such factors as presence, or absence of interaction, number of speakers and their relation to each other (their rights, or as Steger names it 'rank'), flexibility of topic along with selection and attitude of interlocutors towards the subject matter[8].

However, it is worth mentioning that oral discourse might alter its character, for instance in the case of presenting a lecture when students start asking questions

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[8] Gee, J. P. *An introduction to discourse analysis.* London: Routledge. 2001, p. 67

the type changes to interview, or even a conversation. Using this classification it is possible to anticipate the role of partakers as well as goals of particular acts of communication.

The above mentioned typologies do not exhaust the possible division of discourse types, yet, nowadays endeavor to create a classification that would embrace all potential kinds is being made. Also, a shift of interest in this field might be noticed, presently resulting in focus on similarities and differences between written and spoken communication .

II. The main principles of discourse analysis discipline and its role in language learning.

§1. A brief historical overview of discourse analysis

Discourse analysis is a primarily linguistic study examining the use of language by its native population whose major concern is investigating language functions along with its forms, produced both orally and in writing. Moreover, identification of linguistic qualities of various genres, vital for their recognition and interpretation, together with cultural and social aspects which support its comprehension, is the domain of discourse analysis. To put it in another way, the branch of applied linguistics dealing with the examination of discourse attempts to find patterns in communicative products as well as and their correlation with the circumstances in which they occur, which are not explainable at the grammatical level.

Discourse analysis is concerned with the study of the relationship between language and the contexts in which it is used. It grew out of work in different discipline in the 1960s and early 1970s, including linguistics, semiotics, psychology, anthropology and sociology. Discourse analysts study language in

use: written texts of all kind, and spoken data, from conversation to highly institutionalised forms of talk. [9]

At a time when linguistics was largely concerned with the analysis of single sentences, Zellig Harris published a paper with the title "Discourse analysis". Harris was interested in the distribution of linguistic elements in extended texts, and the links between the text and its social situation, though his paper is a far cry from the discourse analysis we era used to nowadays. Also important in the early years was the emergence of semiotics and the French structuralist approach to the study of narrative. In the 1960s, Dell Hymes provided a sociological perspective with the study of speech in its social setting. The linguistics philosophers such as Austin, Searle and Grice were also influential in the study of language as social action, reflected in speech – act theory and the formulation of conversational maxims, alongside the emergence of pragmatics, which is the study of meaning in context.

British discourse analysis was greatly influenced by M.A.K. Halliday's functional approach to language, which in turn has connexions with the Prague School of linguists. Halliday's framework emphasizes the social function of language and the thematic and informational stricture of speech and writing. Also important in Britain were Sinclair and Coulthard at the University of Birmingham, who developed a model for the description of teacher – pupil of talk, based on a hierarchy of discourse units. Other similar work has dealt with doctor – patient interaction, service encounters, interviews, debates and business negotiations, as well as monologues. Novel work in the British tradition has also been done on intonation in discourse. The British work has principally followed structural-linguistics criteria on the basis of the isolation of units, and sets of rules defining well-formed sequenced of discourse.

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[9] Potter, J., Discourse Analysis as a Way of Analysing Naturally Occurring Talk, London: Sage Publications 1997, pp. 23-26

American discourse analysis has been dominated by work within the ethnomethodological tradition, which emphasizes the research method of close observation of groups of people communicating in natural settings. It examines types of speech event such as storytelling, greeting rituals and verbal duels in different cultural and social settings. What is often called conversation analysis within the American tradition can also be included under the general heading of discourse analysis, the emphasis is not upon building structural models but on the close observation of the behaviour of participants in talk and on patterns which recur over a wide range of natural data. The work of Goffman, and Socks, Schegloff and Jefferson is important in the study of conversational norms turn-taking, and other aspects of spoken interaction. Alongside the conversation analysis, working within the sociolinguistic tradition, Labov's investigations of oral storytelling have also contributed to a long history of interest in narrative discourse. The American work has produced a large number of descriptions of discourse type, as well as insights into the social constraints of politeness and face-preserving phenomena in talk overlapping with British work in pragmatics.

Also relevant to the development of discourse analysis as a whole is the work of text grammarians, working mostly with written language. Text grammarians see texts as language elements strung together in relationships with one another that can be defined tic. Linguists such as Van Djik, De Beaugrande, Halliday and Hasan have made a significant impact in this area. The Prague School of linguists, with their interest in the structuring of information in discourse, has also been influential. Its most important contribution has been to show the links between grammar and discourse.

Discourse analysis has grown into a wide – ranging and heterogeneous discipline which finds its unity in the description of language above the sentence and an interest in the contexts and cultural influenced which affect language in use. It is also now, increasingly, forming a backdrop to research in Applied Linguistics, and second language learning and teaching in particular.

Discourse analysis is the examination of language use by members of a speech community. It involves looking at both language form and language function and includes the study of both spoken interaction and written texts. It identifies linguistic features that characterize different genres as well as social and cultural factors that aid in our interpretation and understanding of different texts and types of talk. A discourse analysis of written texts might include a study of topic development and cohesion across the sentences, while an analysis of spoken language might focus on these aspects plus turn-taking practices, opening and closing sequences of social encounters, or narrative structure[10].

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

This digest focuses on the application of discourse analysis to second language teaching and learning. It provides examples of how teachers can improve their teaching practices by investigating actual language use both in and out of the classroom, and how students can learn language through exposure to different types of discourse.

§2. Discourse analysis and second language teaching

Even with the most communicative approaches, the second language classroom is limited in its ability to develop learners' communicative competence in the target language. This is due to the restricted number of contact hours with the language; minimal opportunities for interacting with native speakers; and

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[10] Salkie, R.. *Text and Discourse analysis.* London: Routledge. Scollon, R. 2001. *Mediated Discourse. The nexus of practice.* London: Routledge. 1995, pp. 66-78

limited exposure to the variety of functions, genres, speech events, and discourse types that occur outside the classroom. Given the limited time available for students to practice the target language, teachers should maximize opportunities for student participation. Classroom research is one way for teachers to monitor both the quantity and quality of students' output. By following a four-part process of Record-View-Transcribe-Analyze, second language teachers can use discourse analytic techniques to investigate the interaction patterns in their classrooms and to see how these patterns promote or hinder opportunities for learners to practice the target language. This process allows language teachers to study their own teaching behavior—specifically, the frequency, distribution, and types of questions they use and their effect on students' responses.

Step One: Videotape a complete lesson. Be sure to capture all of your questions and the students' responses. (Opportunities to speak the target language are often created by teachers' questions.)

Step Two: Watch the videotape. As you watch it, think about the types of questions you asked. Look for recurring patterns in your questioning style and the impact it has on the students' responses.

Step Three: Transcribe the lesson. A transcript will make it easier to identify the types of questions in the data and to focus on specific questions and student responses.

Step Four: Analyze the videotape and transcript. Why did you ask each question? What type of question was it—open (e.g., "What points do you think the author was making in the chapter you read yesterday?") or closed (e.g., "Did you like the chapter?")? Was the question effective in terms of your goals for teaching and learning? What effect did your questions have on the students' opportunities to practice the target language? How did the students respond to different types of questions? Were you satisfied with their responses? Which questions elicited the most discussion from the students? Did the students ask any questions? Focusing on actual classroom interaction, teachers can investigate how one aspect of their teaching style affects students' opportunities for speaking the target language. They

can then make changes that will allow students more practice with a wider variety of discourse types[11].

Teachers can also use this process of Record-View-Transcribe-Analyze to study communication patterns in different classroom activities, such as student-to-student interactions during a paired role-play task and during a small-group cooperative learning activity. Communicative activities are expected to promote interaction and to provide opportunities for students to engage in talk. Teachers are likely to discover that students produce different speech patterns in response to different tasks. For example, a map activity is likely to elicit a series of questions and answers among participants, whereas a picture narration task requires a monologue developed around a narrative format. Given that teachers use communicative tasks to evaluate learners' proficiency, a better understanding of the influence of specific activities on learner discourse will likely lead teachers to use a greater variety of tasks in order to gain a more comprehensive picture of students' abilities. By recording, transcribing, and analyzing students' discourse, teachers can gain insight into the effect of specific tasks on students' language production and, over time, on their language development.

A discourse analysis of classroom interactions can also shed light on cross-cultural linguistic patterns that may be leading to communication difficulties. For example, some speakers may engage in overlap, speaking while someone else is taking a turn-at-talk. For some linguistic groups, this discourse behavior can be interpreted as a signal of engagement and involvement; however, other speakers may view it as an interruption and imposition on their speaking rights. Teachers can use the Record-View-Transcribe-Analyze technique to study cross-cultural interactions in their classrooms, helping students identify different communication strategies and their potential for miscommunication.

Although some variables of language learning are beyond the control of second language teachers, discourse analysis can be a useful analytic tool for making informed changes in instructional practices. Mainstream teachers,

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[11] Schiffrin Deborah, Approaches to Discourse, Blackwell Oxford UK and Cambridge USA. 1994, pp. 3-24

especially those with second language learners, can also use this technique to study classroom interactions in order to focus on the learning opportunities available to students with limited English proficiency. In fact, discourse analysis can be an integral part of a program of professional development for all teachers that includes classroom-based research, with the overall aim of improving teaching (Johnson, 1995).

§3. Discourse analysis and second language learning

Language learners face the monumental task of acquiring not only new vocabulary, syntactic patterns, and phonology, but also discourse competence, sociolinguistic competence, strategic competence, and interactional competence. They need opportunities to investigate the systematicity of language at all linguistic levels, especially at the highest level. Without knowledge of and experience with the discourse and sociocultural patterns of the target language, second language learners are likely to rely on the strategies and expectations acquired as part of their first language development, which may be inappropriate for the second language setting and may lead to communication difficulties and misunderstandings.

One problem for second language learners is limited experience with a variety of interactive practices in the target language. Therefore, one of the goals of second language teaching is to expose learners to different discourse patterns in different texts and interactions. One way that teachers can include the study of discourse in the second language classroom is to allow the students themselves to study language, that is, to make them discourse analysts. By exploring natural language use in authentic environments, learners gain a greater appreciation and understanding of the discourse patterns associated with a given genre or speech event as well as the sociolinguistic factors that contribute to linguistic variation across settings and contexts. For example, students can study speech acts in a service encounter, turn-taking patterns in a conversation between friends, opening and closings of answering machine messages, or other aspects of speech events.

Riggenbach suggests a wide variety of activities that can easily be adapted to suit a range of second language learning contexts.

One discourse feature that is easy to study is listener response behavior, also known as backchannels. Backchannels are the brief verbal responses that a listener uses while another individual is talking, such as mm-hmm, ok, yeah, and oh wow. Listener response can also be non-verbal, for instance head nods. Research has identified variation among languages in the use of backchannels, which makes it an interesting feature to study. Variation has been found not only in the frequency of backchannels, but also in the type of backchannels, their placement in the ongoing talk, and their interpretation by the participants. Students can participate in the Record-View-Transcribe-Analyze technique to study the linguistic form and function of backchannels in conversation.

Step One: Ask to video- or audiotape a pair of native speakers engaging in conversation, perhaps over coffee or lunch.

Step Two: Play the tape for students. Have them identify patterns in the recorded linguistic behavior. In this case, pay attention to the backchanneling behavior of the participants. Is the same backchannel token used repeatedly, or is there variation?

Step Three: Transcribe the conversation so that students can count the number and types of backchannel tokens and examine their placement within the discourse.

Step 4: Have students analyze specific discourse features individually, in pairs or in small groups. These are some questions to consider: How often do the participants use a backchannel token? How does backchanneling contribute to the participants' understanding of and involvement in the conversation? How can differences in backchannel frequency be explained? How does backchanneling work in the students' native language?

Students can collect and analyze data themselves. Once collected, this set of authentic language data can be repeatedly examined for other conversational features, then later compared to discourse features found in other speech events. This discourse approach to language learning removes language from the confines

of textbooks and makes it tangible, so that students can explore language as interaction rather than as grammatical units. Teachers can also use these activities to raise students' awareness of language variation, dialect differences, and cultural diversity[12].

The difference in construction and reception of language was the basis of its conventional distinction into speaking and writing. Nevertheless, when the structure of discourse is taken into consideration more essential division into formal and informal communicative products gains importance. Formal discourse is more strict in that it requires the use of passive voice, lack of contracted forms together with impersonality, complex sentence structure and, in the case of the English language, vocabulary derived from Latin. That is why formal spoken language has many features very similar to written texts, particularly absence of vernacular vocabulary and slang, as well as the employment of rhetorical devices to make literary-like impact on the listener.

Informal discourse, on the other hand, makes use of active voice mainly, with personal pronouns and verbs which show feelings such as 'I think', 'we believe'. In addition, contractions are frequent in informal discourse, no matter if it is written or spoken. Consequently it may be said that informal communicative products are casual and loose, while formal ones are more solemn and governed by strict rules as they are meant to be used in official and serious circumstances.

The relation of the producer of the message and its receiver, the amount of addressees and factors such as public or private occasion are the most important features influencing selecting either formal or informal language. Therefore, it is not unreasonable to assume that the contemporary learner, who may easily travel and use his linguistic skills outside class, will encounter mainly informal discourse, which due to its flexibility and unpredictability might be the most difficult to

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[12] Yates, S., Taylor, S., Wetherell, M., , Discourse as data: A guide for analysis, London; Sage. 2001, p.67

comprehend. Accordingly, it seems rational to teach all varieties of language relying on authentic oral and written texts

With written texts, some of the problems associated with spoken transcripts are absent: we do not have to content with people all speaking at once, the writer has usually had time to think about what to say and how to say it, and the sentence are usually well formed in a way that the utterance of natural, spontaneous talk are not. But the overall questions remain the same: what norms or rules do people adhere to when creating written texts? Are texts structured according to recurring principles, is there a hierarchy of units comparable to acts, moves and exchanges, and are there conventional ways of opening and closing texts? As with spoken discourse, if we do find such regularities and if they can be shown as elements that have different realizations in different languages, or that they may present problems for learners in other ways, then the insights of written discourse analysis might be applicable, in specifiable ways, to language teaching.

We shall consider some grammatical regularities observable in well – formed written text and how the structuring of sentences has implications for units such as paragraphs and for the progression of whole texts. We shall also look at how the grammar of English offers a limited set of options for creating surface links between the clauses and the sentences of a text, otherwise known as **cohesion.** Basically, most texts display links from sentence to sentence in terms of grammatical feature such as pronominalisation, ellipses (the omission of otherwise expected elements because they are retrievable from the previous text or context) and conjunctions of various kinds. The resources available for grammatical cohesion can be listed finitely and compared across languages for translatability and distribution in real texts. Texts displaying such cohesive features are easy to find, such as this one on telephones:

If you'd like to give someone a phone for Christmas, there are plenty to choose from whichever you go for, if it's to be used on the BT (British Telecom) network, make sure it's approved – look for the label with a green circle to confirm this. Phones labelled with a red triangle are

prohibited .

The italicised items are all interpretable in relation to items in previous sentence. Plenty is assumed to mean "Plenty of phones"; you in the first and second sentence are interpreted as the same "You"; whichever is interpreted as "Whichever telephone"; it is understood as the telephone, and this as "The fact that it is approved". These are features of grammatical cohesion, but there are lexical clues too: go for is a synonym of choose, and there is lexical repetition of phones, and of label[13].

Notice that, when talking of **cohesion** in the telephone text, we spoke of interpreting items and understanding them. This is important because the cohesive items are clues or signals as to how the text should be read, they are not absolutes. The pronoun it only gives us the information that a non – human entity is being referred to; it does not necessarily tell us which one. It could potentially have referred to Christmas in the phone texts, but that would have produced an incoherent reading of the text. So cohesion is only a guide to coherence, and coherence is something created by the reader in the act of reading the text. Coherence is the feeling that a text hangs together, that it makes sense, and is not just a jumble of sentences. The sentence "Clare loves potatoes. She was born in Ireland" are cohesive (Clare/she), but are only coherent if one already shares the stereotype ethnic association between being Irish and loving potatoes, or is prepared to assume a cause – effect relationship between two sentence. So cohesion is only part of coherence in reading and writing, and indeed in spoken language too, for the same process operate there.

III. Discourse analysis of the spoken English.

§1. The characteristics of spoken language.

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[13] Rogers, R. (ed.). *An introduction to critical discourse analysis in education.* Mahwah: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc. 2004, p. 98

The examination of oral discourse is mainly the domain of linguists gathered at the University of Birmingham, who at first concentrated on the language used during teacher - learner communication, afterwards altering their sphere of interest to more general issues. However, patterns of producing speech characteristic of communities, or members of various social classes within one population were also of ethnomethodologists' interest. A result of such inquiries was discovering how turn taking differs from culture to culture as well as how standards of politeness vary. In addition, manners of beginning discussions on new topics were described. What is more, it was said that certain characteristics are common to all societies, for instance, indicating the end of thought or end of utterance. The words that are to point the beginning or the closing stages of a phrase are called 'frames'. McCarthy claims that it is thanks to them that people know when they can take their turn to speak in a conversation. However, in spite of the fact that frames can be noticed in every society, their use might differ, which is why knowledge of patterns of their usage may be essential for conducting a fluent and natural dialogue with a native speaker. Moreover, these differences are not only characteristic of cultures, but also of circumstances in which the conversation occurs, and are also dependent on the rights (or 'rank') of the participants.

Apart from that, it was pointed out that some utterances are invariably interrelated, which can enable teachers of foreign languages to prepare learners adequately to react as a native speaker would. Among the phrases whose successors are easy to anticipate there are for instance: greeting, where the response is also greeting; apology with the response in the form of acceptance or informing - and acknowledging as a response. Such pairs of statements are known as adjacency pairs. While the function of the reply is frequently determined by the former expression its very form is not, as it depends on circumstances in which the conversation occurs. Thus, in a dialogue between two friends refusal to provide help might look like that: no way! I amn't gonna do that!, but when mother asks her son to do something the refusing reply is more likely to take different form: I'm afraid I can't do that right now, can you wait 5 minutes? Frequently used phrases,

such as "I'm afraid", known as softeners, are engaged when people want to sound more respectful. Learners of a foreign language should be aware of such linguistic devices if they want to be skillful speakers.

Communicative language teaching that emphasises the functions or speech acts that pieces of language perform overlaps in an important sense with the preoccupations of discourse analysts. We are all familiar with coursebooks that say things like: 'Here are some questions which can help people to remember experiences which they had almost forgotten: "Have you ever . . . ?", "Tell me about the time you . . . ?", "I hear you once . . . ?", "Didn't you once . . . ?', "You've . . ., haven't you?". Materials such as these are concerned with speech acts, with what is *done* with words, not just the grammatical and lexical forms of what is *said.*

If we speak of spoken interaction; most of us in a typical week will observe or take part in a wide range of different types of spoken interaction: phone calls, buying things in shops, perhaps an interview for a job, or with a doctor, or with an employer, talking formally at meetings or in classrooms, informally in cafes or on buses, or intimately with our friends and loved ones. These situations will have their own formulae and conventions which we follow; they will have different ways of opening and closing the encounter, different role relationships, different purposes and different settings. Discourse analysis is interested in all these different factors and tries to account for them in a rigorous fashion with a separate set of descriptive labels from those used by conventional grammarians. The first fundamental distinction we have noted is between language forms and discourse functions; once we have made this distinction a lot of other[14].

Some courses fail the learners in that they fail to distinguish between spoken and written language. The litmus test for this assertion is to ask whether the

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[14] Potter, J., Discourse Analysis as a Way of Analysing Naturally Occurring Talk, London: Sage Publications 1997, pp. 23-26

syllabus/curriculum treats spoken language as something distinct from written language with its own grammar, syntax and lexicon. If productive skills work is a vehicle for the teaching of structures rather than training for skill and sub-skill acquisition then the course would probably have to be described as a grammar based course, no matter how communicative it is hyped up to be.

Here then, are some of the features of spoken language as I have identified them.

- It is both time-bound, and dynamic. It is part of an interaction in which both participants are usually present, and the speaker has a particular addressee or addressees in mind.

- The complexity and speed of most speech acts make it difficult to engage in complex advance planning. The pressure to think whilst speaking promotes looser construction, repetition, redundancies: fillers, hesitations and rephrasings and.

- Sentence boundaries are at best unclear though intonation and pause divide long discourse into more manageable chunks.

- Participants are usually face-to-face and so can rely on feedback (extra-linguistic cues to aid meaning). The lexicon of speech is usually characteristically vague using words which refer specifically to the situation. Deictic expressions are very commonly used, for example: that one, in here, right now.

- Spoken language makes greater use of shared knowledge than written language.

- Many words and constructions are characteristic of, especially informal, speech. Lengthy co-ordinate sentences (joining sentences with co-ordinates such as "and" are normal and are often of considerable complexity. Nonsense vocabulary is often not written and may have no standard spelling (whatchamacallit). Obscenity may be replaced with graphic euphemism.

- Speech is very suited to social (phatic – i.e. "chewing the fat") functions, such as passing the time of day or "creating an atmosphere" or any situation where unplanned and casual discourse is desirable. It is also good at

expressing social relationships, opinions, and attitudes in part due to the vast range of nuances, which can be expressed by prosody and accompanying non-verbal features.

- There is an opportunity to rethink an utterance whilst it is in progress. However, errors once spoken cannot be undone. As such, the interlocutor must live with the consequences.

- Negotiation of meaning is common and often a large part of any conversation.

- Interruptions and overlapping are normal and are generally very common.

- Frequently displays ellipsis.

- Speech makes use of many formulaic expressions.

- Speech acts are usually considered ungrammatical in terms of traditional Latin-based grammars. Modern grammars, namely socio-linguistic analysis of natural language, take an entirely different view however.

- Negotiation of topic is also very important: yes but…, anyway…, right then…,

- Interlocutors give and receive immediate feedback.

- It has many routines and this can make it very predictable. For example you never say, "Give me a banana" in a bread shop. But, each situation has its own discourse which have been historically and socially defined.

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

Some discourse analysts consider the larger discourse context in order to understand how it affects the meaning of the sentence. For example, Charles Fillmore points out that two sentences taken together as a single discourse can have meanings different from each one taken separately. To illustrate, he asks you

to imagine two independent signs at a swimming pool: "Please use the toilet, not the pool," says one. The other announces, "Pool for members only." If you regard each sign independently, they seem quite reasonable. But taking them together as a single discourse makes you go back and revise your interpretation of the first sentence after you've read the second.

Discourse and Frames

'Reframing' is a way to talk about going back and re-interpreting the meaning of the first sentence. Frame analysis is a type of discourse analysis that asks, What activity are speakers engaged in when they say this? What do they think they are doing by talking in this way at this time? Consider how hard it is to make sense of what you are hearing or reading if you don't know who's talking or what the general topic is. When you read a newspaper, you need to know whether you are reading a news story, an editorial, or an advertisement in order to properly interpret the text you are reading. Years ago, when Orson Welles' radio play "The War of the Worlds" was broadcast, some listeners who tuned in late panicked, thinking they were hearing the actual end of the world. They mistook the frame for news instead of drama[15].

Turn-taking

Conversation is an enterprise in which one person speaks, and another listens. Discourse analysts who study conversation note that speakers have systems for determining when one person's turn is over and the next person's turn begins. This exchange of turns or 'floors' is signaled by such linguistic means as intonation, pausing, and phrasing. Some people await a clear pause before beginning to speak, but others assume that 'winding down' is an invitation to someone else to take the floor. When speakers have different assumptions about how turn exchanges are signaled, they may inadvertently interrupt or feel

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[15] Renkema, J.. *Introduction to discourse studies.* Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing. 2004, p. 86

interrupted. On the other hand, speakers also frequently take the floor even though they know the other speaker has not invited them to do so.

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

Discourse Markers

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

Speech Acts

Speech act analysis asks not what form the utterance takes but what it does. Saying "I now pronounce you man and wife" enacts a marriage. Studying speech acts such as complimenting allows discourse analysts to ask what counts as a compliment, who gives compliments to whom, and what other function they can serve. For example, linguists have observed that women are more likely both to

give compliments and to get them. There are also cultural differences; in India, politeness requires that if someone compliments one of your possessions, you should offer to give the item as a gift, so complimenting can be a way of asking for things. An Indian woman who had just met her son's American wife was shocked to hear her new daughter-in-law praise her beautiful saris. She commented, "What kind of girl did he marry? She wants everything!" By comparing how people in different cultures use language, discourse analysts hope to make a contribution to improving cross-cultural understanding.

Spoken language and speech communication

In a normal speech communication situation, a speaker tries to exert an influence on a listener (or a group of listeners) by making him (or them) perceive, understand, feel or do something particular. The speaker guides the listener into doing this by exposing a linguistically structured speech behaviour, which operates together with non-verbal signals, various kinds of background knowledge that the speaker and the listener have, the listener's responses and other characteristics of the physical and social context in which the communicative activities are embedded. The various behavioral and information-processing operations involved in both the production and comprehension of speech are transient events which, in addition, partially overlap and occur at very high rates. There is often a frequent exchange of turns (i.e. speaking vs listening turns) between the communicating parties. All in all, this brings about a very intricate and rapidly evolving social interaction between the parties[16].

We can briefly state some of the most important features of speech communication in the following points:

1. Speech is a *dynamic*, ephemeral behavior distributed in time; it proceeds continuously and its inherent dynamics, the changes at various levels, must be subject to on-line monitoring and analysis by both communicating

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[16] Schiffrin Deborah, Approaches to Discourse, Blackwell Oxford UK and Cambridge USA. 1994, pp. 3-24

parties; as one goes on, one can no longer observe that which was produced earlier. The products of the speaker's activities (behavioral movements and sound waves) fade rapidly over a period of time, and the same applies to the listener's activities. (I disregard here the fact that some types of "products" remain in short-term memory for certain limited periods of time.) This naturally leads to focusing on the dynamic behavior as such rather than on some persistent products (such as those in writing).

2. Speech behavior has many features of *continuous* movements (rather than a chain of successive states).

3. The whole interaction between speaker and listener is *dependent on the situation* (context) in many extremely important ways.

First of all, the speaker's speech behavior is continuously accompanied and supplemented (occasionally contradicted) by various non-verbal signals, which means that the verbal message as such is often much *less explicit* than in writing; referents may be pointed to, interpretations may be made more precise and complex through gestures, facial expressions, tones of voice etc.

After all, the use of an utterance in a normal situation involving face-to-face interaction is not an isolated speech act; it is part of a *comprehensive communicative act* which comprises the use of both verbal means (speech) and nonverbal means (gesticulation etc). The message is conveyed, or shown, in several ways simultaneously, and the role played by spoken language cannot be properly understood without taking into consideration the whole communicative act.

Secondly, both speaker and listener are normally physically present at the same place, and they normally have a considerable amount of *background knowledge* about each other, the things talked about etc. Parts of this knowledge may be shared by both interlocutors.

Thirdly, the listener responds all the time (verbally and, perhaps most importantly, by non-verbal means), and this *feedback* continuously influences the speaker's behavior. The speaker must produce his utterances

quickly and readily, and the listener must respond just as rapidly, under the pressure of the emotive and social atmosphere of the face-to-face interaction.

In short, these various features imply that dialogues, which are the typical application of speech, must be regarded as a complex *social interplay* between agents.

4. Communication through speech is a resource available for all normally equipped human beings across different social groups and cultures. It is acquired under rather different conditions than writing. Its ontogenesis is part of the normal individual's *primary socialization*, which starts and largely develops in early childhood as an integrated element of habitual activities in everyday culture. To a large extent it then remains a feature of the private sphere of people's lives. Knowledge of one's spoken language is an inalienable element of one's knowledge of everyday culture.

Communication by written texts

Unlike speech, written texts are typically *not* perceived and interpreted at the same times and places as they are produced.The analysis of written language - both by linguists and normal users (readers) - necessarily focuses on the *products* of the writer's activities, i.e. on the written texts, whereas the production process itself is non-accessible and unimportant for the normal reader. However, while the processes involved in the production of written texts are usually not directly communicatively significant, the fact that the products persist over time makes various types of intermediary communicative acts available. The written texts can be used in different ways, re-employed, duplicated, distributed to particular persons or groups in new situations, and *these* activities can be regarded as proper communicative acts in their own right (or as parts of such acts). Note, however, that these acts are normally instigated and performed by other people than the

writer (the original sender) himself[17]. While a speaker may exert a considerable social-psychological pressure on the listener and may direct the latter's thoughts and feelings through his own verbal (and non-verbal) signals, a writer has not at all the same immediate power over the reader(s). If we proceed further in comparing communication by written texts to communication in spoken discourse, we will also note the following characteristics (cf. II.1).

1. A written text and its components parts (letters, words, sentences, paragraphs etc) have the character of *objects*; they are *persistent* and *static* (atemporal) (spatially but not temporally organized). Considerable sections may be scanned (almost) *simultaneously* or at least *repetitively* (in principle as many times as required). (I disregard here the fact that the activities involved in reading are also dynamic and distributed in time, something which must have consequences for the resulting comprehension.) Rapid, urgent responses are usually not necessary.

2. The written text is made up of *discrete* symbols, i.e. letters (at least in print) and (graphic) words, and these are organized in certain regular *spatial* patterns (according to syntactic rules as well as various conventions of punctuation and paragraph division). (These symbols are the approximate counterparts of only some of the structural (i.e. segmental-phonological, grammatical, lexical) features of spoken language; the prosodic features and the non-verbal signals of the communicative acts in speech situations have almost no correspondence in writing).

3. Unlike spoken utterances, a written text *lacks an immediate context*. Though it is true that a reader must, in order to properly understand a written text "place it in a wider context" (using various kinds of background knowledge, e.g. knowledge about the topics of the text, assumptions

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[17] Wood, L.A., Kroger, R.O., , Doing Discourse Analysis: Methods for Studying Action in Talk and Text, Thousand Oaks, Ca: Sage Publications. 2006, pp. 8-12

regarding the writer's intentions), a written text is - as a rule and in comparison with spoken utterances - *relatively explicit* (the absence of an immediate context must be compensated for, i.e., referents must be more fully described, arguments must be represented more extensively) *and relatively autonomous or context-free* (the text stands on its own feet to a much greater extent than spoken utterances in a dialogue, for which the sender's and the receiver's behavior, expectations, intentions etc are normally immediately relevant for the interpretation). In principle a written text can be decoded at any place, and the decoding can often be performed by a great number of different people.

Furthermore, the medium of writing is adapted for a *monologic* function. Normally, the sender, the writing individual, works alone, and the same applies to the receiver.

4. The acquisition of the ability to read and write is quite different from learning to speak and understand speech. Normally, a considerable amount of explicit instruction is needed, and the more skilled and erudite writers have usually gone through many years of rather intense training. Thus, the acquisition of written language belongs to the so-called *secondary socialization*, in which school and other cultural institutions play a very important instrumental part. Schooling and education are unevenly distributed in most (all?) societies. Thus, while spoken language is largely every man's property, written language is the belonging of only rather few people. This circumstance forms the basis of the function of written language in social stratification (III.3). Written language is mainly used in the non-private life sphere, and, again unlike spoken language, it is not integrated with everyday knowledge and culture but is associated mostly with various kinds of abstract knowledge separate from the world of direct experience.

When writing is taught, a number of more or less *explicit norms* or rules are referred to, and these norms will therefore *be partly conscious* to the language users. This in turn is related to still other important properties of written language:

- written language is *more constrained* by rules and conventions than spoken language, especially as regards its form.
- in general, there is less variation (i.e., less dialectal and idiolectal variation) and more invariance in written language, except perhaps in advanced literacy uses, especially poetry.
- the conditions under which written language is generally taught have promoted the quite common belief that (some variants of) written language represent(s) the grammatical" *correct* language, whereas many variants of spoken language are incorrect, defective, incoherent, ugly and/or rude.

It must be admitted, of course, that the differences between spoken and written language are not always and everywhere very clear-cut. There are spoken genres, in which language is used very much as in certain written styles, and, conversely, writing can sometimes be deliberately used for mirroring certain speech styles. Moreover, historically, there must have existed transitory forms; how else could we explain the invention and development of written languages in cultures that were originally entirely oral in nature?

More specifically, if we consider the fourth point of above, there are of course variations in normativity and ritualization in spoken language too. In particular, there are often certain bound forms of speech, which are more conventionally constrained in form and content than normal spoken discourse. Such varieties are often used for the recital of orally downtraded myths, laws, proverbs, epic poems etc, and they seem to occur also in cultures which totally lack writing (e.g., certain Polynesian cultures). On the other hand, these varieties are among those which are liable to be written down at an early stage in those cultures where writing systems are indeed developed.

Thus, we can say that certain features which we ascribe to written language have their natural counterparts in certain spoken genres. But I would still maintain that writing as such has had a profound influence on our thinking, since it always transforms the structure of language and gives prominence to certain features. This then creates a special type of background for the development of linguistic theory; a theory of written language cannot, and should not, be entirely identical with a corresponding theory of spoken language.

§2. Spoken language analysis

In this part, I will try to discuss and highlight some of the features mentioned above. I would focus on and show the differences between planned and spontaneous speech empirically by providing two recordings one of which is a spontaneous speech and the other is a planned speech done by the same person. Both recordings have the same topic. The speaker is a Canadian student whose native language is English. He is currently studying for an MA in English Language Teaching and Multimedia at Warwick. First, the speaker spoke spontaneously about the topic in **Text A**. After finishing **Text A**, he took some time to have his coffee and to take some notes and then, in **Text B**, he spoke by referring and taking help from his notes. Two texts are given below:

Text A (3 minutes I0 seconds)

Short pause +

Long pause ++ more than three second

R: *Okay Wrick could you tell me what + what you used to do when I mean before coming to to Warwick + and can you compare that with what you are doing right now?*

W: *aah, do you mean my job and a way I live?*

R: *yes*

W: *alright erm I worked la last year I worked full time + erm as teacher of German and English.*

R: *aha*

W: *I worked erm twelve hours in a high school + and twelve hours at various erm I suppose they would be called junior high schools ++ (ts) ah I have erm how is my life different? I had two different erm I had two children ++ so I was living two different lives parent and teacher of course. I was very very busy last year. I have to say this is almost a pleasure for me because I can concentrate completely ons on on my studies, completely on one thing, I don't have to worry about about changing diapers or or aa cleaning the house or or preparing food for anybody but myself so ah I think last year I had I had to get up for instance every morning at six o'clock in the morning every morning. Erm ++ and lots of time of my days would end at ++ five or six for the very long days. Whereas here + I can get up at seven thirty in the morning or eight in the morning. Actually, I find it difficult to stay in bed + later aa than eight in the morning and erm so I am sleeping more, I'm much more relaxed, I have to say that. Plus with the kids I don't have kids that wake me up + in the middle of the night. And I don't even hear it - to noise because I've learned to sleep with some noise from the kids in the background. So, I'm less sensitive to noise from my neighbors and slamming the doors and things like that, which is a positive thing. Aaa*

R: *So you are telling me you are enjoying the course*

W: *I am I am well I am enjoying + I mean I feel guilty about it because my wife is back there struggling with the two children and working still but I'm I'm really enjoying my time here + because because it's giving me time to think about things which I + I couldn't think about erm while I was working. I couldn't I mean if you're working full time + which in Switzerland where I teach is only 24 hours in*

the classroom. But that's quite a bit and then your preparation at home, you have + you know the time you you lose aa in transit + erm corrections and things like that.++ You you don't have time to think about ++ things like listening strategies and and ways to teach vocabulary in and all the practical things and unfortunately we don't get much aaa how shall I put it down luckily we don't get much erm ++ ah quality help from from our schools inspectors who tend to be + very traditional and very conservative a teachers who've who've reached their positions sort of as a + as an honorary position after year and years of service + but erm ++ but I am happy at least this year + I'm + From I'm calm + I am aa and I'm able to concentrate on on on things which are gonna help me next year + and I'm not I don't have many distractions, I guess that's the main difference.

R: *Okay thank you so much, thank you.*

Text B (2 minutes 55 seconds)

R: *Okay Wrick + can you tell me about your job before coming to Warwick and how do you find the situation before and now while studying?*

W: *Certainly erm I think the main difference is that last year erm I'd just had no time. I I worked erm full time which is twenty four hours in Switzerland. Erin + I also have two small children and erm that left me no time to think about ways of teaching better to think about strategies for for for teaching vocabulary or or or erm finding videos which are appropriate for the classroom of this sort of things. This year I've lots of time to think about those things. And I think that that's changed my life in lots of different ways. I am generally more enthusiastic about what I do whereas last year I was a I suppose quite frustrated with a + with with my job and the way it was going. Erm + physically, it makes a difference because I I sleep more if I don't have the children waking me up every every four hours to to to be fed or get changed. Erm + that helps and I've I've noticed that I am getting seven or eight hours in sleep and which I never got in Switzerland so having more time and not having the children around is a big advantage too. Erm + there's*

little things that have changed too like last year of course to get to my aa my school I always had to drive, so I was in the car a lot whereas here I'm walking a lot which is nice, I'm moving around aa a bit more. I am not so sedentary as I was last year,

R: *So you are exercising a little a little bit*

W: *I'm exercising yes whether I want to or not. Erm + aa another thing is + of course with the kids we tended to stay home a lot, so aa we couldn't go to see films, we couldn't go to to restaurants and things like that. Erm + whereas here I I at least have the option to go out a bit more. I haven't been doing it as much as I like but aa I can go out and see films once in a while. Erm at home I still watch TV a lot. That was my big entertainment TV aa whereas here I don't watch any and I like it that way. It's it's just quier much different. Erm + here I can read books, this year I've I've been able actually to sit down and read entire books whereas last year I could read short stories or or or magazines or newspapers but I could never find the time to actually read books which is + another big parts of this year. Erm I didnt meet many people because once you get into a routine we if you work aaa at the same schools and see the same people, you don't meet new faces; you see the same students and the same colleagues but you don't get many new ideas from new people and you don't meet new interesting people. Whereas here, every day you're meeting people from from erm (ts) from Oman from Syria from aa from Japan from all over the world and getting interesting ideas about the way they teach and the the types of classes they have to deal with each day. So, I think generally that's it.*

R: *Thank you so much*

W: *You're welcome*

The analysis of the texts:

- **The grammatical structure**

In **text B**, there is no incomplete sentence, whereas in **text A**, there is a considerable number of incomplete sentences and fragments. These are some examples:

- I mean if you're working full time + which in Switzerland where I teach is only 24 hours in the classroom.

- you have + you know the time you you lose aa in transit

- unfortunately we don't get muchaaa how shall I put it down luckily

- I am I am well I am enjoying + I mean I feel guilty about it because my wife is back there struggling with the two children

In fact, it is very difficult to judge incomplete sentences in spontaneous speech because for the first while a sentence would seem complete and when you look at the same sentence again, you might realize it is not. This is because there is no punctuation in spoken speech and the speaker speaks joining a number of short clauses. We as listener accept these incomplete structures and we consider them complete while listening. However, if we are to judge them syntactically, most of them would be incomplete and even grammatically incorrect.

- **The organisation of text**

In planned speech, the information is likely to be well organized because the speaker has had enough time to plan what he is going to say, organise his thoughts and puts them in a coherent way. On the other hand, the thoughts and ideas are mixed up and put in an unorganised manner in the spontaneous speech because the speaker does not have enough time to think about the coherence and the organisation of his message and also because he just utters any idea that comes to his mind on the spot. Likewise, if we examine the organisation and coherence of

both texts, it would become clear to us that in **text A**, the ideas are jumbled which in turn, makes the text less coherent. The speaker starts by describing his job at a high school last year and then moves to talk about his family and then starts describing his current situation; again continues his description of what happened last year and so on. On the other hand, the ideas in **text B** are more organised and coherently developed. Although the speaker does mix some of the information and ideas (talks about last year, then moves to talk about this year, and then returns and talks about last year), he does it in a way that shows a point-for-point comparison (e.g. mentioning a certain situation from the past and then mentioning how that situation has changed now). This makes **text B** better than **text A** in terms of coherence and organisation.

- **The sentence structure**

In **text B**, we could find some complex sentence structures. There are subordinate clauses, well linked and creating a complex structure. For instance, note the following sentences in **text B**:

*Erm + I also have two small children **and** erm that left me no time to think about ways of teaching better, to think about strategies for for for teaching vocabulary or or or erm finding videos **which** are appropriate for the classroom of this sort of things.*

This sentence is complex and is not likely to occur in a spontaneous speech. **Text B** has so many sentences of this kind. On the other hand, the grammatical structure in **text A** is very simple and consists of short clauses, not so well linked. For example, consider the following sentences in **text A**:

Whereas here + I can get up at seven thirty in the morning or eight in the morning. Actually, I find it difficult to stay in bed + later aa than eight in the morning and erm so I am sleeping more, I'm much more relaxed, I have to say that. Plus with the kids, I don't have kids that wake me up + in the middle of the night.

Throughout **text A**, the utterances consist of many short clauses just like the example given above. Because there is a large number of short clauses and there is no punctuation in the spoken language, it becomes the listener's responsibility to determine the end of a sentence or an idea and the start of the next one.

- **The use of referring expressions**

As I have previously mentioned, planned speech is explicit with precise and specific references, whereas spontaneous speech frequently demonstrates non-specific references. In **text A**, we find a number of such reference as *it, here, that, this* and many others. In order for these references to be clearly understood, they have to occur in a certain context. In **text A** for instance, the following references cannot be understood in isolation:

- ***this*** *is almost a pleasure for me*

- *I have to say* ***that***

- *and* ***things*** *like* ***that,*** *which is a positive* ***thing***

- *I mean I feel guilty about* ***it***

- *But* ***that's*** *quite a bit*

In **text B** as well, there is a considerable number of references or text dependent words that cannot be understood in isolation just like the examples mentioned above. This does not go along with the expectations mentioned in **Part A**. May be the reason for these references to occur here is that **text B** is not an extreme model of the planned speech; it is rather a model of semi-scripted speech.

- **The use of fillers**

This is another area that has not confirmed the expectations. In **text A**, there are 12 *"erm"* and 4 *"aa"* whereas in **text B**, there are 15 *"erm"* and 7 *"aa".* I don't really

have a logical explanation for this. In **text B**, the speaker tended to reduce the number of short and long pauses and to increase the number of fillers and since fillers are considered to be elements of fluency, **text B** is still more fluent than **text A**. So, it seems that the fluency in **text B** is not negatively affected by the sharp increase of the number of fillers.

- **The use of false starts**

Sometimes, and due to poor preparation for a certain topic, a speaker might start an utterance and stop suddenly at the middle of it and restart again with the same utterance after inserting some changes on, or may even start with a totally new utterance and this process is called false start. This is very likely to occur in spontaneous speech where the speaker doesn't have any time to prepare and plan for his utterances. In **text A**, there are so many examples on this and these are only some:

- *I have erm how is my life different?*

- *I had two different erm I had two children*

- *I am I am well I am enjoying + I mean I feel guilty about it because my wife is back there struggling with the two children*

- *and I'm not I don't have many distractions*

On the other hand, **text B** has no false start at all and the speaker tended to finish all the utterances he started and this is exactly what I mentioned in **Part A** section **b**.

- **Pauses, rhythm, speed and fluency**

In **text A**, there are 17 short pauses and 8 long pauses whereas in **text B**, there are 10 short pauses and no long pauses at all. This confirms the expectations mentioned above to some extent. As a result of the large number of pauses in **text**

A, the delivery of the speech took 3 minutes and 10 seconds whereas it took only 2 minutes 55 seconds in the case of **text B**. The rise and fall in the accent also varies along with the change in the mode of speech. In **text A**, rises with ebb and flow of the sentence are not stable. In **text B**, there is a mixture of fluency and hesitation due to the number of short pauses and fillers but still fluency is more dominant. So, the utterances in **text B** have more rhythmic tone than those in **text A**.

- **Pronunciation Variants**

Pronunciation variants are largely due to accents, co-articulation, speaking style and speaking mode. The variants can be in a word such as *"because"* which, in spontaneous speech, is usually pronounced as *"coz".* Moreover, these variants can be in between two words. In **text A** for instance, the speaker pronounced *"going"* to" as *"gonna"* in the following sentence:

*- I'm able to concentrate on on on things which are **gonna** help me next year.*

Contracted form could be considered one of the pronunciation variants as well. In **text A**, the speaker uses contracted forms so often because he was speaking quickly and spontaneously. The following sentences are some examples:

- *I'm much more relaxed*

- *I've learned to sleep with some noise from the kids*

- *I'm I'm really enjoying my time here.*

- *very conservative a teachers **who've who've** reached their positions*

On the other hand, the use of the contracted forms and the pronunciation variants is less in **text B**. The speaker tended to be clear in his pronunciation, so his articulation of the words was more obvious than in **text A**.

§3. Application of discourse analysis to teaching text interpretation: written language analysis

Interpretation of a written text in discourse studies might be defined as the act of grasping the meaning that the communicative product is to convey. It is important to emphasize that clear understanding of writing is reliant on not only what the author put in it, but also on what a reader brings to this process. McCarthy points out that reading is an exacting action which involves recipient's knowledge of the world, experience, ability to infer possible aims of discourse and evaluate the reception of the text[18].

Painstaking research into schemata theory made it apparent that mere knowledge of the world is not always sufficient for successful discourse processing. Consequently, scholars dealing with text analysis redefined the concept of schemata dividing it into two: content and formal schemata. Content, as it refers to shared knowledge of the subject matter, and formal, because it denotes the knowledge of the structure and organization of a text. In order to aid students to develop necessary reading and comprehension skills attention has to be paid to aspects concerning the whole system of a text, as well as crucial grammar structures and lexical items. What is more, processing written discourse ought to occur on global and local scale at simultaneously, however, it has been demonstrated that readers employ different strategies of reading depending on what they focus on.

Top-down and bottom-up text processing

Distinguishing noticeably different approaches to text processing led to distinction of manners of attending to written communicative products. Bottom-up processes are those which are involved in assimilating input from the smallest chunks of discourse: sounds in speech and letters in texts, afterwards moving to more and more general features. This technique is frequently applied by lower-

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[18] Brown Gillian, Yule George Discourse Analysis Cambridge University Press, 2003, p. 288

level learners who turn much attention to decoding particular words, thus losing the more general idea, that is the meaning of a given piece of writing. In the same way learning a new language begins: first the alphabet, then words and short phrases, next simple sentences, finally elaborate compound sentences. While it is considered to be a good way of making learners understand the language, a wider perspective is necessary to enable students to successfully produce comprehensible discourse.

Alternatively, top-down processing starts with general features of a text, gradually moving to the narrower. This approach considers all levels of communicative products as a total unit whose elements work collectively, in other words, it is more holistic. Not only does the information in a text enable readers to understand it, but it also has to be confronted with recipient's former knowledge and expectations which facilitate comprehension. It is important to make students aware of these two ways of dealing with written discourse and how they may be exploited depending on the task. When learners are to get acquainted with the main idea of a particular communicative product they should take advantage of top-down approach, while when answering detailed true-false questions they would benefit from bottom-up reading.

Types of text

Obviously, all texts have a certain feature in common, namely they are indented to convey some meaning. This function, however, might be fulfilled in a number of different ways: a road sign 'stop', and a six hundred pages long novel are both texts which might serve that purpose, yet, there are certain characteristics that distinguish them. The above example presents the idea somewhat in the extreme, although, enumerating several other common types of texts might affirm that the notion of text is a very broad one and is not limited to such varieties as those that can be found in language course books.

Differences between texts might be striking, while menu is usually easy to read, legal documents or wills are not. All of them, however, have certain features that others lack, which if explained by a qualified teacher might serve as a signpost

to interpretation.Additionally, the kind of a given text might also provide information about its author, as for example in the case of recipes, warrants or manuals, and indirectly about possible vocabulary items and grammar structures that can appear in it, which should facilitate perception of the text. Having realized what kind of passage learners are to read, on the basis of its title they should be able to predict the text's content, or even make a list of vocabulary that might appear in the communicative product. With teacher's tutelage such abilities are quickly acquired which improves learners' skills of interpretation and test results[19].

Patterns in text

Having accounted for various kinds of associations between words, as well as clauses and sentences in discourse, the time has come to examine patterns that are visible throughout written communicative products. Patterning in texts contributes to their coherence, as it is thanks to patterns that writing is structured in a way that enables readers to easily confront the received message with prior knowledge. Salkie indicates that the majority of readers unconsciously makes use of tendencies of arranging texts to approach information.

Among most frequently occurring patterns in written discourses there are inter alia claim-counterclaim, problem-solution, question-answer or general-specific statement arrangements. Detailed examination of such patterning revealed that problem-solution sequence is frequently accompanied by two additional parts, namely background (in other words introduction) and evaluation.

While in some elaborate texts the background and the problem might be presented in the same sentence, in other instances - when reader is expected to be familiar with the background, it might not be stated in the text itself. Although both cohesive devices and problem-solution patterns often occur in written communicative products only the former are designated as linguistic means, since

[19] Salkie, R.. *Text and Discourse analysis.* London: Routledge. Scollon, R. 2001. *Mediated Discourse. The nexus of practice.* London: Routledge. 1995, pp. 66-78

patterning, when encountered, has to be faced with assumptions, knowledge and opinion of the reader. One other frequently occurring arrangement of texts is based on general-specific pattern which is thought to have two variations. In the first one a general statement is followed by a series of more specific sentences referring to the same broad idea, ultimately summarized by one more general remark. Alternatively, a general statement at the beginning of a paragraph might be followed by a specific statement after which several more sentences ensue, each of which is more precise than its predecessor, finally going back to the general idea. As McCarthy points out, the structure of patterns is fixed, yet the number of sentences or paragraphs in a particular part of a given arrangement might vary. Furthermore, one written text might contain several commonplace patterns occurring consecutively, or one included in another. Therefore, problem-solution pattern present in a text might be filled with general-specific model within one paragraph and claim-counterclaim in another. As discourse analysts suggest making readers aware of patterning might sanitize them to clues which enable proper understanding of written communicative products

Markers of various kinds, i.e. the linguistics signals of semantic and discourse function (e.g. in English the –ed on the verb is a marker of pastness), are very much concerned with the surface of the text. Cohesive markers are no exception: they create links across sentence boundaries and pair and chain together items that are related (e.g. by referring to the same entity).But reading a text is far more complex than that: we have to interpret the ties and make sense of them. Making sense of a text is an act of interpretation that depends as much on what we as readers bring to a text as what the author puts into it. Interpretation can be seen as a set of procedures and the approach to the analysis of texts that emphasizes the mental activities involved in interpretation can be broadly called procedural. Procedural approaches emphasize the role of reader in actively building the world of the text, based on his/her experience of the world and how states and events are characteristically manifested in it. The reader has to active such knowledge, make inference and constantly asses his/her interpretation in the light of the situation and

the aims and goals of the text as the reader perceives them. The work of De Beaugrande and Dressler is central to this approach. If we take a text which is cohesive in the sense described above, we can see that a lot more mental work has to go on for the reader to make it coherent:

> *The parents of a seven-year-old Australian boy woke to find a*
> *giant crushing and trying to swallow him.*
> *The incident occurred in Cairns, Queensland and the boy's mother,*
> *Mrs Kathy Dryden said: "It was like a horror movie. It was a hot night*
> *and Bartholomew was lying under a mosquito net. He suddenly started*
> *screaming.*
> *"We rushed to the bedroom to find a huge snake trying to strangle*
> *him.It*
> *was coiled around his arms and neck and was going down his body."*
> *Mrs Dryden and her husband, Peter, tried to stab the creature with*
> *knives but the python bit the boy several times before escaping.*

This text requires us to activate our knowledge of pythons as dangerous creatures which may threaten human life, which strangle their prey and to whose presence one must react with a certain urgency. More than this we make the cognitive links between "A hot night" and the time of the event (this is implicit rather than explicit in the text). The boy's screaming must be taken to be a consequence of the python attacking him (rather than, say, prior to the arrival of the python). The "Creature" must be taken to be the python rather than the boy (which "Creature" could well refer to in another text), since parents do not normally stab their children in order to save their lives. All this is what the reader must bring to any text. What we are doing in making these cognitive links in the text is going further than just nothing the semantic links between cohesive items (e.g. creature =general superordinate, snake = genus/superordinate, python = species/hyponym); we are creating coherence. The various procedures that mediate between cohesion and coherence will be returned to in greater detail in sections, as

this area of text analysis is obviously crucial in any discourse based approach to reading and writing[20].

Another level of interpretation which we are involved in as we process texts is that of recognizing textual patterns. Certain patterns in text reoccur time and time again and become deeply ingrained as part of our cultural knowledge. These patterns are manifested in regularly occurring functional relationships between bits of the text. These bits may be phrases, clauses, sentence or group of sentence, we shall refer to them as textual segments to avoid confusion with grammatical element and syntactic relations within clauses and sentence. A segment may sometimes be a clauses, sometimes a sentence, sometimes a whole paragraph; what is important is that segments can be isolated using a set of labels covering a finite set of functional relations that can occur between any two bits of text An example of segments coinciding with sentence are these two sentence from a report on a photographic exhibition:

3.2 The stress is on documentary and rightly so. Arty photographs are a bore.

The interpretation that makes most sense is that the relationship between the second sentence and the first is that the second provides a reason for the first. The two segments are therefore in a phenomenon – reason relationship with one another. An example of a segment consisting of more than one sentence can be seen in extract (3.3), where the relationship between the first segment (sentence 1) and the second segment (sentence 2-5) is one of phenomenon – example; all of sentence 2-5 have to be read as part of the exemplification for the text to make sense.

3.3 *Naturally, the more people pay for their houses, the more they want to rename their neighbourhoods. Suppose you've just coughed up £ 250,000 for an unspectacular house on the fringe of High gate – an area with loads*

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[20] Wood, L.A., Kroger, R.O., , Doing Discourse Analysis: Methods for Studying Action in Talk and Text, Thousand Oaks, Ca: Sage Publications. 2006, pp. 8-12

of cachet. The estate agent tells you it's High gate. You've paid a High

gate price. There's no way you're going to admit that it's in Crouch End.

The interpretation of relations between textual segments is a cognitive act on the part of the reader, who might be supposed to be asking questions of the text as it unfolds, such as "The stress is on documentary; why?" In this sense, reading the text is like a dialogue with the author, and the processing of two segments could be seen as analogues to the creation of an exchange in spoken discourse. Whether this dialogue with this author is a reality or an analytical construct is not a question that can be easily answered here, but a model which suggest this kind of interaction between reader and text or author might be able to capture difficulties readers experience in text processing and offer ways of attacking them.

The approaches to text analysis that emphasizes the interpretive acts involved in relating textual segments one to the other through relationships such as phenomenon – reason, cause – consequence, instrument – achievement such like is a clause – relational approach, and is best exemplified in the work of Winter and Hay. The phenomenon – reason relation which united the two sentence of extract, along with cause – consequence and instrument – achievement, can be brought under the general heading of logical sequence relations. When segments of a text are compared or contrasted with one another, then we may talk of matching relations which are also extremely common. Logical sequencing and matching are the two basic categories of the clause – relational approach. This view of text is dynamic; it is not just concerned with labeling what are sometimes called the illocutionary acts which individual clauses, sentences and paragraphs perform in a text, but is concerned with the relationships the textual segments enter into with one another[21].

It would of course be wrong to suggest that all texts are like the two sentences from the photo exhibition text and that the whole operation of reading

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[21] Yates, S., Taylor, S., Wetherell, M., , Discourse as data: A guide for analysis, London; Sage. 2001, p.67

was some sort of perverse guessing game where authors made life difficult for readers. Text often contain strong clues or signals as to how we should interpret the relations between segments; these are not absolutely deterministic but are supporting evidence to the cognitive activity of deducing the relations. For example, we may find in a text a sentence such as "Feeling ill, he went home", and here we would note that the subordination of one element to another by the grammatical choice of joining a main clause to a subordinate one is a characteristic device of cause- consequence relations; it is a signal of the likely relation, which would have to be reinterpreted if the sentence we "Going home, he felt ill". Equally, an author might help us with a conjunction: "Because he felt ill, he went home", or else use items of general vocabulary to signal the same relation: "The reason he went home was that he was feeling ill".

 In order to understand better the features of the written discourse I have analysed several types of different ones. The analysis is given below:

Fairy tale – "THE PRINCESS AND THE PEA"

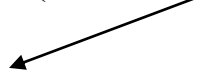**COHERENCE.**

Theme – Rheme progression

Th1 (Prince) + Rh1 (wanted to marry a princess);

Th2 (young girl) + Rh2 (was so wet);

Th3 (I'm a real princess) + Rh3 (We'll see about that);

Th4 (The bed is ready) + Rh4 (Put a pea on the bed).

Having analyzed the excerpt from the fairy-tale "The Princess and the Pea", I have come to the conclusion that here we have an example of "simple linear progression" of Theme and Rheme. This kind of Theme – Rheme progression is comparatively simple and uncomplicated in its structure. Thus, every Rheme (beginning from the first one) becomes the Theme of the subsequent clause.

$$\text{Th1} + \text{Rh1};$$
$$\downarrow$$
$$\text{Th2} (= \text{Rh1}) + \text{Rh2};$$
$$\downarrow$$
$$\text{Th3} (= \text{Rh2}) + \text{Rh3};$$
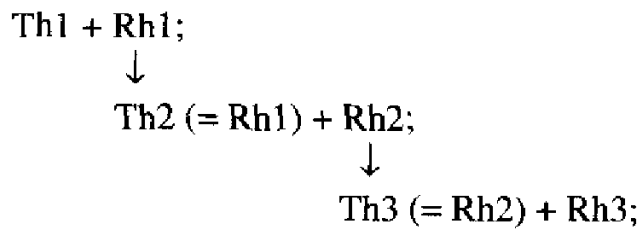
It is obvious that such patterns of Theme – Rheme progression are typical for fairy-tales and fables as far as most often they show simple connections between the main themes discussed in such genres of literature. Consequently, such not complicated relations between the main elements of the fairy-tale give the reader a child) an opportunity not to lose the line of plot development.

COHESION

Textual cohesion

In the excerpt under analysis I have noticed such groups of textual connectors:

1. Additive textual connectors: and;
2. Adversative textual connectors: but;
3. Temporal textual connectors: once upon a time, when, at last, then;

These textual connectors do not possess referential meaning, only grammatical one. Their usage is not frequent in the analyzed fairy-tale and mostly temporal textual connectors prevail.

Endophoric relations

Concerning endophoric relations, obvious is the fact of the general predominance of anaphoric relations in the excerpt under consideration. Anaphoric relations are frequently used in the fairy-tales in order to provide the reader with the necessary and vivid pictures of some phenomena.

e.g. Then one night there was a horrible storm. The lightning flashed, the thunder roared, the wind blew and the rain poured down.

e.g. There he saw a young girl. Her hair was so wet that the water from it was running down her face.

Lexical cohesion

As far as the abstract under analysis is taken from the fairy-tale, it is necessary to note a great number of repetitions of certain words and word phrases.

Such special kind of reiteration is mostly used to emphasize the most important moments in the fable. In the text of the fable we deal with the constant repetition of the phrase "a real princess". Obviously, the repetition of this phrase points out the main idea of the fable – "the search of a real princess".

DEIXIS

Generally speaking, there exist 5 major types of deictic markers: person deixis, place deixis, time deixis, textual deixis, social deixis.

Several of these kinds of deictic markers were used in the fairy-tale "The Princess and the Pea":

Person deixis: he (prince), they (princesses), he (king), it (hair), it (fress);

Time deixis: at last, then;

Social deixis: prince, princess, king, queen.

Speech acts

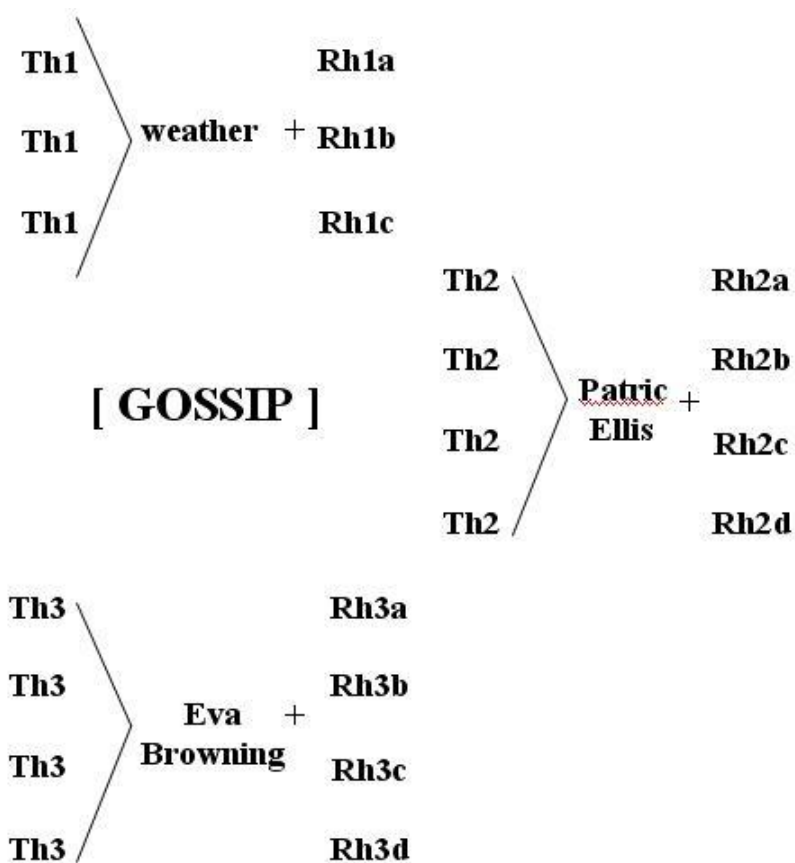In general, there are 3 related types of speech acts:

1. Locutionary;
2. Illocutionary;
3. Perlocutionary;

After the analysis of the given excerpt we may come to the conclusion that illocutionary speech acts are more commonly used here than any other. Consequently, the author has a definite communicative intention or illocutionary force in the fairy-tale.

Dialog – "A LITTLE GOSSIP"
COHERENCE.
Theme – Rheme progression

Th1 \
Th1 } weather + { Rh1a / Rh1b / Rh1c

Th1 /

Th1 \
Th1 \ weather + Rh1b
Th1 / Rh1c

[GOSSIP]

Th2 \ Rh2a
Th2 \ Rh2b
} Patric + Ellis
Th2 / Rh2c
Th2 / Rh2d

Th3 \ Rh3a
Th3 \ Rh3b
Eva +
Browning
Th3 / Rh3c
Th3 / Rh3d

Having analyzed the dialog "A little gossip", I have come to the conclusion that here we have an example of more complicated Theme and Rheme structure than in the previous case. In this dialog we find a "derived hyperthematic progression". In such kinds of progressions particular Themes in subsequent clauses are derived from a hypertheme (a Theme that is general for all the following Themes). The scheme of such type of progressions may be as following:

Th1 + Rh1;
↑
[Hypertheme] → Th2 + Rh2;
↓
Th3 + Rh3...,
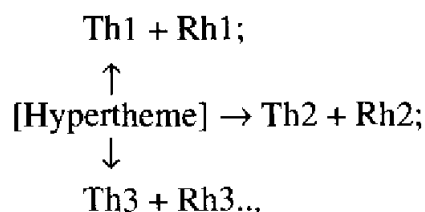
As far as we can see, the analyzed dialog can be divided into 3 parts that are connected by a common hypertheme – [gossip].

Furthermore, in each of the 3 parts of the dialog we obviously deal with a "constant progression" of Theme and Rheme. Here the item in the Theme of the first clause is also selected as the Theme of the following clauses. The structure of

this kind of progression is as following:

$$Th1 + Rh1;$$
$$\downarrow$$
$$Th2 (= Th1) + Rh2;$$
$$\downarrow$$
$$Th1 = Th2 = Th3 \qquad Th3 (= Th2) + Rh3;$$
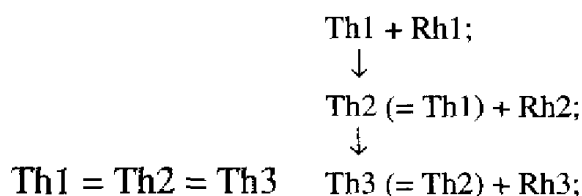
Thus, we can definitely make a conclusion that in oral, everyday speech, unlike in written texts, there exists a combination and interpenetration of several Theme – Rheme progressions. Hence, oral communication can be characterized by a vast number of plot lines and their great complexity.

COHESION

Textual cohesion

In the excerpt under analysis I have noticed such groups of textual connectors:

1. Additive textual connectors: by the way;

2. Adversative textual connectors: but;

These textual connectors do not possess referential meaning, only grammatical one. In the following example we clearly see that in oral speech textual connectors are not so widely used as in written text. Consequently, we may find only several examples of additive and adversative textual connectors.

Endophoric relations

Concerning endophoric relations, obvious is the fact of the general predominance of anaphoric relations in the excerpt under consideration. Anaphoric relations are frequently used in dialogs (oral speech) in order to provide the interlocutor with the necessary amount of clear, understandable information.

e.g. –Have you heard that young Patrick Ellis has had another accident in his car?

- Is he badly hurt?

Lexical cohesion

In the case with a dialog, we deal with the example of synonymy that is

widely used in oral speech. In the dialog we find several pairs of synonyms (beautiful – lovely, awful - dreadful) that serve for the diversification of lexical collocations.

DEIXIS

Generally speaking, there exist 5 major types of deictic markers: person deixis, place deixis, time deixis, textual deixis, social deixis.

Several of these kinds of deictic markers were used in the dialog "A little gossip":

Person deixis: he (Patrick Ellis), she (Eva Browning);

Time deixis: this year, today, these days;

Social deixis: Mrs. Smith, Mrs. Tailor.

Speech acts

In general, there are 3 related types of speech acts:

1. Locutionary;
2. Illocutionary;
3. Perlocutionary;

On the example of the dialog we may clearly see that speech acts used in the oral communication are totally different from those used un the written texts. Here we face with the example of perlocutionary acts, the acts that have particular effect on the listener.
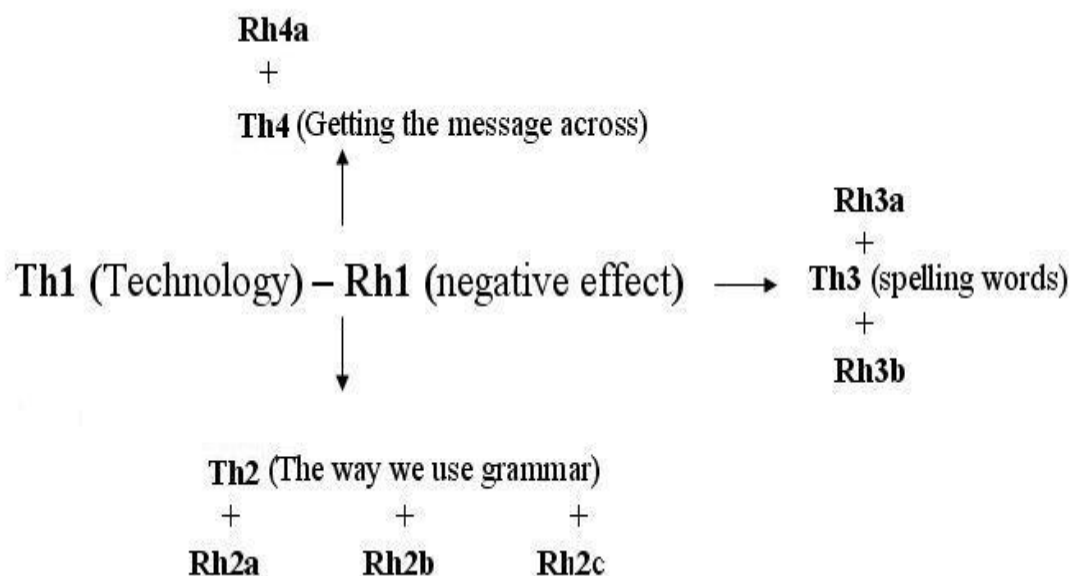
e.g. Patric Ellis has had another accident

– How awful!!!!

Maxims of conversation

1. The Maxim of quality is preserved.

e.g. I suppose he was driving flat out again. (She is not sure about that)

2. The Maxim of quantity is preserved.

3. The Maxim of manner is preserved.

4. The Maxim of relevance is preserved.

Scientific article "ARE E-MAILS AND TEXT MESSAGES DESTROYING THE LANGUAGE?"

COHERENCE.

Rh4a
+
Th4 (Getting the message across)

Th1 (Technology) – Rh1 (negative effect) ⟶ Th3 (spelling words)

Rh3a
+
Th3 (spelling words)
+
Rh3b

Th2 (The way we use grammar)
+   +   +
Rh2a   Rh2b   Rh2c

Theme – Rheme progression

Having analyzed scientific article, I have come to the conclusion that here we have an example of "split progression" of Theme and Rheme, where the Rheme of the first clause is split into 3 items (negative effects of the technology) each in turn being taken as a Theme element in the subsequent clause. General theme of this kind of progression looks like the following:

Th2 (= Ri) + Rh2;
↑
Th1 + Rh1 (= Ri + Rii +Riii); → Th3 (= Rii) + Rh3;
↓
Th4 (= Riii) + Rh4;...
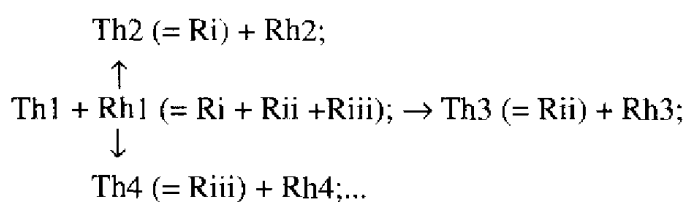
It is obvious that such types of Theme and Rheme progression are typical for scientific texts, where a constant preciseness and "alphabetic" order are always required.

COHESION

Textual cohesion

In the excerpt under analysis I have noticed such groups of textual connectors:

1. Additive textual connectors: and;

2. Adversative textual connectors: however;

3. Temporal textual connectors: recently, first of all, secondly, finally, after all.

These textual connectors do not possess referential meaning, only grammatical one. Their usage is rather frequent in the analyzed article and mostly temporal textual connectors are used.

Endophoric relations

Cataphoric relations are rather frequently used in scientific texts and articles in order to show the logics in the development of some phenomenon described in the text.

e.g. First of all, the increasing use of r-mails and text messages is changing the way we use grammar.

Lexical cohesion

Having analyzed the given scientific article, I came to the conclusion that the excerpt is rather rich in synonymous phrases such as "In my opinion, in my view, as far as I am concerned".

This in its turn helps the reader to form a general, wholesome idea about the analyzed article and to perceive the information included in the text as a rather logically built structure.

DEIXIS

After the precise research made over the scientific article, I have found out that this article doesn't include any deictic markers. Hence, such kind of texts and articles will not cause any ambiguity and misunderstanding in its readers.

Having made a discourse analysis of three texts of different nature: dialog, fairy tale and scientific article, I have come to several conclusions:

- Theme – Rheme progression of 3 texts differs very much. The reasons of peculiarities of each text lie in different manner of the utterance production. What is common for all three texts is the general theme, which is produced through all texts, but the way of its expression divides texts on different types of Theme

and Rheme progression.

- Cohesion of spoken (in the dialogue) and written sentences (in the fairy tale and article) is achieved by conjunctive relations. The cohesive relations in all three texts are mostly formed with the help of textual connectors. Furthermore, cohesive relationships are more frequently used in the fairy tale and an article than in the dialog. The lexical connectors are used rather rarely.

- Deixis words are mostly used in the dialog. I have noticed and interesting regularity. Person deixis, place deixis and time deixis are used mostly in the fairy tale and the dialog, while textual and social deixis are peculiar for the article.

- According to speech act theory, the analyzed texts have fallen into three types:

a)   Locutionary act – article;

b)   Illocutionary act – fairy tale;

c)   Perlocutionary act – dialog.

The comparative analysis of different linguistic materials (3 texts) eloquently demonstrates ample versatility of the English language.

The theoretical analysis of structural peculiarities of variable kinds of Theme – Rheme progressions under investigation increases the learner's awareness of the development of the English language.

The practical importance of the research fulfilled constitutes in the fact that efficient learning of textlinguistics and extralingual aspects of the Englsih language is an effective way of gaining a high level command of Modern English.

§4. Differences Between Written And Spoken Language

In any language there is some amount of difference between written language (planned) and spoken language (spontaneous). Since planned speech could be considered a form of written language, it could be inferred that there are also differences between planned speech and spontaneous speech. Some of these differences are very clear in terms of syntax, lexis, phonology and discourse.

Apart from obvious differences between speech and writing like the fact that writing includes some medium which keeps record of the conveyed message while speech involves only air, there are certain dissimilarities that are less apparent. Speech develops in time in that the speaker says with speed that is suitable for him, even if it may not be appropriate for the listener and though a request for repetition is possible, it is difficult to imagine a conversation in which every sentence is to be rephrased. Moreover, talking might be spontaneous which results in mistakes, repetition, sometimes less coherent sentences where even grunts, stutters or pauses might be meaningful. The speaker usually knows the listener, or listeners, or he is at least aware of the fact that he is being listened to, which enables him to adjust the register. As interlocutors are most often in face-to-face encounters (unless using a phone) they take advantage of extralinguistic signals as grimaces, gesticulation, expressions such as 'here', 'now', or 'this' are used. Employment of nonsense vocabulary, slang and contracted forms (we're, you've) is another feature of oral discourse. Among other significant features of speech there are rhythm, intonation, speed of uttering and, what is more important, inability to conceal mistakes made while speaking[22].

In contrast, writing develops in space in that it needs a means to carry the information. The author of the text does not often know who is going to read the text, as a result he cannot adjust to readers' specific expectations. The writer is frequently able to consider the content of his work for almost unlimited period of time which makes it more coherent, having complex syntax. What is more, the reader might not instantly respond to the text, ask for clarification, hence neat message organization, division to paragraphs, layout are of vital importance to make comprehension easier. Additionally, owing to the lack of context expressions such as 'now' or 'here' are omitted, since they would be ambiguous as texts might be read at different times and places. One other feature typical of writing, but never

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[22] Gee, J. P. *An introduction to discourse analysis.* London: Routledge. 2001, p. 67

of oral discourse, is the organization of tables, formulas, or charts which can be portrayed only in written form.

Naturally, this division into two ways of producing discourse is quite straightforward, yet, it is possible to combine the two like, for example, in the case of a lesson, when a teacher explains something writing on the blackboard, or when a speaker prepares detailed notes to be read out during his speech. Moreover, some of the foregoing features are not so explicit in the event of sophisticated, formal speech or a friendly letter.

Syntactical Structure

One of the main differences between spontaneous and planned speech is that of syntax. The syntactical structure tends to be more complicated in planned speech, so the sentences tend to be very long, complicated and complete. McCarthy states that "without a command of the rich and variable resources of the grammar, the construction of natural and sophisticated discourse is impossible". Therefore, grammatical cohesion and semantic links between words could be easily detected in planned speech. On the other hand, the syntactical structure in spontaneous speech is very simple, incomplete and sometimes even incorrect. The sentences are very simple and short. The spontaneous speaker slurs words; half enunciates the words or says incomplete sentences (e.g. fragments). However, these incomplete sentences are acceptable because they are a typical feature of spoken English. Moreover, Goldman-Eisler reports: Spontaneous speech was shown to be a highly fragmented and discontinuous activity. When even at its most fluent, two-thirds of spoken language comes in chunks of less than six words, the attribute of flow and fluency in spontaneous speech must be judged an illusion.

Lexical features

a) Vocabulary and the (Interactive features & Organization) of Text.

In spontaneous speech, the speaker tends to switch from one point to the other without paying attention to the organization of his message. He might start talking about a certain topic and then moves to talk about something totally different and then returns to his main topic and continues in that circle. Moreover, vocabulary

items are carelessly selected and they could be repeated again and again in order to communicate the meaning. However, in planned speech, the speaker makes use of the vocabulary in organizing his message so that it has a beginning, a middle and an end. Moreover, he tends to focus on high lexical density and complex vocabulary including abstract and he uses a variety of vocabulary with lower level of repetition (Hughes,1996). McCarthy (1991:75) suggests that vocabulary is not just used to organize the text but also to indicate the larger text patterns chosen by the author. He states that: As well as representing text-segments, some of the discourse organizing words give us indications of the larger text patterns the author has chosen, and build up expectations concerning the shape of the whole discourse.

- Vocabulary plays another role in focusing the attention on a specific part of the message. In planned speech for instance, the speaker tends to use words that take lesser space and more information. These words help him to place the focus on the main idea of the message. On the other hand, the focus is diverted in different directions in the spontaneous speech due to the speaker's unorganized way of delivering the message.

- Vocabulary is not only necessary for the organization of the message in planned speech; it is also important to reflect an interactive impression about the message in spontaneous speech. Spoken speech in general and spontaneous speech in particular are noticeable for their interactive expressions. Spontaneous speech frequently involves interactive expressions like *well, now, you know…* etc.

b) False starts

Maclay and Osgood observed that false starts, when a speaker starts an utterance, stops abruptly and restarts, usually involves not just corrections of the unintended word, but also corrections of the associated function words. False start occurs a lot in spontaneous speech due to the high speed of interaction, the fast

flow of utterances and the short time that the speaker has to think about his utterances. On the other hand, false start does not occur in planned speech because the speaker has enough time to plan, organise and think about what he is going to say. So, his utterances are more likely to be very organized, accurate and focused on the main idea of the message which means there is no chance for false start to exist in such a speech.

Phonological features

a) Pauses and Rhythms.

Preplanned speech, such as a talk, can be read smoothly and continuously. Spontaneous speech can rarely be described in this way. It is full of pauses, hesitations, false starts, fragments and corrections, which the listener has to disentangle somehow. In actual fact, these factors have some important functions in the spontaneous speech. For instance, the pause or the silence in speech can play a social role, as when we pause for effect, in order to emphasize a point; it can also signal that the speaker has finished talking and now wishes someone else to talk. Moreover, it plays a physical role since we can not talk and inhale at the same time. Finally, it can play a cognitive role; pauses may occur when we are planning what to say next. So, we could say that pauses play a crucial role in the planning of spontaneous speech at both the lexical and the semantic level.

In fact, a pause for the cognitive function of planning will not always be silent. Many of the hesitations which occur in speech - the 'ers' and 'ums' - are thought to be attempts to achieve the cognitive function of planning something else to say, while retaining control of the conversation. If the silence is filled with sound, the speaker is indicating that no interruption is to be tolerated. On the other hand, in the planned speech pauses do occur but rhythmically along with ebb and flow of the sentence. Brown (1990:48) suggests that pauses in the spoken mode of a written speech (planned speech), occur on the rhythmic beat just as stressed syllable do. In other words, short pauses will contribute a single beat whereas long

pauses contribute multiple beats. Planned speech is more rhythmic than spontaneous speech in that short pauses are used for commas, long ones for fullstops and longer pauses while switching to the next passage and this rhythm is almost lacking in spontaneous speech. In actual fact it is very hard for a spontaneous speaker to establish a rhythmic quality in his speech unless he is very fluent and well experienced speaker. The reason for this is that the spontaneous speaker would sometimes stop at the middle of a sentence in order to find a suitable word that serves the meaning he wants to convey or express. **The Use of**

b) Fillers

Spontaneous speech is disfluent: speakers need time to formulate utterances and often to make changes, so fillers, pauses, repetitions and restarts are abound. Fillers and hesitations dominate spontaneous speech and give it its distinctive structure and feeling. According to Brown (1990), in normal spontaneous speech the speaker concentrates both on what to say and how to say it. If that is the case, spontaneous speaker would use lots of fillers such as "erm", "er", "uh" ...ete in order to gain some time to think of what to say next or to search for a suitable word that would best convey his meaning. It could be said therefore, that these fillers help the spontaneous speaker to be more efficient while speaking. However, if the speaker exaggerates in using these fillers, this could affect his fluency. On the other hand, in planned speech the speaker does not need to use the fillers so often since he has already had enough time to plan what he is going to say. That justifies the small number of fillers used in planned speech and the huge number used in spontaneous speech.

c) Pronunciation Variants

Spontaneous speech, as opposed to planned speech, is a more natural way in which people communicate with each other. However, the recognition of spontaneous speech is made more challenging by the severe pronunciation variants and unpredictable pauses or laughter in between words. For instance, when words

follow one another in speech, phonemes may undergo considerable changes. Hence, it is more likely that planned speech would have more careful and precise pronunciation.

d) Time and speed factors

We have seen previously that the use of fillers is more common in spontaneous speech than in planned speech. The use of fillers and pauses consumes a considerable time of the overall time of speech and this in turn, decreases the speed of the speech delivery and affects the fluency of the speaker. On the other hand, the time consumed in delivering a planned speech (of the same topic as in spontaneous speech) is less than that consumed in spontaneous speech although the message in the former is more coherent and organized. This could be justified by the fact that in planned speech, the speaker has had enough time to think about the message whereas, in spontaneous speech, he is speaking casually on the spot without having any time to think about it.

The Discourse Features

a) The use of referring expressions

"Referring expressions are words whose meaning can only be discovered by referring to other words or to elements of the context which are clear to bothsender and receiver". Planned speech is explicit with precise and specific references, whereas the spontaneous speech frequently demonstrates nonspecific references. The most common example of these references is third person pronouns (she/ her/ hers/ herself; he/ him/ his/ himself; it/ its/ itself; they/ them/ their/ theirs/ themselves). However, it is not only the third person pronouns which work in this way. The meanings of *this, that , here* and *there* have also to be found either formally in another part of the discourse or contextually from the world . Referring expressions fulfil a dual purpose of unifying the text (they depend upon some of

the subject matter remaining the same) and of economy, because they save us from having to repeat the identity of what we are talking about again and again (ibid).

b) Ellipsis

The complexity of the grammatical features found in spontaneous speech often stems from a high incidence of a characteristic called ellipsis. According to Hughes, "Ellipsis is a complex concept which basically hinges on the notion that something is 'missing' from an utterance or clause, but that it can be understood because of the surrounding discourse and context". Ellipsis is more likely to occur in spontaneous speech rather than in planned speech because in the latter, the ideas tend to be expressed in complete sentences and they are relatively straightforward; whereas in the former, the message is implicitly expressed to an audience who is supposed to know the context of the speech.

CONCLUSION

The graduate qualification work under discussion devoted to the discourse analysis, mainly aspects between discourse and grammar, covered all the aspects concerning the target topic. The traget work depicted the main principles of discourse analysis discipline and its role in language learning, a brief historical overview of discourse analysis, types of discourse: cohesion, text and interpretation, discourse analysis and grammar, grammatical cohesion and textuality: reference, ellipsis and substitution, conjunction, theme and rheme.

The research in the target field showed that to attain a good command of a foreign language learners should either be exposed to it in genuine circumstances and with natural frequency, or painstakingly study lexis and syntax assuming that students have some contact with natural input. Classroom discourse seems to be the best way of systematizing the linguistic code that learners are to acquire. The greatest opportunity to store, develop and use the knowledge about the target language is arisen by exposure to authentic discourse in the target language provided by the teacher.

Language is not only the aim of education as it is in the case of teaching English to students, but also the means of schooling by the use of mother tongue. Having realized that discourse analysts attempted to describe the role and importance of language in both contexts simultaneously paying much attention to possible improvement to be made in these fields.

It has also been settled that what is essential to be successful in language learning is interaction, in both written and spoken form. In addition, students' failures in communication which result in negotiation of meaning, requests for explanation or reorganization of message contribute to language acquisition. One of the major concerns of discourse analysts has been the manner in which students ought to be involved in the learning process, how to control turn-taking, provide feedback as well as how to teach different skills most effectively on the grounds of discourse analysis' offerings.

Links in discourse studies are divided into two groups: formal - which refer to facts that are present in the analyzed text, and contextual - referring to the outside world, the knowledge (or schemata) which is not included in the communicative product itself. Since it is difficult to describe the processing of contextual links without referring to particular psychological inquiries, therefore, this section is devoted to representation of formal links.

By and large five types of cohesive devices are distinguished, some of which might be subdivided:

- **Substitution**: in order to avoid repeating the same word several times in one paragraph it is replaced, most often by one, do or so. So and do in its all forms might also substitute whole phrases or clauses (e.g. "Tom has created the best web directory. I told you so long time ago".)

- **Ellipsis**: it is very similar to substitution, however, it replaces a phrase by a gap. In other words, it is omission of noun, verb, or a clause on the assumption that it is understood from the linguistic context.

- **Reference:** the use of words which do not have meanings of their own, such as pronouns and articles. To infer their meaning the reader has to refer them to something else that appears in the text (Tom: "How do you like my new Mercedes Vito?" - Marry: "It is a nice van, which I'm also thinking of buying".).

- **Conjunction:** specifies the relationship between clauses, or sentences. Most frequent relations of sentences are: addition (and, moreover e.g. "Moreover, the chocolate fountains are not just regular fountains, they more like rivers full of chocolate and sweets."), temporality (afterwards, next e.g. "He bought her perfume at a local perfume shop and afterwards moved toward a jewelry store.") and causality (because, since).

- **Lexical cohesion:** denotes links between words which carry meaning: verbs, nouns, adjectives. Two types of lexical cohesion are differentiated, namely: reiteration and collocation. Reiteration adopts various forms, particularly synonymy, repetition, hyponymy or antonymy (. Collocation is the way in

which certain words occur together, which is why it is easy to make out what will follow the first item.

It is clear from the analysis of written language that when people produce discourse they focus not only on the correctness of a single sentence, but also on the general outcome of their production. That is why the approach to teaching a foreign language which concentrates on creating grammatically correct sentences, yet does not pay sufficient attention to regularities on more global level of discourse, might not be the best one.

In sum, teachers can use discourse analysis not only as a research method for investigating their own teaching practices but also as a tool for studying interactions among language learners. Learners can benefit from using discourse analysis to explore what language is and how it is used to achieve communicative goals in different contexts. Thus discourse analysis can help to create a second language learning environment that more accurately reflects how language is used and encourages learners toward their goal of proficiency in another language.

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APPENDIX

ACTIVITY

(Note: this activity is more interesting to do in a group, and it is especially interesting if the group includes speakers of more than one language.)

As quickly as possible, list all the words you can think of that are used to describe different kinds of talk in each of the languages/varieties you know. Now examine your list more closely.

• How would you define each of the terms you have listed (for the benefit of someone learning the language, for example)? Is each one distinct from all the rest or is there overlap? Is there any disagreement in the group about the definition of certain terms?

• What dimensions of contrast (e.g. formal v. informal, serious v. non-serious) seem to be important in distinguishing different kinds of talk?

• If different languages/varieties are represented in your list, do they all make similar distinctions?

• How many of the kinds of talk you have listed could you also describe as 'conversation'?

If that term applies better to some cases than others, why do you think that is?