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APPLIED ENGLISH LANGUAGE STUDIES:
Further explorations

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the activities you will be required to do, but is a particularly important one. Additional activities, aimed at giving you more practice, may be found on myUnisa.

We hope you will enjoy this module and that it will develop your critical ability and appreciation of how the English language works in your studies and in the real world.

UNIT 1

English Language systems: persuasion and narration/rhetorical analysis



APPLIED ENGLISH LANGUAGE STUDIES
Further explorations

Introduction

We have entitled this unit *Language systems* because it will demonstrate how the English 'language systems' work in specific writing contexts. This unit draws on all the grammatical and language features that were introduced in ENG1502. These include the micro elements of language such as word classes, word sounds, word morphology and word meaning. The focus of Unit 6, in particular, was on language in action where it was shown how features of language are adapted to context, audience and purpose. Key to the discussion was the analysis of language features as used in broader contexts or situations. In this unit we take this discussion further by examining how these language features can be adapted for specific genre types. We take an approach known as rhetorical analysis. Rhetorical analysis is concerned with the *force* of language – for example how language narrates, persuades, acts, invents and so on – as well as the effect language has on people. Rhetorical analysis is interested in the *how and why* a writer chooses certain language features in their writing. To show this, we examine genres of argumentation and narratives.

Outcomes

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

- identify the speaker, purpose, audience and message of argumentation and narration
- analyse and describe the different types of texts (argumentation and narratives)
- explain the different language features that are used in the texts (such as metaphors, euphemisms, conjunctions, verbs, pronouns, modals, sentence types etc.)
- identify and use the different persuasive and narrative techniques in your own writing
- write narratives and argumentative texts

What is an argument? How is it different from persuasion?

What comes to your mind when you hear the word 'argument'?

Does the word 'persuasion' trigger the same thoughts?

The word 'argument' can be used to refer to many things. *An argumentative* piece of writing can be defined as a reasoned, logical way of positioning your view,

opinion or belief as valid. An argument can take place between two people as in a disagreement over something; it could be among more than two people, as is the case with a parliamentary debate; or it could be a case where one person or group position themselves on a particular subject to win others to their viewpoint.

A persuasive piece of writing is subtly different from an argumentative one in that the validity of the position taken is developed without much consideration of opposing views. Below are some statements which might help you see the differences:

Persuasive Writing	Argumentative Writing
A persuasive essay aims at getting readers to agree with a point of view on a particular topic.	An argument aims at getting readers to see and acknowledge that a view is more valid than another.
Persuasion even though based on fact, is driven by the writer's opinion and can draw on emotion and passion, and is therefore subjective.	An argument even though based on fact, will offer reasoned and credible claims drawing on a wider range of evidence (and not emotion) to validate the claims.
Persuasion wants to convince and win support to its side.	An argument puts a view out there for people to consider. While it is good to know they have been convinced, the aim is to share reasoned views, and not so much to convince.
In persuasion, once a topic has been identified, a side is taken and then presented with supporting reasons.	In an argument research is necessary before a writer can take a position – i.e. the research influences the position.

The line dividing the two is indeed very thin. Both types of writing require the writer or speaker to take a position; substantiate the position with valid reasons with the ultimate aim of persuading the reader or listener; and in the case of speeches, to agree with them. This makes the purpose of this type of writing to be one of persuasion.

In our discussion we will see these terms as largely interchangeable.

Examples of persuasive/argumentative texts

There are a number of contexts where persuasion or argument is used. For example, in newspaper editorials, featured columns in newspapers or magazines, a magazine commentary, political advertisements, advertisements for advocacy groups, academic essays, letters and even organisational websites can have a persuasive purpose.

Let's consider *some* of these in turn below.

1. Academic essays

In academic writing courses, students are trained on how to present an academic argument. You may have been exposed to this yourself. A common text type is being given a topic to argue for or against. Here we can think of topics such as:

Should high school students be given the freedom to smoke at school?
Is Euthanasia a bad or good practice?
Should capital punishment be re-introduced?
Should same-sex marriage be legalised?

These topics require a writer to take a side but also show how the opposing side is less valid than the side taken.

2. Text from an advocacy group

Let's take an example of a text produced by an environmental group.

ACTIVITY 1

Read the extract on page 124 of your prescribed text (*Working with Texts* by Carter, et al, 2008). It is a good example of a persuasive text. It persuades the readers to appreciate why biodiversity is important.

How does this text achieve persuasion? See the commentary below on language features which help achieve persuasion. Try and identify the language features noted in the commentary.

Commentary

Here are some language features available to a writer who wishes to argue or persuade:

TABLE 1: Persuasion – Language features

• Using quotations as evidence	• Using contrast	• Using figurative language	• Using hyperbole
• Using emotive language			
• Using the active voice	• Using irony	• Using conjunctions, reference words	• Using connective words to create authority
• Using jargon or buzzwords	• Using modality words	• Using lexical items of substitution and connotation	• Using questions

Some examples of persuasive language from the biodiversity text are given below.

Emotive language: ‘Wild life inspires and fascinates us, and our open spaces are there to enjoy’; ‘we are in danger ...’; ‘a damaged environment will hurt us ...’

Modality words: ‘a damaged environment will hurt us ...’; ‘but we can make a difference ...’

Questions: ‘So what’s behind the destruction?’

3. Letters

ACTIVITY 2

Imagine you have been told there is a scholarship grant available to students for University tuition. The grant is accessible through the First Lady (wife to the president). All applications have to be directed to her. The application should detail why the applicant thinks they deserve this grant. Write the letter.

In your discussion group, exchange letters and comment on each other's letters.

What strategies do you think the writer has used to persuade the First Lady to positively consider their case? Can you identify words which help achieve the persuasion?

More Activities

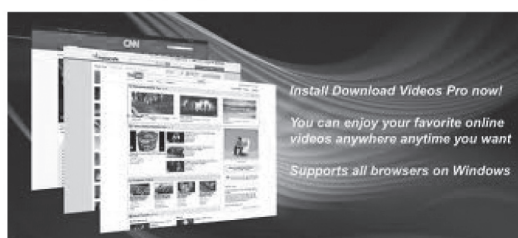
Refer to the letter from Waitrose on page 109 of *Working with Texts*. This letter is clearly written to persuade Waitrose customers to use the new online buying service, 'Ocado'. The subtle way in which the reader is persuaded lies in the choice of specific words. As explained on page 108, the letter uses a number of *pronouns* to achieve this. The use of pronouns makes the writing personal, warm and passionate. Shops sell products so the writer is using persuasive techniques, such as pronoun use to win the reader's emotions. You wouldn't do this in an academic essay.

Study the pronouns that have been used and in your group discuss how effective the pronouns are as tools of persuasion. Refer back to the language features in **Table 1** and see if you can identify other persuasive rhetorical devices.

4. Websites

Another example of persuasion may be found on websites. Websites use shapes, colour, words and other devices to persuade a reader. The aim could be to attract a particular audience to buy a product or enrol in an institution.

Study the following websites. They are examples of persuasion. Comment on how the text, colours and images contribute to the persuasive purpose.



The examples we have given above clearly illustrate that arguments are not confined to academic writing; they are used in different social contexts. They don't exist in a vacuum. In fact, persuasion is an everyday activity which could take the form of an advertisement, a television commercial, an advert at a coffee shop, a political message, or a message from a family member requesting that an errand be done for them.

In some occupations such as law, teaching, journalism, writing and graphic design, persuasion cannot be avoided. The style used will be unique to these professions, of course, and as such, special training is required for one to learn these unique skills.

Persuasive/Argumentation Techniques

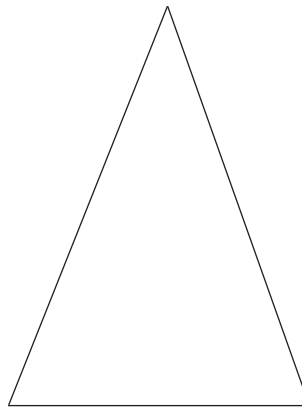
Here we will introduce some techniques you may find useful in your writing of arguments.

1. Appeal

Appeal is a strategy that has been used frequently in logical reasoning and critical thinking debates. When you write, you need to keep this in mind because it can be a powerful way of keeping your writing focused, logical, and indeed persuasive. We can appeal to a person's emotions (pathos); we can appeal to a person's reasoning (logos); or we can appeal to a person's wisdom (ethos). The strategies can be visualised in a triangle as shown below.

LOGOS: Message

Internal consistency of the message itself, the clarity of its claim, whether it contradicts itself, whether it uses strong supporting evidence. We can think of it as “logic” or “logical appeal.”



ETHOS: Writer

This refers to the credibility of the writer. Can be a writer’s reputation in the field, but also how honest the writing is. Are you hiding behind words? How do you treat opposing ideas?

PATHOS: Audience

Refers to “suffering,” like the word “empathy.” How to make readers open to your message, engaging readers emotionally, “hooking” them, making them accept your beliefs, values and understanding.

As this triangle shows, texts may appeal to:

- (a) your reasoning/logic (*logos*): if you want to sell plates and you want to use logic, you will use the logic of, let’s say, calculating how much it costs to buy the item now rather than later when the cost of living has shot up.
- (b) your emotions (*pathos*): to persuade somebody you need to use a famous person to create credibility. For example, if you were selling plates to people in an advert, you may want to ask a well-known chef to advertise them, which would increase people’s interest in the product and they will be persuaded to buy it.

N.B. These techniques may not all be used in one essay.

These are indeed very ancient ways of defining logic and persuasion, but when we examine persuasive writing we find it always appeals to reason, emotion and/or logic.

Other techniques are:

Technique	Explanation
Analogy	Comparison using figures of speech e.g. metaphor, simile.
Anaphora	A form of repetition of a word or phrase to build up emotion.
Anecdote	Using a personal experience or specific details to support your point.
case study	Make reference to research or facts to support your view-point.

Technique	Explanation
Repetition	Repeating words, phrases and sentences for emphasis.
rhetorical questions	Asking questions to which no answer is required, so as to tease readers to think.
word choice	Choose words that appeal to many senses; words with denotative and connotative meaning.
overgeneralisation	Use words such as 'all'; 'only', 'many' to influence readers; create perceptions of what is being described.

What strategies do writers use to persuade?

Writers use different strategies to develop their argument. Some of the strategies are subtle and indirect, such as paragraph structure and text arrangement. Other strategies are more overt and direct such as using emotive language, appealing to emotions and logic. We will start with the subtle and less overt strategies.

1. Text arrangement

In an argumentative essay, the writing will have a title; a beginning: an introductory paragraph which contains a thesis statement; conclusions; sources; transitions and acknowledgement of counter-arguments. Let's look at some of these:

(a) Choosing an inviting title

Look at the following titles and comment on them. Your comment can state which titles you find informative and engaging and why.

ACTIVITY 3

Group 1	Group 2	Group 3	Comment
Zoos are necessary	The good side of zoos	Life in prison: zoos and a miscarriage of justice	
Parents should have the right to physically beat their child	Beating a child is a parental right	Beating a child: a slippery road to abuse	
Beer advertising is good	All beer ads must be banned	Attacking beer ads: Don't shoot the messenger	

Comment: I find the one topic in bold type informative and engaging. The writer reveals his/her attitude toward the subject without being confrontational or defensive. He/she uses humour to tone down the 'attack'. Comment on the rest of the topics.

(b) The thesis statement:

This is the sentence/s in which you give the reader the main/central idea of your piece of writing.

ACTIVITY 4

Examine the following thesis statements on the topic:

Should refugee camps be abolished? Provide a well-supported argument of your thesis. Write your essay with a general audience in mind.

Statement 1: Refugee camps are cruel to human beings and should therefore be abolished.

Comment: This thesis takes a position on the issue, but overall is quite vague. In what ways are refugee camps cruel to human beings? Why does this level of cruelty warrant an abolition of refugee camps?

Statement 2: Refugee camps are good in one way, but not so good in others.

Comment: This thesis is vague in terms of both its position and direction. It takes a fence-sitting position in that it's unclear whether or not the writer favours the abolition of refugee camps.

Statement 3: Refugee camps provide an invaluable service and therefore should not be abolished.

Comment: This statement is still vague because the word 'invaluable' could mean many things.

Statement 4: All refugee camps are cruel to human beings; they house helpless people in unhealthy conditions that breed crime and diseases and lead to premature deaths. Therefore, these inhumane establishments should be abolished.

Comment: While this statement is emotional, and very specific in its terms as to why refugee camps should be abolished, it generalises and therefore could be modified. Not all refugee camps are unhealthy, not all refugee camps are inhumane.

Statement 5: Refugee camps are a necessary part of African society and must be kept.

Comment: This is a clear position in terms of keeping refugee camps.

2. The main body of the text

Much takes place in the body of an essay, in fact all the strategies and techniques we have introduced are used in the body of the essay.

2.1 Use of transitions

Refer to Unit 4 of this guide to see what transitions writers use to create cohesion and coherence in their writing. In particular, study the transitions which are used to give examples, additional information, show how things relate in space and time, how things contrast/compare, show summary and results.

2.2 Elements of style

- (a) tone (discussed and exemplified extensively in ENG1502: Unit 6);
- (b) sentence structure, words and phrases (this is discussed in chapters 3 and 4 of Carter et al.)
- (c) use of humour and organisation of ideas and points

- (d) **text development:** use specific rhetorical modes such as narration, description, example and illustration; process analysis; definition; cause and effect; classification; comparison and contrast.

2.3 Rhetorical devices

A rhetorical device is a technique of using language that will increase the persuasiveness of a piece of writing.

Examples of Rhetorical Devices

- (a) **Rhetorical questions:** thoughtful questions that aren't meant to be answered.
Example: Can we really expect the government to pay from its limited resources?
- (b) **Description and Imagery:** *Imagine being cast out into the cold street, lonely and frightened.*
- (c) **Parallel structures:** *To show kindness is praiseworthy; to show hatred is evil.*
- (d) **Figurative Language:** (i.e. using metaphor, simile and personification)
Example: *While we wait and do nothing, we must not forget that the fuse is already burning.*
- (e) **Anaphora:** the intentional repetition of a word or phrase at the beginning of a line for emphasis.
Example: 'Will he eat that food?' 'Will he know it's good for him?'
- (f) **Hyperbole** (using exaggeration for effect)
Example: While we await your decision, the whole school holds its breath.
- (g) **Anecdote:** An anecdote is a short and interesting story taken from your past experience – or that of someone you know or have heard about. Audiences love anecdotes.
- (h) **Euphemisms and connotation:** using 'overweight' instead of 'fat', or 'issue' instead of 'problems'.
- (i) **Downplaying and understating**
- (i) Using key words to make important things seem unimportant.
Mere, merely, so-called, however, although, despite
 - (ii) Expressing things in such a way as to understate their importance.
The earthquake interrupted business somewhat in the Mpumalanga area.

Chapters 3, 4 and 5 of your prescribed text (Carter et al.) explore a number of features such as words and sentences which writers use as techniques to achieve a particular effect.

Below is an example taken from a document of an Australian education resource file showing you how language features have been used to develop this argument.

Essay on why homework should be abolished

Text Arrangement	Text	Language Features: examples
<p>INTRODUCTION Topic can be introduced with a definition. Position statement follows.</p>	<p>Many primary schools <u>give</u> their students homework at least two nights a week. Homework is supposed to help students with their learning <u>but does it?</u> There are some good arguments why primary schools <u>should not</u> give their students homework.</p>	<p><i>Present Tense:</i> give <i>Rhetorical question tag:</i> but does it? <i>Modality:</i> should not</p>
<p>1st argument Topic sentence must be an argument. The paragraph is expanded with specific details</p>	<p><u>Firstly, homework</u> takes away from family time. Students already spend <u>thousands of hours</u> in school and they need to be able to do things with their families such as meal preparation. Also they may have <u>responsibilities</u> to other members of the family such as looking after younger siblings.</p>	<p><i>Conjunctions to organise text:</i> Firstly, Secondly, Furthermore, Finally <i>Foregrounding:</i> 'homework' is put at the beginning of topic sentences <i>Evaluative language:</i> thousands of hours (hyperbole: exaggeration for effect) <i>Nominalisation:</i> responsibilities</p>
<p>2nd argument</p>	<p><u>Secondly,</u> homework time stops students being involved in sporting <u>activities</u> or other interests like music. Children need time to practise these <u>interests</u> and build their teamwork skills.</p>	<p><i>Nominalisation:</i> activities, interests</p>

Text Arrangement	Text	Language Features: examples
<p>3rd argument</p> <p>In this paragraph the argument is extended by bringing in a related idea</p>	<p><u>Furthermore</u>, homework does not help students with social skills. Children need time outside of school to meet with their friends either face to face or through networking sites. Here they can have <u>rich experiences</u>, learn to be part of social groups and <u>better</u> prepare themselves for society.</p>	<p><i>Evaluative language:</i> rich experiences, better</p>
<p>4th argument</p> <p>In this paragraph the argument is expanded with an Expert voice</p>	<p><u>Finally</u>, there is <u>no convincing</u> evidence that homework improves learning. Experts agree that real learning occurs in an interactive classroom where students are <u>engaged happily</u> and work together.</p>	<p><i>Evaluative language:</i> no convincing evidence, real learning, engaged happily</p>
<p>CONCLUSION</p> <p>Summary of body of text. NB: No new ideas Restate belief/position Recommendation</p>	<p><u>It is clear</u> that homework does not result in further learning and imposes on students' personal and family lives. Time <u>would be better</u> spent building other skills and knowledge outside of school work, and socialising more.</p> <p>Parents of primary school students need to discuss this issue with the schools and recommend to them that homework be stopped.</p>	<p><i>Modality:</i> It is clear that, would be better. NB: Consistent use of the simple present (timeless present) tense throughout the text.</p>

ACTIVITY 5

Read the essay on Animal Experimentation below and analyse the essay using the following guidelines:

1. Who could be the intended audience of this essay?
 2. What techniques has the writer used to convince the reader about their position? Discuss, using examples from the essay.
 3. Identify the thesis statement.
 4. What transitions has the writer used to create a flow in the essay?
 5. Identify any other language features and rhetorical devices that have been used to increase the effectiveness of this essay. (For more examples, refer to your prescribed texts, e.g. pages 43–47 in *Introducing English Language*, and Chapters 3, 4 and 5 in *Working with Texts*.)
-

ANIMAL EXPERIMENTATION

There has been a controversy between animal rights supporters and scientists about whether it is right to use animals in experimental research. Also, it is very debatable whether using animals for such research results in finding a cure for diseases. From my point of view, if there are no other alternatives, and if it is possible that this will contribute to science, animals may be used for experimental research.

Although the animal rights activists claim that people and animals are equal and thus they should be treated equally, I think that people and animals cannot be seen as equal, and therefore the death of an animal cannot be the same thing as the death of a person. For that reason, causing animals to die for science, for the sake of saving human lives, may be considered ethical to some extent if it will contribute to the advancement of science and will be to the benefit of humanity in general.

Furthermore, animal rights supporters label scientists as ‘cruel’ for causing animals to die in medical experiments, while they do not oppose the people, mostly farmers, who kill animals for food, even though they know that 99% of animal deaths are caused by farmers while only a small percentage, i.e. 1% are caused by scientists. The underlying reason for that is they find scientists easier to attack and cannot deal with farmers who are organised and strong.

Another basic argument of animal rights defenders is that people and animals are different genetically and therefore it is useless to use animals in experiments to see the effects of some substances on people. They claim that it does not make good sense to use animals in experiments because they are too different, compared to people. Some of them even assert that it is better to use people directly as they think that the results of experiments on animals cannot be valid and reliable as long as the same observation has not been done on man also. However, these people cannot foresee the disastrous results of such a practice. Many people are likely to die until a healthy result is obtained.

People and animals may not be the same, but to some degree there are similarities which can at least give scientists an idea about their experiments. From this point of view, scientists are right to use animal models to provide themselves with information about what is happening at a level of detail that could not be achieved in humans.

Although there might have been some incidents when animal testing did not prove to be useful and some effects of some drugs observed on animals could not be observed on people, there are also a lot of examples that show that using animals resulted in significant developments and helped to cure some serious illnesses.

On the other hand, there may be alternative methods that should be used instead of animal experimentation. Then, of course, it is cruel and unethical to use animals. For example, in some experiments in-vitro methods can be used as an alternative to using live animals. In such occasions, it is certainly much better and right to employ these alternatives.

All in all, it can be said that using animals for medical research is ethical as long as it contributes to scientific development and helps scientists find ways to improve human health. And this practice is only acceptable on the condition that necessary pains are taken and animals are treated humanely.

Up to now we have been discussing the genre of **persuasion**. The next section of this unit presents the **narrative** genre.

Narration: Talking about the past

In this section you will learn about how we talk about the past, how we tell events that happened in the past, and how we recount incidents. In other words, you will learn about writing and telling narratives. You will learn about the language of narratives. You will get to understand and appreciate stories better. From as far as we can remember when we were growing up as young children, we can recall telling stories at home, during playtimes, in pre-school, or primary school. Some of us were told stories by our grandparents and relatives while growing up, and some of us were read stories from books by our parents from a very early stage. As we grew up and mastered speech, we also took part in storytelling, by being involved in conversations. Sometimes through responding to prompts like: ‘how was your day?’ ‘what happened at school?’ ‘tell me about the soccer match?’ ‘what did your teacher do today?’, we create our own narratives.

Read the following short story:

The Three Little Pigs

Once upon a time there were three little pigs. One pig built a house of straw while the second pig built his house with sticks. They built their houses very quickly and then sang and danced all day because they were lazy. The third little pig worked hard all day and built his house with bricks.

A big bad wolf saw the two little pigs while they danced and played and thought, ‘What juicy tender meals they will make!’ He chased the two pigs and they ran and hid in their houses. The big bad wolf went to the first house and huffed and puffed and blew the house down in minutes. The frightened little pig ran to the second pig’s house that was made of sticks. The big bad wolf now came to this house and huffed and puffed and blew the house down in hardly any time. Now, the two little pigs were terrified and ran to the third pig’s house that was made of bricks.

The big bad wolf tried to huff and puff and blow the house down, but he could

not. He kept trying for hours but the house was very strong and the little pigs were safe inside. He tried to enter through the chimney but the third little pig boiled a big pot of water and kept it below the chimney. The wolf fell into it and died.

The two little pigs now felt sorry for having been so lazy. They too built their houses with bricks and lived happily ever after.

(Adapted from ShortStoriesShort.com)

Summary of Narrative Text Features

Purpose

The purpose of a narrative is to entertain and capture the reader's interest in a story. However, narratives can also teach and inform the reader. They can present fascinating themes and lessons.

Types

There are many types of narratives. They are typically imaginary but can be factual. They include fairy stories, mysteries, science fiction, choose-your-own-adventures, romances, horror stories, adventure stories, parables, fables and moral tales, myths and legends, and historical narratives.

Text Organisation

The focus of the text is on a sequence of events or actions. The simple structure of a narrative text consists of an orientation, complication and resolution. The structure that is found in the text above is shown below:

Once upon a time there were three little pigs. One pig built a house of straw while the second pig built his house with sticks. They built their houses very quickly and then sang and danced all day because they were lazy. The third little pig worked hard all day and built his house with bricks. (Orientation)

A big bad wolf saw the two little pigs while they danced and played and thought, 'What juicy tender meals they will make!' He chased the two pigs and they ran and hid in their houses. The big bad wolf went to the first house and huffed and puffed and blew the house down in minutes. The frightened little pig ran to the second pig's house that was made of sticks. The big bad wolf now came to this house and huffed and puffed and blew the house down in hardly any time. Now, the two little pigs were terrified and ran to the third pig's house that was made of bricks. (Complication)

The big bad wolf tried to huff and puff and blow the house down, but he could not. He kept trying for hours but the house was very strong and the little pigs were safe inside. He tried to enter through the chimney but the third little pig boiled a big pot of water and kept it below the chimney. The wolf fell into it and died.

The two little pigs now felt sorry for having been so lazy. They too built their houses with bricks and lived happily ever after. (Resolution)

A narrative usually begins with an orientation, where the writer introduces the reader

to the setting, and the main characters. The orientation is in the first paragraph. The orientation also gives an indication of the actions/events that are forthcoming in the story. Usually, the details that are given are those which will enhance the later development of the story (e.g. the personality of the main characters, the type of situation, and the relationship with other characters). This is where the imaginary or factual 'possible world' of the story is portrayed. The reader is introduced to the main character(s) and possibly some minor characters. In the story above, the orientation is as brief as, 'Once upon a time there were three little pigs'. In some cases it may be longer than that.

The story is then developed with a series of events or actions, at which point we normally expect some sort of complication or problem to arise. In order to add interest and suspense, something unexpected has to happen. This builds some tension or conflict for the main characters. In most cases, the complication or problem is something that we can identify with in real life. As readers we then look forward to some kind of resolution.

In most narratives, there is a resolution of the complication, which leaves us with a sense of satisfaction, although there are narratives that end with unresolved issues. In the case of the three pigs, we see that the hard working pig built a stronger house and this serves as a lesson to the other pigs not to be lazy. This is seen in the final paragraph of the passage.

Goatly (2000:31–33), drawing on William Labov on the narrative structure, gives a detailed description of narration. The elements that are described are abstract, orientation, complicating action, resolution, coda, and evaluation. You will learn more about these in the module ENG2602.

Language features of narration

The following is a summary of some of the language features that are common in narratives:

- The main participants in a narrative are humans or sometimes animals with human characteristics.
- There are mainly action verbs [so called 'material processes'] but also many verbs which refer to what the human participants said, or felt, or thought [verbal and mental processes] or language used to create an impact on the reader, e.g. adverbs, adjectives, and similes.
- Normally narratives are told or written in the past tense.
- There are many linking words to do with time, and order of events.
- Dialogue is often included, at which point the tense may change to the present or future.
- Descriptive language is used to enhance and develop the story by creating images in the reader's mind.
- Narratives can be written in the first person (I, we) or third person (he, she, they).
- The events are narrated in chronological order, except when the plot has been twisted.
- Narratives typically use connectives that signal time (e.g. 'early that morning', 'later on', 'once'.)

The following activities demonstrate some of these language features.

Different types of processes

To learn more about processes and participants, study pages 76–78, in Mullany and Stockwell, 2010, your prescribed textbook. The key processes that are described are material, behavioural, mental, verbal, relational, and existential. The following activities are based on these processes.

Language enables us to represent the world. The world consists of people, places, objects, animals, plants, concepts, machines and so on. These things are known as ‘participants’ in terms of functional grammar. But the world is not stagnant – it involves ‘goings on’, events and happenings. In terms of functional grammar, we therefore describe the world in terms of processes and participants. A whole text, and any type of text for that matter, can be seen as representing those participants and processes in language. For example, the following simple sentence (or Clause in Functional Grammar terminology) shows this:

The students marched to the parliament houses.

[The students](*participant*) [marched](*material process*) [to the parliament houses] (*participant*).

In traditional grammar, processes are what we call verbs. In your first year module in Applied English Language Studies, you learnt about the different parts of speech (verbs, nouns, adjectives, adverbs and so on). In this module, you are being exposed to the functions of these components in the production of texts. We usually think of verbs as ‘doing’ words but this is insufficient because not all verbs denote ‘doing’. There are many processes that are going on in the world which do not mean ‘doing’. That is why the term ‘processes’ is broader and all-encompassing. However, the ‘doing’ part is captured in material processes. As mentioned above, your textbook gives the following processes:

Material processes, verbal processes, relational processes, mental processes, and behavioural processes.

ACTIVITY 6: PROCESSES

- a. Identify/Name all the processes in the text below. The orientation has been done for you as an example:

The Three Little Pigs

Once upon a time there were three little pigs. One pig built a house of straw while the second pig built his house with sticks. They built their houses very quickly and then sang and danced all day because they were lazy. The third little pig worked hard all day and built his house with bricks.

A big bad wolf saw the two little pigs while they danced and played and thought, ‘What juicy tender meals they will make!’ He chased the two pigs and they ran and hid in their houses. The big bad wolf went to the first house and huffed and puffed and blew the house down in minutes. The frightened little pig ran to the second pig’s house that was made of sticks. The big bad wolf now came to this house and huffed and puffed and blew the house down in hardly any time. Now, the two little pigs were terrified and ran to the third pig’s house that was made of bricks.

The big bad wolf tried to huff and puff and blow the house down, but he could not. He kept trying for hours but the house was very strong and the little pigs were safe inside. He tried to enter through the chimney but the third little pig boiled a big pot of water and kept it below the chimney. The wolf fell into it and died.

The two little pigs now felt sorry for having been so lazy. They too built their houses with bricks and lived happily ever after.

Example

Verbs	Process
Were	Relational process
Built	Material process
Sang	Material process
Danced	Material process
Worked	Material process

State the total number of each type of process at the end.

Linking words

A story has to be connected. Linking words are used to connect the sequence of events and actions. For example, additive conjunctions are normally used to add more information, to join words, sentences or lists. The most commonly used linking word in the narrative above is the conjunction 'and'. There are other conjunctions in the text. The following table is a summary of some types of conjunctions and their functions. Read more about cohesion in Unit 4 in this Study Guide.

Categories of Linking words

Addition	These connectors link additional facts or points. (e.g. and, as well, moreover, furthermore, in addition, moreover, firstly, secondly, thirdly ..., finally, equally important).
Cause	These show that one point is a cause of another (e.g. because, since, seeing that, etc.).
Result	These connect a cause with a result or effect (e.g. so, therefore, thus, hence, consequently, as a result, etc.).
Contrast	These show an opposition to the main idea of the sentence (nevertheless, still, but, yet, in spite of, although, however, etc.).
Time sequence or order of points	Connectors signalling the start (to begin with, in the first place, secondly, finally, meanwhile, subsequently, etc.).
Comparison	(likewise, similarly, in comparison, in the same way).
Making illustrations	(For example, that is, for instance, to illustrate, in fact, in other words).
Summarise or conclude	(To sum up, in summary, in conclusion, on the whole, in short, thus it may be seen that).

ACTIVITY 7: LINKING WORDS

Your task is to identify the conjunctions in 'The three little pigs' and then state what function they are performing in the text.

Draw a table like the following one below.

Linking words	Function of the linking word
While	Time sequence
Because	Cause

ACTIVITY 8: TENSE

The story above begins with the phrase ‘once upon a time’. This is a classic opening of stories about the past. The moment we read or hear it, we shift our focus to the past; usually this is not a recent past but a far distant past. Sometimes, it is even predated in the sense that we cannot locate it in the modern calendar, or if we can it refers to ancient times. In most cases, fables, folklores and fairy tales begin with this phrase. However, even modern stories that occurred a decade or a few decades ago, can also begin with this phrase.

Most English grammar books have a section on time and tense; we recommend that you study such books. At the end of this unit, there will be a list of such recommended books.

The following table illustrates the present tense and the past tense.

Present tense verbal groups	Past tense verbal groups
Swims	Swam
Are	Were
See	Saw

Applied linguists argue that when we imagine a timeline that emerges from the past and points towards the future, tense establishes two points along the timeline: the **utterance time** (the time at which the speaker is speaking or the writer is writing), and the **reference time** (the time which they are talking about) (Coffin, et al. 2009:126–127) . In other words, when using the past tense, we are talking about a previous time, so the reference time is somewhere before the utterance time.

On the other hand, the present tense refers to things that are true now; as we are talking, so the reference time and utterance time coincide. For example, if you say ‘*I am just having a cup of coffee*’, you are speaking about something happening now.

ACTIVITY 9: TENSE

Identify the verb tenses in ‘The Three Little Pigs’.

Tense in Narratives

A narrative moves forward through a series of events. Each sentence normally answers the question, 'what happened next?' Some questions that could also support the structure and the development in a narrative are questions such as 'what was it like?' or 'what was going on?' Sometimes the narrator manipulates the order, or sequence of events. The choice of tense is used in the sequencing of events.

Some English Grammar books describe finite and non-finite verbal groups, in the verbal groups, (*English Grammar*, by Roger Berry).

What are finite and non-finite verbs?

Finite verbs are those verbs that are complete and can take inflections of tense, while non-finite verbs do not take tenses. The three finite forms are the present, the third person singular (-s); and past tense forms.

The three non-finite forms are the infinitive (to walk); and -ing (walking); and -ed (walked) participles. Non-finite verbs cannot make a verb phrase on their own; finite forms can stand on their own.

How many tenses are there in English?

There are eight verb tense forms. For example, for the verb 'eat' (using 'he' as subject) we have the following possibilities:

He eats (present simple)

He has eaten (present perfect)

He ate (past simple)

He had eaten (past perfect)

He is eating (present progressive)

He has been eating (present perfect progressive)

He was eating (past progressive)

He had been eating (past perfect progressive)

All the above are in the **active** voice.

ACTIVITY 10 (Refer to page 128–129 Carter et al.)

Give the following verb phrase forms for the verb 'beat'. Use 'she' as subject.

ex. (she beats

she is being beaten)

- i. Present (simple) passive:
 - ii. Present progressive passive:
 - iii. Present perfect passive:
 - iv. Present perfect progressive passive:
 - v. Past (simple) passive:
 - vi. Past progressive passive:
 - vii. Past perfect passive:
 - viii. Past perfect progressive passive:
-

ACTIVITY 11

Analyse the language/lexicogrammar (e.g. processes and participants) and structure of the following short narrative:

I think Peter's always been a bit foolhardy. I remember once we were on holiday in Cornwall, and it was one of those lovely sunny breezy days which are just right for a picnic. So we'd decided to go down to Clodgy point, the rocky cliffs of the Atlantic coast. After a picnic lunch, Peter and his brother asked if they could go for a walk while me and my husband had a nap. So off they went. They hadn't come back in two hours, so we went to look for them. We walked quickly along the cliff for half an hour, and, as we came round a promontory we caught sight of them at the foot of the cliff on the rocks at the opposite side of the cove. I was terrified. How had they got down there? We called frantically for them to come back. They climbed up the steep grassy slope, which must have been about 60 degrees. I don't know how they did it. When they met us at the top I said, 'Why did you go down there. Don't you know it's dangerous?' Peter held out a black and white striped snail shell, and all he said was 'If we hadn't gone down there I would never have seen this.'

So nowadays I'm never surprised to hear he's involved in some dangerous adventure or other.

Extract from Goatly, A. (2000:34)

Compare your answer to this activity to our example on *myunisa*.

ACTIVITY 12: STORIES IN THE MEDIA (PROJECT)

Most of us read daily newspapers and watch news on television. Compare and contrast a newspaper story with television coverage of the same news item. What are the similarities and differences? Comment on the genre of newspapers. What are some of the differences from television?

Summary of types of texts and their social purposes

Genre/text type	Social purpose	Generic stages	Language features
Personal recount	To retell a sequence of events in the narrator's life	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Orientation • Record of events • (reorientation) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – past tense – temporal adjuncts – declarative mood – personal pronoun
Biographical recount	To retell the events of a person's life	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Orientation • Record of events • (evaluation of a person) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – past tense (present tense can be used for effect) – temporal adjuncts – declarative mood – third person pronoun <i>he/she</i>
Narrative	To tell a story	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Orientation • Complication • Evaluation • Resolution 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – past tense – temporal adjuncts – declarative mood
Procedure	To give instructions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Goal • Material • Steps (1–n) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Present tense – Adjuncts of place – Imperative mood

Genre/text type	Social purpose	Generic stages	Language features
Discussion	To consider different perspectives on an issue	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Issue • Arguments for • Arguments against • (positions) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – present tense (and past where appropriate) – declarative mood (some use of interrogatives in spoken mode) – modality – generic nominal groups
Explanation	To explain how something works	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Identification of phenomenon • Explanation sequence 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – present tense – declarative mood – generic nominal groups – causal and temporal connectors

Adapted from Coffin et al. (2009:260–261).

References

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- Derewianka, B. (1990). *Exploring how Texts Work, NSW Australia: Primary English Teaching Association*.
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UNIT 2

Language and Meaning



APPLIED ENGLISH LANGUAGE STUDIES
Further explorations

Relevant parts from your prescribed textbooks:

Mullany and Stockwell. (2010). *Introducing English Language*, pages 10–14.

Carter et al. (2008). *Working with Texts*, Units 3 and 4.

Outcomes

By the end of the module you should be able to:

- distinguish between linguistic meaning and speaker's meaning
- understand the relationship between intonation and meaning
- identify and explain speech acts
- distinguish between conceptual and associative meaning
- understand the concepts of sense and reference.

Introduction

This section of the study unit looks more closely at the relationship between aspects of the English language and meaning. Meaning and language are interdependent. When human beings communicate they inevitably use language to express ideas, thoughts and to convey certain messages. Hence meaning cannot be separated from language, and it is not an abstract entity with an independent existence outside language. Similarly, we cannot speak of meaning as an abstract and impenetrable concept without examining the meaning of individual words and how they are used in sentences (Heinemann 2009, p. 113).

The main aim is to introduce you to some of the units of English grammar, such as words, sentences and phrases, and how they function to convey meaning. Meaning exists in both smaller (e.g. individual words) and larger (e.g. sentences, phrases) units of language. Knowing about these grammatical units and understanding how they function will enable you to see how and what meanings are created. Furthermore, such knowledge is an important basis for interpreting both spoken and written texts. Grammar is an essential component for creating and communicating meaning, hence it is important to understand how it systematically works in speech and texts. As discussed in Unit 3 of the prescribed textbook *Working with Texts*, the relationship between words and meanings is complex. This implies that meaning is not fixed or straightforward. The meaning of the same word, sentence or phrase can shift according to its use, the speaker's or writer's intended message and purpose, and the specific context of use.

Look at the following examples and see how the same word (*'hot'*) changes meaning according to how it is used in these sentences. In all five sentences the meanings are different owing to the context and the speaker's or writer's intention to communicate a particular message that s/he has in mind. The dictionary meaning of the individual word *'hot'* is ambiguous because it can suggest a range of things such as burning, boiling, warm, scorching or sweltering. In order to be able to interpret the content of the message that the speaker or writer aims to convey, it is important to understand the function of the word *'hot'* as it used in each sentence. Throughout this section of the unit, we will emphasise the interrelationship between words, sentences or phrases; and the purpose and context of communication.

1. She opened the windows because the room was **hot**.
This sentence refers to the temperature in the room.
2. The students were involved in a **hot** debate.
This means that nature of the debate was engaging, thoughtful and issues raised were topical.
3. What a **hot** curry she cooked!
This sentence suggests that the food was very spicy.
4. Strike while the iron is **hot**.
This is an English idiomatic expression that implies that it is better to do something or to take action immediately while you have a good chance of success.
5. Police are **hot** on the trail of the bank robbers.
This means that the police are close to a successful solution and possible arrests are imminent.
6. She is a **hot** girl.
It is an informal way (colloquial usage) of indicating that the particular girl being referred to is good-looking, dazzling and sexually attractive.

ACTIVITY 1

Here is a list of words that you can use to create your own sentences. Write at least 3 different sentences using the same word. Your 3 sentences in each case should show how the same word can be used to mean different things. Make sure that your sentences include one idiomatic expression as illustrated in sentence 4 in the examples above. Explain the meanings of all the sentences you have created.

- Grass
- Blue
- Green
- Bank

In the previous section we focused on the meaning of individual words and how they are used in sentences. This section builds on the preceding discussion to illustrate how we can use stresses or **intonation** to completely change the meaning of a sentence or a phrase. **Intonation** refers to the way in which the voice rises (high pitch) and falls (low pitch) when you speak. The role of intonation in speech is to stress and to emphasise

a specific word, sentence or phrase in order to highlight an idea or point of view. For example, a speaker may change the main idea of what s/he is saying by simply shifting the intonation from one word to the other. Therefore, the very same sentence with the same word order might result in a completely different idea that goes beyond the exact meaning of words (i.e. linguistic meaning) to show how the speaker feels (i.e. speaker's meaning). We shall define linguistic and speaker's meaning fully in the sections that follow.

Now let us look at how the meaning of the same sentence and phrase shifts depending on where the stress or intonation is placed. Read out the following sentences and make sure that you stress all the words that are in bold with a **high pitch** in order to demonstrate the type of intonation used. Pay particular attention to how the **high pitch** influences message communicated in each sentence.

1. **I** did not write the exam yesterday.
By stressing the personal pronoun '**I**' the speaker is drawing our attention to the fact that s/he did not write the exam that was scheduled for yesterday, but others or other students did.
2. I **did not** write the exam yesterday.
In this case, the emphasis is on the verb tense '**did not**' suggesting that if the listener thought that speaker wrote the exam yesterday, s/he actually didn't.
3. I did not **write** the exam yesterday.
Giving emphasis to the verb '**write**' implies that instead of writing the exam yesterday, the speaker did something else instead or was involved in another project.
4. I did not write **the** exam yesterday.
By stressing the definite article '**the**' in this sentence would mean that the speaker wrote the exam yesterday, but not the one that the listener is thinking of. S/he wrote a different exam.
5. I did not write the **exam** yesterday.
In this example, the speaker is highlighting the noun '**exam**' to say that s/he did not write the specific exam in question but wrote something else. Perhaps s/he wrote a book instead.
6. I did not write the exam **yesterday**.
Giving emphasis to the noun '**yesterday**' would mean that the speaker actually wrote the exam. S/he did not write the exam yesterday but on some other day.

As you can see above, there are six varied interpretations of the same sentence. You are saying the same words every time. However, by pronouncing a **different word at a higher pitch** in each sentence you are actually saying a **different thing every time**.

Why is intonation important? When the listener of a speech or the reader of a written text is aware of the various intonation patterns that the speaker or writer employs in the process of communication s/he will be able to identify and make sense of the intended/actual message that is being conveyed. That is to say, when we talk or write something we may deliberately highlight a particular word, sentence or phrase in order to draw the listener or reader's attention to a particular point of view. If your intonation is unclear or you put emphasis on the wrong word, it is possible that you may not be

understood and your audience may misinterpret the intended message. In other words, you get to understand people better, and people will understand you better as well.

ACTIVITY 2

Below is a list of sentences with six possible interpretations. These sentences are the same but the emphasis (intonation) in each case is on a different word. Read out the sentences by emphasising the words in bold at a higher pitch, and then explain how intonation affects meaning in each case.

1. **He** is not flying to London tomorrow.
2. He **is not** flying to London tomorrow.
3. He is not **flying** to London tomorrow.
4. He is not flying **to** London tomorrow.
5. He is not flying to **London** tomorrow.
6. He is not flying to London **tomorrow**.

The preceding sections discussed how words and intonation can affect meaning and create ambiguity (where more than one meaning is possible). In the following section we shall pay particular attention to the relationship between meaning and context. This section of our Study Guide aims to build on Learning Unit 4 (pages 57–66) in ENG1502 in which you were briefly introduced to the importance of **context**. Here we give you an extended discussion on the relationship between meaning and context. We will focus specifically on the relationship between linguistic meaning and speaker meaning including speech acts; content and structure words; and sense and reference. All these factors play an important part in how we interpret and understand meaning. Firstly, let us look at linguistic meaning and speaker's meaning.

Linguistic Meaning and Speaker's Meaning

The concepts of linguistic meaning and speaker's meaning are important characteristics of communication because they distinguish between what is said (i.e. sentence meaning or explicit meaning) and what is meant (i.e. what is implied, or implicit/proposed meaning). The difference between the two concepts is that the former refers to the literal linguistic meaning of words, sentences or phrases; and the latter has to do with the speaker's intended meaning.

Linguistic meaning can be understood as a context-independent phenomenon as meaning is often conventional, predictable, and obvious. In other words, there is a direct link between a word, sentence, or phrase and its denotation or dictionary meaning.

Speaker's meaning, on the other hand, is context-dependent because in order to comprehend what the speaker means and intends to convey the listener would need to know about the purpose and context in which something is said. This process is called **implicature**, a technical term coined by H.P. Grice.

<p>Implicature is mainly used in pragmatics to refer to that which is suggested or implied by an utterance.</p>

What is suggested in an utterance may be different from the actual or the exact meaning depending on the **context**. The interpretation of what people say or write is based on more than just the words themselves.

There are two types of contexts: **linguistic context** and **physical context**.

Linguistic context has to do with the meaning of individual words in relation to other words within a sentence.

Physical context refers to the circumstances under which words are spoken or written. In other words, it is necessary to know who is speaking, to whom, as well as the situation in which that particular communication takes place.

For example, the following sentence: **‘Mary had a baby girl and got engaged’** suggests that Mary had a baby girl first and then she got engaged. However, it is possible that Mary could have been engaged before she had the baby girl. In order to fully comprehend Mary’s situation in the case, we will need to know more about the context. The meaning of this sentence is indefinite because the distinction between ‘what is actually said’ and ‘what is merely conveyed’ by the utterance is unclear. If the utterance included additional contextual information such as **‘Mary had a baby girl in January and got engaged in December of the same year’** we would be able to give a precise interpretation of the message that is being conveyed.

It is important to realise that when two people communicate, where one is a speaker and the other is a listener, there may not be a direct correlation between what is said (i.e. actual words, sentences or utterances) by the speaker and what is understood (i.e. implicature) by the listener. In other words, a speaker may say something with a particular message in mind but that same information can be understood and interpreted differently by the listener. These differences can create misunderstanding.

Let us look at the sentence ‘Tom has been to prison’. This sentence is vague and the meaning is ambiguous. As a result, it can be interpreted in different ways. When we read it we are unclear whether the writer is referring to a specific place, time of activity, a meeting, someone’s behaviour or the information that the person has access to. There are several possible meanings:

‘Tom has been to prison’

- 1 He had visited the prison or went there for some business, meeting or a gathering of some sort. (Meeting)
- 2 Tom may have a tendency toward criminal behaviour hence he was locked up or detained before. (Behaviour or attitude)
- 3 The sentence could imply that Tom is not home or where they thought they will find him but instead he has already left for prison. (Place).
- 4 Tom knows a lot or something about this place called prison. If you would like to know something or want some information regarding prison he may be able to assist. (Knowledge or information about something)
- 5 Tom went to prison in the morning and now he is back. (Time)
- 6 Tom is familiar with prison life or is interested in activities that take place there. (Perhaps he has conducted research in prison.)

The six interpretations of the same sentence that we have provided above illustrate the

importance of knowing something about the context. Without such knowledge we are unsure whether what is suggested in the sentence is the actual meaning of what the speaker or writer intended to convey. This is so because the information that can be drawn from the utterances used is not always sufficient to determine the content and exact meaning. That is to say, sentence/linguistic meaning (i.e. what is said or written) alone is often **ambiguous** and can sometimes convey information/ideas that contradict the speaker or writer's intended meaning. At times, this can result in miscommunication or even communication breakdown. Thus contextual information is necessary in order to determine the exact meaning.

For example, if the sentence is changed to: '**Tom has been to prison last year for robbing a bank**' then the message becomes clearer. The contextual information provided here makes it possible for us to realise that Tom was in jail the previous year for the crime that he committed.

ACTIVITY 3

Here are 3 sentences. All these sentences are ambiguous. Carefully read them and give the suggested meaning (i.e. implicature) in each case. Then explain how and what kind of information about context we need in order to get a clearer understanding of the exact meaning.

1. It is getting hot.
 2. It was absolutely full.
 3. Pass me the salt.
-

In this section of the study unit we have discussed the concepts of linguistic meaning and speaker's meaning; and further showed how these factors influence meaning. The following section looks at speech acts in order to explain the processes of how meanings are constructed within a conversation (Mullany and Stockwell, 2010, p. 12).

Speech Acts

Before you read this section, make sure that you know and understand the different grammatical elements (e.g. noun phrases, pronouns, modals verbs) in English including their respective functions in sentences. In particular, concentrate on the relationship between these elements and meaning. These are explained in Unit 4 '**Sentence and Structures**' of the prescribed textbook *Working with Texts*. Do all the activities in Unit 4 and then compare your answers with the commentaries provided. In addition, read the section titled '**Speech Act Theory**' on pages 12–14 of the prescribed textbook *Introducing English Language*.

Speech acts or communicative acts generally refer to those actions that are performed when something is said for the purpose of accomplishing some communicative goal. Speech acts are taken to include acts such as greeting, inviting, warning, requesting, promising, ordering or congratulating. Speech acts illustrate the fact that language can be used to perform an action rather than merely to convey information. A speech act usually implies that the hearer is expected to respond in a particular way, by using verbal or non-verbal communication. It is important to note that each speech act,

depending on how it is used, represents a different function. In this sense we can associate different functions of speech acts with different meanings. For example:

- Giving orders: Be quiet!
- Making requests: Please pass me the salt.
- Giving information: Thabo went to school.
- Making promises: I promise to take you dancing.
- Giving warning: Do not drink and drive.
- Giving advice: You ought to start taking your health seriously.

Sentence Type	Speech Act	Functions
Declaratives	Assertion	These are statements that are mainly used to convey information.
Interrogatives	Question	These are questions and used to elicit or request certain information.
Imperatives	Orders and Requests	Imperative sentences are directives used mainly to ask for something or tell someone to do something.
Exclamatives	Command	Exclamations are used to express an opinion about a situation or a strong feeling about something.

Speech acts can be categorised as either **direct** or **indirect**.

A **direct speech act** is where the meaning of the utterance is literal and matches action or function that it is intended to perform. Put differently, the content of the speaker's utterance is neither vague nor ambiguous and links directly with the intended message of communication.

Imagine a stranger asking: *'What is your name?'* Considering that fact the speaker and listener are not familiar with each other, this question is a genuine request to find out what your name is. Another example of a direct speech act is a question form sentence that is used to ask for information as in the following: *'Do you know where I put my purse?'* This question could be a genuine request by a mother addressed to her child in which she tries to find out whether s/he has seen the purse or not. The response that the speaker will receive in this case, be it a 'yes' or a 'no' answer, will be directly linked to the function of this speech act – that is, to elicit some information.

An **indirect speech act** is where the meaning of an utterance is dependent on the physical context in which it is spoken or written. Unlike direct speech acts, the speaker may utter a sentence with a different propositional content. In other words, there may not be a direct correlation between the speaker's actual utterance and the function of that utterance. S/he may say one thing and mean something else.

Example 1. *'Can you reach the salt?'* This could be meant as a request (imperative sentence) for someone to pass salt to him/her, or a question (interrogative sentence) that may require a 'yes' or 'no' answer.

Example 2. *'It is getting cold in here.'* The speaker may be using this sentence to indirectly ask someone to close the window or door that is open. In this way this utterance will

be intended as an order or request (imperative sentence) rather than as an assertion (declarative sentence) to convey information about the temperature in the room.

ACTIVITY 4

Read the following sentences and indicate whether they are direct or indirect speech acts. In addition, describe the function in each case and explain in detail how you arrived at that answer.

- I would appreciate it if you could get off my foot.
 - It is hot.
 - Can I ask you a question?
 - The nerve of that student!
 - I wonder where Siphon went.
 - Would you mind getting us an extra menu?
 - I declare this new library open.
-

Sense and Reference

You are advised to read pages 10–12 of the prescribed textbook *Introducing English Language* for a further discussion on sense and reference. Unit Three in *Working with Texts*, your other prescribed textbook is also relevant here. It is important to study the relevant sections in the two textbooks before you attempt read this section of the study unit. This will help you to get a fuller understanding of the two concepts.

Sense and **reference** are important components of meaning as they both form part of the foundation of every facet of study in **semantics** (Mullany and Stockwell 2010, p. 10). **Semantics** is the study of meaning of linguistic expressions such as words, phrases, signs and symbols. In order to understand what these linguistic expressions represent or denote we will need to know their denotation or connotation.

Denotation has to do with the explicit or literal meaning of linguistic expressions.

Connotation refers to the subjective cultural or emotional association that a specific word, phrase, or sign carries.

Denotation and connotation are as crucial as sense and reference in meaning.

Sense refers to the ‘central meaning of a linguistic form and how it relates to the other expressions within the language system’ (Mullany and Stockwell 2010, p. 10). Put differently, sense has to do with the way that the word, phrase or term refers to an object. Sense of an expression is the thought it expresses.

Reference can be defined as the ‘characterising relationship between language and the world, in particular, specific entities that are being focused upon’ (Mullany and Stockwell 2010, p. 10). In other words, reference has to do with the object to which the term, word or phrase refers and represents.

It is important to note that reference depends on sense. That is, the reference of an expression depends on the sense of the expression. Consider the following example:

The **sense** of the word 'house' makes us think of a structure, in general terms. The **reference** would make us think of a particular house such as a cottage, a mansion or a cabin.

This discussion of sense and reference leads to the question of **conceptual** and **associative** meaning.

Conceptual and Associative Meaning

Conceptual meaning covers those 'basic, essential components of meaning that are conveyed by the literal use of a word' (Yule 1996, p. 62). Conceptual meanings are definitions that we often find in dictionaries. For example, some of the basic components of the word *needle* would be 'thin, sharp, steel instrument' and the word *tomato* might include 'shiny red edible fruit'. These basic components that we have described would form part of the conceptual meaning of both words: *needle and tomato*.

Associative meaning relates to the fact that different people might have different associations, ideas, feelings or connotations attached to the two words. In the case of the word *needle*, for example, they might associate it with 'drugs, thread, piercing, stitching or knitting'. The word *tomato* might include associations such as 'fresh, healthy, tasty or juicy'. These associations (often referred to as connotations of a word), are part of the **associative meaning** of that particular word.

Connotations or associative meanings may be personal and differ from one person to the next. For example, a person who does not like needles may attach connotations such as 'illness, pain, hospital, fear' to the word *needle*; the word *tomato* might be associated with a 'sharp, acidic, unpleasant' taste.

ACTIVITY 5

This activity requires you to give the conceptual and associative meanings of the words provided below. Motivate your answers.

- Nurse
 - Snow
 - Snake
 - Blue
-

Summary

In this study unit you were introduced to the relationship between language and meaning. Language and meaning are mutually constitutive and cannot be looked at as independent of each other. Words, sentences and phrases that we utter are not said in a vacuum. Speakers always have a meaning or message in mind that they would like to convey to listeners. However, as we have illustrated, meanings are not always straightforward and listeners may misinterpret what the speaker intended to say. This misinterpretation may be as a result of ambiguous utterances or lack of sufficient contextual information. Contextual information, whether linguistic or non-linguistic, is important if we are to learn more about a particular communication exchange. Knowledge of things like the body language of the speaker, the situation in which

something took place or the place where an activity was carried out, help in clarifying the purpose and meaning.

References

- Yule, G. (2010). *The Study of Language*. 4th ed. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Mullany, L. and Stockwell, P. (2010). *Introducing English Language*. London and New York: Routledge.
- Heinemann, G. (2009). *Investigating English*. Pretoria: UNISA.

Glossary of Terms

Note that the definitions of the terminology below can be found in the study unit. You can also refer to your prescribed textbooks for further clarification.

- Linguistic Meaning
- Speaker's Meaning
- Implicature
- Intonation
- Ambiguous
- Sense
- Reference
- Utterance
- Pragmatics
- Direct Speech Act
- Indirect Speech Act
- Semantics
- Denotation
- Connotation
- Conceptual meaning
- Associative meaning

FEEDBACK TO ACTIVITIES

Activity 1

In this activity you were required to formulate sentences using the words that were provided. Below are some of the examples in which the specific words are used in sentences.

'Grass'

1. *He used to smoke grass when he was at university.*
Meaning: 'Grass' is used informally here to refer to cannabis, marijuana or dagga.
2. *The gardener mows my neighbour's grass on Saturdays.*
Meaning: 'Grass' here means a lawn.
3. *How can you lend Thabo your car? He is a snake in the grass.*
Meaning: Thabo is a sneaky person who cannot be trusted.

4. *He is always doing something. He never lets the grass grow under his feet.*
Meaning: He is always busy trying new things. He likes challenges and does not stay in one place, job or situation for a long time.

'Blue'

1. *I explained events to the police officer until I was blue in the face.*
Meaning: The speaker was exhausted and speechless after a lengthy discussion with the police officer.
2. *The inheritance from my aunt came out of the blue as a stroke of good fortune.*
Meaning: The sentence implies that the inheritance came suddenly and unexpectedly.
3. *Collins is the blue-eyed boy at our school.*
Meaning: This means that Collins is liked and admired by many people.
4. *Mary bought herself a nice pair of blue shoes.*
Meaning: The colour of the shoes Mary bought is blue.

'Green'

1. *My new dress made my neighbour green with envy.*
Meaning: The neighbour appeared jealous and envious.
2. *Tom bought a green car.*
Meaning: The colour of the car is green.
3. *The child's face turned green as grass just before he vomited.*
Meaning: His complexion was tinged with green.
4. *The grass is always greener on the other side.*
Meaning: This implies that we often imagine we would be happier in a different set of circumstances, as compared to our present situation.

'Bank'

1. *Melanie and her friend were walking along the bank of the Jukskei river when the accident happened.*
Meaning: This means the two friends were walking on ground on the side of the river.
2. *The bank does not open on Sundays.*
Meaning: The sentence refers to a financial institution where people save or invest their money.
3. *Can I bank on you for support at the meeting?*
Meaning: The speaker is asking whether s/he can rely on the listener or trust that the listener will back or support him/her at the meeting.
4. *Her business is doing well and she is laughing all the way to the bank.*
Meaning: This means that the success of her business earns her a lot of money.

Activity 2

These examples illustrate how intonation in each of the following sentences influences meaning.

1. **He** is not flying to London tomorrow.
This example means that it's not he who is travelling but someone else. As in: "**He** isn't flying to London tomorrow. His **brother** is."
2. He **is not** flying to London tomorrow.
Here, the emphasis is on the words "**is not**" to say that, it's not true that he is flying. As in: "Do you know that John is flying to London tomorrow?" "**He is not** flying to London tomorrow. He was intending to but **he changed his mind later**."
3. He is not **flying** to London tomorrow.
By stressing the word "**flying**", we intend to say that this is not what he's going to do but maybe something else. As in: "He isn't **flying** to London tomorrow. He is actually **driving**."
4. He is not flying **to** London tomorrow.
If you say the word "**to**" louder, you're saying this is not the direction he's flying into. As in: "He isn't flying **to** London tomorrow. He is actually flying **back from** London."
5. He is not flying to **London** tomorrow.
Stressing the word "**London**", in this example, would mean that this is **not the actual destination** of John's flight. As in: "He is not flying to **London**. He's flying to **New York**."
6. He is not flying to London **tomorrow**.
Giving emphasis to the word "**tomorrow**" would mean that it's not tomorrow he's flying but another day. As in: "He isn't flying to London **tomorrow**. He said he would be flying the **day after tomorrow**."

Feedback from Activities 3 to 5 may be found on myUnisa.

UNIT 3

Register and Genre



APPLIED ENGLISH LANGUAGE STUDIES
Further explorations

Prescribed reading

1. Mullany and Stockwell, pp. 141; 172; 175.
2. Carter et al., pp. 73; 88; 109; 127.

These sections should be read in conjunction with the study material that follows.

Introduction

This study unit deals with discourse analysis with specific focus on **Register** and **Genre**. It highlights how discourse works in specific contexts by analysing different texts. The belief is that we can understand a text by knowing the situation in which it was produced and also by looking at the lexis (vocabulary) used in that text. Situations are different and will determine the type of language used. For example, when you discuss your research topic with your friend over a cup of coffee, when you speak to your lecturer about that research topic in his office or when you present the findings of your topic at a conference, you will use language differently. This is because the formality or informality of a piece of language cannot be looked at outside the context in which it occurs.

KEY TERMS AND CONCEPTS:

1. **Genre**: refers to a type or category of literature which has shared recognisable textual properties, features or conventions. These are the broad categories:
 - Fiction
 - Advertisements
 - Drama
 - Epic
 - Poetry
 - Lyric
2. **Register**: refers to features of either a spoken or written text that identify it as belonging to a particular type of linguistic activity or a particular field or discourse, e.g. Science, Law, Religion. This is largely determined by **lexis** (the words or vocabulary of which the text is composed).

Outcomes

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

- recognise different genres in different texts;
- identify some of the features of a text that constitute a particular genre;
- analyse brief texts to identify different genres;
- identify particular examples of lexis in a text that help constitute a particular genre;
- recognise and understand register categories.

Register and Genre

Texts fall into recognisable categories. For example, a science research report will differ from a business letter or an academic essay. Each text type has its own particular purpose together with its distinct linguistic or textual properties, including the layout or structure. This is known as **genre**.

Genre can be defined as a category of texts marked by a distinctive style, form or context. For example, classical poetry and rap lyrics belong to different genres.

Genres of texts involve textual properties that are specific to them. These textual properties include a certain type of register, and a particular medium of production (e.g. written as opposed to spoken language). There are features of a text which help us identify it as belonging to a particular genre. Text classification will often involve (but is not limited to) the following aspects:

- what a text is about, i.e. what its topic is;
- the speaker's or writer's intention (the reason why the text was produced);
- the medium of its production and reception, i.e. spoken or written, or written but meant to be spoken in performance, etc.;
- the type of the register that constitutes the text;
- the relationship between writer or speaker and the recipient or audience, for example, a lecturer and a student, a lawyer and a client, a student and her friend.

Words associated with the term **genre** include category, kind, variety and type.

Now that you have an idea of what genre is, do the activity below based on the introduction you have just read.

ACTIVITY 1

Look at the following passages in your prescribed texts; Mullany and Stockwell; 141; 136–137; Carter et al.; 126.

Are these different from each other? If so, what makes them different? Explain the differences.

Now that you have attempted to explain their differences, attempt to classify the texts using the table below as an example (characteristics of a specific genre). Please note that the table below includes only some examples (there are many genre varieties that you might think of).

ACTIVITY 2

Try to fill in all the remaining open spaces on your own.

Genre Type	Example of registers/words	Title of text	Mode of production (Written/Spoken)
Poetry	1.	Sonnet 116	1.
	2.		2.
Novel	1.		1.
	2.		2.
Environmental text	1. climate		1. written
	2. species		2.
Biography	1.		1.
	2.		2.
Political speech	1.		1. Spoken
	2.		2.

Some genres have a specific function and some texts are written to influence the addressee's behaviour or attitudes, e.g. to persuade. This applies to advertisements, as discussed in Unit 1.

ACTIVITY 3

Look at the texts in Carter et al.: 124; 159 and Mullany and Stockwell: p. 166;

What do you think are the attitudes that the writers want to evoke in the reader and for what purpose? Pick one article and comment on it.

The lexis (words) we use varies according to the type of situation, that is, according to the social context of language use and this is sometimes what is called 'language appropriateness'. Sometimes this 'appropriateness' is determined by the register being either formal or informal. Registers include the varieties of language associated with people's professions. For example, a qualified lawyer does not use the same register to address everyone he or she speaks to. A lawyer may use an informal register at home with family and friends while at work he or she may use a more formal register with clients. Many professionals such as nurses and agriculturalists have a jargon (specific vocabulary) of their own. This is the lexis (vocabulary or lexical items) commonly used in their profession.

ACTIVITY 4

In the table below, fill in examples of appropriate lexis.

Profession A : Medical doctor Words associated with the profession.	Profession B : Lawyer Words associated with the profession.
1.	1.
2.	2.
3.	3.
4.	4.
5.	5.

Now that we hope you have a fair grasp of registers and their professional association, do the activity below.

ACTIVITY 5

Read the passages provided in your prescribed text, Carter et al.: 126; 127; 124 and then attempt to classify them, based on their register.

Language varies according to the addressor, addressee, speaker's social class, ethnic group, age, and sex. This variation sometimes is brought by the informal and the formal factor variable. Formal register is a type or category of register that involves standard language and is used by professionals in their respective institutions, whereas informal register involves casual conversations between the speaker and close associates or people who are familiar with the speaker.

Register also involves attitude and level of formality associated with a variety of language. There is a relationship between the following two variables: the writer's attitude and the language variety he/she chooses. Attitude is mostly reflected in face-to-face conversations. However in the written mode, it is sometimes subtle. There are different registers for different contexts, for example, we can have frozen, formal, consultative, causal and intimate registers.

Frozen: Language that rarely changes e.g. words of a song or prayer

Formal: one way communication e.g. presentation, lecture

Consultative: two way communication e.g. between a doctor and patient

Casual: communication with a friend

Intimate: Language shared between close couples e.g. the partner sometimes finishes the other one's sentences. This type of language is sometimes full of code words (words known to only those involved).

ACTIVITY 6

Read the following five sentences and explain what kind of register is used in each case. (Refer to the above-mentioned registers.)

1. All students are requested to submit their assignments immediately.
 2. You must stop smoking as it damages your lungs and affects your health negatively.
 3. I am fed up with your excuses.
 4. How are you, my lovey-dovey?
 5. Words of your national anthem.
-

Any **speech community** uses language differently in different situations.

A **speech community** is a group of people who share a set of norms and expectations with reference to the use of language. For example, university students form a speech community and are expected to use formal, academic language.

Register is related to genre; for example, the register of a student's memorandum of grievances and the autopsy report from a pathologist will be different. This means that we can work out the register of a text by looking at its genre features.

ACTIVITY 7

Match the following genres with their potential register associations.

Column A: Genre	Column B: Registers
1. Biographies	1. President Mandela
2. Romance	2. Adore
3. Informational	3. Antibiotics
4. Fantasy	4. Crime
5. Health	5. Myth

Research has shown that register is also determined by the medium or mode of discourse, the main distinction being speech and writing. It should be noted that speech may also vary in situations such as debates, lectures, conversations, discussions, etc. The other argument postulated is that context of situation is in a text and that the way we work out this context of situation is through the register of the text in question.

By now you should understand that there is a connection between register and genre of a text. We have shown that certain registers tend to be found in certain genres. We hope you now understand that register is one of the ways we recognise that a particular text belongs to a particular genre. Look at the following text:

ACTIVITY 8

Read the following text, then answer the question below.

According to a recent released report by Love-Life, an advocacy body involved in HIV/Aids awareness, "around 60% of all adults who acquire HIV become infected before they turn 25".

Thus all indicators point to the fact that the young and economically productive are the most likely to be felled by the HIV/AIDS pandemic. Experts say this is as a result of this age group's unprotected sexual activity, and by extension, sexually transmitted diseases (STDs). But an area on which research is scant is the indirect relationship between substance abuse and the spread of HIV/AIDS. Since substance abuse affects behavioural patterns, the effects of alcohol or experimentation with drugs promote or increase "the high risk" behaviour, particularly unprotected sex. Consequently, young men and women who would normally, in a sober state, use protection like condoms, would, under the influence of alcohol or drugs be less inclined to do so.

(Adapted from Khadjia Magardine, 'Substance abuse aids Aids' in *Mail&Guardian*, 15–22 June, 2000, from Study Guide LIN3705 p. 81.)

What genre does this text belong to? Which features of the language contributed to your answer?

ACTIVITY 9

GLOSSARY

Fill in the definitions of the following terms, used in the course of this unit

- Consultative context
- Genre
- Casual
- Register
- Frozen context
- Intimate context
- Lexis
- Formal context

Summary of this unit

In this unit we have discussed **genre** and **register** and we have also explored how they are connected. We hope that the texts cited in your prescribed textbooks helped you to understand the above-mentioned concepts. With regard to these, the texts you have read in your prescribed textbooks gave you examples of how an author, speaker or a writer tunes his or her speaking or writing to serve different purposes for different audiences. It is imperative that you become aware of the above-mentioned aspects as they are likely to impact on your studies and your professional life. In general what we have discussed is that we have different ways of using language depending on the context. We hope this unit will further help your understanding of other aspects of discourse analysis.

FEEDBACK TO ACTIVITIES

Activity 1

Passages in your prescribed texts: Mullany and Stockwell 136–138 and 141. Carter et al. 126.

Question 1: Are the passages listed above different?

Answer

Yes, the above mentioned passages are different in content, layout, genre and lexis.

Passage on page 141:

The conversation is a political one and the mode is spoken. Register e.g. trade, ceasefire, government.

Text on page 136–137:

It is poetry. The layout and style is different from other written texts such as a business letter. The language is also archaic because it was written in an earlier era.

Passage on page 126 of Carter et al.

This is an advertisement. It is a visual text. It consists of words and a picture.

Feedback to Activity 2

Genre Type	Example of registers/words	Title of text	Mode of production (Written/Spoken)
Poetry	1.	Sonnet 116	1.
	2.		2. Written
Novel	1.		1.
	2.		2.
Environmental text	1. intestinal flora	Back to your roots	1. written
	2. nutrients		2.
Biography	1.		1.
	2.		2. written
Political speech	1. Ceasefire		1. spoken
	2. Government		2.

Feedback to Activity 3

The article on page 159, titled 'An open letter to mothers of fast-growing children' is meant to inform mothers (the audience) about how to care for their children by giving them healthy diets.

Feedback to Activity 4

Profession A: Doctor & Nurse	Profession B: Lawyer
Words associated with the profession.	Words associated with the profession.
1. syringe	1. court
2. medicine	2. bail
3. matron	3. defence
4. midwife	4. verdict
5. infection	5. sentence

Feedback to Activity 5

The passages on page 124 and page 126 are from the same genre and they use the same register. They are all environmental texts. Look at lexis such as wildlife, mammal, species, pollination, lactobacillus, bacteria, intestinal flora.

The passage on page 127 is about computers, therefore it uses computer jargon such as Gb (gigabytes), hard disk, RAM, printer.

Feedback to Activity 6

Frozen: Words of your national anthem.

Formal: All students are requested to submit their assignments immediately.

Consultative: you must stop smoking as it damages your lungs and affects your health negatively.

Casual: I am fed up with your excuses.

Intimate: How are you my lovey-dovey?

Feedback to Activity 7

Column A: Genre	Column B: Registers
1. Fantasy	1. Myth
2. Romance	2. Adore
3. Informational	3. Crime
4. Biographies	3. Former president Mandela
5. Health	4. Antibiotics

Feedback to Activity 8

This is a health report (even though it comes from a newspaper article). The register and lexis that contributed to the above answer are: HIV/AIDS, felled, pandemic, STDs, condoms, drugs.

Feedback to Activity 9

All the definitions of these terms can be found in this unit.

UNIT 4

Text cohesion



APPLIED ENGLISH LANGUAGE STUDIES
Further explorations

Prescribed reading

The parts from your prescribed texts which are relevant to this Unit are:

Mullany and Stockwell: *Introducing English Language*, pp. 20, 21–2, 28, 66, 87, 205, 220–6.

Carter et al.: *Working with Texts*, pp. 144–178.

These sections should be read in conjunction with the study material that follows.

Introduction

In this Study Unit, we are going to explore the concept of cohesion in texts. We will discuss **grammatical cohesion** and look at the four types of grammatical cohesion. We will also discuss **lexical cohesion**. In addition we will look at the subtle differences between **cohesion** and **coherence**.

Outcomes

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

- define the following terms: cohesion; cohesive elements; grammatical cohesion; reference cohesion; substitution cohesion; ellipsis cohesion and lexical coherence;
- understand the relationship between cohesion and coherence;
- apply your knowledge of these concepts;
- describe the role of grammatical and lexical cohesion in texts; and how these elements shape the meaning and unity of a text.

Text cohesion

Let us begin our discussion by looking at the term 'text'. You will have already encountered the term 'text' many times in your studies of the English Language.

ACTIVITY 1

In a few sentences, write down your own understanding of the term 'text'. Now look up the word 'text' in your dictionary. How does the dictionary definition compare with yours? Which of the dictionary meanings is relevant to the way we use the word in our language studies? What examples of texts can you think of?

Feedback: There is no commentary on this activity

Now that we have reminded ourselves of what a text is, let us look at cohesion within a text. Text cohesion can be seen as the 'glue' that brings sentences together.

There are two main types of text cohesion: **Grammatical cohesion** and **lexical cohesion**.

We are going to look at each one in order to see how cohesion is achieved in a text. Let us begin by discussing **lexical cohesion**.

The word 'lexical' relates to words and the choice of vocabulary in a text as opposed to the grammatical aspects of the text. Remember earlier we said that cohesion is the 'glue' that brings sentences together? Thus lexical cohesion is the way words (and the choice of vocabulary) are used to create a cohesion in a text. Let us look at the different types of lexical cohesion:

Repetition cohesion

This involves the repetition of key words (or related words) to help create cohesion in a text. Consider the following text

*Hoping for more success in the marketing of tobacco products, the company last year started **selling** tar-reduced **cigarettes**. The **cigarettes** have been a hit and a celebration was recently held to mark the **sale** of one million boxes. The lucky customer who bought the millionth box was given a cheque equivalent to 1% of the profits made in the previous month.*

Can you see how the writer has repeated certain words in the text? What effect do you think the repetition of words in the above text has?

ACTIVITY 2

Identify all the occurrences of **repetition cohesion** in the text below by underlining them. Write down the lexical items down. Do you regard this text as lexically cohesive?

Text

Children do not require any explicit teaching, but simply seem to pick up language quickly and effortlessly from hearing it spoken around them and participating in conversational interaction with others. First words emerge when children are about one year old, although this differs slightly from child to child. Children seem to be better equipped for picking up languages than adults, as you will know if you have experienced the hard work, slow progress and frustrations of learning a new language in later life. But adults have an advantage over children in that they have more advanced abilities and better concentration spans.

Study Guide for LIN2035 (2001:35)

The examples of lexical repetition cohesion in the text are

This text is not lexically cohesive, because

A second type of lexical cohesion is **synonymy** where words have similar meanings. Examples of synonyms are

beautiful: *attractive, lovely, pretty*
unhappy: *miserable, depressed, sad*
sofa: *couch*
murder: *kill*

As you can see some synonyms may not have the exact same meaning. If we take our example of murder and kill, to murder someone involves intention, while you can kill someone by accident. While murder and kill are slightly different in meaning, they are still similar enough for us to recognise that they mean more or less the same thing (i.e.) someone ends up dead. Let's look at examples of synonymy cohesion more closely.

The wedding reception was held in the hall next to the church. This was a great relief to the guests because it solved their parking problems. And made it easier for those who left the party after midnight to find their cars! Although some of the real party-animals were in no state to drive their motorcars.

The expressions 'wedding reception' and 'party' are synonyms and create cohesion in the text above. Another example of synonymy cohesion is 'cars' and 'motorcars'. Synonymy cohesion, like other types of cohesion connects the sentences of a text. Did you also notice the repetition cohesion created by 'party' and 'party-animals'?

ACTIVITY 3

Identify the **synonymy cohesive elements** in the text below by first underlining and then writing them down in the space provided.

The planning of their wedding took months, because both the bride and groom have large families. Every distant aunt, uncle, and cousin had to be invited. All of them wanted to attend the ceremony as well as the party that usually follows these traditional weddings. The big headache was accommodation for the guests. Every available room had to be found. The neighbours offered their garage and even suggested they would pitch a tent in their backyard. Once the sleeping arrangements were sorted out, enough food had to be organised to feed the visitors. After all, they had come far and would need sustenance.

Examples of synonymy cohesion in this text are:

Another example of text cohesion is **antonymy** cohesion. Antonyms are words that have opposite meanings. Some examples of antonyms are

slow-fast, large-small, live-die, bride-groom

Antonyms share some semantic features, for example 'bride' and 'groom' share a meaning in the sense that both are involved in a wedding ceremony. Thus although the meanings are different (bride=female, groom=male), by sharing some semantic features they create cohesion in a text. The text below is lexically cohesive because of the antonyms.

The bride and groom did not arrive at the same time. The bride followed tradition by arriving late and this caused the usual panic in the church. "Was she fashionably late, or did she change her mind?" But at the end of the ceremony they were legally husband and wife and afterwards old and young celebrated.

In the text there are at least three instances of antonymy cohesion: bride-groom, husband-wife and old-young. Although these words are opposites, they still share sufficient semantic features to create cohesion.

ACTIVITY 4

Identify the antonymy cohesive elements in the text below by underlining them and then writing them down in the space provided.

Some of the games will take place at night. However, most of them will be during the day. An effort has been made to create inclusive teams. The team members will be black, white, old, young, male, female, abled and disabled. A truly rainbow nation team will represent South Africa. The only problem will be integrating deaf and hearing players into this team, because most of the hearing players don't understand sign language.

The antonymy cohesive elements in this text are:

The final lexical cohesion feature that we will concern ourselves with is **Collocation Cohesion**. Collocation is a term to describe words which tend to occur together in certain contexts, for example, the words *education, classroom, lesson* and *teacher* would most probably occur in a text about teaching. Note that noun-verb pairs may also form collocations, for example, to *prepare* a lesson or to *write* an assignment. In the following text we have some collocations which all help to make the text more cohesive.

Being far from home, I am often homesick. Therefore, the telephone has become my best friend. I get excited when I hear the phone ringing and rush to get there first. Because there is only one line in the hostel, we constantly fight to use the phone. Some of my calls can't get through because the phone is often engaged. The worst situation is when I pick up the phone and there is no dial tone. This happens when the lines are down due to a thunderstorm or cable theft.

The collocation cohesive elements in the text above are:

Telephone, phone, ringing, call, dial tone, line and engaged. These words often occur together because they all pertain to using a telephone. If you were discussing gardening, the words *seeds, vegetables, fertiliser, water, hosepipe, rake, spade, soil* etc. are obvious choices, as these words are collocations of each other. They belong to the same semantic field.

ACTIVITY 5

Identify the **collocation cohesive elements** in the text below by underlining them and writing them down in the space provided.

Parenting is not as easy as it looks. First there is the pregnancy which can be a difficult time for both partners. Then, once the baby is there, the first few months can be very exhausting. It's nappies and midnight feeds, not to mention the inevitable colic. A baby with colic is a very unhappy little one and even gripe water does not help. It's when you are walking up and down and rocking the baby in the middle of the night that you realise what hard-work parenting really is.

The collocation cohesive elements in this text are:

ACTIVITY 6

Let us see if we understand lexical cohesion by reading this newspaper extract carefully. Then identify the different types of **lexical cohesive elements**.

The Deadly Threat of Bird Strikes

Next time you fly it is worth bearing in mind that the biggest threat to your safety is not terrorists, technical failure or lightning – but birds.

Officials suspect that the Hudson River plane crash in New York was caused by a collision with a flock of geese, which damaged both of the aircraft's engines. 'Bird Strike' is the general term used when any flying animal or bird collides with a plane – sometimes with devastating consequences. They are most likely to happen during take-off and landing when the plane is flying low.

The Civil Aviation Authority explains that bird strikes have long been an area of concern, often leading to aborted take-offs and emergency landings. 'Bird Strikes' are the main hazards aircrafts face "it happens often", a spokesman said.

The most serious kind of strike happens when birds fly into the jet engine causing it to fail. Modern plane engines are designed to withstand impacts with multiple birds of up to 5.5 lbs in weight but collisions with larger birds, such as geese, are harder to protect against. Airports employ measures such as bird scare patrols to prevent or reduce bird strikes, which have been effective, the CAA says. However the risk still exists.

Adapted from Study Guide LIN3705, pp. 46–7.

Types of lexical cohesion

Cohesive element

Repetition

Synonymy

Antonymy

Collocation

Another important type of text cohesion is known as **grammatical cohesion**. This simply means the use of grammatical elements to create cohesiveness in a text.

Grammatical cohesion refers to the use of grammatical elements to tie a text together. There are four subcategories of grammatical cohesion. These are: **reference cohesion, substitution cohesion, ellipsis cohesion and conjunctive cohesion**.

Let us look at each subcategory separately. We will begin with **Reference Cohesion**.

Consider the following sentence:

You can't see Theo now. He is in a meeting.

In the above sentence you can see that there is a connection between 'Theo' and 'he'. Clearly, 'he' refers to Theo. Thus when you read the sentence, you understood who 'he' is, by referring back to 'Theo'. So we see that both words 'he' and "Theo" refer to the same thing. Let us look at another example:

Professor Jenkinson went to London for a conference. The weather was freezing there and she had to buy a new winter coat. Can you see that the word 'there' refers to London and the pronoun 'she' refers to Professor Jenkinson?

There are particular words that are often used for reference purposes. Let us have a look at some of these words.

Personal pronoun reference: I; you (singular); he; she; one; we; you (plural); they

References can also occur in different forms. Here are some possible variants: me; him; her; us; the; there; it.

ACTIVITY 7

Identify the **reference cohesion** elements in the text below:

Thomas prefers a holiday in South Africa to Egypt. I'm not sure that I do. He says it is cheaper and less stressful. That is what he told me when I saw him last week. He was then booking a week for himself and his family at the local hotel in Port Elizabeth because he likes it very much. This hotel is older than any others in the town and this is his main reason for staying there. I'm afraid I don't have the same affection for that ancient place. On the contrary I have always disliked it, and he knows I have. I often take a holiday to Egypt, but he has never had one

Now let us look at another type of grammatical cohesion.

Substitution: This refers to situations where one word is substituted for another word to avoid direct repetition. Let us look at some examples.

Example 1

Sentence A: "I want to buy a new handbag and I have my eye on that gorgeous green leather **one**". In this sentence, you can see how we have substituted the words 'new handbag' with the word 'one'. We could have written the sentence as follows: Sentence B: "I want to buy a new handbag and I have my eye on that gorgeous green leather new handbag". Can you see how Sentence A seems to 'hang together' better than Sentence B. Sentence A is less cluttered and avoids unnecessary repetition. Thus it is easier to read. (Can you see how coherence is linked to readability of a text?)

Example 2

*My brother had to go for a dental appointment but he did not want to **do so**.* In this

sentence, we could have written “My brother had to go for a dental appointment but he did not want to go to the dental appointment”. We substituted ‘going for a dental appointment’ with “do so” to make our sentence clearer, easier to read and more coherent.

Example 3

Sentence A: *Pride and Prejudice by Jane Austen is a classic, timeless novel and the same is also true of Persuasion.* In this sentence if we did not use substitution, we could end up with the following sentence:

Sentence B: *“Pride and Prejudice by Jane Austen is a classic timeless novel and Persuasion is a classic timeless novel”.* As we can see, Sentence B is clumsy, repetitive and uninteresting.

ACTIVITY 8

Create 3 sentences of your own in which you use **substitution** to create cohesion. Explain why you have chosen to substitute the items.

ACTIVITY 9

Identify the **substitution elements** in the text below:

Thomas prefers a holiday in South Africa to Egypt. I'm not sure that I do. He says it is cheaper and less stressful. That is what he told me when I saw him last week. He was then booking a week for himself and his family at the local hotel in Port Elizabeth because he likes it very much. This hotel is older than any others in the town and this is his main reason for staying there. I'm afraid I don't have the same affection for that ancient place. On the contrary I have always disliked it, and he knows I have. I often take a holiday to Egypt, but he has never had one.

Have you noticed the difference in the occurrence of **substitution** as compared to **reference** cohesion? There are many more reference cohesion elements in this text than there are substitution elements. Although the differences are not usually quite as great in spoken language, where substitution cohesion is more common, reference cohesion is almost always the type of cohesion with the highest frequency of occurrence.

Note: What is important to remember about using substitution is that the items being substituted should always be exchangeable.

Ellipsis

Hmmm I wonder what an ellipsis is ...

Did you notice what I just did there?

Ellipsis is very similar to substitution, however, whereas with substitution we swap elements in a sentence that are the same, with ellipsis we omit elements altogether. You

can think of ellipsis as zero substitution. Ellipsis often involves omitting elements to avoid redundancy.

Consider the following sentence.

There are our two cats. We used to have three

The word 'cats' is omitted because it can be easily understood that the 'three' refers to cats. If the writer did not use ellipsis, the sentence would read as follows: 'These are our two cats. We used to have three cats.' Can you see that the second sentence seems repetitive?

Let us look at another example:

Mother: Thabo have you been playing in the mud again?

Thabo: Yes, I have

Thabo's answer contains an omission. The phrase 'been playing in the mud' has been left out. Ellipsis cohesion is typical in conversation when yes-no questions are used:

Dennis: Are they going to the stadium tonight?

Tony: Yes

Here the clause "they are going to the stadium tonight" has been omitted.

You will have noticed that ellipsis, like substitution, is not very common in writing, but occurs frequently in conversation.

Conjunction:

The term conjunction means "joining". Thus conjunctive cohesion refers to the use of linking words to not only link sentences but to also demonstrate how the items should be linked. Let us look at some examples:

Example 1

Sentence A: *Firstly we should send out the invitations because we are running out of time.*

In this sentence we have used "joining" words such as "firstly" and 'because'. We do this to indicate that the first thing we need to do is to send out the invitations (the implication here is that there are other duties we have to do but this one appears to take priority). We use 'because' to provide a reason for the first action. Here is the sentence *without* the conjunctions: **Sentence B** "*We should send out the invitations. We are running out of time*". Without the conjunctions our sentences sounds fragmented and disjointed. The two sentences are not joined and appear to have nothing to do with each other.

Example 2

I missed my flight to London but I was able to catch the next flight out. Think about the use of the word 'but'. It is clear that it indicates that the word 'but' is used to revise the first part of the sentence.

Example 3

In addition you need to study page 167 of your prescribed book: *Working with Texts*. In this sentence we are being informed that ‘in addition’ to what we are reading now, we also need to read page 167 of our prescribed book. (By the way, you really do need to read page 167 of your prescribed textbook!)

Do note that different types of writing will tend to use different types of connecting words and not just the ones we have used in our examples.

ACTIVITY 10

Identify examples of **conjunctive cohesion** below by underlining them

They went on a picnic in spite of the weather. Nomsa drove them in her mother’s car. She cannot pass her driving test until she is eighteen. Consequently she is driving without a license. She has already received a fine because she drove without it. Although Nomsa is a good driver, it is illegal to drive without a license but I do not think she cares about that.

We have discussed the various types of grammatical cohesion. Now let us work on an activity to make sure that we understand the four types of grammatical cohesion.

ACTIVITY 11

Identify the **types of grammatical cohesion** in the sentences below. Write down the type of grammatical cohesion in the space provided.

1. Cathy has a car, but I don’t have one.
2. They asked who would like to write for the magazine and I said that Thuli wants to.
3. I heard the news last night, but couldn’t leave in the dark.
4. Sandra and Andy went to Hawaii for their honeymoon.
5. Unisa has over 400 000 students. It must be the largest university in Southern Africa.

We have seen that **grammatical cohesion** consists of four subcategories, namely **reference cohesion, substitution cohesion, ellipsis cohesion and conjunctive cohesion**.

Texts that contain more cohesive elements are easier to read and understand than texts that contain fewer cohesive elements. Research has shown that the ability to recognise reference cohesion is important for reading comprehension. Students who could correctly identify the reference elements in their textbooks had higher pass rates than students who could not. Thus, it is important for a text to be cohesive because it helps the reader make sense of the text. Skilled readers are able to correctly identify the cohesive elements and, therefore the meaning of a text while they read.

ACTIVITY 12

Carefully read the text below and underline all instances of **reference cohesion**. In the light of reference cohesion, decide whether you consider this text to be cohesive.

Text A

Viognier, the grape varietal, which is now much loved by wine drinkers around the world, almost disappeared from France, its place of origin. In 1965 there are only eight hectares of Viognier in its Northern Rhone homeland. Initially it was grown to blend with other whites and reds character to well known varieties. This varietal can also be found in Chile, Argentina, Uruguay, Brazil, New Zealand, and South Africa. Viognier is a difficult grape to grow because it is prone to mildew. It produces low and unpredictable yields, and needs to be picked when fully ripe. If it is picked too early it fails to develop its classic aromas and rich tastes. When picked under the ideal circumstances, Viognier has an amazing clear, golden color and the aroma of flowers and fruits. It is very aromatic. It is best known for its apricot, peach and spice flavors.

ACTIVITY 13

Read the following newspaper extract carefully and identify the different types of **grammatical cohesive elements**.

Aussie survives attack by 5 m shark

Sydney – An Australian swimmer who was mauled by a 5 m shark and survived, said on Sunday, he saw a shadow in the water seconds before the attack and thought it was a dolphin. The shark, believed to be a great white, seized Jason Cull by the left leg as he was swimming at Middleton beach in south-western Australia on Saturday.

Cull, 37, survived after grappling with the beast and after a lifesaver came to his aid. The shark was one of three that swimmers reported seeing at the beach on Saturday. Officials closed the beach after the attack.

From his hospital bed where he was being treated for deep lacerations, Cull said he saw a shadow moving in the water just before the attack and mistook it for a dolphin. "It was much bigger than a dolphin when it came up", Cull said. "It banged straight into me – I realized what it was: it was a shark". "I sort of touched it, and it grabbed me by the leg and dragged me under the water he said. I just remembered being dragged backwards underwater. I felt along it and found its eye and I poked it in the eye and that's when it let go ..."

Adapted from LIN3703 Unisa Study Guide

Coherence

What do we mean when we say a text is coherent? Coherence simply means that you, the reader or listener, can understand the text. Does the text make sense? Imagine that you are having a conversation with someone who is very drunk. Very often people who are under the influence of alcohol tend to be incoherent, In other words you cannot really understand what they are saying. Consider the following text:

The police car and the crunchy peanut butter said hello in New York. "This is such a lovely day" the penguin sighed. And then we went home.

Does that above text make sense to you? I hope not! It is an example of a text that lacks coherence.

Let us look at another example.

Once upon a time there was a purple rabbit named Wibbles. The phone kept ringing incessantly and she continued to ignore it. Thank you for the chocolates, they were delicious! So that is why they got married in Jamaica.

In this example, each sentence on its own is a correct and acceptable English sentence. However, when we string the sentences together, it no longer makes sense. Thus coherence relates to the way in which sentences relate to each other. For a text to be considered coherent each sentence should follow on in a logical manner.

Read the following text:

This is an explanation of how the Bushmen lived:

The Bushmen were hunters who moved from place to place in search of food. They were adept at tracking wild animals which they killed with spears or arrows. The arrows were tipped with sharp stone or bone and these weapons were deadly in the skilled hands of the better hunters. They used to disguise themselves as bushes, buck or ostriches, in order to get close to the herd. During the rainy season in particular, they supplemented their diet with food from the veld which included wild roots, berries, locusts and fish.

Do you think this text is coherent? What is the reason for your answer?

We have seen that **Cohesion** can be thought of as how all the grammatical and lexical elements of a text link one part of a text to another. **Coherence** is how the sentences and meanings of ideas relate to each other logically. This enables understanding.

ACTIVITY 14

Glossary

Fill in the definitions of the following terms used in this Unit:

Cohesion

Coherence

Grammatical cohesion

Reference cohesion

Substitution cohesion

Ellipsis

Conjunctive cohesion

Lexical cohesion

Repetition cohesion

Synonymy cohesion

Antonymy cohesion

Summary

In this Study Unit we have looked at the phenomenon of text cohesion, particularly at grammatical cohesion and its four subcategories. We looked at reference cohesion, substitution cohesion, ellipsis and conjunctive cohesion. We should now be able to recognise grammatical cohesion in texts and identify its four categories. You should also have become more aware of grammatical cohesion in your own writing and reading. In addition we discussed lexical coherence and the way it can be used to create cohesion in a text. Finally we looked at coherence and we discussed what makes a text coherent. Do try and apply what we have learned in this Study Unit to your own reading and writing. Be aware of these features whenever you read or write a text.

Feedback to activities

Activity 1: There is no commentary on this Activity.

Activity 2: Repetition Cohesion

The lexical repetition cohesive elements in Text A are: *pick up – picking up, language – languages, children – child and adults –adults*. This text is lexically very cohesive, because of the many repetitions that link the sentences.

Activity 3: Synonymy cohesion

The synonymy cohesion elements are *wedding – ceremony-party, guests – visitors, accommodation-room-sleeping arrangements-tent, food –sustenance*. From these examples

we can see that synonymy is not always exact. While visitors and guests mean the same thing, accommodation and tent do not have exactly the same meaning. However, they are related in sense.

Activity 4: Antonymy cohesion

The antonymy cohesion elements in this text are: *night-day, black-white, young-old, male-female, abled-disabled, deaf-hearing.*

Activity 5: Collocation cohesion

Words such as *parenting, pregnancy, baby, nappies, night feeds, colic, little one, gripe water* and *rocking* often occur together and belong to the same semantic field. These words all act as collocation cohesive elements which connect the sentences in the text above and make it a cohesive text.

Activity 6: Lexical cohesion

Type of lexical cohesion

Repetition: *birds, flying, plane, take-off*

Synonymy: *impacts (collisions), impacts (strikes) aircraft (plane, jet), hazards (threat)*

Antonymy: *landing (take-off) , risk- (safety)*

Collocation: *aviation (airports, flying, jets, planes etc)*

Activity 7

The reference cohesion elements are in bold.

*Thomas prefers a holiday in South Africa to Egypt. I'm not sure that I do. He says **it** is **cheaper** and **less** stressful. **That** is what **he** told **me** when I saw **him** last week. He was **then** booking a week for himself and his family at the local hotel in Port Elizabeth because **he** likes **it** very much. **This** hotel is older than any others in **the** town and **this** is **his** main reason for staying **there**. I'm afraid I don't have **the same** affection for **that** ancient place. On the contrary **I** have always disliked **it**, and **he** knows **I** have. **I** often take a holiday to Egypt, but **he** has never had one.*

This is a very cohesive passage and it shows us how reference cohesion is important in making a text hang together.

Activity 8: There is no feedback for this activity.

Activity 9: Substitution elements

The substitution cohesion elements are in bold

*Thomas prefers a holiday in South Africa to Egypt. I'm not sure that I do. He says it is **cheaper and less stressful**. That is **what** he told me when I saw him last week. He was then booking a week for himself and his family at the local hotel in Port Elizabeth because he likes it very much. This hotel is older than any others in the town and this is his main reason for staying there. I'm afraid I don't have the same affection for **that ancient place**.*

*On the contrary I have always disliked **it**, and he knows I have. I often take **a holiday to Egypt**, but he has never had **one***

Activity 10: Conjunctive cohesion

*They went on a picnic **in spite of** the weather. Nomsa drove them in her mother's car. She cannot pass her driving test **until** she is eighteen. **Consequently** she is driving without a license. She has already received a fine **because** she drove without it. **Although** Nomsa is a good driver, it is illegal to drive without a license but I do not think she cares about that.*

Activity 11: Grammatical cohesion

1. Cathy has **a car**, but I don't have **one**. (Substitution cohesion)
2. They asked who would like to **write for the magazine** and I said that Thuli wants **to**. (Ellipsis)
3. I heard the news last night, **but** couldn't leave in the dark. (Conjunctive cohesion)
4. **Sandra and Andy** went to Hawaii for **their** honeymoon (Reference cohesion)
5. Unisa has over 400 000 students. **It** must be the largest university in Southern Africa. (Reference cohesion)

Activity 12: Reference cohesion

Text A contains many instances of reference cohesion. There are at least no examples where "it" refers back to "Viognier". In light of these many reference cohesion elements, one could regard this text as very cohesive. Although Text B consists of only four sentences, there are four examples of reference cohesion and is also very cohesive. Remember that the inclusion of other languages serves to illustrate that text linguistics also applies to other languages.

Activity 13: Grammatical cohesive elements

Some of the cohesive elements in the text are underlined.

Aussie survives attack by 5 m shark

Sydney – An Australian swimmer who was mauled by a 5 m shark and survived, said on Sunday, he (reference cohesion) saw a shadow in the water seconds before the attack and thought it (reference cohesion) was a dolphin. The shark, believed to be a great white, seized Jason Cull by the left leg as he (reference cohesion) was swimming at Middleton beach in south-western Australia on Saturday.

Cull, 37, survived after grappling with the beast (substitution cohesion) and after a lifesaver came to his aid. The shark was one (substitution cohesion) of three (ellipsis) that swimmers reported seeing at the beach on Saturday. Officials closed the beach after the attack,

From his hospital bed where he was being treated for deep lacerations, Cull said he saw a shadow moving in the water just before the attack and mistook it for a dolphin. "It was much bigger than a dolphin when it came up", Cull said. "It banged straight into me – I realized what it was: it was a shark". "I sort of touched it, and it grabbed me by the leg and dragged me under the water he said. I just remembered being dragged

backwards underwater. I felt along it and found its eye and I poked it in the eye and (conjunctive cohesion) that's when it let go ... (ellipsis)"

Activity 14:

The definitions of all these terms may be found in this unit.

UNIT 5

English language use and variation



APPLIED ENGLISH LANGUAGE STUDIES:
Further explorations

Prescribed reading

The parts from your prescribed texts which are relevant to this unit are:

Mullany and Stockwell: *Introducing English Language*, pp. 35–43; 91–103; 255–256.
Carter et al.: *Working with Texts*, pp. 11–17; 249–255; 305–315.

These sections should be read in conjunction with the study material that follows.

Introduction

In this study unit, we consider the way that English language use changes according to context. Context includes the geographical region in which the language occurs, and the social situation in which the language is used. We discuss what is meant by standard and non-standard English, and when it is appropriate to use which variety. The differences between spoken and written English are considered as well. We also discuss the characteristics of the variety of English required for academic study.

We would like you to attempt the activities included in this unit before you consult the feedback and answers which are provided at the end of the unit.

Outcomes

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

- recognise different varieties of English that occur in different parts of the world and in South Africa;
- understand that English usage varies according to its social context and purpose;
- identify some of the features that distinguish spoken from written English;
- distinguish between standard and non-standard English;
- use the standard variety of English when it is appropriate to do so.

English language use and variation

English originated in England about 1 500 years ago. Today it is a global language and is used as a **lingua franca** – a language used to enable communication between people all over the world with different mother tongues. How and why has this phenomenon occurred? How could a language coming from one country – a tiny island – become a world language?

The spread of English worldwide is largely the legacy of colonialism which imposed English usage on the peoples it dominated in various parts of the world. This reflected the power of the British Empire, at its height in the 19th century. English then developed in different ways in different geographical regions, absorbing elements of indigenous languages. English continued to spread and grow after the colonial era because of its use in technology, commerce and science. The globalisation of English is also the result of the power of America, particularly American media and popular culture, disseminated worldwide through television and film.

During the colonial era, English was imposed on colonised people; in other words, they had no option but to learn to speak it. Now that the colonial era is over, why, do you think, do more and more and more people choose to learn English? Why are you studying it?

Mullany and Stockwell make the point that since the colonial era, people are no longer coerced into learning English, but have the desire to learn it for pragmatic reasons. They realise that they need to learn English because it is an international language, even though this may threaten their own languages, cultures and ways of thinking (2010:256). Today, English has far more second- and foreign-language speakers than it has first-language speakers.

Like most UNISA students, you are studying English because it is an essential part of higher education and because you probably realise that it provides the key to employment and economic opportunities. To succeed at university, you need to be proficient in Standard English. But what exactly do we mean by 'Standard English'?

Standard English is the variety taught at school and used for official purposes. It is the kind of English used in the newspaper and by news-readers on the radio and television. It is fairly formal and most common in the written form. Standard English is associated with prestige. There are definite social and educational benefits of being able to use Standard English.

English is now used all over the world, but it is not used in the same way. On pages 40–41 of your prescribed text, *Introducing English Language*, Mullany and Stockwell discuss Kachru's 'circles' model, and use a number of acronyms which describe the way English is used in different countries of the world. Read these pages before answering the following questions.

ACTIVITY 1

What do the three circles in Kachru's model refer to?

What do the following acronyms stand for?

ENL

ESL

EFL

ELF

According to Mullany and Stockwell, which of the above acronyms applies most closely to the way English is used in South Africa?

World Englishes

Over time, as already mentioned, different varieties of English have evolved across different regions of the world. National varieties of English such as American, British, Australian, South African and Indian English are recognised as distinct from one another. In the inside front cover of the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary* there is a list of 15 varieties of English worldwide. In the dictionary itself, abbreviations such as 'IndE', 'NAme' or 'SAfrE' are written next to certain words to indicate that the word is Indian, North American or South African in origin or spelling. For this reason, some people believe that we should talk of 'Englishes' rather than 'English'. In your prescribed text, *Introducing Language: A Resource Book for Students*, Mullany and Stockwell use the terms 'monomodel' and 'polymodel' to describe different views on the issue of different English varieties:

A monomodel approach supposes that English is homogenous, a single variety, it is 'English as an international language' A polymodel approach, on the other hand, supposes variability (2010:256).

This is a hotly debated issue. Some scholars uphold the **monomodel** approach, contending that Standard English should be the British-based, educated, native-speaker variety. Non-British varieties of English which include language features that are particular to other parts of the world are considered 'non-standard', and unique linguistic features are regarded as 'deviations' from the norm.

Supporters of the **polymodel** approach, however, argue in favour of the acceptance of second-language varieties of English which include words and grammatical features derived from other contexts and influenced by local languages. Such features are seen in positive terms as signs of enrichment and innovation rather than undesirable 'deviations'.

ACTIVITY 2

American English uses vocabulary and spelling which differ from British English. South Africa follows British spelling and language conventions.

Insert South African equivalents for the following American words and spellings in the spaces provided.

US English	SA English
Vocabulary	
Diaper
Pacifier
Sidewalk
Elevator

Automobile
Gasoline
Icebox
Fries

Spelling

Favorite
Traveler
Theater
Color
Tire
Center
Defense

We are now going to consider another national variety of English.

(Listen to your CD where you can hear a reading of the text that follows.)

ACTIVITY 3

Read the extract below, which comes from the novel *Zoo City*, by Lauren Beukes. Identify the linguistic clues in the passage that indicate in which country this novel is set. Underline or circle them, then write notes in the space below the passage.

I'm telling you straight. Some human scum burned a homeless ou to death on Tuesday. Patrick Serfontein lived under a Troyeville bridge in a cardboard box until he was beaten up and necklaced with a tyre over his head by one or more tsotsis who are still unidentified and walking around free and easy because no one saw anything.

The poor homeless ou's face was so badly burnt up that the cops had to identify him by what they hope is his ID book, which they found among some personal goeters in an old shopping trolley near the body. The SAPS refused to speculate on the motive behind the violent killing. Is this the first sign of another serial killer like Moses Sithole on the loose?

Other uglinesses that happened yesterday: The body of a missing nine-year-old in Ventersdorp has been discovered, drowned in a farm dam. At least his parents can make peace because his body has been found. The number of people who just sommer go missing in this city never to be seen again is just sad, mense.

(*Zoo City*, Lauren Beukes, p. 286)

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Regional Englishes

The previous two activities illustrate how English usage varies according to its national location. But apart from national varieties of English, there are also regional varieties or dialects within a national variety.

What does the term ‘dialect’ mean?

Dialect refers to a particular variety of a language. Its features will be seen in distinctive lexis (vocabulary), syntax (grammar) and phonology (accent and pronunciation).

Not all South Africans speak the same kind of English: there is no single variety called ‘South African English’. If speakers are second (or additional) language speakers of English, their primary language or mother tongue as well as other social and economic factors will influence the way they speak English. In addition to general South African English (SAE), linguists recognise South African Indian English (SAIE), characterised by expressions like ‘I had so much **of** housework’, instead of ‘I had so much housework’; and ‘we went and visited the family **an’ all**’. There is also the dialect spoken by the Cape Coloured community which comprises a mixture of English and Afrikaans. Black South African English (BSAE) is also seen as a distinct variety of SAE.

It needs to be pointed out that non-standard features of certain varieties may, over time, become accepted as standard usage. Language is in a continual process of change, and what is unacceptable usage today may become acceptable tomorrow. In South Africa, Black South African English is now widely used in government and other public domains, so some of its features may eventually come to be regarded as standard. This demonstrates how issues of power may affect the status of a language.

ACTIVITY 4

The following are examples of Black South African English (BSAE). Identify the non-standard features and rewrite each sentence in standard English below each example.

(Listen to your CD where you can hear a reading of the sentences that follow.)

Drugs they are dangerous.

.....

The teacher gives too much homeworks.

.....

Now that I have saved up enough money, I can be able to buy the car.

.....

My mother is having a bad temper.

.....

My father he works very hard.

.....

He swear that he will pay the money back.

.....

The wife told his husband to get out of the house.

.....

She did not give him chance to explain.

.....

She was very much suspicious.

.....

This made him to become angry.

.....

This misfortunes made them to divorce.

.....

He no longer has a peace of mind.

.....

ACTIVITY 5

The following poem, which comprises an account of a murder, is written in the coloured dialect and has a number of non-standard linguistic features.

(Listen to your CD where you can hear a reading of the text.)

Read it, and underline or circle the non-standard features; lexis (vocabulary), spelling, and grammar (syntax). Then rewrite the poem in Standard English, cutting out the repetition in the original.

Hotknife

by Sydney Clouts

Innie pondok he wait for me
he say you know wy
he say you know wy, Hotknife

He say
you know wy, hotknife
you know wy, you Skollie baasted

So enry, maaster.
No one say dat to me.
Ony my fa'rer say dat to me.

Nellie newwe
tol' me she was married sir
she newwe tol' me she was married sir.

It was luck
but it was bad luck, maaster.

I am Hotknife
of Capricorn
an she was in the Crab sir. It was tickets.

She newwe tol' me she was married sir.
She was hot for me, hot.
I'm sorrie sir: are you married, maaster?

I'm a man sir
ennytime, bu' dis was ekstra special condieshns.

She say Hotknife, swietaat, you a fat man.
Sa! Ten years for luff sir.

I'll newwe kiela man again
no, not till I die, maaster
not for a woman, maaster.
She can be so hot for me and I'll not kiela man sir

(The lava of this land p. 11)

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Why do you think the poet chose to use this dialect when writing this poem? Would the poem have the same impact if it was written in Standard English?

Sydney Clouts chooses to use this dialect for the authentic quality it lends the poem. Had it been written in Standard English, it would not have conveyed the unique character of the speaker, or the distinctive socio-cultural environment he inhabits.

However, if this variety of English were used in a formal context (such as a court of law), the speaker would probably be **stigmatised** (refer to Mullany and Stockwell, p. 92–3), and this could count against him in the verdict. Unjust as it seems, this serves to highlight the fact that the standard variety carries status and is generally seen as the mark of the educated person. It is associated with respectability. Such impressions are based on prejudice rather than fact, but they reflect the reality that language is perceived as a marker of social status and character.

Implicit in this poem are unequal power relations: the speaker refers to the addressee as ‘sir’ and ‘maaster’, indicating that he positions himself as subordinate. His use of language, a non-standard variety, supports his inferior position and reinforces the unequal power relations in the text. You could say that the way he speaks traps him in a lower social class.

(Some of you may be familiar with the story of the film ‘My Fair Lady’, where Eliza Doolittle has to be taught to speak a different variety of English in order to move in

a higher social circle. This story has a British context but the principle it illustrates is valid for other countries as well.)

Language use and social context

Do you always use the same kind of English wherever you are, and no matter whom you are with? Or does your English usage differ according to the situation you are in? Think about this before you go on reading.

Languages contain varying styles and levels of formality according to the situation and purpose of the speaker or writer. Most of us use different styles of language depending on the situation we are in, and our audience. Whether we are speaking or writing will also have an influence on the kind of English we use.

Consider the following communication from a student to a lecturer. Would you regard the language use as appropriate for the context, audience and purpose?

Hey Doc, I'm still waiting 4 my books for this course. I haven't got the bucks to buy them right now. I'm like how can I be able to do my assignments if I haven't got the books? I'm stressing big time. It'd really be cool if you could give me more time. Pleez!

thanx

Thandi

It is very obvious that the tone and actual language usage is inappropriate for the audience and purpose of this text. While this kind of language would be perfectly acceptable if the recipient was a friend, the tone is too familiar (friendly and casual) for a student/lecturer relationship. The language is also far too informal and colloquial. SMS language ('4' instead of 'for') and slang ('bucks', 'cool') replace Standard English vocabulary, and irregular spellings ('Pleez' and 'thanx') are used instead of 'please' and 'thanks'. Although this is a written text (sent as an e-mail), the language has many features of spoken English (discussed below).

If we were to rewrite it in appropriate English, it would look something like this:

Dear Dr. Horne

I am still waiting for my prescribed texts for the module ENG1502. I cannot afford to buy them at the moment. Without these texts I cannot complete my assignments and this is causing me great anxiety. I would be very grateful if you could grant me an extension of two weeks.

Thank you and kind regards

Ms T. Mazibuko (St. No. 3276690)

Notice that this version has a suitably formal, courteous tone, uses correct sentence structure, vocabulary and spelling, and is clear and accurate.

The difference between spoken and written English

Spoken English, except in the case of formal speeches which are pre-written and then read, usually differs in several respects from written English. Chats between friends will most likely contain colloquialisms; contractions ('don't'; 'isn't'); incomplete

sentences; ‘tag questions’ (such as ‘have you’ in remarks like, ‘you haven’t told him, have you?’); borrowings from other languages, such as Afrikaans or isiZulu, while speaking English (‘this apple is *vrot* inside’; ‘the issue caused a whole *indaba*’) and various other markers of informal speech. Non-fluency features, like the **fillers** ‘er’ and ‘umm’ will occur, as speakers hesitate or struggle to find the right word. We also make use of expressions like ‘as I said’, or ‘you know’, as well as repetition to fill gaps in the flow of speech. These are all perfectly acceptable qualities of spoken language, which is, by its very nature, unplanned and spontaneous (refer to your prescribed text: Carter et al., pages 253–5).

Formal speeches, news reports and academic writing, on the other hand, are characterised by full sentences, absence of slang, and Standard English vocabulary. Generally, written English contains more words that are long and polysyllabic than spoken English which makes greater use of shorter, more common words. Written texts tend to use longer sentences and more complex clauses.

ACTIVITY 6

Consider the two texts which follow. Both of them deal with the same topic: power cuts, or what South Africans call ‘load shedding’.

(Listen to your CD where you can hear a reading of the texts that follow.)

Which text was written and which was spoken? Find examples and make notes on the linguistic features that enabled you to answer this question. Consider vocabulary (colloquial vs. formal; short vs. polysyllabic words), length and construction of sentences and any other features you found significant.

TEXT 1

I’m sick and tired of the blackouts we keep having. This morning I couldn’t even make a cup of tea before going to work, never mind put on the washing machine. And you know there’s no warning. The lights go off and we don’t know for how long. It’s about time the municipality jacked up its services. This is not good enough. I’m fed up.

TEXT 2

As a ratepayer who regularly pays my bills, I wish to lodge a complaint about the frequent power cuts we are experiencing. This causes serious inconvenience and interferes with normal daily routines. We are not warned in advance that the power will be interrupted for indefinite periods, so are unable to prepare ourselves. The service you provide is entirely unsatisfactory in this regard and I would like the assurance that you are investigating the problems and devising ways of solving them. The present situation is most annoying and completely unacceptable.

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Note that the same person produced both texts in the above activity. As individuals, we are capable of using more than one variety of a language because we adapt our usage according to the situation and whom we are speaking to, or writing for. This is known as **diglossia** or **bidialectism**, which means proficiency in (or the use of) two dialects or varieties of the same language.

Eusebius McKaiser, an announcer on Radio 702, recounts an incident from his youth which illustrates diglossia perfectly. He is coloured, and grew up in a coloured township in Grahamstown. His home language was ‘coloured’ English. However, he attended a predominantly white school where he acquired proficiency in a different variety of English. Read his experience.

I remember my embarrassment once when a friend called me while I was at home and I spoke to him in English. My little cousin could not stop giggling while listening to me ‘being white’ on the phone! I simply had to grin and bear it. But I didn’t give my number out to any other white friends after that. The embarrassment was something of a double whammy: a cousin laughing at me speaking English but, also, the phone being answered by someone in my family responding in incorrect English to my white friend at the other end!

Such is the personal struggle of coconut* teenagers: a private reality filled with complexities that you keep to yourself and hope to carefully manage like a good piece of choreography.

Andrew, my first white friend, one of my best friends at school, had never visited my grandparents’ home, never visited my mother’s house. He never asked. And I never invited him. Of course I could have invited him home. But I didn’t. I was ashamed of my poor neighbourhood. Language, class and race divisions all combined to make me skilled at wearing different hats, negotiating different worlds rather than integrating them.

(Eusebius McKaiser: *A Bantu in my Bathroom*, pp. 195–8.)

What is noteworthy about this anecdote is the fact that Eusebius McKaiser was speaking English in both situations, home and school. However, they were different varieties of English. It was appropriate for him to speak one variety of English at home and a different variety at school. One variety was not ‘better’ than the other

* ‘Coconut’ is a critical term which refers to individuals who, like coconuts, are dark outside but white inside; in other words, they appear to be black, but they speak and behave like white people.

in linguistic terms: each served its communicative purpose and was the ‘best’ for the particular social context. He had learned to adapt his language usage according to the different ‘worlds’ he belonged to.

Academic English is a particular variety of English which you are required to use in your tertiary studies. This variety is discussed in the next, final, unit.

ACTIVITY 7

Glossary

Fill in the definitions of the following terms, used in the course of this unit.

Standard English

ENL

ESL

EFL

ELF

monomodel

polymodel

dialect

SAE

SAIE

BSAE

fillers

diglossia

bidialectism

Summary of this unit

In this unit we have discussed variations in English usage as a result of where and why it occurs. Whether the variety used is appropriate for the audience and purpose is context-dependent. Non-standard varieties are perfectly acceptable in informal situations. However, there are definite social and educational advantages of gaining proficiency in the standard variety of English, which certain situations call for. We hope this unit has helped you to understand and develop your awareness of variation in English, and sensitivity to which variety of English is appropriate to which contexts.

FEEDBACK TO ACTIVITIES

Activity 1

ENL – English as a Native Language. In the UK, Canada, Australia and New Zealand (the ‘Inner circle’ countries), English is spoken mostly as a first language.

ESL – English as a Second Language. In countries like Nigeria, Singapore, India and Malaysia (the ‘Outer circle’), English is an official language but is spoken mainly as a second language.

EFL – English as a Foreign Language. In countries like China and Japan (the ‘Expanding circle’), English is used as a foreign language.

ELF – English as a Lingua Franca. English is used as common language by people with different first languages.

According to Mullany and Stockwell, **ELF** applies most closely to the way English is used in South Africa. It is only one of eleven official languages, but it is the one used in government, in social situations between people with different mother tongues, and in the media.

Activity 2

US English

SA English

Vocabulary

Diaper	napkin/nappy
Pacifier	dummy
Sidewalk	pavement
Elevator	lift
Automobile	car
Gasoline	petrol
Icebox	refrigerator/fridge
fries	chips

Spelling

Favorite	favourite
Traveler	traveller
Theate	theatre
Color	colour
Tire	tyre
Center	centre
Defense	defence

Activity 3: Zoo city text

You probably found it easy to recognise that this is a South African text. Proper names such as ‘Patrick Serfontein’, ‘Troyeville’, ‘Moses Sithole’ and ‘Ventersdorp’ are unmistakably South African. Other common nouns such as *ou* (man), *goeters* (things) and *mense* (people), are uniquely South African, having been borrowed from Afrikaans, while *tsotsi* (thug) comes from isiZulu. The word ‘necklaced’, used here as a verb rather than its more usual function as a noun, refers to a particularly cruel practice of placing a burning tyre round a person’s neck in order to kill him or her and originated during

the South African anti-apartheid struggle. People from overseas countries may not understand what the term ‘necklacing’ entails.

Activity 4: Black South African English

Drugs they are dangerous. (unnecessary use of pronoun ‘they’.)

The teacher gives too much homeworks. (‘homework’ cannot be used as a plural noun in standard English.)

Now that I have saved up enough money, I can be able to buy the car. (‘can be able’ is a non-standard construction; standard usage would be ‘I can buy the car’ or ‘I am able to buy the car’) (This particular example of BSAE is now so commonly used it could soon become standard usage.)

My mother is having a bad temper. (incorrect use of present continuous tense: ‘my mother has a bad temper’)

My father he works very hard. (unnecessary use of pronoun ‘he’)

He swear that he will pay the money back. (concord error: singular subject ‘he’ must take the singular verb ‘swears’)

The wife told his husband to get out of the house. (confusion of masculine/feminine pronoun: the pronoun co-reference for ‘wife’ is ‘her’)

She did not give him chance to explain. (missing article/determiner: ‘a chance’).

She was very much suspicious. (unnecessary adverb ‘much’)

This made him to become angry. (unnecessary infinitive)

This misfortunes made them to divorce. (confusion of singular pronoun ‘this’ with plural noun ‘misfortunes’: should be ‘These misfortunes’. ‘to divorce’; unnecessary infinitive)

He no longer has a peace of mind. (insertion of unnecessary article/determiner)

Activity 5: Poem ‘Hotknife’

Vocabulary

pondok; this South African colloquialism refers to a shack; a small, badly-built dwelling.

skollie; this is roughly equivalent in meaning to *tsotsi*; it refers to an unemployed person who indulges in criminal activities.

hot in ‘she was hot for me’; this slang usage of ‘hot’ means ‘she desired me sexually’.

Spelling

The wrongly spelt words in the poem are based on the phonology of the Coloured dialect: words are spelt the way they are pronounced, and the pronunciation is strongly influenced by Afrikaans.

baasted; *maaster*; *swietaat*; these spellings indicate the prolonged vowel sound of the ‘a’.

engry and *ennytime*; these spellings reflect the South African tendency to pronounce ‘a’ as an ‘e’.

innie; is a contraction of the Afrikaans *in die* (‘in the’).

newwe; This spelling of ‘never’ is derived from Afrikaans phonology which spells ‘v’ as ‘w’.

ekstra; this is the Afrikaans spelling of ‘extra’.

luff; the ‘v’ sound in ‘love’ is unvoiced and pronounced as an ‘f’.

tiekets; *condieshms*; *swietaat*; *kiela*; all these words indicate the sharp pronunciation of the ‘i’ vowel sound in the Coloured dialect.

wy; this spelling is not phonologically very different from ‘why’; the poet probably uses this spelling to indicate the speaker’s lack of education. This is how he would spell the word.

Grammar

He wait; *he say*; the verb form in these constructions is ungrammatical. If in the past tense, the statements should read: ‘he waited’, ‘he said’. If the speaker is using the historic present (past events told in the present tense), he is making an error of concord: he should have said ‘he waits’, ‘he says’ (singular, to agree with the singular subject).

Some words are run together; ‘in die’ becomes one word; *innie*. *Kiela* represents the two words ‘kill a’.

Activity 6: Written and spoken English

You probably had no difficulty in working out that the first text is spoken while the second one is written – most likely as part of a formal letter of complaint to the municipality. Some examples of the contrasting linguistic features are shown in the table below.

TEXT 1: Spoken text	TEXT 2: Written text
<p>Vocabulary</p> <p>Informal usage: ‘sick and tired’; ‘you know’; ‘about time’; ‘jacked up’; ‘fed up’</p> <p>Short simple words: ‘how long’; ‘blackouts we keep having’</p> <p>Contractions: I’m; couldn’t; there’s; don’t; it’s</p> <p>Syntax:</p> <p>Short sentences: ‘The lights go off and we don’t know for how long.’</p> <p>‘It’s about time the municipality jacked up its services.’</p> <p>‘I’m fed up.’</p>	<p>Formal usage: ‘lodge a complaint’; ‘entirely unsatisfactory’; ‘unacceptable’</p> <p>Polysyllabic words: ‘indefinite periods’; ‘frequent power cuts we are experiencing’</p> <p>No contractions</p> <p>Longer, more complex sentences: ‘We are not warned in advance that the power will be interrupted for indefinite periods, so are unable to prepare ourselves.’</p> <p>‘The service you provide is entirely unsatisfactory in this regard and I would like the assurance that you are investigating the problems and devising ways of solving them.’</p> <p>‘The present situation is most annoying and completely unacceptable.’</p>

Activity 7: Glossary

All the definitions of these acronyms and terms can be found in the text of this unit.

while others define it as a process of thinking that uses written language (Thaiss and Zawacki 2006; Henning, Gravett and van Rensberg (2002)). From these authors we can deduce that proficiency in academic writing is not an overnight event but a process. You cannot write an assignment today and submit it immediately. Unfortunately, most undergraduate students do this. They wait until the last minute to submit written assignments and it is no wonder they do not get good marks.

ACTIVITY 1

The following verbs are often used in academic writing. Check for the meaning of their words in the dictionary and start using them gradually in your academic essays:

- Argue:
 - Assert:
 - Contend:
 - Maintain:
 - Juxtapose:
 - Affirm:
 - Confirm:
 - Posit:
 - Postulate:
 - Suggest:
 - Concur:
 - Declare:
 - Report:
 - Discuss:
 - Aver:
-

The writing process

The process of writing should begin with **thinking** which subsequently leads to planning, drafting, revising, editing, proofreading and writing the final version. The student should think, brainstorm and do free writing. Brainstorming is the process of generating ideas. Every student should start any writing project by engaging in the process of brainstorming on a specific topic given as an assignment. Most writing tasks at undergraduate level require students to research. By research we mean you will need to visit the library to look for sources of information like books, articles, electronic reserves and the Internet. Your ideas need to be supported by the body of knowledge or existing literature on the topic you are writing on. You do not just write your own ideas and make claims that are not corroborated by research. However, that does not mean that your writing should be dominated by what other authors are saying. Rather, you should be able to say 'so-and-so says this on the topic but this is my view'. Your

voice should be audible on the subject you are writing about. Most students will just accept what is written in a book at face value without any critique at all. They treat written and published work as the gospel and simply think because this is a book or a published article, then it is the absolute truth. At university we want to develop students who are independent critical thinkers who are able to challenge popular ideas through reasoning.

The second process of writing is **planning**. Planning involves gathering of information and working out how that information will be presented. Most lecturers will give instructions regarding any writing task in terms of the length and how the answer should be structured.

The third process is **drafting**. As indicated earlier, students are prone to submitting the first written draft as a final draft which they submit for evaluation. Your writing should be organised in a way that you have several drafts before you even think of submitting the work for evaluation. We suggest two drafts which you need to give to a critical reader who will give comments.

ACTIVITY 2

We want you to reflect on your writing habits in the past. What did you do before submitting your written work for evaluation? Please be honest with yourself.

The fourth process involves **editing and proofreading**. This is the most important process before you submit your written assignment. Students need to spend a lot of time preparing and checking written tasks. Any writing that is full of grammar errors, poor sentence construction and lack of coherence just demonstrates that the work has not been edited and proofread. In English courses, these kinds of mistakes will be penalised accordingly. We advise you not to lose marks unnecessarily on language matters such as these.

The last part of the process is the **writing of the final version**. After following all the processes above, your written work is now ready for submission. You need to ensure that your work is clean and all grammar mistakes have been corrected. Your final version should be work you are proud of. Students who attempt to follow these steps in their writing are likely to perform well in their written assignments.

How to structure your essay writing

Essays are mostly used as a way of assessing students at university. They should be well structured and also flow coherently. Your essay needs to have an introduction, body and conclusion.

Writing an Introduction

An introduction is the first paragraph of your essay. It aims to introduce readers to the topic as well as highlight points/issues that will be discussed in the rest of the essay. It needs to be like a road map that prepares the reader before undertaking the reading journey. As first impressions last, it is important for the introduction to be presented in a way that makes the reader keep reading. Normally, an introduction should give a background on the topic concerned, explain or define the topic to the reader, should have a thesis statement which tells us the writer's standpoint on the topic concerned and also highlight the scope or the issues to be discussed. From reading your introduction, your reader should have an overview of what your essay will be all about. Failure to capture the attention of your reader from the beginning is evidence that your introduction needs to be reworked and revised.

ACTIVITY 3

Write an introduction on the following topic:

The use of excessive force by the police should be discouraged. Agree or disagree with this topic.

After the introduction, the body of the essay comes in the form of paragraphs. We always advise our students not to take their reader by surprise. In other words, they are not going to discuss a point they did not mention in the introduction.

Writing paragraphs

What is a paragraph?

A paragraph is a group of sentences or a single sentence that form a unit (Lunsford & Connors 1990:116)

There is unity and coherence of ideas among the sentences.

It should have one central idea.

Its ending should guide the reader to understand what has already been read.

Wrong assumptions about paragraphs

- A paragraph is just a collection of sentences.
- A paragraph is at least 5 sentences.
- A paragraph is half a page.
- You can put in as many ideas as you wish in a paragraph.
- A paragraph should have long sentences.
- A paragraph is used to segment a page so that the layout looks good.

What to put in a paragraph

- A controlling idea in your specific piece of writing.
- Information that will help support the idea.

What every paragraph should do

It should

- be unified;
- well-developed;
- have **one** main idea;
- communicate;
- be coherent – flow together as a unit.

An example of a paragraph

Learning how to submit assignments on time is one of the invaluable skills that students can take with them to the working world. Though the work force may not give a writing assignment in the traditional sense, many of the objectives and jobs that need to be completed require that employees work with deadlines. The deadlines that students encounter in the classroom may be different in content when compared to the deadlines of the work force, but the importance of meeting those deadlines is the same. Both environments necessitate the signing of a contract. Therefore, developing good habits in submitting assignments now as current students, will aid your performance and position as future participants in the working world.

ACTIVITY 4

Based on the above guidelines on paragraphs, write a paragraph of your own on the topic of police brutality you introduced earlier.

Writing a conclusion

A conclusion summarises points covered through the body of the essay.

A conclusion should

- stress the importance of the thesis statement
- give the essay a sense of completeness
- leave a final impression on the reader
- summarise all the main points.

How **not** to conclude:

- Well that's it.
- This is all I can say.
- I think I can stop here.
- Bring in a new idea.

ACTIVITY 5

Using the topic of police brutality, write a conclusion to your argument.

Paraphrasing and plagiarism

It is very important to cite your sources when you have used ideas other than your own in a text. This may lead you to commit an offence known as plagiarism. Plagiarism is when you are using someone's ideas without acknowledgement. It is also known as academic theft and you may be suspended from your studies for up to a period of 5 years. You may also fail the course as a result of plagiarism.

To avoid plagiarism, you should insert quotations as well as the name of the source, date and page number. This is what we call in-text referencing. Look at the following example:

Othello predicates his success in love on his success as a soldier, wooing Desdemona with tales of his military travels and battles. No longer having a means of proving his manhood or honor in a public setting such as the court or battlefield, Othello begins to feel uneasy with his footing in a private setting, the bedroom (<http://sparknotes.com>)

Adapted from Shober (2010:116)

Another way of avoiding plagiarism is by paraphrasing. Paraphrasing involves writing an extended version of the original thought using your own words. But that does not mean that one should not acknowledge the source. You still need to give merit to the source of the information. Paraphrasing is one of the most important skills that university students should acquire.

Referencing styles

It is also important as a student to be acquainted with referencing styles preferred by your disciplines. There are a number of referencing styles, namely: Harvard referencing style, American Psychological Association (APA), Modern Languages Association (MLA).

Harvard referencing style

This style is commonly used by some institutions, departments, publishers or government offices.

Single author

The Harvard referencing system follows this format: surname, initials, year, book title, City of Publication, Publisher. For example, Shobe, D. (2008). *Writing English with style*. Pretoria, van Schaik Publishers.

Multiple authors

Ronald Carter et al. (2008). *Working with Texts: A core introduction to language analysis*. New York, Routledge.

Edited books

Beard, A. ed. (2011). *Introduction to English Studies*. Cape Town, Cambridge University Press.

Article in a journal

Laura Czerniewicz and Cheryl Brown. (2005) Access to ICT for teaching and learning: From single artefact to inter-related resources. *International Journal of Education and Development using Information and Communication Technology (IJEDICT)*, Vol. 1 Issue 2, pp. 42–56.

Article in a newspaper

Molefi, M. (2013) “Mediocrity in South African soccer.” *Sowetan*. 20 March, p. 10.

Dissertation

Chokwe, J. (2011). Academic Writing in English Second Language contexts: Perceptions and experiences of first year university students. Unpublished Masters Dissertation, University of South Africa. Pretoria.

Government Publications

South Africa. Department of Arts, Culture, Science and Technology (1999). *White Paper on Arts, Culture and Heritage*. Pretoria: Government Printers.

Summary

This chapter introduced you to academic writing which is a genre or variety used to write academic texts in higher education. You have been shown how to structure your essay writing in terms of introduction, body and conclusion. The writing process and referencing styles were also discussed. It is crucial for you to start using this style of writing as it is expected from you at university level. It is important to also check with your specific department about their preferred referencing style. We hope the outcomes of this unit will also be a valuable learning experience and what you have learned will be useful for those of you who would like to pursue postgraduate studies.

Feedback to Activities

Activity 1

You should have found answers by checking for the meaning of the words in this unit and in the dictionary.

Activity 2

This was a reflection activity and could have elicited different responses based on an individual's background.

Activity 3

A possible answer to this activity could be:

Recently, the media have reported on a number of incidents of police brutality where the police were involved in killing members of the public. It seems that there is a lack of skills by the members of South African Police Services (SAPS) to handle riots, public violence and individual crime suspects. This has now reached unacceptable levels in South Africa where the police who are entrusted with the duty of protecting the public are now a danger to the public. This essay argues in support of the statement that police brutality should be discouraged and be rejected with the contempt it deserves. The following points will be discussed: ongoing in-service training of police is required; irresponsible policing should be punished; exemplary leadership is required; the police need to change their attitudes to properly enforce the law.

Activity 4

A possible answer to this activity could be:

Most of the incidents of police brutality can be attributed to the police's lack of proper on-going training. They also have a superficial interpretation of the law as they should be able to handle a suspect who wants to evade arrest. The other reason could be lack of expertise to control large crowds of protesters. For instance, live ammunition is not allowed to be used when dealing with crowds; instead other means can be used such as tear gas, rubber bullets, water tankers which can be used to disperse crowds in riots without necessarily causing any harm to the crowd. Therefore, on-going training may be a possible effective remedy to this problem.

Activity 5

A possible answer to this activity could be:

This essay has dealt with a sensitive issue of police brutality which is a great threat to effective policing. Insufficient on-going training of police officials was seen as one of the major causes of this scourge where people die unnecessary deaths by people they should be getting protection from. Tougher punishment for these kind of acts could be a deterrent to this barbaric behaviour displayed by the men in blue. More needs to be done to curb this problem so that the police efforts will be directed towards crime prevention instead of becoming perpetrators of crime themselves.

Conclusion to this Module: ENG2601

We hope that this module has increased your understanding of how the English language works and how historical period, geographical location, social situation and purpose affect the kind of language used. We hope that it has taught you to read more closely and become more sensitive to the nuances of usage. Most importantly, we hope that it has helped you to be discerning in your own use of English, particularly the academic variety you need to use for your studies.

