

**MSC COMMON ROOM CASUAL CONVERSATIONS:  
A LEXICO-GRAMMATICAL LONGITUDINAL STUDY OF A  
DISCOURSE COMMUNITY IN FORMATION**

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# CONTENTS

Abstract	ix
Acknowledgements	x
Statement Of Authenticity	x
<b>1 INTRODUCTION</b>	<b>1</b>
<b>1.1 General Aim</b>	<b>1</b>
<b>1.2 Specific Hypotheses</b>	<b>4</b>
1.2.1 Knowledge	4
1.2.2 Language	5
1.2.2.1 In-group code	5
1.2.2.2 Other implicit features	6
1.2.3 Function	7
1.2.4 Impenetrability	9
<b>1.3 Map Of The Thesis</b>	<b>9</b>
<b>1.4 Conclusion</b>	<b>12</b>
<b>2 THEORETICAL ORIENTATION</b>	<b>13</b>
<b>2.1 Introduction</b>	<b>13</b>
<b>2.2 General Approach To Discourse</b>	<b>13</b>
2.2.1 Source Of Data	13
2.2.2 Context	14
2.2.3 Linguistic Analysis	15
2.2.4 Functional Analysis	17
2.2.5 Conversational Structure Analysis	18
<b>2.3 Study Of Social Groups And Language Change</b>	<b>19</b>
2.3.1 Social Groups And Relationships	19
2.3.2 Language Change And Markers Of Intimacy	21
2.3.2.1 Lexico-grammatical markers	22
2.3.2.2 Prosodic and structural markers	24
<b>2.4 Conclusion</b>	<b>25</b>
<b>3 METHOD</b>	<b>26</b>
<b>3.1 Introduction</b>	<b>26</b>

<b>3.2</b>	<b>Background To Data</b>	<b>26</b>
<b>3.3</b>	<b>Method Of Data Collection</b>	<b>29</b>
3.3.1	System Of Recording	29
3.3.2	Selection Of Recordings	30
<b>3.4</b>	<b>Method Of Data Analysis</b>	<b>32</b>
3.4.1	System Of Transcribing	32
3.4.2	System Of Coding	35
3.4.3	Calculations	36
<b>3.5</b>	<b>Tests</b>	<b>38</b>
3.5.1	Intercoder Reliability Tests	38
3.5.2	Triangulation	39
3.5.3	Impenetrability Test	42
<b>3.6</b>	<b>Methodological Considerations</b>	<b>42</b>
3.6.1	Problems Of Recording	42
3.6.2	Effect Of The Cassette-Recorder	44
3.6.3	Exclusion Of Non-Native Speakers Of English	48
<b>3.7</b>	<b>Conclusion</b>	<b>51</b>
<b>4</b>	<b>KNOWLEDGE AREAS</b>	<b>53</b>
<b>4.1</b>	<b>Introduction</b>	<b>53</b>
4.1.1	Review Of The Literature	53
4.1.2	Hypotheses	56
<b>4.2</b>	<b>Method</b>	<b>57</b>
4.2.1	Categories	57
	4.2.1.1 Knowledge areas	57
	4.2.1.2 Shared interpersonal knowledge	65
4.2.2	Analysis	67
<b>4.3</b>	<b>Results And Discussion</b>	<b>68</b>
4.3.1	The Knowledge Areas	68
4.3.2	Shared Interpersonal Knowledge	70
<b>4.4</b>	<b>Conclusion</b>	<b>74</b>
<b>5</b>	<b>GRAMMAR IN REFERENCE</b>	<b>76</b>
<b>5.1</b>	<b>Introduction</b>	<b>76</b>
5.1.1	Overview	76
5.1.2	Review Of The Literature And Definitions	77
	5.1.2.1 Anaphoric And Non-Anaphoric Reference	78

5.1.2.2	Definite And Indefinite Reference	82
5.1.2.3	Degrees Of Explicitness In Reference	83
5.1.2.4	Verbs	90
5.1.3	Hypotheses	90
<b>5.2</b>	<b>Method</b>	<b>92</b>
5.2.1	The Categories	92
5.2.1.1	Types Of Reference And Ellipsis	93
5.2.1.3	Spoken Data Considerations	95
5.2.2	The Analysis	97
<b>5.3</b>	<b>Results And Discussion</b>	<b>97</b>
5.3.1	General Observation	97
5.3.2	Non-Anaphoric Definite Reference	98
5.3.3	Degrees Of Explicitness	100
5.3.3.1	All Degrees Of Explicitness	101
5.3.3.2	Super-Explicit Reference	105
5.3.3.3	Explicit Reference	107
5.3.3.4	Implicit Reference	108
5.3.4	Referents	112
5.3.4.1	Context	113
5.3.4.2	Specificity	117
5.3.5	Shared Interpersonal Knowledge	123
5.3.5.1	Super-Explicit And Explicit Reference	123
5.3.5.2	Implicit Reference	124
<b>5.4</b>	<b>Conclusion</b>	<b>125</b>
<b>6</b>	<b>LEXIS IN REFERENCE</b>	<b>127</b>
<b>6.1</b>	<b>Introduction</b>	<b>127</b>
6.1.1	Overview	127
6.1.2	Review Of The Literature	129
6.1.3	Hypotheses	131
<b>6.2</b>	<b>Method</b>	<b>132</b>
6.2.1	The Categories	132
6.2.1.1	Nouns	132
6.2.1.2	Verbs	136
6.2.2	The Analysis	138
<b>6.3</b>	<b>Results And Discussion</b>	<b>139</b>
6.3.1	Nouns	139

6.3.1.1	General Observation	139
6.3.1.2	Intertextually Repeated Nouns	140
6.3.1.3	Noun Categories	141
6.3.2	Verbs	150
6.3.2.1	General Observation	150
6.3.2.2	Verb Categories	150
6.3.3	General "Do" Verb With Other Implicit Cues	152
6.3.4	Shared Interpersonal Knowledge	155
<b>6.4</b>	<b>Conclusion</b>	<b>156</b>
<b>7</b>	<b>REFERENCE OVER UTTERANCES</b>	<b>158</b>
<b>7.1</b>	<b>Introduction</b>	<b>158</b>
<b>7.2</b>	<b>Clausal Ellipsis And Vagueness</b>	<b>159</b>
7.2.1	Definitions And Hypotheses	159
7.2.2	Method	161
7.2.2.1	Categories	161
7.2.2.2	Analysis	162
7.2.3	Results And Discussion	163
7.2.3.1	General Observations	163
7.2.3.2	Combination With Implicit Contextualisation Cues	166
<b>7.3</b>	<b>Conversational Implicature</b>	<b>167</b>
7.3.1	Definitions And Hypotheses	168
7.3.2	Method	170
7.3.2.1	Categories	170
7.3.2.2	Analysis	171
7.3.3	Results And Discussion	171
7.3.3.1	General Observations	171
7.3.3.2	Combination With Implicit Contextualisation Cues	177
<b>7.4</b>	<b>Topic Shifts And Hitches</b>	<b>179</b>
7.4.1	Definitions And Hypotheses	179
7.4.1.1	Topic Shifts	179
7.4.1.2	Hitches	185
7.4.2	Method	187
7.4.3	Results And Discussion	188
7.4.3.1	General Observations	188
7.4.3.2	Combination With Implicit Contextualisation Cues	192
<b>7.5</b>	<b>Influence Of Personality</b>	<b>198</b>

<b>7.6</b>	<b>Conclusion</b>	<b>199</b>
<b>8</b>	<b>FUNCTION</b>	<b>202</b>
<b>8.1</b>	<b>Introduction</b>	<b>202</b>
<b>8.2</b>	<b>In-Group Markers</b>	<b>202</b>
8.2.1	Review Of The Literature	203
8.2.2	Informality	206
8.2.3	Humour	210
8.2.4	Topic Shifts	214
8.2.5	Summary	215
<b>8.3</b>	<b>Macro-Functions</b>	<b>215</b>
8.3.1	Review Of The Literature And Definitions	216
8.3.2	Hypothesis And Method	218
8.3.3	Results And Discussion	219
<b>8.4</b>	<b>Speech Acts</b>	<b>221</b>
8.4.1	Review Of The Literature And Definitions	221
8.4.2	Hypotheses And Method	225
8.4.3	Results And Discussion	225
	8.4.3.1 Intercoder Reliability Tests	225
	8.4.3.2 General Attitude And Person Dimensions	227
	8.4.3.3 Positive To Interlocutor / Negative To Situation And Self	229
8.4.4	Summary	235
<b>8.5</b>	<b>Function Of Implicit Language</b>	<b>235</b>
8.5.1	Macro-Function	236
8.5.2	Speech Acts	236
8.5.3	In-Group Marker	239
<b>8.6</b>	<b>Influence Of Personality</b>	<b>240</b>
<b>8.7</b>	<b>Conclusion</b>	<b>240</b>
<b>9</b>	<b>TESTS</b>	<b>242</b>
<b>9.1</b>	<b>Introduction</b>	<b>242</b>
<b>9.2</b>	<b>Test 1: Form, Function And Group Dynamics</b>	<b>243</b>
9.2.1	Hypotheses And Method	243
9.2.2	Results And Discussion	244
<b>9.3</b>	<b>Test 2: Impenetrability</b>	<b>247</b>
9.3.1	Hypotheses And Method	248
9.3.2	Results And Discussion	252

9.3.2.1	Quantitative Analysis	252
9.3.2.2	Qualitative Analysis	258
<b>9.4</b>	<b>Conclusion</b>	<b>261</b>
<b>10</b>	<b>CONCLUSION</b>	<b>263</b>
<b>10.1</b>	<b>Overview</b>	<b>263</b>
<b>10.2</b>	<b>Summary</b>	<b>263</b>
10.2.1	Implicit Language	263
10.2.2	In-Group Members	264
10.2.3	Changes In Form And Function	266
10.2.3.1	Changes In Topics And Language	267
10.2.3.2	Changes In Function And Group Dynamics	271
<b>10.3</b>	<b>Limitations Of The Study</b>	<b>273</b>
10.3.1	Categories	273
10.3.2	Generalisability	273
10.3.3	Impenetrability	274
<b>10.4</b>	<b>Recommendations For Further Research</b>	<b>274</b>
<b>10.5</b>	<b>Applications</b>	<b>275</b>
10.5.1	English Language Teaching	276
10.5.2	Clinical Pragmatics	279
10.5.3	Forensic Linguistics	280
<b>10.6</b>	<b>Conclusion</b>	<b>283</b>
<b>APPENDICES</b>		
I	Plain Transcription Of All Data Used	284
II	Selected Coded Transcription	349
III	Coding System For Knowledge And Function Labels	360
IV	Coding System For Grammatical And Lexical Text Tags	367
V	Questionnaire For The Six Recordees	377
VI	Questionnaire For The Impenetrability Tests	390
VII	Knowledge Areas Table Of Percentages	397
VIII	Extra Knowledge Area Figures	401
IX	Grammar Table of Percentages	402
X	Extra Grammar Figures	406
XI	Lexis Table Of Percentages	407
XII	Extra Lexis Figures	411
XIII	Other Implicit Features Table of Percentages	413

XIV	Function Table Of Percentages	418
XV	Extra Speech Act Figures	422
XVI	Impenetrability Test Scores	423
<b>BIBLIOGRAPHY</b>		<b>425</b>

## ABSTRACT

This thesis provides a developmental description of the language used by an academic discourse community. Casual conversations of six post-graduate students, native speakers of English, were recorded in the Applied Linguistics common room in Edinburgh University throughout the 1991-92 course. The central hypothesis is that as common knowledge of the course and shared interpersonal knowledge increase over time, there is an increase in implicit language (an in-group code and other implicit reference features) heavily dependent on the context for its meaning.

The lexico-grammatical analysis shows that the increase in knowledge over time is associated with an increase in implicit reference, but that topic is also a major influence on the form of reference. The language of course topics is more implicit than that of non-course topics. Course topics have a higher density of non-cohesive non-modified definite referring expressions with specific referents in the assumed background knowledge. Course topics also have more metonymical proper nouns, vague nouns and general words with particular pragmatic meaning. Vague expressions, ellipsis, incomplete sentences, and humorous utterances containing conversational implicature (especially banter and interpersonal irony) are found to contribute to the implicit nature of the language. It is suggested that the in-group code occurring on topic shifts makes the whole exchange implicit, and that reference can occasionally be so ambiguous that even in-group members are unsure of the referent.

Functional analysis shows that the increase in knowledge over time is associated with an increase in language used to express solidarity and test the normality of progress. Expressions showing a positive attitude towards colleagues increase; these may be used to claim in-group membership. It is suggested that the use of the in-group code not only reflects in-group membership but may also be a strategy for claiming in-group membership. Tests show that course topics containing implicit language are impenetrable to outsiders to the Applied Linguistics discourse community of Edinburgh University.

Applications of the findings to the fields of Teaching English as a Foreign Language, clinical pragmatics and forensic linguistics are explored in the concluding section.

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## STATEMENT OF AUTHENTICITY

This thesis has been composed by myself, Ms. Joan Elizabeth Cutting, and the work is my own.

## CHAPTER 1 : INTRODUCTION

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This first chapter outlines the general aim of the thesis and indicates the area of interest. It gives a brief explanation of the specific hypotheses which are tested in the present study. It concludes with a map of the thesis: a brief description of the content of the chapters.

### 1.1 GENERAL AIM

*"A certain group of prisoners got so bored with hearing each others' jokes again and again that they numbered them from one to a hundred and would amuse each other by the way they shouted out the numbers." (Anon).*

This tale illustrates the fact that groups of individuals who have interacted frequently over time develop a pool of common knowledge about the group, its activities and the individuals within the group, and seem to develop an economical way of referring to things, persons, events and situations in their shared environment.

It was an interest in the economical, elliptical nature of the language of individuals who know each other well and form a social group that inspired the present study. The question in the mind of the researcher was: what elements of the language of the casual conversations in social gatherings such as parties and coffee-breaks in student common rooms, etc. contribute to the elliptical, vague nature of the language?

The interest was focused on the language of one particular type of social group: the academic discourse community, defined by Swales (1990) as a group whose members have common goals, intercommunication mechanisms, particular genres and specific lexis. The present study was inspired by the work of Kreckel (1981) who found that the language of students consisted of "a multitude of in-group codes, discipline specific and social group specific ... taking discipline or group-specific knowledge for granted" (1981: 36), and that of Levy (1979) who found that university students talked about their selected course subjects in such a way that even the staff found it difficult to understand.

Most studies reported in the literature of the language of groups and intimates are global and describe the language as a *product* at a given time. Bernstein (1971), however, describing the features of restricted code of social groups, says that they "interact cumulatively and developmentally reinforce each other" (p.43). The main aim of the present study was to discover the changes in language that occur with increasing knowledge over time, and to use a longitudinal analysis to describe the language as a *process*. It was hoped to discover exactly how the language evolves from the time the speakers first meet and becomes the in-group code of the formed academic discourse community.

This thesis constitutes a description of the development of the language of one particular group of students who became members of an academic discourse community. The description is based on a study of the casual conversations (recorded over a period of six months) of six native-speaker of English students who took the 1991-92 MSc course in Applied Linguistics in the Department of Applied Linguistics of the University of Edinburgh. These six subjects are considered to be representative of all the 1991-92 MSc students; they are also members of the academic discourse community of all Applied Linguistics MSc students of the University of Edinburgh.

The Edinburgh University MSc course (a postgraduate Master's level course) in Applied Linguistics is an intense twelve month course, consisting of three terms of lectures from October to May, and independent work on a dissertation in the summer months. Typically, in term one, students follow core courses and prepare short tutorial tasks; in term two, they follow selected option courses, sit a written examination and write three projects; and in term three, they follow option courses, write two more projects, take home a portfolio exam and prepare for their dissertation.

The course attracts about 40 native and non-native speakers of English, with an average age of 30, who are mostly experienced language teachers working abroad. The students are strangers to each other when they arrive, form a close-knit group throughout the year, and then return home at the end of the course, although a few stay on to do a PhD. The pressure of the course allows them little time for socialising together outside the department, apart from an occasional night out. Most social interaction takes place in lunch hours and coffee breaks; most casual conversations occur either in the department common room or in a university cafeteria.

"Conversation", defined as spoken, informal and unplanned discourse (Cook 1989) was chosen for the study, in order to explore to what extent student conversations are indeed informal and unplanned. It was felt that the Applied Linguistics student casual conversations combine the informal style of conversations and the formal register of lectures and tutorials. The study aimed to explore the combination of the informality and vagueness, and the specific academic lexis. Student casual conversations did not appear to fit the criteria for a conversation as defined by Crystal and Davy (1975) who say that it typically has randomness of subject matter; the topic of the course itself seemed to be characteristic of the conversations.

The in-group code of this academic discourse community was explored in order to discover how it could cause conversations to be impenetrable to the outsider. Any conversation can exclude an outsider. Cook (1989) classes talk as conversation when "it is primarily for the participants and not for an outside audience" (p.51). However, some conversations are more private than others and as Kreckel (1981) says, "the more natural and private the speech is, the less accessible semantically" (p.262).

The present study takes an approach to discourse analysis based on pragmatics (Grice 1975; Levinson 1983; Leech 1983) and interactional sociolinguistics (Goffman 1963; Gumperz 1982; Tannen 1989). It is a study of the relationship between context, interaction, and elements of 'implicit language' (or language that is inexplicit), defined as 'in-group code' (at the noun phrase and verb level: implicit reference, explicit non-anaphoric definite reference, special course nouns and general words) and 'other implicit features' (implicitness at the clause, utterance and exchange level). It examines in detail each context-bound lexical and grammatical item involved in the in-group code. These items of the in-group code are referred to as 'implicit contextualisation cues'.

The original aim was to find out how these elements build up and combine over time to form an in-group code, as the common knowledge of the course and shared interpersonal knowledge grows. It was also hoped to discover the relation between common knowledge and the form of reference used to refer to referents in that background knowledge, and to what extent topic influences language. In addition, the social function of the students' conversations was analysed in order to arrive at an explanation of why the in-group code is used and to draw conclusions about group dynamics.

The secondary aim of this longitudinal analysis was to provide a systematic model for describing and predicting the process of language change over time as individuals who start as strangers with common goals, interact together and are united by common in-group knowledge until they form *any* discourse community.

The approach does not take into account conversation structure, phonological features, or the psychological aspects of relationships. There is no analysis of adjacency pairs, turn-taking, overlaps and pauses, etc. because the hypotheses are not related to these factors. The present study contains no analysis of phonological markers, either, because the central focus of the present study is grammatical and lexical reference. Although an exploration of phonological pointers to common knowledge might have been relevant to the examination of context-bound language, a systematic exploration is beyond the scope of the study. Finally, as the next chapter shows, a socio-psychological analysis of changes in the form and depth of relationship between the subjects is not appropriate in the context of the MSc course.

## 1.2 SPECIFIC HYPOTHESES

The following hypotheses were formed about the form and function of the language used by the MSc students of the Department of Applied Linguistics in the University of Edinburgh.

### 1.2.1 Knowledge

The hypotheses with regard to knowledge assumed were that

1. *Over time, topics drawing on knowledge of the MSc course increase*
2. *Over time, sections of conversations assuming shared interpersonal knowledge increase.*

The more time that the students spend together, the more common knowledge of the course and shared interpersonal knowledge of individuals on the course they share. The passing of time and the increase in these types of knowledge are inseparable factors.

The analysis of what knowledge is shared is important to this study as it forms a background to the study of form and function. It contributes to the general picture of the group dynamics. As Tannen says "it is the creation of ... shared meaning -

communication - that makes a collection of individuals into a community, unites individuals in relationships" (1989: 29).

## 1.2.2 Language

The general hypothesis was that the increase in this knowledge with interaction over time causes change in the students' language, not only in terms of what is being talked about but also *how* it is being talked about. The influence of topic, or knowledge area assumed, on language was also examined.

### 1.2.2.1 In-group code

The central assumption was that the more knowledge the students share, the more they can refer to referents elliptically and implicitly and the more they can assume that the specific referent is in the minds of the hearer and does not need naming or explaining. As the in-group forms, reference becomes more vague and context-bound.

Following Gumperz's suggestion that "exclusive interaction with individuals of similar background leads to reliance on unverballed and context-bound presuppositions in communication" (1982: 131), the hypotheses with regard to grammatical reference were that

1. *Over time, the density of vague, implicit reference and ellipsis increases.*
2. *Over time, the density of non-anaphoric definite reference increases.*
3. *Language in dialogues based on course knowledge has more implicit reference and ellipsis and more non-anaphoric definite reference than language in dialogues based on non-course knowledge.*

It was hypothesised that there is an increase in items of non-anaphoric definite and implicit reference (which are called here grammatical implicit contextualisation cues) because this seems to be the main grammatical characteristic of the language of in-groups that previous studies have discovered.

As the in-group forms, and the grammatical reference becomes more implicit and context-dependent, students also tend to use in-group terms of lexical reference (which are called here lexical implicit contextualisation cues), as part of the in-group code. Taking into account Kreckel's (1981) description of the language of university students, the hypotheses with regard to lexical reference were that:

4. *Over time, the density of general nouns and verbs increases.*
5. *Over time, the density of special course terms and course-related proper names increases.*
6. *Language in dialogues based on course knowledge has more general nouns and verbs, and special course terms and course-related proper names than language in dialogues based on non-course knowledge.*

It was hypothesised that there is an increase in technical terms and names related to the course because this should be the effect of studying linguistics and knowing that colleagues have been doing the same. It was felt that general nouns and verbs increase for the same reasons as implicit grammatical reference does: students can assume, once they are well into the course that the referent is in the minds of the hearer and does not need explicit naming or explaining.

### **1.2.2.2 Other implicit features**

Just as it was hypothesised that, as speakers get to know each other and their common knowledge grows, language becomes more implicit and elliptical at the level of the noun phrase and verb level, so it was hypothesised that language is implicit at the utterance level. That is to say, the ellipsis extends to clause and sentence ellipsis, and the vagueness extends to whole expressions. The hypotheses with regard to the language at the utterance level were that:

1. *Over time, initial ellipsis increases*
2. *Over time, unfinished sentences and vague fillers increase*

Conversational implicature, in which the whole meaning of an utterance or exchange is implied and different from the meaning of the actual words used, is one of the strongest forms of implicitness. It can render a whole section of conversation exclusive to an outsider, since the meaning is hidden, especially that which contains implicit reference. It was felt that in-group members sometimes flout the cooperative principles of quality and manner in order to be humorous. The hypotheses were that:

3. *Over time, the frequency of flouting humour increases*
4. *Dialogues based on course knowledge have more flouting humour than those based on non-course knowledge*
5. *Most flouting humour in dialogues based on course knowledge contains implicit contextualisation cues*

The implicitness and ellipsis at the noun phrase and verb level, and the vagueness and incompleteness at the utterance level are not isolated incidents. They cohere with each other and reinforce each other textually; they form a web of implicitness and stretch together over whole sections of exchange. It was hypothesised that implicit contextualisation cues and vague expressions that occur on the very discourse unit that carries the topic shift make the meaning of whole stretches of language implicit, because the referent is not named explicitly when first introduced into conversation:

6. *Over time, main topic shifts have more implicit contextualisation cues*

The possibility was also explored that members of the in-group do not always use the in-group code efficiently, but that they occasionally violate the maxim of quantity and make the referring item so elliptical that they fail to give the hearer enough information to understand the meaning. It was hypothesised that the code can be so implicit that it causes a hitch, or minor interruption in the flow of communication. The hypothesis was that:

7. *Over time, the frequency of hitches containing implicit contextualisation cues increases*

8. *Dialogues based on course knowledge have a greater frequency of hitches than dialogues based on non-course knowledge.*

### 1.2.3 Function

An examination of the other components of the language of intimacy, apart from the ones related to implicitness, was made in order to show that the in-group had formed. A study of expletives and slang was included, taking into account the fact that Joos (1962) finds that "casual style" contains a high proportion of ellipsis and slang, and that Brown and Levinson (1978) list slang as one of the in-group identity markers. The possibility that, on a lexical level, the formed in-group uses informal words such as slang, obscenities and blasphemy was explored:

1. *Over time, expletives and slang increases*

Exchanges containing cooperative principle flouting humour expressed in the in-group code of implicit contextualisation cues were regarded as some of the strongest statements of in-groupness. Topic length was analysed in the study of in-group markers, because Tannen (1984) describes "high involvement style" as one in which new topics are introduced without hesitation and last for a long time. The hypotheses formulated were:

2. *Over time in all knowledge areas the frequency of main topic shifts increases*

3. *Over time in all knowledge areas the frequency of sub-topic shifts decreases*

As far as the macro-functions are concerned, with Goldberg's (1983) claims in mind that "conversational interaction between familiars is ... more often a matter of the reaffirmation of social relationships than the exchange of unknown information" (p.33), the hypothesis was that:

4. *Over time, the density of utterances with a purely transactional function decreases*

In-group membership is needed during the course for testing the normality of the students' progress and attitudes and for relieving their anxieties.

Discussing strategies for claiming common ground, Brown and Levinson (1978) say that the speaker may claim common points of view, opinions, attitudes, knowledge and empathy with the hearer, by using in-group identity markers. It was believed that any expression of emotion (or positive / negative speech act, as it is called in Chapter 8) can be a claim for in-group membership in that it is a request for sympathy or a show of solidarity and a statement of in-the-same-boatness. It was felt that if the emotional speech contains elements of the in-group code, then the claim of in-groupness is all the stronger. As far as speech acts are concerned, the hypotheses were that:

5. *Over time, the density of positive and negative speech acts increases*

6. *Over time, the density of expressions of positive attitude to the interlocutor and of expressions showing a negative attitude to a third party or situation and dissatisfaction with self increases*

7. *In all the data, implicit contextualisation cues occur more in speech with an interactional function than in speech with a transactional function.*

As far as the function of implicit language is concerned, guided by Tannen's words that "the more work ... hearers do to supply meaning, the deeper their understanding and the greater their sense of involvement with both text and author" (1989: 23) and Brown and Levinson's (1978) theory that using in-group markers is a way of claiming in-group membership, it was believed that when students use implicit language, they reflect and possibly claim in-group membership.

### 1.2.4 Impenetrability

The way of referring can be so elliptical and vague that only the group members themselves can be expected to understand it. Even though an outsider to the group may be able to determine globally the question of immediate concern in a conversation, he may not be able to grasp the full implication of individual utterances.

This thesis explores the notion that implicit language can cause topics to be impenetrable to any outsider to the academic discourse community of Edinburgh University Applied Linguistics MSc students who finds himself in the MSc common room overhearing the students' conversations. The issue of impenetrability was of interest because it was hypothesised that it is the consequence not only of the course knowledge and shared interpersonal knowledge but also of the vague, implicit way of referring to referents. The hypothesis was that:

1. *The hearer only understands the topic of all conversations if he both has course knowledge and shared interpersonal knowledge and knows the referents of the implicit contextualisation cues*

The issue of impenetrability is not, however, central to the study.

## 1.3 MAP OF THE THESIS

**Chapter 2: Theoretical Orientation** discusses the pragmatic and interactional sociolinguistic approach used. This chapter explains that the model for the linguistic analysis is based on the methodology of Halliday and Hasan (1976), and that it concentrates on the meaning of utterances given by the context, guided by the theory of "contextualisation cues" of Gumperz (1982). It also explains how the functional model of analysis is developed from the speech act theory (Austin 1962; Searle 1969) and the theories of politeness principles (Brown and Levinson 1978; Leech 1983).

**Chapter 3: Method** describes the method of data collection and analysis. It explains how the audio recordings of the six students' spontaneous conversations in the department common room were made openly once a week in the first half of each of the three terms. It describes the method of transcribing the data (26,000 words), coding it with a specially devised set of categories for the forms and functions, analysing the coded data with Word 2.0b and Excel 4.0a quantitatively and qualitatively, and interpreting the results. It describes the three tests performed on the

data: triangulation interviews, intercoder reliability tests, and the comprehension exercise to test the theory about the impenetrability of the in-group code.

**Chapter 4: Knowledge Areas** describes the types of background knowledge that MSc students assume that their interlocutors have. It outlines the characteristics of the four knowledge areas discovered: general knowledge of the world, knowledge of language teaching, knowledge of The University of Edinburgh, The Department of Applied Linguistics and The Institute for Applied Language Studies, and knowledge of 1991-92 MSc course (the largest knowledge area). The chapter also shows how shared interpersonal knowledge of the interlocutor can feature in any of these areas, and that sections of dialogue depending on it increase over time.

**Chapter 5: Grammar In Reference** analyses non-anaphoric definite reference, and describes the grammatical characteristics of the categories "super-explicit", "explicit" and "implicit" reference that are used in the thesis. The grammatical implicit contextualisation cues are non-anaphoric definite noun phrases, demonstrative pronouns and adverbs, third person pronouns and indefinite pronouns. It shows that there is a slight increase in implicit reference and that the closer the knowledge area is to knowledge of the 1991-92 MSc course, the more implicit the non-anaphoric definite reference becomes. This chapter contains the suggestion that the implicitness of course topics is caused by vague referring items pointing to specific referents in the background knowledge.

**Chapter 6: Lexis In Reference** deals with the pragmatic meanings of nouns and verbs, and discusses the implicitness of the lexical items that have a special meaning that only in-group members would understand. It discusses the gradability of contentfulness in lexis, analysing proper nouns, technical terms, special course nouns and general nouns and verbs, all of which are lexical implicit contextualisation cues.

**Chapter 7: Reference Over Utterances** contains an exploration of other features of implicit language that depend on in-group knowledge at the clause, utterance and exchange level. The chapter describes the analysis of initial ellipsis, unfinished sentences and vague fillers. It describes humorous conversational implicature (hyperbole, irony, banter and ambiguous allusions) and how it contributes to the implicitness of the in-group language. It also examines topic shifts and "hitches", and suggests that implicit contextualisation cues on topic shifts contribute to the

implicitness, and that the in-group code can break down. An analysis is made of how all these features combine with implicit contextualisation cues.

**Chapter 8: Function** deals with markers of intimacy to show that a group has in fact formed, and it deals with macro-functions and speech acts, to provide a functional background to the analysis of the in-group code. It shows how interactional language expressing a positive attitude to the interlocutor and using the in-group code becomes a way of claiming in-groupness and using the group to test normality. It concludes with a suggestion about the interactional function of the implicit language of the in-group.

**Chapter 9: Tests** contains a description of two of the tests. The first is the one of triangulation with the six recordedees that shows that the interactions between the six recordedees can be taken as typical of any native speaker of English in the MSc course. The second is the one that focuses on the issue of impenetrability and shows that it can be associated with the implicitness of the in-group code.

**Chapter 10: Conclusion** contains a summary of the influences on the change in the language. It shows that increasing common knowledge over time is associated with an increase in implicit reference and changes in the function of communication. It shows that course events in the spring cause a peak in course knowledge dialogues and non-anaphoric definite reference, and a trough in humorous utterances, and that topic has a great influence on the implicitness of both grammar and lexis in reference. The concluding chapter also contains indications of the limitations of the model and recommendations for research into the generalisability of the model.

This thesis concludes with suggestions of applications of the findings to the fields of Teaching English as a Foreign Language, clinical pragmatics and forensic linguistics. It is suggested that both EAP students and "clients" with semantic-pragmatic disorders should be trained to be aware of the function of vague and implicit language. It is also suggested that the model of implicit language could be used in forensic discourse analysis to detect tampering with transcribed records or to determine the nature of suspects' relationships.

## 1.4 CONCLUSION

The overall aim of this thesis is to describe the development of the implicit language in the casual conversations of an academic discourse community, that of the Applied Linguistics MSc students of the University of Edinburgh. The aim is to discover to what extent both increasing common knowledge over time and the knowledge area assumed affect the forms and functions used by in-group members of the community.

The specific hypotheses are that topics depending on knowledge of the course and the interlocutor increase; that the language becomes increasingly implicit, vague, incomplete and course-specific; that the function of conversations becomes more interactional and the in-group code reflects in-group membership; and finally that conversations are impenetrable to outsiders lacking the background knowledge because of the implicit language used.

## **CHAPTER 2 : THEORETICAL ORIENTATION**

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### **2.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter outlines the main theoretical influences behind this study. The first part of the chapter describes the general approach to the analysis of discourse that is used. It contains a description of the source of the data, the model of context, and the methodology of the linguistic and functional analysis. The second part consists of a review of the literature on social groups and language change. It explains why the literature on relationships is not as relevant as the literature on lexico-grammatical markers of intimacy.

### **2.2 GENERAL APPROACH TO DISCOURSE**

The approach to discourse analysis and the interpretation of verbal social interaction used in the study is eclectic: it draws from both philosophy and sociology. It draws from philosophy, in that it is based on pragmatics (Grice 1975; Levinson 1983; Leech 1983) and speech act theory (Austin 1962; Searle 1969). It draws from sociology and anthropology, in that it is based on the functional principles of interactional sociolinguistics (Gumperz 1982; Goffman 1963; Tannen 1989) and the structural principles of variation analysis (Labov 1972). As Sadock (1985) says, the best approach to discourse is to "examine structure in the light of functional requirement and function in the light of structural requirement" (p.142).

#### **2.2.1 Source Of Data**

Unlike the data of pragmaticians, which consists of "constructed utterances in hypothetical contexts" (Schiffrin 1994: 12) studied at the level of the utterance as a product, the data used in this study is real-life spontaneous interactions studied as sequences of utterances as a process. As far as source of data is concerned, the approach is close to that of conversational analysis (Sacks 1972; Schegloff 1968; Jefferson 1978; Garfinkel 1967).

### 2.2.2 Context

The view of context is a pragmatic one. For pragmatics, context is background knowledge of the world, shared beliefs and assumptions. Communication is based on common knowledge and depends on the speakers' cognitive ability to use that context and draw from the presuppositional pool (Venneman 1975) of mutual knowledge to make inferences and understand the conversational implicature. Pragmatics focus on the meaning of utterances given by the context; they study speaker's meaning rather than sentence meaning.

In the pragmatic inferential model of communication, the hearer assumes that there is a rationality behind the speaker's words and that he obeys the cooperative principles (Grice 1975) of quantity, quality, relevance and manner. The cooperative principles are closely related to the politeness principles (Brown and Levinson 1978; Leech 1983). These state that the speaker should claim common ground and convey that he and the hearer are co-operators, and that the speaker should not presume that the hearer will co-operate or coerce him to do so.

The pragmatic approach particularly suits the purposes of this study because of its focus on common background knowledge. This study explores the relation between the MSc students' assumption of common knowledge and the form of reference used. Pragmatics is relevant to the present study too because the study constitutes an analysis of the MSc students' observation of the politeness principles and an exploration of whether the observation of politeness principles contributes to group cohesion.

The approach to context used is different from that of the ethnography of communication (Hymes 1972), which focuses on the general cultural background of beliefs and values and a knowledge of the appropriate use of structures and functions that organise language in speech events. The present study does not examine the effects of the *general* cultural background knowledge of a speech community (defined by Hymes as "a community sharing rules for the conduct and interpretation of at least one linguistic variety" p.54) on their language, but the effects of growing *specific* background knowledge of the MSc discourse community.

### 2.2.3 Linguistic Analysis

The approach to linguistic analysis is based on systemic linguistics. A linguistic coding system devised from Halliday and Hasan's (1976) analysis of cohesion is used to analyse and code the referring items in the data. It is based on the linguistic text analysis approach of their description of cohesive devices and deixis. Analysis focuses on referring expressions and their role in cohesion, deixis and definiteness, and lexical items of general and specific reference within the text of the data.

Unlike systemic analysis, however, the analysis in this study is not in terms of information structure or the complex issue of theme and rheme, since the hypotheses about changes in language over time do not touch this vast field. The issue of old and new information is dealt with on a grammatical referential level, in terms of anaphora and non-anaphora. In the referential model, context is as important as text, and the discourse is analysed as a process rather than as a product.

The approach to linguistic analysis is also based partly on the methodology of variation analysis (Labov 1972), in that it centres on the code and concentrates on the structural categories within texts. It uses quantitative and linguistic methods to code and count components, in order to look at the patterns of linguistic variation and change through the systematic investigation of the discourse community.

However, whereas Labov's approach tends towards dialectology, the one used in this study is one of genre analysis (Swales 1990). The study gives more importance to background knowledge and function than variationists do, and less importance to the examination of the structural components of texts. The texts in the data have no beginning, middle and end (see Chapter 3 for the reasons).

The approach used differs greatly from that of conversation analysis, which has an "anti-quantitative analysis" approach. Measurable units were needed for a systematic analysis so that they could be counted and the developments over time could be discovered. Studies in conversation analysis tend to concentrate on the meaning of individual words in isolated texts. This study concentrates on the relationship between words within the text and outside the text. Like conversation analysis, it is a non-a-priori approach working on a bottom-up linguistic basis, yet, unlike conversation analysis, which is "anti-model", it contains a model with elements to be analysed, based on general impressions gained.

The linguistic coding system devised is influenced by pragmatics, which gives importance to referring as a discourse process, and explores definite and indefinite reference, and explicit and implicit reference. The emphasis is on referring items whose referents are in the context of background knowledge and the situation but not in the preceding text. The model of analysis contains some of Levinson's (1983) presupposition triggers: definite descriptions, comparisons and contrasts and non-restrictive relative clauses.

However, the approach deviates from the pragmatic in that it does not consider the logical analysis of each utterance in terms of presupposition, ("anything that it is reasonable to believe that the speaker is assuming or taking for granted", Palmer 1976: 171), entailment or inference (what the hearer concludes that he is "reasonably entitled to draw from a sentence or utterance", Hurford and Heasley 1983: 279). Such analysis of data would depend heavily on the analysts' own assumptions and intuitions. The present study does not contain definitions of the speakers' intentions in individual utterances or judgements as to whether they are satisfied with their hearers' interpretation of their intentions, because the hypotheses about changes in language over time are not about the logical relation between each utterance but about the form of reference. An analysis of conversational implicature is included in the study of the humour of the in-group code, however, because it was felt that it is related to forms of reference and changes over time.

The analysis is guided by the theory of "contextualisation cues", devised by the interactional sociolinguist, Gumperz (1982). Contextualisation cues are the aspects of language that relate language to the contextual knowledge and that contribute to the presuppositions necessary to accurate inferencing of what is meant by invoking contextual assumptions. They are prosodic features, formulaic expressions, sequencing strategies and lexis and syntax. Gumperz said that they are part of any group members' code and have an implicit definition. His theory of contextualisation cues is particularly useful in this study which analyses cues that refer implicitly and vaguely and reinforce group identity. In this study it is hoped to build on Gumperz's ideas making a more systematic and detailed linguistic analysis of the lexical and syntactic features and to add an intertextual dimension.

#### 2.2.4 Functional Analysis

Speech act theorists Austin (1962) and Searle (1969) see language as being used to perform acts and they list the communicative acts performed through speech: directives, commissives, expressives, etc. For this study, Austin and Searle's speech act list as it stands does not suit the purposes of a description of casual conversations. The MSc students are not "doing" anything in the sense of physically carrying out a joint activity together with a visible end result; they are sitting rather in the common room together. As Cook (1989) says, conversation is not primarily necessitated by a practical task. They are not "requesting", "persuading" and "promising" in order to get something done, as much as "asserting" and "informing" in order to say something as they pass time together; their language is more interactional than transactional (Brown and Yule 1983).

In speech act theory, the hearer interprets the illocutionary force of the speaker's indirect speech acts. Indirect speech acts and the intention of the speaker are taken into account as far as possible in the study of conversational implicature and humour as an in-group marker.

In the present study, speech acts are analysed together under general headings based on the attitude of the speaker towards himself, the interlocutor and the situation (see Chapter 8). Since the model of categories used groups speech acts together under a small number of multi-functional headings and makes no predictions about probable sequences of acts, it is possibly more flexible and reliable than the systemic models (Berry 1989; Fawcett 1973; Halliday and Hasan 1976; Hoey 1983) which contain a set of some 50 speech acts, with one linguistic form for each of these and consist of an algorithm of act sequences that can be applied to all verbal interactions. The model of functional analysis used in this study was built using aspects of Brown and Levinson's (1978) politeness principles for claiming in-group membership.

The speech act model used also differs from that proposed by systemic linguists in that it is not an *a priori* model but one born of ethnomethodological observation of the data and designed to suit the characteristics of the casual conversations of a budding academic discourse community. The model also allows for features of real-life spontaneous conversations such as phatic fillers and backchannels.

In the study of the function of talk in the MSc common room, the interactional sociolinguistics approach is followed. This approach centres on the social construction of meaning in groups and analyses how language reflects group identity, how involvement is created in interaction (Gumperz 1982) and how social occasions create expectations for a display of involvement (Goffman 1971). The MSc group members differ from the subjects in Gumperz's studies in that they do not constitute an ethnic group or use their in-group language to show superiority over another group or actively exclude others.

### **2.2.5 Conversational Structure Analysis**

The speech act model is not a model of moves such as that proposed by the Birmingham School (Sinclair and Coulthard 1975) but a model of acts. The Birmingham School model is based on findings in classroom-based research. It considers speech acts subordinated to moves and finds the move structure Initiate-Respond-Follow-up (IRF) to be typical of the classroom. Although this approach has been applied successfully to other discourse types, such as medical consultations (Coulthard and Montgomery 1981a) and TV quiz shows (Berry 1981), it does not seem appropriate for the analysis of casual conversations, in which follow-up or an evaluation of interlocutor is not a frequently occurring element. In informal chat with its generally loose structure and its drifting topics, it is often not clear or even helpful to distinguish an initiating move and a responding move. As Crystal and Davy (1975) say, casual conversation is not highly structured; there is no overall contrived pattern; afterthoughts, repetitions, etc. abound. Moreover, the Birmingham classroom model does not suit the purposes of the analysis of casual conversations, because in the latter the unequal power between participants is suspended, the number of participants is small and the turns are short.

The approach of the present study does not take into account conversation structure and thus differs greatly from that of conversation analysis, which is concerned with the patterns, organisation and mechanics of conversation: adjacency pairs, sequential structures and progression, turn-taking, overlaps, pauses and intonation, etc. No attempt is made to analyse the data in terms of adjacency pairs, turn-taking, overlaps and pauses, etc., because the hypotheses about changes in language as the group forms are grammatical and lexical and not related to conversation structure.

## 2.3 STUDY OF SOCIAL GROUPS AND LANGUAGE CHANGE

The characteristics of social groups and relationships have been researched and described extensively in the literature in the fields of psychology and sociology. There has, however, been little research on the formation of an academic discourse community. The language of social groups has been discussed in the psycholinguistics and sociolinguistics literature. Research so far has been somewhat superficial, unsystematic and produced descriptions of product rather than process.

### 2.3.1 Social Groups And Relationships

The main objective in this study is not to carry out a psychological investigation into the development of relationships in the MSc student group but to discover the linguistic indicators of increasing common knowledge over time. From the analysis of the tendencies of these linguistic elements, conclusions are drawn about the formation of group dynamics. The following brief review of the literature about relationships has the sole objective of defining the particular social group of the study.

Most of the literature on relationships is not relevant to the present study of MSc students because it deals with sexual or family relationships. Even the literature on non-sexual and non-family relationships does not seem to apply because it describes close relationships.

Definitions of close relationships in the literature contain parameters that are fulfilled. Kelly et al. (1983) say that a close relationship is "one of strong, frequent and diverse interdependence that lasts over a considerable period of time" (p.38) and Argyle and Henderson (1985) define friends as "people who are liked, whose company is enjoyed, who share interests and activities, who are helpful and understanding, who can be trusted, with whom one feels comfortable and who will be emotionally supporting" (p.64). This would be a tall order for the MSc students, considering the limited time that they have for socialising.

Definitions of close relationships in terms of activity are not applicable to the data either. Duck says categorically, "Friendships do not start until people do friendly things in friendly places: they are not created merely by friendly talk." (1991: 64). Friendly talk is all some MSc students have time or energy for. Argyle et al. (1981) state, "People will like each other if they meet frequently and under rewarding

circumstances" (p.383). The students' anxious conversations during project time can hardly be called "rewarding circumstances" unless "rewarding" can be understood as satisfying in terms of stress-relieving through expressions of solidarity.

Hinde (1987) lists factors present in relationships between people interacting over time, such as trust, intimacy ("the extent to which the participants in a relationship reveal all aspects - experiential, emotional and physical", p.36), interpersonal perception (whether interlocutors see each other as they really are), etc., but these are difficult to measure and are not the object of this study. MSc students rarely reveal aspects of themselves and do not have enough time to interact with each other to be able to have perfect interpersonal perception.

Many writers describe the stages of development of a relationship. Duck (1991) outlines four stages that could apply to all relationships: that of selecting friends, that of developing techniques for encouraging the relationship, that of making the relationship grow, and that of maintaining the relationship. The stage of selecting friends amongst those of similar attitudes, emotional stages and intelligence does not generally apply to MSc students. The students are thrown together by the course and held together for the duration of the course by the common goal and course activities. They do not meet all their colleagues by choice. They simply find themselves sitting next to others in the lecture hall, in tutorials, in the common room. As the course progresses, they meet the people who take the same options. The students whose conversations are analysed in this study are ones who frequently sit together in the common room; the others disperse and go in groups or alone to a cafeteria, their homes, etc. Many students eventually lose contact with each other as they choose different options and concentrate on their private study in term three. There are no "stages" as such, in their interactions.

Oreström (1983) makes an astute observation about the colleague-type relationship: "The fact that two people work at the same place does not, even if they talk with each other every day, indicate anything about their real personal relations" (p.41). The MSc students could be said to be similar to "workmates" but differ from them in that the question of role-relationships, power and dominance is not so pronounced. However fierce the competition and however impressive the group leaders may be, the students are all "in the same boat".

A definition of relationship that suits the purposes of this study is that of Hinde (1987) who says that a relationship consists of "a series of interactions over time between ... individuals known to each other." The MSc students can be called an "aggregation", which is Hinde's term for a group formed because of a common attachment. They can also be seen as an "in-group", which is Levinson's term for any speakers who interact over time and form a social group. Most of the "in-group members" have a "colleague-type relationship", a relationship of "associates", although a few develop relationships that extend beyond the course.

Swales (1990) describes the academic class as forming a discourse community, but does not analyse how it forms. The MSc student body in this study fulfil all Swales' criteria for members of a discourse community. They have the broadly agreed common public goal of passing the course; their mechanisms for communication are mainly face-to-face interaction whether in tutorials or in the common room; these mechanisms they use to provide feedback, but also solidarity and relief from anxieties; they acquire a special lexis; they possess more than one genre. MSc common room casual conversations studied here contain a hybrid of two genres: casual conversation genre and Applied Linguistic academic writing genre. Students also possess the genre of lecture and tutorial exchange.

### **2.3.2 Language Change And Markers Of Intimacy**

The discussion in the literature of the connection between type of relationship and type of language is generally rather imprecise. Goffman (1971), for example, observes that when people with a close relationship talk to each other, "they express in some way or another just how intimate and close the relationship is" (p.262).

Reports of studies describe the language of social groups at a given time; they lack a suggestion of how exactly language changes to become the language of the social group. In the linguistics, sociolinguistics and psycholinguistics literature, although general reference is made to the differences between the language of strangers and that of intimates, no systematic study appears to have been carried out to *follow through* the interactions of individuals as they form a group, to discover exactly how and when language changes over time as assumed knowledge grows.

### 2.3.2.1 Lexico-grammatical markers

The earliest descriptions of the restricted language of groups are those of Firth (1957) and Bernstein (1971). Bernstein's features of his restricted code are short, context-dependent grammatically simple sentences, repetitive lexis, few subordinate clauses, more verbs, adverbs and pronouns than nouns, and a reduced range of lexical and syntactic alternatives. He says that the features of restricted code "interact cumulatively and developmentally reinforce each other and so the effect of any one depends on the presence of the others" (p.43) but he gives no suggestion as to how this might happen.

Subsequent studies of the language of groups and of familiars in general have shown, albeit in a superficial way, that the language of familiars is elliptical and carries context-dependent meaning implicitly expressed. Tyler (1978) notes that spoken discourse is "notoriously elliptical and shorthand, especially between parties who know one another well and share common interests and expertise in the topic being discussed" (p.391). Tannen points out that people "who regularly interact with each other create a special language between and among them" (1984: 33).

Studies of the language of groups of university students have been ones of product rather than process, and yet their findings with regard to the particular nature of the elliptical and implicit form of in-group code have relevance to the present study. Kreckel (1981), describing the language of university students, recognises the dynamic nature of in-group language formation when she says that the students' language in her study consisted of "a multitude of in-group codes, discipline specific and social group specific ... taking discipline or group-specific knowledge for granted" (1981: 36). Levy (1979), in his study of the language of university students, in which he found that they talked about their selected course subjects in such a way that even the staff found it difficult to understand, makes no attempt to explore how impenetrability might vary at different stages in the course.

The Applied Linguistics MSc students do appear to develop a restricted code in the sense that it is context-dependent and contains unspoken assumptions. However, their restricted code contains elements of Bernstein's elaborated code: because of their course experience, their lexis can be rational and abstract.

Other studies cover aspects of language and depth of relationship; but the descriptions are more a list of features than a careful exploration of the nature of each element. Brown and Levinson (1978), in their description of strategies for claiming in-group membership, mention the use of in-group identity markers such as in-group usages of address forms, in-group language or dialect, jargon or slang, and contraction and ellipsis. Tannen (1984) makes one of the most comprehensive studies of the language of high involvement of those who regularly interact. She describes four areas that show the style of a relationship of high involvement: topic, pacing, narrative strategies and expressive paralinguistics, and interpersonal involvement signals. The interpersonal involvement signals are playful routines, irony, allusion, reference to familiar jokes and assumptions, ellipsis, indirectness, tropes, and imagery, implicature and unstated meanings. Yet again, however, the description is static rather than a dynamic, with no suggestion of the route from the low involvement stage to the high involvement stage. Planalp and Benson (1992) have similar findings: in their study they found that friends were more likely than acquaintances to offer opinions, ask for advice, express negative judgements, and use "jokes, sarcasm, teasing and repartee", "profanity and slang". The analysis described in the present study takes some of these markers of intimacy and studies their relationship with the context-bound language (see Chapter 8).

Other studies have proposed markers that are less manageable than these. Altman and Taylor's (1973) categories are too imprecise and metaphorical to be reproduced. They say that the difference between the language of "newly related" speakers and that of "intimate" speakers is that the intimate's communication is deeper, broader, more efficient, more emotional, less cautious, smoother, more personalised and contains more positive and negative evaluation remarks. Kelly et al. (1983) list more tangible markers of group membership, such as the use of "we" statements reflecting tendencies (e.g.: "we always...") and global assessment (e.g.: "we're better than..."), but not all of these can be applied to the MSc students as they do not need to show superiority over others. Berger and Bradac's (1982) linguistic markers of intimacy or "immediacy" as they call it, are more operational in that they are precise linguistic categories: greater specificity (e.g.: "Jane" rather than "that person"), more spatial and temporal indicators of proximity (e.g.: "here's John" rather than "there's John"), and more forms of inclusion and mutuality (e.g.: "we" rather than "you" and "I"). Of these markers, the present study focuses on the specificity of reference, which links in closest to the hypotheses about forms of reference (see Chapter 5).

### 2.3.2.2 Prosodic and structural markers

The present study contains no analysis of phonological markers for several reasons. Firstly, such phonological markers of intimacy as have been proposed in the literature, e.g. volume, breathiness, tone, pitch and voice quality, can vary according to the speaker's personality and his emotions at a given time, regardless of the level of intimacy.

Secondly, some of the phonological markers of group involvement suggested, which could have been taken into account in the description of the MSc in-group code, require special equipment for a systematic analysis. Tannen (1984) finds expressive phonology, marked pitch and amplitude shifts, and marked voice quality to be markers of high involvement. Giles (1979), describing his Accommodation Theory in order to explain "the processes whereby individuals shift their speech styles to become more like that of those with whom they are interacting" (p.46) and align their expression to their interlocutor's utterances to endorse their ideas and attitudes, finds that convergence can be found in language, pronunciation, pause and utterance length, vocal intensities, and speech rate. The present study focuses on grammatical and lexical reference; an analysis of these phonological markers would have added an acoustic dimension but not contributed to the linguistic one.

Thirdly, an exploration of phonological pointers to common knowledge such as stress and intonation, would have contributed usefully to the examination of context-bound language, but a systematic exploration requires detailed analysis of every utterance. Speakers stress the part of the utterance that contains the new information or part of the assumed knowledge that has special focus. In the case of intonation, as McCarthy (1991) points out, "the choice of fall or rise seems to depend entirely on the speaker's assessment of the mutual state of knowledge between speaker and hearer" (p.106). Brazil (1980) suggests three levels of key: high key for contrastive information, mid key for addition of new information, and low key for reiteration or assumed to be known knowledge. Intonation also reflects the speaker's commitment to the truth, his attitude and his emotions (Abercrombie 1963). This aspect of phonology is unfortunately beyond the scope of the present study.

The study contains no analysis of "fluency" markers of intimacy in terms of conversation structure (speed, pauses, interruptions and overlaps) for much the same reason. Tannen's (1984) high involvement style contains a faster rate of speech and

turn-taking and an avoidance of between-turn pauses; it also contains cooperative overlap and participatory listenership. Stainton (1987) found interruptions to be more acceptable in an environment where the participants hold a close relationship. Goffman (1971) comes to the same conclusion: "when a set of persons are on familiar terms ... then inattentiveness and interruptions are likely to become rife and talk may degenerate into a happy babble of disorganised sound" (p.342). The aspects of conversation structure that are analysed in this study are the ones that relate to common knowledge and the way that it is referred to: unfinished sentences completed by the interlocutor, topic shifts and hitches (see Chapter 7).

The exclusion of an analysis of prosodic and fluency features does not negatively affect the description of the implicit language at the centre of this study, because the in-group code and other implicit features do not depend on prosodic or fluency features for their meaning.

## **2.4 CONCLUSION**

This chapter has demonstrated that the main theoretical influences behind this study are that of pragmatics and interactional sociolinguistics. It has explained that the source of the data is real-life spontaneous interactions, and that the model of context is that of background knowledge of the world and common attitudes and opinions. The chapter has described the approach to the linguistic and functional analysis. The language categories are based on the forms of reference defined by Halliday and Hasan, on Levinson's presupposition triggers and on Gumperz's contextualisation cues. The functional categories are derived from ethnomethodological observation and are based on aspects of Austin and Searle's speech acts and Brown and Levinson's politeness principles.

The review of the literature on social groups and language change shows that most of the literature on relationships is not relevant to the study because the subjects in the study cannot be said to have a close relationship: they are colleagues, in-group members of a particular academic discourse community. The chapter has shown that previous studies of lexico-grammatical markers of intimacy are unsystematic descriptions of product, whereas the present study aims to describe systematically the process of the development of the implicit language with its elliptical, context-bound reference.

## CHAPTER 3 : METHOD

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### 3.1 INTRODUCTION

Although the general approach to language in this thesis is one guided by pragmatics and interactional sociolinguistics, the approach to the collection of data is similar to that of conversation analysis in that the source of the data is real-life spontaneous interactions, and the approach to the analysis of data is similar to that of variation analysis in that the data is coded and quantified.

This chapter contains a description of the method of data collection and analysis. It begins with a description of the background to the data: the context of the MSc course and the characteristics of the students. Then the system of recording and selecting parts of the recorded data for analysis is explained, as is the system of transcribing, coding and analysing quantitatively. The chapter also contains a brief outline of the tests that were performed to check the reliability of the coding system and to check conclusions about relationships, language and impenetrability. It concludes with a discussion of the practicalities of recording, the effects of the tape-recorder, and the influence of the speakers' personalities on results, as well as an explanation for non-native speakers of English not being included in the recordings.

### 3.2 BACKGROUND TO DATA

A further description of the course (its design, its content, its assessment methods, etc.) and a description of the students (their nationality, their occupation, etc.) is provided here so that readers may have detailed background knowledge of the context of the course and of the interlocutors that is essential to an understanding of their conversations and indeed the implicit language.

The MSc course in Applied Linguistics in the University of Edinburgh consists of three terms from October to May. It is pyramidal in design: in term one all students must follow a broad base of ten compulsory core courses, in term two the tutor input is less as they select six option courses, and in term three there is even less guided study as they select three option courses. In the summer months, there are no classes.

Throughout the year, the department runs an optional monthly programme of invited lecturers.

The core courses are basic subjects such as Grammar, Syntax, Semantics, Phonetics and Phonology, and Language and Linguistics. The option courses are more specific and students can follow programmes of set combinations of subjects if they wish to specialise in language teaching or in research. Option courses, totalling 31, include subjects such as Discourse Studies, Classroom Based Research, Pedagogical Descriptions, Psycholinguistics and the Psychology of Language Learning, Second Language Acquisition, and Language Programme Design.

As the amount of in-put in the form of lectures and tutorials decreases from term to term, the amount of independent assessed work increases. In term one, students are very much guided in their study and are asked to complete short tutorial tasks which they prepare together in pre-tutorial workshops. In term two, the week after they return from Christmas, they have a written examination on the core courses (they answer three questions of their choice in three hours). They have to complete three pieces of independent work: one core project and option projects A and B, each of 3-5,000 words, by the Easter holidays. Projects can include original research, the use of questionnaires, etc. In term three, which is only a half term of classes, they have more independent work: option projects C and D, and a portfolio take-home exam (with 72 hours for completion of three questions, each question on a different one of their option courses) at the end of the half term. They also have to prepare for the summer dissertation of 15,000 words, whose deadline is September 31. Over the summer, students work on their dissertation entirely on their own. At the end of June, an external examiner moderates assessments, interviews students for quality control and helps to judge borderline cases.

The majority of lectures and tutorials take place in the main lecture hall, seminar room and tutors' offices in The Department of Applied Linguistics (henceforth DAL). DAL has a small departmental library but students tend to go to the nearby university main library to study and make use of the computer facilities in the David Hume Tower (which houses the Arts Faculty) across the road. Some go to the library of the Institute For Applied Language Studies (henceforth IALS) which is also part of the University of Edinburgh (henceforth EU).

Lectures and tutorials directly related to the Teaching of English as a Foreign Language tend to take place in IALS. Regular and permanent teaching staff in IALS teach English as a Foreign Language in ESP, EAP and teacher training courses as well giving their services to DAL. IALS adds its welcoming 'bun lunch' for DAL MSc students to the DAL welcoming 'tea and biscuits'. It allows MSc students to use its library.

At the end of the year, IALS invites students to teach on its summer courses, in the Institute itself, in the David Hume Tower or two miles away in the science faculty at King's Buildings. One or two students a year win an IALS scholarship to do an MLitt in Applied Linguistics (a research degree at a lower level than the PhD). The IALS scholarship funds the students to spread the MLitt over two years and in return, the Institute requires the student to undertake 480 hours of teaching, mostly in the summer courses.

The MSc students have similar characteristics from year to year. The course attracts both native speakers from Canada, Ireland, Scotland, England and Wales, and non-native speakers of English from Europe, Asia and Africa. They are mostly language teachers with teaching experience abroad, although there may occasionally be a translator or speech therapist in their midst. In the 1991-92 course, there were 34 students, 16 of whom were native speakers of English, and they had an average age of 31. Of the six of native speakers of English whose conversations were analysed, three were English, one was Irish, one was Scottish and one Canadian. They were four men and two women between the ages of 25 and 40.

Students have various courses of action in DAL. Some stop their study in May, and do not do the dissertation; they are awarded a Diploma. Others do the MSc course on a part-time basis, spreading their classes and projects over a period of two years. Some students continue in the department to "convert" their MSc to an MLitt in Applied Linguistics (either in DAL or in IALS) and some then convert their M.Litt to a PhD. That is to say, their MSc counts as the first year towards their MLitt or PhD.

Student opinions on all matters are sought by DAL and their suggestions are taken seriously. Most courses end with student feed-back sheets. Staff-student dialogue is organised through student representatives and committees.

A description of the MSc course and students is not complete without a brief impression of the atmosphere and group dynamics in the common room. In term one, all students are held together by six hours of compulsory classes a day and conversations seem to be low key presentations of the individual and exploration of the other individuals. They start as strangers and the group does not really gel in the autumn term. In the spring term, the students separate out into smaller groups and they are stressed because of the course pressures. The group seems to have gelled by the middle of term two. In term three, the students meet less and there is a slight disintegration of the group. The stress level seems lower, as if students had "got into the swing of things".

### **3.3 METHOD OF DATA COLLECTION**

#### **3.3.1 System Of Recording**

Audio recordings rather than video were made because it was felt that a video camera would intrude and make the students very self conscious. It was hoped thus to reduce the amount of tape-affected discourse and unnatural language as far as possible.

It would have been impractical and unnecessary to record every student casual conversation in the common room of the Applied Linguistics Department on every day of the course from October 1991 until May 1992. Periodic recordings were needed and these were to be representative samples of the population of all common-room conversations from 4 October to 12 May. A total of 29 dialogues (26,000 words) from 15 days' recording were used in the analysis.

The method of recording was systematic, although the recordings themselves were different lengths. Conversations were recorded once a week in the first half of each of the three terms. In this thesis, the term 'period 1' refers to the first half of the autumn term, 'period 2' refers to the first half of the spring term, and 'period 3' to the first half of the summer term. Because of the characteristics of the three terms, the half terms were different lengths. Thus there were six recording days in period 1, five in period 2 and four in period 3. The number of minutes recorded varied from one week to another, according to the conditions that presented themselves. Each day's recording lasted from 10 to 30 minutes, bringing the total number of hours of recording to about seven.

The recording was overt. All the students on the course were told in the welcoming address at the beginning of the course that the researcher would be recording their conversations, and their permission to record was sought before every recording.

The conversations were spontaneous in that recordees were neither asked to sit together, nor asked to talk if they did happen to sit together, nor guided in any way if they did happen to talk. Milroy favours spontaneity:

"If we are to obtain any kind of insight into the structure of everyday spoken language we need to look at speech where the speaker has selected his own topic which does not emerge as a result of direct questioning" (1987: 59).

Once they had given their permission for the cassette-recorder to be put down in front of them, the researcher stood anonymously on the other side of the room, in order to be near the group and if it looked uncomfortable, to take the recorder away. In this way, it was hoped both to reduce the feeling of intrusion and to avoid the danger of the researcher being asked to participate in the conversation. See section 3.6.1 of this chapter, for a discussion of the problems encountered in recording, and section 3.6.2, for a discussion of the effects of the cassette-recorder.

### **3.3.2 Selection Of Recordings**

In the autumn term, as many students as possible, both native speakers of English (henceforth NSs) and non-native speakers of English (henceforth NNSs), were recorded. At the beginning of the spring term, while the autumn's dialogues were being transcribed, it was decided not to transcribe and analyse conversations in which NNSs played centre-stage. The term "playing centre stage" for the purposes of this study denotes talking the most, dominating the conversation or controlling the topic. See section 3.6.3 of this chapter, for an explanation of the decision not to include NNSs in this study.

Once the decision to omit conversations with NNSs playing centre stage was taken, conversations were only recorded if 50% of the participants were NSs. Dialogues subsequently recorded which did contain contributions from NNSs were not rejected if their contributions were minimal and mainly took the form of backchannelling. It was impossible to cut out all NNSs contributions because there was nearly always an international mix in the common room: 18 out of the year's 34 MSc students were NNSs.

Once it had been decided to focus on NS playing centre stage, it was decided to focus on a small group of them. The main reason for this was that it would permit the researcher to become familiar enough with each of them to be able to detect any tendencies and changes that were being caused by the personalities and idiosyncrasies of the speakers, rather than by time, course events or knowledge areas. She also needed to learn about their lives inside and outside the course and to know something of their opinions and attitudes in order to share their interpersonal knowledge and thus be in a privileged position that would permit her to interpret the findings in an informed manner.

By the middle of the autumn term, it became obvious from observation and analysis of the data that certain NSs congregated in the common-room more than others. About half of the NSs did not socialise much in the common-room. Out of the eight NSs who socialised more in the common-room, six seemed to relate to each other frequently. Of the other two, one spoke in such a clipped manner that his speech was difficult to transcribe and the other related to only one or two of the six chosen recordees.

The decision to continue recording only the six students was taken the middle of the spring term. Although the six did not necessarily form a fixed or preferred group they could be guaranteed to be there on the days of recording. They were considered to be representative of all native speakers of English in the course in the common room. See section 3.5.2 of this chapter for a discussion of their relationship as shown by triangulation interviews.

The students in question were not told that they had been singled out until the end of the course, so as not to make them self-conscious or to invite questions on any subject. It was necessary to avoid influencing the way that they inter-related and avoid making them sit together when they would not normally, or worse, influencing *where* they inter-related and making them shun the common-room altogether and disappear.

A selection from the total recorded data of the six recordees was needed if the data was to be examined in sufficient detail from all the proposed points of view. The first criterion for selection was that only conversations in which the six recordees played centre stage should be analysed. The second selection criterion was that conversations had to contain at least two of the six chosen recordees. Most of the selected dialogues contain three or four of them interacting.

The result of this procedure of the selection of recordings was that three quarters of the transcribed data was kept for analysis. Of the 35,000 or so words recorded, approximately 33,000 words were transcribed, and of the transcribed data about 26,000 words were used in the analysis.

### 3.4 METHOD OF DATA ANALYSIS

#### 3.4.1 System Of Transcribing

In the plain transcription, the text was transcribed in paragraphs like a play-script, as in Figure 1. (See Appendix I for the plain transcription of all the data used). The 26,000 words were transcribed using Word For Windows 2.0b.

**Figure 1 : Example of the plain transcription**

BM	I actually did (2) have a job set up in Argentina. Same thing happened. Fell through. It was inflation. And then it came back on again.
AM	Oh.
BM	By that stage I thought no way. (ha ha) Cos of inflation. You know they said it was under control. Well, I was looking at it later and I thought well=

Spelling used in transcriptions was orthographic rather than phonetic, and stress and intonation were not indicated. All questions were written with a question mark regardless of intonation, in order to be able to locate questions in the analysis. See Figure 2 for transcription conventions observed in the plain text. The "within the text" conventions were observed despite the fact that interruptions, overlaps and pauses, etc. were not going to be taken into account because matters such as conversation structure and pacing were not part of the analysis.

The file containing the plain transcription was then copied and re-transcribed into numbered discourse units, still in Word for Windows 2.0b, in order to prepare for coding. In examples quoted in this thesis, the number at the beginning of the line (e.g.: 01036) contains two pieces of information. The first two numbers indicate the dialogue number (e.g.:01-, 02-, 03-) and the last three indicate the discourse unit number (e.g.:-001, -002, -003). See Figure 3 for an example of the transcription divided into discourse units.

**Figure 2 : Plain transcription code and conventions**

<b>At the beginning of each line:</b>	
	The speaker:
AM, BM, CM, DM	the four male recordees,
AF, BF	the two female recordees,
MM	any male NS who is not one of the six recordees,
FF	any female NS who is not one of the six recordees,
NM	any male NNS
NF	any female NNS
<b>Within the text:</b>	
XX, XY, and XZ	any member of staff,
X, Y and Z	any student or student's family member, whether NS or NNS, who is not present in the dialogue.
=	Interruption (written at the end of the words interrupted and at the beginning of the interrupting words)
//	Overlap (placed one above one another, where they occur)
(0.5)	Pause (indicated as a number in brackets representing the length in seconds; if it occurs within a turn, it is written on the same line as the turn within which it occurs; if it occurs between two speakers' turns, it has a line to itself)
(man)	Possible interpretation of unclear words (written between single brackets)
((unintelligible))	No interpretation possible (between double brackets)
(heh heh heh)	Laughter (written between single brackets with as many "heh"s as exhalations)
((sniffs))	Other non-verbal sounds (described between double brackets)
((BM enters))	Other audible activities/actions (described between double brackets)

**Figure 3 : Example of the transcription divided into discourse units**

01015	BM	I actually did (2) have a job set up in Argentina.
01016	BM	Same thing happened.
01017	BM	Fell through.
01018	BM	It was inflation.
01019	BM	And then it came back on again.
01020	AM	Oh.
01021	BM	By that stage I thought no way. (ha ha)
01022	BM	Cos of inflation.
01023	BM	You know they said it was under control.
01024	BM	Well, I was looking at it later and I thought well=

The term 'discourse unit' denotes any stretch of talk uttered by one person that ends with a falling intonation (unless it is a closed question or a tag question with rising intonation) and does not have a pause of more than 0.5 seconds within it.

e.g.: 01036 MM Em I taught in Japan like CM did a couple of years eh south coast for years (0.5) and couple of months here and there Portugal, Italy, was in Saudi Arabia for three months but...

Text sentences were not divided at main or subordinate clause boundaries since this could have led to wrong assumptions, if analysis of speech acts was based on parts of utterances, when the whole utterance had a different function and meaning:

e.g.: 01004 AM Mmm I've been there for three years **but** um one year em promoted one year **and** that included two years.

Thus a discourse unit can be several main clauses long if there is no hesitation, pause or fall in intonation, as in:

e.g.: 02056 MM And eh and you know and they did all the stuff (0.5) and it wasn't quite so good and this one guy he'd obviously seen the Grease film and he was a fat slob of a guy.

Similarly a discourse unit can be a single word such as "Yeah" or "Right", or non verbal backchannel such as "mhm" or "heh heh":

e.g.: 01019 BM And then it came back on again.  
→ 01020 AM **Oh.**

Any utterance, including laughter, occurring simultaneously is considered a discourse unit:

e.g.: 02026 FF Remember you used to get // adventures  
02027 BM // (heh heh heh) //  
02028 FF // just like that on the back of American comics.  
02029 FF On Superman comics.  
02030 FF You see // glasses  
02031 BM // Yeah X-ray glasses.

Any unintelligible utterance is not considered a discourse unit:

e.g.: 13055 CM She makes fabric-covered boxes and (1) and er baby blankets and  
→ 13056 CM ((AM unintelligible)) What?  
→ 13057 CM ((AM unintelligible)) Ah you guys.

A discourse unit can end where a grammatical sentence ends, regardless of whether this is the end of a turn or move. The text was not divided into turns because one turn can contain several knowledge areas and topics.

e.g.: → 03067 AM So yeah liquids and me are just not like that at the moment.  
→ 03068 AM Not getting on. (4)  
→ 03069 AM Who did the?=  
03070 BM Well I did I did the=  
03071 NM I did the computers=

Moves were not used as a unit of analysis because of difficulty in defining where they begin. Each discourse unit is analysed as containing one speech act.

e.g.: 03036 BM Um because we- we decided to do one topic each. ((2))  
03037 FF **In the group?**  
03038 BM // Yeah.

Certain transcription conventions had to be adapted, in the transcription divided into discourse units, to suit the requirements of Excel 4.0a, into which the coded transcription was to be passed for analysis. The "=" at the beginning of the second unit of an interruption was omitted because Excel database would interpret it as an error if it was placed at the beginning of a line:

e.g.: 01047 BM Yes=  
01048 MM Egyptians, Sudanese, Somalis.

In the case of overlaps in the transcription divided into discourse units, the second "/" was brought to the beginning of the line, in order to aid computer searches, as in:

e.g.: 02042 BM Oho. I think **that's // wicked.**  
02043 AM // **it was in em=**

Finally, since it was not desirable to have a line with only a pause length indication on it, pauses between speakers' turns were given double brackets ((1.5)) and the pauses were indicated on the end of the discourse unit of the speaker before them, to distinguish them from pauses with a speaker's turn (0.5).

### 3.4.2 System Of Coding

The text divided into discourse units was then coded, using a coding system with a complex set of categories. A detailed description of the coding system follows in the chapters that deal with each of the corresponding features (Chapters 4 to 8). For the moment, a brief introduction to the system will suffice. There are two types of coding system: the textual tagging and functional labelling (see Figure 4). The categories are indicated in the seven fields of the spreadsheet, 'field' being the computer term for column. (See Appendices III and IV for a full explanation of every part of the coding system, of both the functional field labels and the text field tags.)

**Figure 4: Field labels of the coding system**

Functional Fields:	
1)	Dialogue and discourse unit numbers
2)	Knowledge area
3)	Macro-function
4)	Topic shift
5)	Speech act
6)	Speakers
Text Field with linguistic tags :	
7)	Grammatical and lexical

Each discourse unit of the text was put in Field 7. Then each noun, article, adjective, pronoun, verb and adverbial phrase was tagged for grammatical features and lexical

features, within the text field. There are also tags for initial ellipsis, incomplete sentences and hitches within the text in field 7. The grammatical and lexical tagging system is explained in Chapter 5 and Chapter 6.

The functional labels (which include markers of knowledge and overall organisation) are in fields 1 to 6. Field 1 labels the dialogue number and the discourse unit number, and field 6, the one before the text field, labels the speaker. The other four fields contain labels of the knowledge area assumed, topic shifts, the macro-function (and type of humour) and the speech act. The coding system for these four fields is explained in Chapter 4, Chapter 7, and Chapter 8.

Figure 5 shows an example of the fully coded transcription in discourse units. (Appendix II contains a ten-page excerpt of the coded transcription.)

**Figure 5 : Example of the coded transcription in discourse units**

1	Functional fields					Text field 7
	2	3	4	5	6	
1015	2	S	SC	31	BM	I actually_#^ did (2) have_10 a job_XA1_20_&HF set up in Argentina_21.
1016	2	S	SC	31	BM	same thing_NCJ2_22 happened_N103.
1017	2	S	D	31	BM	Fell_XLI_X10 through.
1018	2	S	D	31	BM	It_NEP2 was_11 inflation_NA2_20.
1019	2	S	D	31	BM	And then_#> it_NEP2 came_X10 back on again.
1020	2	S	D	21	AM	Oh.
1021	2	S	D	31	BM	By that stage_#>_NDJ2_20 I thought_X10 no way. (ha ha)
1022	2	S	D	31	BM	Cos_#< of inflation_NA2_20.
1023	2	S	D	31	BM	You know_XBU2 they_NEP2 said_X10 it_NEP2 was_11 under control_20.
1024	2	S	D	31	BM	Well_#-, I was looking_X10 at it_NEP2 later and_#+ I thought_10 well_XLU1=

### 3.4.3 Calculations

Although the coding was done in Word for Windows 2.0b with the columns separated by tabs, the fully coded transcription was taken to Excel 4.0 spreadsheet to do the searches and calculations of the analysis, in order to use Excel's database features. The coded text was analysed to find the densities of the elements and how they co-occurred with the other features, and also to carry out qualitative interpretations.

In order to test hypotheses about changes over time, it was necessary to compare the three recording periods. The total number of words and discourse units in each

dialogue and in each period was calculated. In order to test hypotheses about the knowledge area affecting features and functions, it was necessary to compare course topics and non-course topics. Four files were created, one for each of the knowledge areas. Then the data was divided into four parts according to the knowledge area and each part was put in the appropriate file.

Since the total number of words and discourse units within each recording period and within each knowledge area was different, the raw totals of instances of any one feature each could not be compared. Percentages of the features were calculated, which made it possible to compare periods or knowledge areas in terms of densities of the features concerned. In the case of text features, the percentages were calculated out of the total number of words, or referring items in the text; in the case of functional features, the percentages were out of the total number of discourse units.

When calculating percentages for periods, the discourse units in all the dialogues in each period were added together, and calculated as a percentage for each dialogue to be averaged for each period. This method of treating all dialogues in one period as one text, for the purpose of calculations, avoided unusual results in one dialogue giving a false impression of the general characteristics of one period. Unusual distributions could occur at any level and be of any size: a sentence long, an exchange long or half an hour's dialogue long.

Knowledge areas were measured by counting discourse units rather than words, in order to facilitate a comparison between knowledge area information and information in the other function fields. Measurement by density out of all words was kept for the textual calculations for grammatical and lexical elements, and other implicit features, because several of these could occur within one discourse unit.

Excel was also used for calling up lines that contained *two* features, each from a different field, that were being analysed when they occurred together. Functional features and discourse units with text features were called up using the Excel database options "set criteria" and "set extract". For example, Excel could search for the occurrences of general words in the text (tagged in field 7) in lines that occurred on a topic shift (labelled in field 4). It could search for the occurrences of proper nouns in the text in lines that contained a reference to shared interpersonal knowledge (field 2). It could find the occurrences of non-anaphoric pronouns in lines of text containing humour (the latter labelled in field 3). The advantage of using the Excel database is

that it saves the lines selected and listed, and these can be kept in a file to be used for a further database search within them.

Lexico-grammatical text features on their own were counted using the "find" option of Word for Windows. This sometimes meant transferring an Excel file, made as a result of calling up lines that contained two features, back to Word with a text format. The Word "find" option is more suited to the purposes of counting than the Excel individual word "find" formula because, unlike Excel, Word leaves the dialogue box on the screen once it has found the word and this permits a speedy progression to the next instances of the word.

Once all the densities had been calculated and the comparisons made, the significance of some of the results was tested using the chi-squared tests.

### **3.5 TESTS**

#### **3.5.1 Intercoder Reliability Tests**

Once all the dialogues had been tagged, the intercoder reliability of the code was tested, in order to check the functioning of this part of the code and to see whether other language teachers and linguists who used the categories to code the data would code it the same as the researcher did.

Three excerpts, each about 30 discourse units long, were taken: 25%, 50% and 75% of the way through the data, each excerpt starting at the beginning of a new topic. Linguists and EFL teachers (DAL and IALS members of staff and DAL PhD students) were asked to read an explanation of each part of the code and then to tag each referring expression or label each discourse unit in the three short excerpts which had been printed for them to read but not selected for them to listen to. A total of 30 testers took part in testing the various parts of the code.

The Kappa test (the number of right answers minus the estimated score divided by total number of questions minus the estimated score) was used to calculate how closely their understanding and use of the code corresponded to the researcher's intentions and use of the code. The results of the Kappa intercoder reliability tests on the various parts of the code are given in Chapters 4 to 8, when those parts of the code and the results of the analysis are discussed.

### 3.5.2 Triangulation

At the end of the course, the six recordees were invited to dinner at the researcher's house, to be rewarded for their patient co-operation, and to provide triangulation that might confirm whether her conclusions about them were correct. For the triangulation, the six recordees were invited to participate in an unguided informal conversation and to complete a questionnaire on some of the very dialogues in which they had participated (see Appendix V for the questionnaire).

A detailed discussion of this test follows in Chapter 9. In the present chapter, discussion will be limited to the issue of their relationships in order to show that the six were indeed representative of all students in the MSc group.

Observation of over-dinner-talk confirmed the researcher's impressions about the relationships within the group. They did not constitute an exclusive group of six but an open group of four (BM, DM, AF and BF) plus two (AM and CM) who had chosen, for whatever reason, to interact with the other four. The six recordees had maintained their interaction with each other throughout the year despite the fact that AM had taken different option courses from the other five, and AF had only done one option course, being a part-timer. They had done "friendly things in friendly places": they had all gone out together (AM and CM included) on several occasions for a drink.

As a result of their interaction, the recordees were close enough to share a great deal of interpersonal knowledge about each other: they knew about each other's spouses, problems at home, and arrangements for future employment. They cohered as a group in that they seemed to share a sense of humour, and showed solidarity over dinner by making each other laugh and responding with laughter to each other's funny comments.

The recordees claimed that they did not consider themselves to be an exclusive group since they had spent time with other colleagues just as much as with each other. On average, the recordees had interacted frequently (at least ten to fifteen minutes three times a week) with about eight students out of the whole course: five NSs (three of the six recordees and two others) and three NNSs. Seven of the 10 NSs who were not

the chosen recordees had interacted frequently with at least one of the six recordees. Of the 18 NNSs, 11 had interacted frequently with at least one of the six recordees.

As far as the MSc group dynamics is concerned, the recordees said that they had entered the course knowing that they would be with their colleagues only for a year. The friendship parameter of commitment did not seem to apply to the students: only AM and BM said that they would like to keep in touch with each other after the course. The only parameter of friendship that they admitted was frequency of interaction in the department. They said that they had felt unable to develop any friendships very far because of separating off into option courses; it had been difficult to associate with many of the people whom they had met in the first term consistently all through the year, therefore.

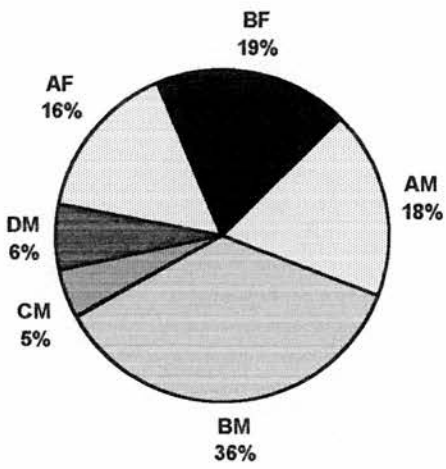
Comments by the six recordees on the language that they had used with all MSc students (see Chapter 9) suggest that the interaction within this group of six is representative of interaction between the native speakers of English and all other members of the MSc course. The six did not constitute an exclusive micro-in-group.

During the analysis that was carried out *after* the triangulation evening, a calculation was made of the distribution of discourse units spoken by each of the six recordees in each of the three periods (see Figure 6) in order to check that the distribution of the six recordees was approximately the same in each of the three periods, and so as to be able to refer to this distribution during the discussion of results. It was necessary to determine to what extent results were influenced by personality; whether, for example, a feature of the language studied occurred frequently in one period because it was a characteristic of a certain recordee who featured most in that period.

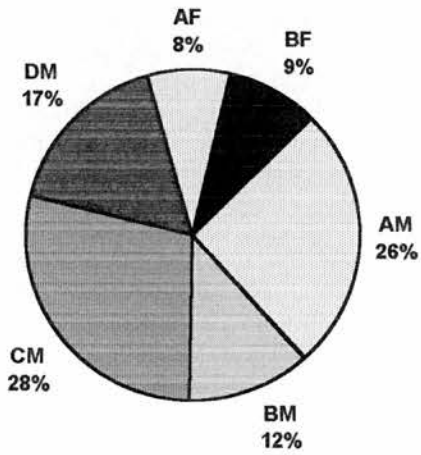
A discussion the characteristics of the recordees occurs throughout Chapters 4 to 8 when particular tendencies are seen with relation to the features under examination. The results in fact show that the six recordees' individualities do not cause particular tendencies to develop in the data that could make the findings not generalisable to any group of native speakers of English.

**Figure 6 : Proportion of discourse units spoken by each of the six recordees**

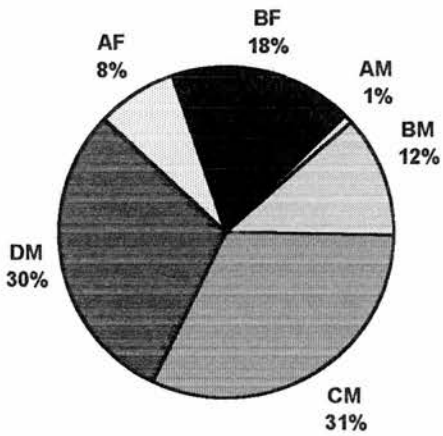
Period 1



Period 2



Period 3



### 3.5.3 Impenetrability Test

When the results of the analysis were being interpreted and tendencies were emerging, questionnaires containing questions on excerpts of the recorded data, similar to the questionnaires for the six recordees themselves, were given to three groups of subjects: ex-MSc students, English teachers with no experience of DAL, and non-English teachers (see Appendix VI for the questionnaire). The aim was to examine whether implicitness is responsible for an outsider being excluded from the dialogues, and whether impenetrability increases with implicitness, and to discover whether there are degrees of outsidership.

Chapter 9 contains a detailed explanation and a statistical analysis of the results of the impenetrability test. Suffice it to say here that the test shows that anyone who has taken an MSc course in DAL but not the 1991-2 MSc course is an outsider to the 1991-92 in-group because he does not have shared interpersonal knowledge of the 1991-2 students. It also shows that anyone who has never taken an MSc in DAL is an outsider to the discourse community of the DAL MSc course members and staff.

## 3.6 METHODOLOGICAL CONSIDERATIONS

### 3.6.1 Problems Of Recording

At the very beginning, it was difficult to record for more than fifteen minutes because there was a great deal of movement of students coming in and out of the common room; they did not sit and talk at length. Time was lost moving the recorder to new groups when the conversations ended, which they did fast at the beginning of the course. After about a month, it was possible to obtain half an hour of recording with ease: the students tended to sit for longer conversing in their breaks. Because all the students went to the same lectures, however, the common room was always full and the result was a high level of background noise.

In the spring term, the students did not come in for the same lectures because they had divided into the option courses. This separated them into smaller groups and the six recordees eventually chosen for study were ones who had a number of option courses in common. This meant that there was less "coming and going" and less background noise. Although students continued to sit conversing at length, they were generally spending less time in the department, having by then the pressure of the

portfolio exam in addition to the pressure to complete projects. By the summer term, they were even more independent and concentrating on their individual study, which meant that they sat chatting together less, but by dint of waiting patiently the researcher was able to obtain half an hour's recording a week then too.

The decision to make the recordings spontaneous left the researcher somewhat at the mercy of the recordedees, therefore, but it did give them the option not to be recorded and to avoid her if they saw her in the common room.

Most recordings contain no conversation openings or endings. The recorder could only be produced once the conversations were well under way. Putting the recorder on the table *before* the students had started speaking either "froze" them or made the opening of the conversation stilted and unnatural. On one occasion, two students actually tried in vain to start a conversation for the researcher, and then one turned round and apologised, "I'm sorry, Joan. We can't do this." Very few conversation endings were obtained either, partly because the recorder could only be left with the students as long as they could tolerate it, but mainly because students tended not to end their conversation in the common room but take it with them as they walked out the door to climb the stairs to the lecture hall or go out of the building. Conversations rarely ended inside the common room: there was not *a* conversation (countable) but conversation (uncountable) or an ongoing conversing activity. If one or two speakers left a group, the rest continued the conversation; other students then joined those left in the group and the conversation evolved. What started and ended was not the conversation but the topics within the conversations.

One minor difficulty of recording the same people over such a long period was that since they saw the researcher in the department, they asked her about the results and conclusions, partly through politeness, it would seem, and partly through justified curiosity. Careful not to influence the future as yet unrecorded data, she had to hedge and generalise so as not to allow them to be conscious of any particular feature. She also had to resist the temptation to check hypotheses and obtain relevant information from recordedees, for the same reason. She did not avoid all social contact with all students, on the other hand. On the contrary, it was necessary to win their confidence so as to make them more at ease with the recorder and to maintain their co-operation during such a long study.

### 3.6.2 Effect Of The Cassette-Recorder

Not using a video camera meant that valuable paralinguistic features were lost which would have been indicators of group cohesion and attitude. Body position, gestures, eye-contact, distance from the speaker would have indicated the degree of intimacy and added meaning to the words. Cassette recording does supply some verbal paralinguistic features such as backchannelling, non-verbal sounds and laughter. Fortunately, information about body position, gestures and verbal paralinguistic features was not needed for analysis because the study concentrates on linguistic features of the text.

The cassette recorder can make interactors self-conscious and thus affect the data. As Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) say, "As soon as one puts a tape-recorder into a situation it is no longer strictly private" but that it is usually possible to be aware whether "the interaction is directly aimed at a second audience." (p.115). The recorder is a fixed bystander who is viewed with suspicion because it might later tell tales and offend those who were not supposed to hear.

In this study, the effects of the cassette-recorder were not felt in any way that could falsify the findings. The students did not know the exact aim of the recording; they were told that an analysis of the changes in their language over time would be made. Even if they had known that the study centred on vague grammatical items, it is unlikely that they could have consciously used them more or less in the flow of spontaneous conversation over a period of thirty minutes.

When the recording started, the students appeared slightly uncomfortable. Their speech was a little hesitant, and there were minor phonological changes. In the triangulation questionnaire that was given to the six recordees at the end of the year (see section 3.5.2), they were asked whether they felt that their speech had been affected by the cassette-recorder. Two of them said that they were conscious of it affecting them but only phonologically: BM felt "a hint of performance creeping into [his] speech" and AF had been aware of her "slightly more careful enunciation".

However, this discomfort and self-conscious speech is typical of the beginning of a course of study, with or without a recorder. Speakers are less relaxed in the company of strangers than they are in the company of people that they know. They are hesitant because they do not want to impose and do not know their interlocutors' backgrounds

and opinions and attitudes. They use careful enunciation and "perform" because they want to create a good first impression. The effect of the tape-recorder at the beginning of recording cannot be separated from the effect of being at the beginning of the course itself, therefore.

There are only five occasions in all the data on which the cassette recorder is referred to, and then it is indirectly, and the references are all humorous. Two of them are metalinguistic: the students refer to how they should speak for the recorder. In the first, they pretend to be about to sabotage the recording:

e.g.: 07004 BF I-I think we should em ((2))  
 07005 BM Do we=  
 → 07006 BF **show what happens when discourse breaks down.** // (heh heh heh)  
 07007 BM // Aah! (0.5)  
 → 07008 BM **Someone hog the whole conversation ((0.5))**  
 07009 NF No let's say // something that makes sense like  
 → 07010 BF // Yeah **say something rude.**

(Bold is used in examples in this thesis to highlight the lines or words that are of special interest and illustrate a point being made). In the second example, they express their discomfort at having the recorder there:

e.g.:→ 26005 CM **You don't feel at all inhibited about what you're saying there do you?**  
 26006 CM No. (heh heh)  
 26007 CM I do. ((4))

As far as the influence of the cassette-recorder on the choice of topic is concerned, it would appear that the effect is minimal. There is a lack of self-disclosure, a revealing of very intimate personal details, but although this may be partly explained by the fact that recordees monitor what they talk about because of it going down on permanent record, it is also partly explained by the fact that, even without the cassette-recorder, self disclosure is rarely DAL "common room talk" because the room itself dictates more public topics. In the triangulation questionnaire, recordees were asked if they spoke at all on the topic of their personal life and feelings to each other. The male recordees said that they never spoke to any of their colleagues on the topic, and the female recordees said that this topic was reserved for those eight or so colleagues with whom they interacted frequently and at length. This topic did however emerge in all the recordings and it was analysed.

Self disclosure in the sense of revealing something *negative* about oneself is kept to a minimum, possibly because the students are aware of the recorder and possibly

because, with or without the recorder, they prefer to save their face in front of their colleagues. Speech act analysis of the data does show, however, that negative evaluations of self increase over time (see Chapter 8). A situation such as the following of a student leaning away from the recorder and speaking unintelligibly so as not to record something about themselves that might be seen badly is exceedingly rare:

- e.g.: 17002 CM How's your project going?  
 17003 BM **((unintelligible : whispered))** I tried to write the introduction over the weekend. **((unintelligible : whispered))**.  
 17004 CM Yeah I always write those last.

One of the five occasions on which the recorder is referred to is the following exchange in which the speaker humorously saves his face, having admitted how slowly he is progressing with his project:

- e.g.: 15034 CM I like to think I pace myself but it's more like I'm procrastinating.  
 15035 DM That's right yeah. ((2))  
 → 15036 CM **Oh I didn't realise that was on tape.**  
 15037 DM Yeah.  
 15038 DM Yeah. (heh) ((3))  
 → 15039 CM **I'm a very hard worker.** // (heh heh)  
 15040 DM // (heh heh heh heh heh)  
 → 15041 CM **Can't remember the last time I handed in anything late.**  
 15042 DM (heh heh // heh heh)  
 → 15043 CM // **Usually it's three months early.**  
 15044 DM (heh heh) Right. (8)

Casual observation of common room conversations, when the cassette-recorder was *not* present, gave the impression that as the course progressed, students sometimes made strong overt negative evaluations about aspects of the course and staff. In the triangulation questionnaire, two of recordees seemed to feel that the presence of the cassette recorder had limited their ability to express attitudes towards third parties: BF said that at first she was "more careful who she talked about" and CM said that the recorder made him "careful what [he said] about whom". In the following example, one of the occasions when the recorder is referred to indirectly, the students evaluate a member of staff negatively and then humorously pretend to cover up the topic:

- e.g.: 12198 AM I think you need to I mean you know what she's like.  
 12199 AM She's really fanatic.  
 12200 AM So that if you don't // get it it  
 12201 NF // (heh heh) (0.5) (heh heh heh) ((0.5))  
 12202 AM Aha.  
 → 12203 CM **But a good teacher all the same.**  
 → 12204 AM **A wonderful teacher yes.** (heh heh heh) (0.5)

It is not unusual for recordees to be unaware of what they have talked about over a period of time, however. Analysis of speech acts of the data showed that even when the recorder was present, there was an increase in negative evaluations of situations and third parties in topics about the course.

The recorder had not limited the students' ability to express their opinions openly. The cassette-recorder is responsible for only one abrupt topic shift in the data. This is one of the indirect references to the recorder, mentioned above, and it consists of a drastic shift from the face-threatening topic of how badly prepared an invited lecturer was, to the safer topic of how CM's wife makes tapestry handbags:

- e.g.:
- 13035 AM So I just wondered how well he understands it himself. (1)
  - 13036 AM Cos I got the impression the other guy was a bit of a maniac. ((6))
  - 13037 CM **That's a nice bag.**
  - 13038 CM **My wife makes bags like that.**
  - 13039 CM With that fabric.
  - 13040 CM That kind of paper sheet on it.
  - 13041 AM (suppressed heh heh heh heh) With pieces like carpet?

One effect that the cassette-recorder might have had is in the students' choice of referring expression, when they were expressing attitudes towards third parties. In the data, there are a number of occasions in which students refer to people, generally members of staff, by using a non-anaphoric personal pronoun or a general noun rather than using a proper name. In the example of the abrupt topic shift quoted above, the lecturer who was considered "a bit of a maniac" is not referred to by his name but with the general noun "guy". In the example of a negative evaluation quoted above, the member of staff who was "really fanatic" is only ever referred to as "she". In the following example, "she" is the only referring expression used to refer to the member of staff responsible for the lecture that they are waiting to go to:

- e.g.:
- 15112 AF I have difficulty getting my brain going first thing in the morning.
  - 15113 DM **She** certainly fills- fills it up doesn't she?
  - 15114 DM **She's** got lots of things to tell you I'm sure.

The non-anaphoric personal pronoun and the general noun are both features of the implicit language of the in-group that is the object of this study. They are but two of a large group of general, non-contentful language features that characterise the in-group code. They also occur in contexts in which negative evaluations are not being made and when identities do not need to be hidden. They cannot be said, therefore, to be solely a product of the presence of the recorder. They are also a product of the

students interacting over a period of time with other members of the same group with whom they share in-group and interpersonal knowledge.

Over the weeks, the students became accustomed to being recorded and paid little attention. In the triangulation questionnaire, most of the recordees claimed to have stopped being bothered by it soon after the beginning: AM wrote that the recorder had not affected his speech at all "after the first recording"; BF's answer was similar: "After the first few times not at all"; and DM wrote that it "initially made [him] self-conscious" but that it "later didn't make much difference." Only BM said that he had been "aware of the recorder" without saying when he got used to it; certainly, as the year advanced, he avoided it more and more.

The ease of most recordees with the recorder in front of them can be seen apart from the open-ness of their expression of their personal opinions and evaluations, in their free use of slang and expletives and the joking and playing with language. It can also be appreciated in features that this study has not examined, such as speed of delivery and variety of pitch.

### **3.6.3 Exclusion Of Non-Native Speakers Of English**

As was explained in section 3.3.2 about the selection of recordings, NNS conversations were omitted from the analysis. NNSs tended to speak so quietly and indistinctly, possibly from lack of confidence in the language, that transcription was not easy and became patchy. However, this was not reason for not including NNSs in the study.

The reason for omitting them was that conversations containing NNSs showed a lack of cultural background knowledge of Britain. In the analysed data, 21% of hitches (interruptions in the flow of communication) were caused by NNSs, which is significant considering that they occupied only 5.7% of all discourse units. The main reason for these hitches was lack of background knowledge of British culture. As Cook (1989) says, "Misjudgements and mismatches of schemata are particularly likely when people try to communicate across cultures and across languages" (p.74). NSs obviously have hitches in communication (see Chapter 7) but they are not caused by a lack of background knowledge of British culture. It was not convenient to have NNS knowledge problems clouding the picture of the NS in-group language, even though their presence in the common-room is a natural part of MSc life.

Moreover, the NNS-centred conversations that were omitted contained grammatical and lexical features that were not present in predominantly NS conversations. Minor problems were that NNSs occasionally used vocabulary and grammar inappropriately, and that NSs talking to NNSs often had to explain words, repeat and ask for repetition more than they would if speaking to NSs. Some NNS lacked knowledge of the meanings of idiomatic language and the ability to appreciate humorous neologisms. There is an example of a breakdown in communication in the analysed data that occurs because a NNS has to ask for the meaning of a word which the NS modified playfully:

e.g.: 07036 BM But I haven't got the thingymajog in my em=  
 /.../ 07039 BF Thingymajog!  
 → 07040 NF **What's that?**  
 → 07041 NF **A jog?**  
 07042 BF It-it should be thingymajig. (0.5)  
 07043 BF It means thingy. (0.5)  
 07044 BF When you can't find the right word.  
 07045 NF // Ah.

Such hitches had to be kept to a minimum, especially as vague language is at the centre of this study.

The most important reason for omitting NNS conversations on the grounds of their different grammatical and lexical features was that there was no way of ascertaining whether NNSs would use in the same way as NSs do the in-group language features that this study aims to examine: reference and ellipsis, vague lexis, and humorous conversational implicature. As Trask (1995) points out, different languages demand different degrees of explicitness: native Australians avoid vagueness whereas speakers of Malagasy are reluctant to be explicit, preferring non-committal vagueness.

A further reason why NNS-centred conversations were omitted was that they contained functional features that were not present in predominantly NS conversations. Levinson (1978) talks of misunderstanding that can happen if the speaker is using a foreign language. He says that his politeness principles model "puts into perspective the ways in which societies are *not* the same interactionally, and the innumerable possibilities for cross-cultural misunderstandings that arise." (p.253). NNS brought to their conversations different discourse features such as pauses and interruptions, presumably transferred from their mother tongue, and, more importantly, their own cultural rules as regards speech act realisations and politeness and cooperative principles.

To have kept in NNS conversations would have added a whole new dimension to the study: that of Second Language Acquisition. As Hatch (1983) says, "While speech acts may be universal, the range of ways of expressing each differs from language to language" (p.xii). Obedience of NS politeness and cooperative principles is a sensitive issue. Beebe points out:

"Second language learners may never attain native-like proficiency to the best of their ability because they may find that the reward of being fluent in the target language is not worth the cost in lost identification and solidarity with their own native language group." (1988: 63)

Obviously even the NSs had minor differences: they were Canadian, Irish, Scottish, English and Welsh, but these differences were not great enough to affect the data.

There are examples in the analysed data of NNSs' lack of competence with British speech act realisations and politeness principles causing a hitch. In the following, a NNS intends to ask for an explanation of the meaning of a word but the form that she uses is interpreted as a check that she has heard correctly. They are talking about the portfolio take-home exam:

e.g.:

13163	AM	So they expect quite long answers.
13164	AM	I mean not like like the exam.
13165	AM	Three hours.
→ 13166	NF	<b>Long answers?</b>
13167	CM	Long answers.
→ 13168	NF	<b>How- how long?</b>
13169	FF	It depends.
13170	FF	They - they haven't decided how long you've got to do it yet.

The analysis of speech acts and politeness principles is central to this study, which is why unsuccessful realisations by NNSs because of the lack of cultural background have been omitted.

In the analysed data, there are a few examples of hitches in communication caused by the NNSs' lack of familiarity with topic end discourse markers, and possible turn-taking points. Gumperz talks of misunderstandings as a feature of interethnic communication. He says that those who speak English well in terms of grammar may not all understand discourse cues correctly:

"Accordingly, their assumptions about what information is to be conveyed, how it is to be ordered and put into words and their ability to fill in the un verbalized information they need to make sense of what transpires may also vary." (Gumperz 1982:172).

As Cook (1989) says, "Entering and leaving conversation, bidding for a longer turn, refusing without appearing rude, changing the topic, are all notoriously difficult for language learners" (p.57). Since the language of topic shifts was to be analysed in this study, such problems at topic shifts had to be kept to a minimum.

One final observation to be made about NNSs, based on a general impression of the analysed data, is that the humour of the NSs seems to exclude NNSs from relating closely with them, when the NSs are playing centre stage. Humour is one of the most culture-specific areas of language. In the data, NNSs occupy only 2.96% of discourse units containing humour; again this is significant considering that they do occupy 5.7% of all discourse units. This study tests the hypothesis that the use of and response to certain types of humour is a way of claiming in-group membership. This is why those who have a different cultural background and who might not share the form of humour should not be central to the study.

NNSs very rarely initiate humorous exchanges, when NSs play centre stage; they are more likely to join in a humorous exchange already established by a NS. Mostly, NNSs do not contribute to the humour at all but simply respond with laughter. This is fine if an utterance is intended to provoke laughter, but if, on the other hand, the speaker intends to say something serious and happens to give his words a coating of humour or does not even intend to be light-hearted, and the NNS laughs because he thinks that the speaker intends to be funny and entertain, he shows himself to be out of touch with the mood of the group. In the following, NF interprets a comment expressing a serious concern as something that can be laughed about. The NSs are discussing the disadvantages of going on to a higher degree:

e.g.: 27053 DM You have to live like a student as well // for three years.  
 → 27054 NF // (heh heh heh)  
 27055 CM Yeah. (1)  
 27056 CM Which is not as fun as living like a worker for two years.  
 27057 DM No.

### 3.7 CONCLUSION

This chapter has described the method of data collection and data analysis. As far as data collection is concerned, the system of recording with a cassette-recorder, although a little problematic, was systematic, overt and spontaneous. As far as data analysis is concerned, the parts of the data analysed were the ones with six selected NSs playing centre stage. The data was transcribed in discourse units and then the



textual and functional features were coded and analysed quantitatively and qualitatively. The tests performed checked the reliability of the coding system and showed that the six recordees were a representative group of the MSc student body.

## CHAPTER 4 : KNOWLEDGE AREAS

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### 4.1 INTRODUCTION

This study of the language of MSc students in the Applied Linguistics common room contains an examination of the way that knowledge and topic areas change with interaction over time and the way that this affects the language used, as well an analysis of the function of referring to common knowledge. Brown and Levinson (1978) state that to claim opinions, attitudes and knowledge in common with the hearer, the speaker may assert common ground, and this is a positive politeness strategy.

This chapter opens with a review of the literature that explores the relationship between common knowledge and levels of intimacy, and between topics and language. The chapter then defines private, common and shared knowledge. For the present study, a definition of certain common knowledge areas (henceforth K areas) was needed in order to analyse the language in each K area. It was necessary to divide the common background knowledge that the MSc students have into parts so as to build an analysable model and compare the type of language used when each K area was assumed. The chapter shows the relationship between the various K areas, and the particular characteristics of the shared interpersonal knowledge within each K area.

#### 4.1.1 Review Of The Literature

Most linguists, sociologists and psychologists have made reference to the fact that all conversations are based on an assumption of some common background knowledge. Cook (1989), for example, remarks that "a successful communicator is a person who correctly assesses the state of knowledge of his or her interlocutor" (p.64). Once a speaker is sure that his hearer has the necessary background knowledge for what he is going to say, he can introduce something new. This new information becomes part of the background knowledge for the next utterance and all that follows; as Cook says, "communication might be defined as the conversion of new information into given information." The accumulation of given, and new converted into given builds up to form a presupposition pool (Venneman 1975). The assumed knowledge may be

"given" and "in the consciousness of the addressee at the time of utterance" (Chafe 1976) or "known" but "unused" (Prince 1981), in the sense that it was not in the hearer's consciousness.

Knowledge can have three types of status. It can be private, common or shared interpersonal knowledge. The present thesis examines only the common and the shared interpersonal knowledge. Private knowledge is that which each interlocutor has about himself and which he is most likely right in assuming that few others know. This cannot be analysed as background knowledge but only observed, if it is revealed, as new knowledge which will consequently become shared interpersonal privileged knowledge. Common knowledge is "knowledge acquired separately" (Kreckel 1981). It is knowledge of the world, of which every speaker has different amounts. As Wardhaugh (1985) quite rightly says, "in any conversation the participants will have different kinds of knowledge about almost any topic that is likely to be mentioned" (p.18). Shared interpersonal knowledge is "knowledge acquired in mutual interaction" (Kreckel 1981). It is acquired through previous verbal interactions or joint activities and experiences and it includes privileged knowledge about the interlocutor. According to Kreckel, it is the speakers' knowledge of interactions in the past and the perspective of continued interactions in the future, that leads to group cohesion.

Three levels of shared interpersonal knowledge about the interlocutor are proposed by Berger and Bradac (1982). The lowest is the descriptive level: knowledge about physical details and past history of the person. This is what Planalp and Benson (1992) call mutual knowledge or "basic demographic information about each other" and "each other's habits and dispositions", "each other's activities, schedules and plans" and "people, events or places" referred to without an explanation of who, what or where they were (p.497). The next level is the predictive: knowledge about what a person's beliefs and attitudes are that allow the interlocutor to predict how he would react in a given situation. The highest level is the explanatory level at which the interactor is able to explain why a person reacts the way he does.

The present thesis examines how knowledge changes with interaction over time. Few linguists, sociologists and psychologists have made much more than a superficial analysis of this. Coulthard (1977) refers to knowledge as part of an ongoing process:

"Common ground is not restricted to shared experiences of a particular

linguistic interaction up to the moment of utterance; rather it is a product of the interpenetrating biographies of the participants, of which common involvement in a particular ongoing interaction constitutes only a part." (p.106)

Sigman (1983) states that the analyst of discourse "must be able to make reference to conversations engaged in over time, that is to discourse embedded in a continuous social relationship" (p.181) in order to analyse conversations, since "the significance of any one interactional engagement is regulated by the larger ongoing social process" (p.182). Neither of these two have analysed exactly what knowledge changes and how it changes. The present thesis explores the way that common background knowledge changes with interaction over time.

Change in common knowledge *has* been dealt with in terms of levels of intimacy, but what abound are descriptions of product, or knowledge at a given time, rather than ones of process, or how knowledge changes from one time to another. Wardhaugh is one of the more aware: "Opening up a conversation with a complete stranger is obviously a somewhat risky endeavour - there are so many unknown quantities." (1985: 118). He explains that if speakers are virtual strangers, unsure of each others' background, they must proceed cautiously and attempt to find some common ground on which to manoeuvre. Brown and Levinson say that if speakers are strangers, common ground may be reduced to "an assumption of common interest in good weather or other such safe topic; if they are close friends it may extend to close identity of interests and desires" (1978: 64) and "The more the speaker knows about the hearer, the more close to home will be the safe topics he can pursue." (ibid.:112). Planalp and Benson's (1992) found "mutual knowledge" to be the most common parameter that subjects used in order to distinguish between friends' (defined people known for at least a year) and acquaintances' (defined as people not talked with more than once) conversations.

The present thesis explores how different types of knowledge affect the language used to refer to it. The effect of the topic area on the language used and way of talking *has* been examined in the literature. Giles and Powesland (1975) have found that "the topic of conversation in social interaction can be influential in determining speech modifications when the subject matter is high on one or more of the following dimensions; salience, emotionality, technicality, abstraction and humorousness" (p.122). The dimension of salience was examined by Matarazzo (1970) and he found that students increased their mean utterance duration when discussing education or their studies. Kanfer (1960) investigated the aspect of emotionality and found that

anxiety topics affected his subjects' speech rate and accent. The dimension of technicality was researched by Moscovici (1967) who found that a car specialist discussing cars with another specialist used a greater variety of words and more technical terms than with a non-specialist. Ratner and Rice (1963) found that speakers talking to poorly informed listeners on a technical topic used more words, repetitions and complete descriptions than they did with well-informed listeners. Familiarity with topic was investigated by Goldman-Eisler (1968) who showed that if a speaker was more familiar with a topic, his speech contained fewer pauses and a quicker articulation rate. Work on the dimension of abstraction was carried out by Lawton (1965) who found that the more abstract the topic, the more complex the grammatical structure. Exploring the dimension of humorousness Giles (1977) found that with a humorous topic, speakers were less hesitant, and used a non-standard accent, less precise enunciation and varied tempo and pitch more than with a non-humorous topic. All these studies offer a specific description of one particular aspect. The present thesis includes the grammatical and lexical elements mentioned here and adds more to make a more complete description.

#### 4.1.2 Hypotheses

Although all students do not come from similar backgrounds, some of the background knowledge that they bring to the course is common, since most of them are linguists and/or language teachers, and the background knowledge of the course itself, which is obviously common to them all, grows over time.

The hypotheses with regard to K areas were that:

1. *Over time, topics drawing on knowledge of the MSc course increase*
2. *Over time, sections of conversations assuming shared interpersonal knowledge increase.*

These are the tendencies that struck the researcher sitting in the common room in the spring and summer terms in the MSc course. The global impression was that, as time passed, course-members seemed to talk about the course to the exclusion of all else. It may be that as the pressure of work, in the form of exams and projects, increases, as it does in periods 2 and 3, so the discourse community in-group members need to show solidarity with and seek support from each other by talking more about the situation and events that unite them.

## 4.2 METHOD

### 4.2.1 Categories

For the purposes of this study, assumed knowledge areas should not be confused with topics. The K area is the area of taken-for-granted knowledge, the background knowledge on which the topic depends for its comprehension, the field from which parts of the topic, however new, are drawn. The topic is the subject of the speaker's conversation; he assumes that his listener has the background knowledge to understand what he is talking about. A full definition of topic and sub-topic is given in the explanation of topic shift categorisation in Chapter 7.

Knowledge can be seen as an indivisible whole; it can also be divided up and categorised in as many different ways as there are analysts to divide it up. In that sense, the K area categories are dictated by the researcher's vision of the data and objective of analysing the relationship between K areas and language. The four K areas were established to test the hypothesis that there is an increase in topics drawing on knowledge of the MSc course over time, and in topics based shared interpersonal knowledge, which were assumed to occur within all four of the K areas. Above all, the establishing of K areas was needed in order to study implicit language and function, and to observe changes in these elements within each K area over the three periods.

#### 4.2.1.1 Knowledge areas

- **Definition**

The four assumed K areas were labelled K1, K2, K3 and K4. K1 is general knowledge of the world, including Edinburgh but excluding the University. K2 is general knowledge of language teaching (and university study in general, computing as an aid, etc.). K3 is knowledge of The University of Edinburgh (EU), The Department of Applied Linguistics (DAL) and The Institute for Applied Language Studies (IALS) (specific parts of the university, the physical here and now of DAL, scholarships and teaching in IALS). K3 does not include knowledge of any course components; it is knowledge of the university buildings and what they contain. K4 is knowledge of this particular MSc year (programme deadlines, specific tasks, specific study groups, particular books and articles, special ways of referring to courses, students). These areas were grouped according to course-relatedness, as can be seen in Figure 1.

**Figure 1 : Knowledge areas**

<b>non course K areas</b>	
<b>K1</b>	the world
<b>K2</b>	language teaching and study
<b>K3</b>	Edinburgh university, DAL and IALS
<b>course K area</b>	
<b>K4</b>	1991-92 MSc year

The following is a list of examples of topics in the data in the K areas. Numbers identify dialogues. For the complete list of topics, see Appendix III.

### **K1 : The World, Including Edinburgh (Excluding The University).**

#### **World and TV**

- 11 What happened in a TV serial.
- 19 What the sea pollution is like in the Mediterranean and Japan.

#### **Edinburgh and Scottish traditions**

- 4 What happens on Edinburgh buses.
- 8 How BF spent her Hogmanay in Edinburgh.

#### **Speakers' homes and habits**

- 15 What CM's budgie does in the living-room.
- 21 How AF wastes time in the evening at home.

#### **Speakers' families**

- 21 Why AF's social life is limited by her son and why he is growing so fast.
- 23 How DM's wife and BF's husband affect their financial situation.

#### **Speakers' trips, outings and entertainments**

- 11 Why AM did not go for a meal after the pub; where BF went after the meal.
- 14 Why DM did not climb a mountain in Pitlochry.

#### **Meanings of words**

- 7 What "thingamajig" means.
- 9 What the origin of AM's name is.

### **K2: Language Teaching, Studying At Any University (Excluding Edinburgh University), Using Computers.**

#### **Language teaching**

- 1 Where AM, BM, and CM have taught English before coming to Edinburgh.
- 22 Why DM and BF had difficulty introducing innovations in language schools abroad.

**Studying at university**

- 10 What the exam questions were like in CM and DM's undergraduate courses.
- 18 What the mnemonics for MSc and PhD are.

**Computers for study**

- 9 How CM uses the tabling feature on Microsoft Word.
- 26 How BM can solve his layout problem by changing software.

**K3: Edinburgh University (EU), The Department Of Applied Linguistics (DAL), And The Institute For Applied Language Studies (IALS).****EU**

- 4 Whether BF's house is convenient for the department and King's Buildings.
- 28 Why BF's husband did not apply for the PhD

**IALS/DAL here and now**

- 3 Whether AM has time to go to the DAL common room and get a coffee.
- 15 Why BM and DM are shutting out the sunshine, in DAL common room, and where the key to the DAL photocopier is.

**Doing a PhD in DAL / working for IALS**

- 23 Why BF will not do a PhD in AL, and what happened to DM's application for IALS summer teaching.
- 28 Why BF is not interested in the IALS scholarship, whether she should apply, and what CM did about his proposal and interview for it.

**K4 : The 1991-1992 MSc (The Present Course)****Core and option courses**

- 13 Why understanding syntax is easier than it seemed in the core course.
- 15 What AM and DM think about the Psycholinguistics courses, and what options BM and DM are doing.

**Lectures and tutorials**

- 4 How much BF and BM read for the tutorial, whether they completed the task, and why BF did not copy down the examples in the lecture.
- 27 How many lectures CM is going to miss, whether DM could get him notes, and whether some lectures could be missed.

**Exam and portfolio**

- 10 What subjects CM and DM are studying for the exam, why, what CM was doing in the library, and how to study for the Linguistics question.
- 13 When and how long the portfolio is.

### Projects and dissertation

- 15 How far on CM and DM are with their projects, whether CM has filled in DM's project questionnaire, and what DM's tutor said about his project.
- 21 What DM should write his dissertation on.

### Books and articles

- 15 What CM and DM think about certain articles.
- 18 What reading shows about changing fashions in linguistics and teaching approaches.

In the coding the K areas, every discourse unit was not analysed individually and coded one by one. The K area was established for the duration of a whole sub-topic, wherever possible, and all discourse units within that sub-topic were coded in the same way. If there was only one discourse unit that drew from a K area that was different from the K area of the preceding and following discourse units, it was not indicated as different. In the following example, students are preparing to discuss a tutorial task sheet (K4). BM refers to his "free time" presumably at home, in the world outside the course (K1) to explain the present situation in the course. This one K1 unit (03054) is not coded K1 but K4, because of the surrounding units:

- e.g.: 03052 BM I wrote some- some lines here. ((1))  
 03053 NM That's fairly lengthy.  
 → 03054 BM **Ah but well I had I had a lot of free time!** (2)  
 03055 BM Um. (3)  
 03056 BM Oh yeah. (2)  
 03057 BM Where's my pen?

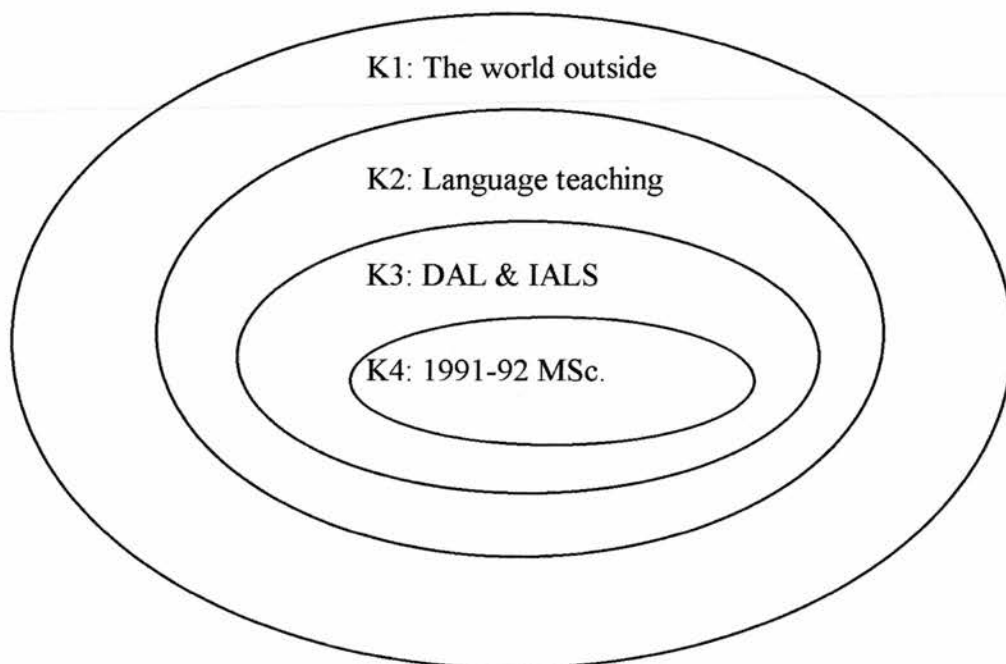
One limitation of trying to divide the data into four K areas is that one exchange could draw from more than one K area at a time. The predominant one was selected when more than one might have been assumed. An example of this is in the following excerpt, in which BM is typing up his project (K4 topic). This part was coded as K2 because the discussion focuses principally on the technical computer aspect of his problem:

- e.g.: 26032 CM Oh you want a table basically. (2)  
 26033 CM With lines.  
 26034 CM On one side of the table you have teacher's interaction and on the other side you have a description // of it  
 26035 BM // I want a table that has.  
 26036 CM You want a table.  
 26037 CM Can't get those on Works.  
 26038 CM You'd have to use Word for that.

- **Relationship between K areas**

The four K areas relate to each other as concentric circles. Figure 2 demonstrates how K4 is part of, or included in, K3, which is in turn included in K2, which is included in K1. The course itself takes place in the context of DAL and IALS; DAL and IALS are part of the language teaching and university study world; language teaching and university life are but a small part of the whole world.

**Figure 2 : K area concentric circles**



From the point of view of the topics, K3 topics are closest to K4 because K3 is knowledge about EU, DAL and IALS probably acquired since the students joined the MSc course. Even within K3 some topics are closer to K4 than others. The category of the "Here and now of IALS/DAL" topics is closer than that of EU since it requires knowledge of facilities and characteristics of the DAL MSc common room itself. The category of "Doing a PhD in AL and Working in IALS" is the closest since topics assume knowledge of IALS staff and the co-ordination between DAL and IALS to organise the scholarship selection process, and they assume knowledge of MSc option course subjects that can be developed to make an MLitt study. This last category is the closest to K4 yet it cannot be included within K4 because it is not about the course itself, but about an extension or a continuation of the course after it finishes.

K2 is not as close to K4 as K3 is because it contains knowledge that students had before the course, knowledge brought with them to the course: their past experiences of "Language Teaching" such as introducing innovations in English schools abroad, their memories of "Studying at University" such as answering exam questions in previous university courses, and general knowledge about using "Computers for Study" such as knowing the best software for a particular layout in a timetable or text processing. K2 is closer to K4 than K1 because K2 is knowledge of those parts of the outside world that are directly related to theory acquired in the course about linguistics and language teaching, and related to course components and activities such as sitting exams and writing projects.

K1 is the furthest from the course, although within this area some categories are closer to the course than others. Topics in the category of the "World and TV" such as current and past world events and world pollution, and topics in the category "Edinburgh and Scottish Traditions" such as what Edinburgh buses are like and how the Scots celebrate Easter, Christmas and Hogmanay have very little to do with the MSc course. Topics in the categories "Speakers' Homes and Habits", their "Families" and their "Trips, Outings and Entertainments" are closer to the course, in that they are about out-of-course situations and events that centre round course members, such as how their families affect their social life or financial situation, where they went with their spouses and children, and what happened during sports activities and outings with other course members. Such topics fall into the K1 shared interpersonal knowledge category.

The problem of how to visualise the interaction between the four K areas using concentric circles raised certain theoretical questions, although it did not actually affect either the coding or the data analysis in any way. The circles could have been reversed to have K4 on the outside and K1 on the inside. It was tempting to reverse them, given that all the participants of the dialogues are in fact the MSc students and not people outside the course. This way, the classification would have been in terms of an implication scale, starting from the perspective of the MSc student and looking inwards towards the knowledge of the world and seeing everything outside the course in terms of how it related to the course: the student world implies the outer general world.

The first reason for rejecting this reversed model was that it does not take into account the fact that, although *most* of the time students look at the world as it relates to the

course, the students' view of the world, their focus, does change over the three periods of the course. In period 1, students focus out on K2, their past experience of language teaching and how it is relevant to the course. In period 2 the focus is most of the time on K4, the course itself, and speakers see little else than the present. In period 3 they again focus out but this time to the future and K3, whether to continue to a higher degree after the course and whether to work in the Institute. The second concentric model resists this change of focus, treating *all* subjects as emerging through the focus on K4.

The second reason for rejecting it was that the concentric circles as they stand in Figure 2 demonstrate perfectly well the fact that most conversations depend to a certain extent on K4, or in-group knowledge. Each concentric circle is one stage away from the in-groupness, showing that in-group knowledge is gradable.

The third reason for rejecting the implication model is that it does not accommodate the notion of inaccessibility from the outside by non-course members. Impenetrability for the outsider is an aspect discussed in Chapter 9. The outsiders are in the different circles outside the course. The quality of outsidership is gradable.

Whereas K areas can be seen as relating to each other in concentric circles, topics relate in terms of networks, either cutting across K areas with relevance to two K areas at the topic shift point or relating within one K area. In the following example of a topic cutting across K areas, there is a main topic shift in unit 04087 at the same time as a move from one K area to another: the "world" discussion of Edinburgh buses moves to a "university" discussion about accommodation and teaching buildings:

e.g.: 04085 AF Really old buses too. ((1))  
 04086 BF Exactly yeah.  
 → 04087 AF **Where- where do you stay then BF? ((0.5))**  
 04088 BF It's a house opposite King's Buildings.  
 04089 AF Oh that's not too handy is it?

The relevance link between the two topics is that if BF lives far from DAL, she might need one of the "really old buses". In the following example, there is a shift to a new topic within one K area. Up to unit 10099, the topic had been "what questions to do in the exam"; at 10099, it shifts to "how DM is progressing with his project", all within the MSc course area, K4:

e.g.: 10095 DM Well that's the other reason I won't do an essay question.  
 10096 DM Just the sort of thing er physically memory=

- 10097 CM Yeah=  
 10098 DM you know takes so long you know. ((10)) ((CM yawns)) ((1.5))  
 → 10099 DM **What about your core project?**  
 10100 DM Have you=  
 10101 CM I:: drew up an outline for that.

Each K area was examined separately in these concentric circles in order to reflect the gradability of course-relatedness, but they were also grouped in the two macro-categories, course knowledge and non-course knowledge, in order to make a broad statement about K4. If the only analysis had been of only the four K areas in isolation, the picture might not have been so clear.

The question of where to put the dividing line between non-course and course topics was not a simple one, because everything is course-related in some way. The line could have come between K1 and K2/K3/K4; between K1/K2 and K3/K4; or between K1/K2/K3 and K4.

The K1 - K2/K3/K4 divide had its merits as a model. It seemed quite plausible to say that K1 is non-course and all the rest are course-related K areas. K1 is about the social world outside the studying environment of the course, but K2 and K3 are about aspects of the world that are closely related to the course. K2 and K3 are course-related in that K2 is related to the specialism of the participants in the course and K3 is knowledge of the physical surroundings and conditions of DAL and IALS in which the course takes place. K2, for example, contains a dialogue in which students analyse an experience of teaching English abroad using the theory acquired in the course, and another in which they explain how exam preferences in undergraduate courses influence exam techniques in the MSc course. K3 contains a dialogue in which students debate whether to convert the MSc to an MLitt with an IALS scholarship and discuss what MSc option subject could be developed for the MLitt.

This divide was not used, however, because even K1 can be said to be *course-related*. It contains topics about course members' activities: their pizza outings together, their squash games, their end-of-term party. Even the discussion about Edinburgh buses could be seen as stemming from talk about how they get in to DAL from their homes; and the discussion about Easter and Christmas stems from a concern about term dates and deadlines. Almost nothing discussed in the MSc common room can be said to be absolutely unrelated to the course.

To put the dividing line between K1, K2 and K3, K4 seemed more acceptable, if the first two are seen as "indirectly related" and the last two as "directly related" to the course. This divide would have been operational because what divides K2 from K3 is that K3 would only be known by someone who had once been an in-group member in another MSc course, whereas K2 could be known by anybody in the teaching world. K1 and K2 are mostly knowledge possessed before the course; K3 and K4 are mostly knowledge acquired as a result of the speaker being an MSc student in AL at EU in the course. Although K2 topics are related to the topics discussed in K4, they are not about the course itself.

This dividing-line meant considering K3 as course-related, because K3 issues arise from the department structure and mechanisms. However, K3 is not about the course as K4 is, with its topics of projects, reading and tutors, etc. K3 topics such as whether to convert the MSc to an MLitt and whether to apply for the IALS scholarship make it closer to K4 but not *part* of the course topic.

The divide used in the study comes between K4, course "pure" and the rest, K1, K2 and K3, with all their various degrees of course-relatedness. A topic is either about the course itself (projects, classes, books, etc.) or it is not about the course itself but about meals together, buying a computer, deciding what to do after the course, etc. It is either K4 or it is a non-course K area. This division is most suitable for testing the hypothesis that

*1. Over time, topics drawing on knowledge of the MSc course increase*

because it isolates "knowledge of the MSc course" more clearly than the models that have a gradability of course-relatedness within the category of "course knowledge".

#### **4.2.1.2 Shared interpersonal knowledge**

Whereas common knowledge is that public knowledge that one would expect most people to have about certain areas of life, whether it is Edinburgh, the language teaching world or the 1991-92 MSc course, shared knowledge is the privileged, interpersonal knowledge about the interlocutor, that which speakers would not expect most people on the course to know - knowledge about the speaker or listener's home and family set-up, out-of-course activities and particular in-course activities; it is descriptive, predictive and explanatory interpersonal knowledge.

Sections of dialogue based on shared interpersonal knowledge occurred throughout the data in all K areas. The shared interpersonal knowledge category can be incorporated into the concentric circles theory and diagram, if it is represented as lines radiating out from the centre like spokes of a wheel, to indicate that it is all pervasive; that it runs through all the K areas.

The following list of topics shows in brackets Berger and Bradac's (1982) levels as described in section 4.1.1, although these levels were not taken into account in the quantitative analysis:

**Home and family (descriptive):**

Where they live/have lived/have visited.

What their immediate family consists of and what the family member's names are.

**Activities (descriptive):**

What their past, present and future activities are outside the course - both social and work-related.

What their past, present and future situation and particular activities are within the course - with regard to options, tutorial groups, tutors, projects, books, and study progress.

**Personality and attitudes (predictive and explanatory):**

What their personalities are like, how they usually behave and why.

What their attitude towards and feelings about each other, certain aspects and components of the course, the world outside are.

What their aspirations and objectives are.

As mentioned in Chapter 3, the one area of interpersonal knowledge missing from the recordings is that of extremely intimate personal details revealed in self-disclosure. The students rarely disclose very intimate details about their family set-up and out-of-course activities in the recordings, possibly because such self disclosure is rarely DAL "common room talk" anyway. It is more likely to be "pub talk" or "coffee at someone's flat" talk.

Shared interpersonal knowledge is not the same as the common in-group knowledge of the course (K4). If knowledge assumed seemed to be information that *any* MSc member could have, it was considered K4. Only if it seemed information or a particular attitude that a limited number of people would have because of its very interpersonal nature was it categorised as shared interpersonal. To take an example,

the following exchange from K4, was not coded as shared interpersonal. The speakers appear to be referring to a misprint in one of their text books:

e.g.: 13001 AM It's a real text book.  
 13002 AM It's not like Brown and Miller.  
 13003 CM Figure thirteen.  
 13004 CM See figure thirteen.  
 13005 AM (heh heh heh)  
 13006 CM Figure twelve.  
 13007 CM Fi- figure fourteen.  
 13008 AM // (heh eh heh)  
 13009 CM // No figure thirteen. (7)

It seems probable that any student could have understood this oblique reference to the problem, since the book was set for discussion in tutorials in a compulsory core course.

The distinction between common and shared interpersonal knowledge was not made on the grounds of exclusivity. Both K4 and shared interpersonal knowledge could make a dialogue impenetrable to an outsider. Shared interpersonal knowledge is usually exclusive to a small group within the MSc group, and possibly exclusive to only the speaker and listener, but K4, being the course in-group knowledge by definition, can exclude all those who are not in-group members.

#### 4.2.2 Analysis

The analysis itself consisted of three main stages. Firstly, in order to discover which K area occupied most space in the whole course, the percentage of discourse units in each K area was calculated in all the data. Secondly, in order to find what changes took place over time in each K area, the percentage of discourse units in each K area was calculated in each period. Thirdly, to investigate whether shared interpersonal knowledge increased over time, the percentage of shared interpersonal knowledge discourse units in each K area was found in each period. Shared interpersonal knowledge in non-course K areas (K1/K2/K3) was compared with that of K4.

To test for significance, the correlation between shared interpersonal K4 and time, and shared interpersonal non-course-related K areas and time was found. Time was measured in terms of the time that accumulated between interactions: thus day two of recording would have occurred after a week's interaction, day three after two weeks, and day four after three, etc.

### 4.3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

#### 4.3.1 The Knowledge Areas

The Kappa intercoder reliability test done with two coders gave a result of 46% for one coder and 75% for the other. The second was satisfactory, and discussion with the first coder revealed that he had made errors of interpretation of the code because he had not read the descriptions of each K area closely enough.

Throughout the whole course, K4 occupies most discourse units, as Figure 3 shows (see Appendix VII for the table of K area percentages). The three non-course K areas may not have been the same size by definition, in the first place. Thus the proportions K1, K2 and K3 might have been different if they had been defined differently. However, since K4 is defined in such a watertight way as knowledge of components of the course, the proportion of 42% seen here could not be different.

**Figure 3 : Proportion of each K area in the whole course**

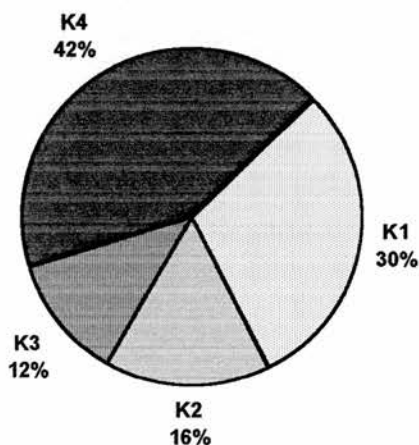
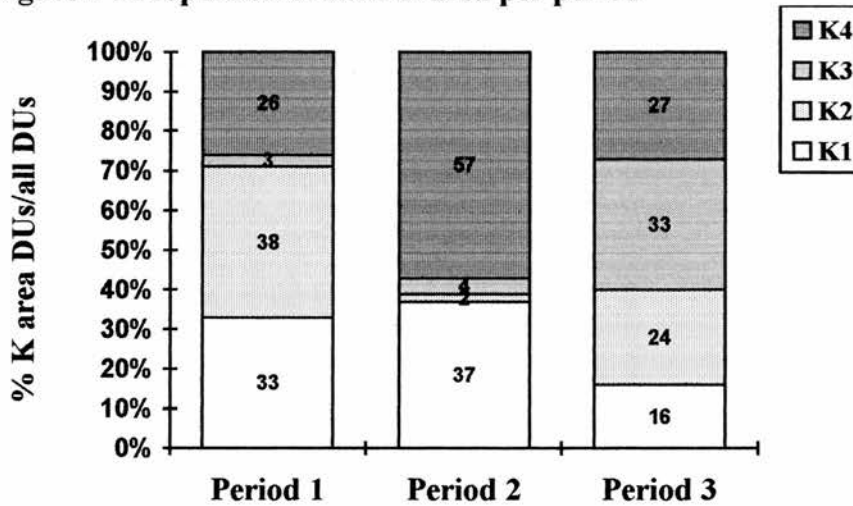


Figure 4 shows the changes in K areas over time. K2 is more frequent in period 1; K4 more frequent in period 2 and drops in period 3; all K areas occur in period 3 and K3 is biggest here. These results would seem to suggest that interaction over time is not the cause of certain topics being raised. The cause of change is the change of concern and focus of attention, reflecting the stage in the course and events on the timetable.

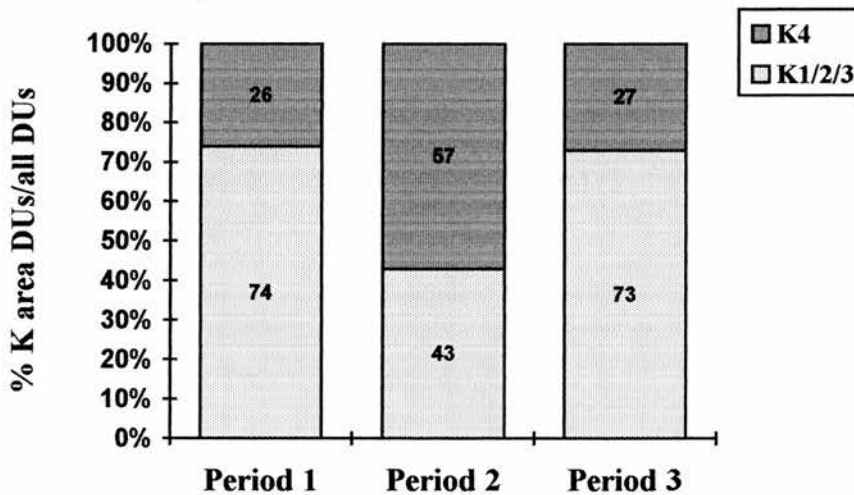
Figure 5 shows the course and non-course knowledge divide and emphasises the change of focus over the three periods. Periods 1 and 3 are almost the same and period 2 is the one with the highest proportion of time spent talking on K4 topics.

(See Appendix VIII for graphs showing the change with the K1 - K2/K3/K4 divide and the K1/K2 - K3/K4 divide.)

**Figure 4 : Proportion of each K area per period**



**Figure 5 : Proportion of course-related and non-course-related K areas per period**



In period 1, the students are more likely to discuss the past than the present. The biggest K areas are the non-course ones: K1 being the knowledge of the world that they bring with them from the past and K2 being the experience of previous teaching and study that they have had. The students know that keeping to safe topics, such as amusing narratives and anecdotes and personal history about where they live and where they have taught, will observe non-face-threatening politeness principles. The K4 topics are practical organisational ones about "who is in whose tutorial group" and "how the tutorial task was divided up." The conversations consist of presentations of self and exploration of others.

In period 2, the students come back from their Christmas recess discussing their holidays (K1) but stressed and eager to talk about the course itself, K4, about the present, to compare notes and seek solidarity. K4 occupies 57% of conversations, while students check how their colleagues' revision is going and then how they answered their exam questions, and later how much reading they have done for projects and tutorials. Their study and growing confidence with each other allows them to exchange evaluative opinions about articles and the courses themselves. The other main K area is K1: once the exam has passed, students can discuss TV serials, the news and world situations, and offer details about their homes and families, such as their budgie's poop and their weekends in with friends, etc. without seeming face-threatening. In addition they discuss evenings out that they have had together.

In period 3, the three non-course K areas are bigger than K4. K4 is less than in period 2: pairs within the group feel free to check over each other's projects and comment, and they are prone to talk about the future and give each other advice about a suitable dissertation topic. K3, practically non-existent in periods 1 and 2, is now the biggest non-course-related K area, occupying 33% of conversations as students wonder where they are going next, whether they will take the IALS MLitt scholarship or do a PhD. K2 is bigger than K1: students give advice about computer software for projects. K1 topics, smaller here than in periods 1 and 2, centre again on personal details about speakers' families, such as their wife's swollen ankles and their son's passion for chips, and plans for course member social activities.

#### **4.3.2 Shared Interpersonal Knowledge**

There is a marked increase in shared interpersonal knowledge assumed, taking all K areas together. In period 1, the percentage of discourse units with shared interpersonal knowledge out of all discourse units (DUs) is 0.68%; in period 2 it is 6.63%, and in period 3 it is 7.66%.

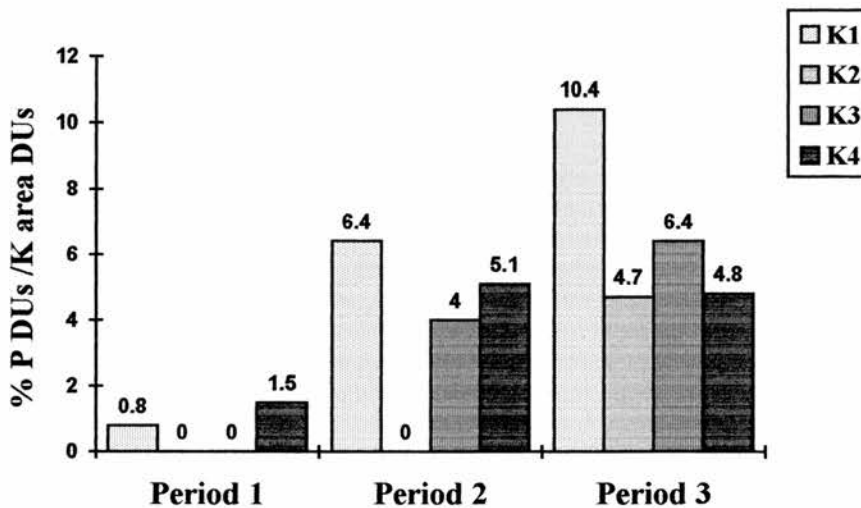
Figure 6 shows the raw data of shared interpersonal knowledge for each period. The value of  $\chi^2$  was 41.251, significant at the 0.005 level, and showed that, taking all four K areas together, the difference between the proportions of DUs containing an assumption of shared interpersonal knowledge and DUs not containing an assumption of shared interpersonal knowledge in each of the three periods is significant. The more experiences they share, and the more the students know of each other, the more students can and do refer to this.

**Figure 6: Frequencies of DUs with shared interpersonal knowledge and those without in each of the three periods, taking all K areas together.**

		Period		
		1	2	3
DUs with shared interpersonal knowledge	yes	5	111	77
	no	735	1,674	1,005

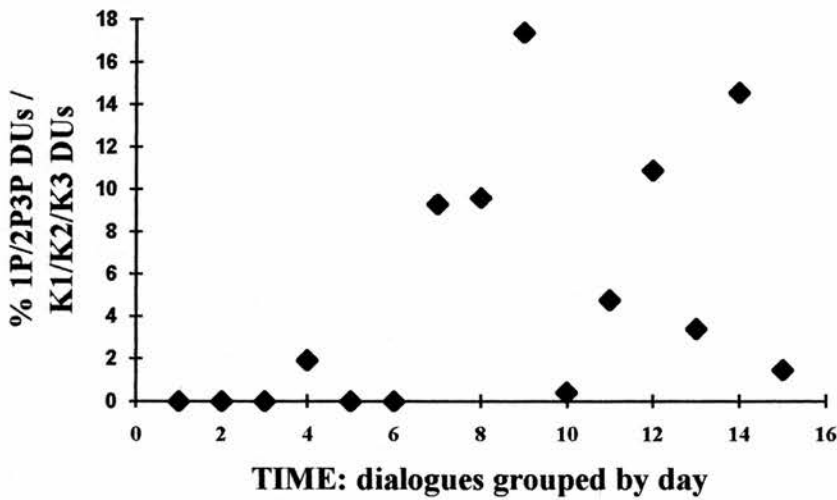
Figure 7 shows the changes in shared interpersonal knowledge (coded P) for each K area. K1 has the highest density of shared interpersonal knowledge in period 2 and period 3. K3 and K4 both show an increase in density over periods 2 and 3. The increase in the reference to shared interpersonal knowledge over time seems to be greater in the non-course K areas than in K4. This may be because K4 is in itself more privileged by definition: it has the in-group topics. It is the topics that are actually outside the MSc world that become increasingly affected by the growth of interpersonal knowledge.

**Figure 7 : Percentage of shared interpersonal knowledge out of each K area**

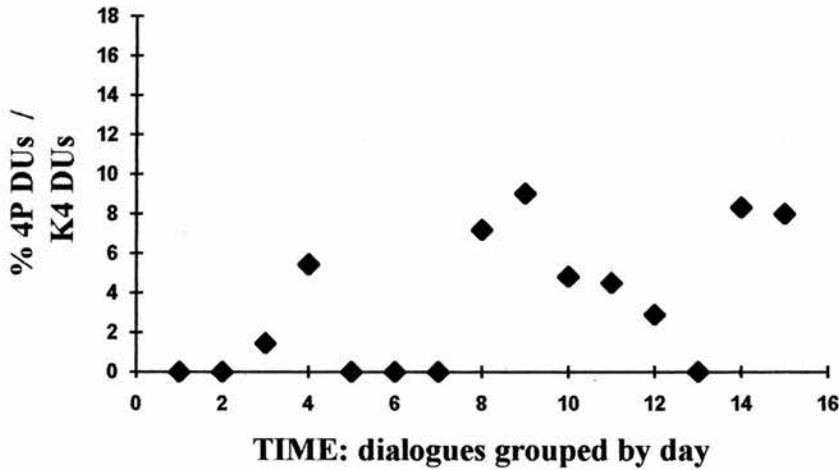


Figures 8 and 9 show the percentage of DUs with shared interpersonal knowledge out of all DUs for each recording day. There is a positive correlation of +0.47 between non-course shared interpersonal knowledge and interaction over time, and a strong positive correlation of +0.55 between K4 shared interpersonal knowledge and interaction over time.

**Figure 8 : Proportion of shared interpersonal knowledge DUs out of all DUs  
In non-course K areas**



**In K4**



This suggests that although there are more DUs depending on shared interpersonal knowledge in non-course areas, the association between the increase in accumulated interactions over time and the increase in shared interpersonal knowledge is not as strong as in K4. The lack of correlation in non-course K areas may be because there is a greater variety in density from day to day explained by the fact that three K areas are analysed together here and K1 is much denser than K2 and K3.

A few examples will demonstrate the different types of shared interpersonal knowledge that occur in each K area. In K1 (the world) shared interpersonal sections, most sections are about home and family, and social out-of-course activities. The following example is of shared interpersonal knowledge of what the immediate family

consists of. DM shows surprise that AF does not go out as much as he does at the weekend:

- e.g.: → 21014 AF **Yes but you don't have to find a baby-sitter.**  
 21015 DM Mm.  
 21016 DM Mm.  
 → 21017 AF **And you've got somebody there to go out with straight away.**

They both know that AF is a single parent and DM is a childless married man whose wife has come to stay with him in Edinburgh. The next example demonstrates how, in K1 shared interpersonal sections, speakers show a knowledge of each others' attitudes and can explain each others' behaviour. In the part of the conversation immediately preceding the following example, a student had been talking about a weekend climbing in Pitlochry.

- e.g.: 14021 DM More than I did this weekend I'm telling you.  
 → 14022 BF **You had friends didn't you?**  
 → 14023 BF **I can imagine why you wouldn't want to.**  
 14024 DM Resting.  
 14025 BF Yeah.  
 14026 BF Sure. (heh heh)

BF apparently knows who the friends are and why DM would lack the motivation to go out climbing; she also knows that he is joking when he says that he was resting.

K2 has very few shared interpersonal sections, and in K3 (EU, DAL, IALS) these sections only feature in periods 2 and 3. Most shared interpersonal knowledge sections relate to personality and attitudes or to activities outside the course. The following is an example of knowledge of personality and attitudes. DM knows what BF's feelings are about doing a PhD after the course:

- e.g.: 23001 BF I told you my other half's (0.5) thinking of going for a PhD? ((2))  
 23002 DM Oh you might as well do one as well then.  
 23003 BF Get out. ((1))  
 23004 DM No?  
 23005 BF I don't want to do one.  
 → 23006 DM **No I didn't think you did.**  
 → 23007 DM **I didn't think you did but (1) thought it would be a =**

He knows that she said that she did not want to do a PhD because she feels that it is hard work and he appears to believe that she was unsure when she said that; BF knows that DM knows what her "other half"'s intentions are. The next example illustrates shared interpersonal knowledge of past and present activities outside the course, yet related to the Institute. Both BF and DM know that they have both talked of applying for summer teaching with the Institute.

- e.g.: → 23051 BF **Did you apply for work in IALS?**  
 → 23052 BF No.

- 23053 DM **I did in the end yeah.**  
 23054 BF You did. (2)  
 23055 BF Have you heard?  
 23056 DM Yeah.  
 23057 DM I mean he said something like well...  
 → 23058 DM **You did as well didn't you?**

As in K1, K4 shared interpersonal knowledge sections increase from period to period. K4 shared interpersonal knowledge is predominantly related to past, present and future activities within the course, and to attitudes towards and feelings about the course. The following example shows how speakers refer to knowledge of future activities within the course. BM presumably knows what DM's project is about because he must have explained it to him on a previous occasion:

- e.g.: → 15158 BM **Are you er (0.5) are going to do what-you-you-thought-you'd-do about your project?**  
 15159 DM I'm going to give out a questionnaire.

The next example shows knowledge of the interlocutor's attitudes towards components of the course. DM knows BF's personal preferences: he knows that she does not like doing sub-headings on the contents page of her projects.

- e.g.: 22056 DM You don't go in for all these sub-headings (0.5) one one =  
 22057 BF In the re-draft // well I  
 22058 DM // Oh you do yeah (0.5)  
 → 22059 DM **I know you don't like them.**

#### 4.4 CONCLUSION

The hypothesis that, over the duration of the course, there is an increase in K4 topics is not confirmed. More time is spent on K4 topics in period 2 than in the other periods. It is not so much increased interaction over time as course events that influence the choice of topic.

As concerns K areas, taking all the three periods together, K4 is the background to nearly half of the dialogues. Taking the three periods separately, the most frequently assumed K areas are: in period 1, K2, knowledge of the past of language teaching experience; in period 2, K4 knowledge of the present MSc course; and in period 3, K3 knowledge of the future PhD and scholarship possibilities.

The hypothesis that there is an increase in dialogue sections assuming shared interpersonal knowledge in all K areas is confirmed. The density of shared interpersonal knowledge increases especially sharply in K1, in which it is double the

average of the other areas in period 3. Whereas in K1, shared interpersonal knowledge is mainly of home and family, in K3 and K4, the focus is more on knowledge of the interlocutor's personality and attitudes.

Although the construction of the K areas is a somewhat arbitrary, subjective and artificial way of conceiving and dividing up the complexity of "real-life" casual conversations, it was necessary to establish the areas in order to observe changes over time, in each K area, in terms of the grammatical and lexical elements within the text, and in terms of topic shifts, macro-function, and speech acts, etc.



and Yule (1983) call it "a function whereby speakers indicate via the use of linguistic expression, the entities they are talking about" (p.205). It is the connection between speaker and context, between language and reality.

This chapter contains the central discussion of the grammatical implicit contextualisation cues, which constitute the most significant aspect of the implicit language. The chapter contains a definition of the categories of analysis and describes the results as regards cohesion, definiteness and the degrees of explicitness in non-anaphoric definite reference. It then describes non-anaphoric definite reference from the point of view of context and specificity. It ends with an exploration of grammatical implicit contextualisation cues in shared interpersonal knowledge sections.

The first part of this chapter on grammar in reference provides a precise definition of anaphoric and non-anaphoric reference, definite and indefinite reference and degrees of explicitness (super-explicit, explicit and implicit reference); it explores in depth these concepts and each part of speech involved. This depth is needed because the coding system devised for the analysis of the language is based on these categories. This part of the chapter also contains a discussion of the decisions taken when tagging the grammatical categories, and the problems involved in working with authentic spoken discourse.

### **5.1.2 Review Of The Literature And Definitions**

Linguists, sociolinguists and psycholinguists have found that the language of social groups contains implicit and elliptical elements depending on knowledge of a common background. The restricted code of social groups as defined by Firth (1957) and Bernstein (1971) contains language that is context-dependent and based on unspoken assumptions not available to the outsider. Restricted code is characterised by exophoric reference. Halliday and Hasan (1976: 34-36) note that restricted code typically contains a great deal of exophoric reference, and that it depends on both a context of common experience and a common context of culture.

Gumperz (1982) in his discussion of contextualisation cues, says, "exclusive interaction with individuals of similar background leads to reliance on un verbalised and context-bound presuppositions in communication" (p.131). Brown and Levinson (1978) say that in-group language and ellipsis are "in-group identity markers" that a speaker uses to claim in-group membership with the hearer. They say that "the use of

pronouns where the referent has not been made explicit is typical of positive politeness" (ibid.) and that "because of the reliance on shared mutual knowledge to make ellipsis comprehensible, there is an inevitable association between the use of ellipsis and the existence of in-group shared knowledge" (ibid.: p.111). Tannen says that "the more work ... hearers do to supply meaning, the deeper their understanding and the greater their sense of involvement with both text and author" (1989: 23).

### **5.1.2.1 Anaphoric and non-anaphoric reference**

This part of the analysis is based primarily on Halliday and Hasan's (1976) definition of exophora and endophora. They explain that endophora is textual and cohesive, the referent being retrievable either in the preceding text (anaphora) or in the text that follows (cataphora). The interpretation of the referring expression lies therefore within the text.

The interpretation of the exophoric referring expression lies outside the text. Exophoric reference can be either situational or homophoric. Situational reference "links the language with the context of situation" (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 37) and includes deixis (Levinson 1983) in which the referring expression points out to the immediate context of the utterance. Homophoric reference is in the context of culture in which "The referent is identifiable on extralinguistic grounds no matter what the situation" (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 71). Blakemore (1992) calls this reference the retrieval of a mental representation from memory. Exophoric referring expressions can therefore be understood in the wider context of intertextuality and common knowledge.

It would be simplistic to suggest that endophoric and exophoric reference can be easily distinguished, however. As Halliday and Hasan admit, "The line between exophoric and anaphoric is not always very sharp." (1976: 18). There is an overlap for two reasons.

The first cause of overlap comes from a characteristic of endophora: endophoric reference also needs the hearer to have some background knowledge. An endophoric reference item almost always points to both a referent within the text and the object, event or state itself that lies in the world outside the text. As Lyons (1977) says, an anaphoric pronoun "refers to the referent of the antecedent expression with which it is correlated" (p.660).

There is a "bridging" between anaphoric reference and the antecedent by assumptions which are not actually present in the preceding utterance, but which are constructed by inferences based on what the listener or reader knows, and guided by the principles of relevance (Clark and Clark 1977). Anaphora that relies partially on inference is known as associative anaphora (Hawkins 1978). Venneman explains that the listener or reader understands the full meaning of a proposition by referring to a "presuppositional pool", that contains information "constituted from general knowledge, from the situative context of the discourse, and from the completed part of the discourse itself" (1975: 314). In the present analysis, associative anaphora is included in the category of anaphora.

The second cause of overlap between endophoric and exophoric reference comes from a characteristic of exophora. Exophoric reference also needs the hearer to have some knowledge of the preceding text and texts, and the likely presuppositional pool. The hearer needs knowledge of the preceding text because speakers following the principle of relevance rarely introduce a noun phrase that has no connection at all with the preceding discourse. Those who do not "speak topically" (Brown and Yule 1983) are usually introducing a drastic topic shift.

The hearer also needs knowledge gained in previous conversations with the same speaker. This is intertextual (de Beaugrande 1981) knowledge, in which the presupposed item is in previous texts, taken for granted as shared and in the minds of speakers. Thus the previous texts are part of the context of culture, and the borderline between text and context becomes blurred.

However, to say that all conversations between the same speakers constitute one long text, and that exophoric reference can be seen as cohesive and anaphoric, would seem somewhat extreme. As Lyons says, "not all of the intersubjective knowledge that is exploited in the interpretation of texts derives from what has been previously mentioned" (1977: 673). In the analysis of this study, intertextual exophora is included in the category of exophora. Each dialogue is considered a separate text, since it cannot be established whether an exophoric referent is intertextual or not, unless it is indicated with an expression such as "as you said last week".

The term "cataphoric" is dropped altogether in the present study, because in the data there are no cases of the presupposed item coming further ahead in the text than the

post-head dependent immediately following the referring expression. The analysis shows that most types of cataphoric referring expressions refer to something within the same utterance: demonstratives, comparatives and substitution being the main ones. Some forms of reference can never refer forward cohesively past the noun phrase of the referring item. As Halliday and Hasan point out, the definite article "can only refer to a modifying element within the same nominal group as itself." (1976: 71). The post-modifying element can be a prepositional phrase, a relative clause, another noun phrase, etc., as in "The ascent of Mount Everest" and "The people who predicted a dry summer" (Halliday and Hasan: *ibid.*), or "the fact that he was married", "the opera 'Carmen'", and "the man to do it" (Huddleston 1988: 93).

The idea of dropping the category "cataphora" and using just "anaphora" is not new. Lyons favours using the term "anaphoric" to cover "both normal backward-looking anaphoric reference and the less normal forward-looking or anticipatory, anaphoric reference" (1977: 659). Since the term "cataphoric" is dropped and only "anaphora" remains from endophoric reference, exophora can be known as "non-anaphora". Levinson (1983), considering deixis, refers simply to anaphoric and non-anaphoric usages, and Blakemore (1992) too uses just the two categories anaphoric and non-anaphoric.

The definition of the anaphoric referring expression used in this study is that which points to the referent outside the text via a cohesive tie to a presupposed item inside the text. When speakers use anaphoric reference, the referent is textually known, and usually cognitively known and in the listener's mind at the time of listening (see Figure 2). The presupposed item is either the same word or a synonym in the preceding text (text reference), or a general proposition or situation understood in the preceding text (extended reference), or that which can be understood as being associated with the presuppositional pool of the preceding text (associative anaphora).

**Figure 2 : Reference model**

Anaphoric	Non-Anaphoric	
<b>Textual</b> referring to the textually known and usually the cognitively known - inc. associative anaphora	<b>Contextual</b> referring to the textually unknown - situational / homophoric / intertextual	
	<hr/> <b>Known</b> pointing to the cognitively known	<hr/> <b>Introductory</b> introducing the cognitively unknown

The definition of the non-anaphoric referring expression used in this study is that which points outside the text to a referent not referred to in the preceding text. The referent is either present in the immediate situation in front of speakers (i.e. situational reference), or in the world outside the immediate situation, in the background knowledge (i.e. generalised, homophoric and contextual reference) or in previous texts (intertextual).

The traditional definition that states that non-anaphoric reference is only that which is totally new, in the sense of being completely unrelated to anything at all in the preceding text, is stretched. Referring expressions are classified as non-anaphoric if their meaning is not immediately interpretable from something concrete in the text.

The next example is one of non-anaphoric reference. BF has been explaining how the tutorial task had been divided up:

e.g.: 07066 BF Well your task was (1) number one.  
 07067 BF You had to do the (2) all of that. (6)  
 → 07068 BF Yes you had to present **these points**.(1)  
 07069 BF So go for it.

Here, "these points" are mentioned for the first time; the reference is situational. "These points" are tagged as non-anaphoric because their meaning is not immediately interpretable from "your task" etc.

When speakers use non-anaphoric reference, the referent is textually unknown, and they assume that either the referent is cognitively known (whether in the listener's mind or not) or that the referent is cognitively unknown (not in the listener's mind therefore, and needing introductory reference). See Figure 2.

In this thesis, cohesion is examined in definite and in indefinite reference. Anaphora and non-anaphora are basically concerns of definite reference. Cohesion in indefinite reference is not one of deixis, *pointing* back in a referentially grammatical cohesive way, as it is in definite reference; it is a matter *linking* back in lexical cohesion and sense relations. However, for convenience in this thesis, one set of terms is used for cohesion in both definite and indefinite reference. The terms 'anaphoric' and 'non-anaphoric' are chosen for both, because they are concerned with the issue of whether there has been any *previous* mention of the referent in the text. The terms 'Cohesive' and 'non-cohesive' are not so suitable because they are concerned with both previous and subsequent mentions of the referent.

### 5.1.2.2 Definite and indefinite reference

When a speaker uses definite noun phrases (with proper nouns, definite articles, demonstrative determiners, pronouns and adverbs, personal pronouns, possessive adjectives, and comparative adjectives and adverbs), he shows that he assumes that the hearer can identify the referent using his textual knowledge or his contextual knowledge. As Lyons (1981b) says, definite referring expressions are "bound to the context of utterance" (p.168). Definite reference depends critically upon mutual knowledge, beliefs and suppositions (Clark and Murphy 1982). Definite referring expressions are subjectively involved in pragmatic use to be interpreted with reference to the speaker, varying according to where and when they are uttered and by whom.

When a speaker uses indefinite noun phrases (with indefinite articles and quantifiers and indefinite pronouns) he does not usually expect the hearer to be able to or to need to identify the referent even if it is specific. The listener's understanding of the referent does not depend so heavily on specific background knowledge as it does with definite reference. However, indefinite noun phrases can depend to a certain extent on the listeners' awareness of the general context in which the referent or class is mentioned: "a sheet" in one context can be quite different from "a sheet" in another; likewise general noun "a thing" in one context might be quite different from "a thing" in another. Indefinite noun phrases have an inherent objective semantic meaning and denotation, but although they do not point to a time and place, they are situated in a time and place at the moment of utterance.

Where definite and indefinite referring expressions differ is on the matter of dependence on knowledge of the specific referent itself for their comprehension. Unlike definite noun phrases which require the listener to already know about the referent, the indefinite noun phrase requires the listener to have knowledge of the class or sub-class to which the referent belongs, and no more. Thus "the blue pen" requires the hearer to know exactly which "pen" the speaker refers to, but "a blue pen" requires the hearer to be generally familiar with the sub-class "blue pens" out of the class "pens" (unless the reference is introductory in which case the hearer might expect an explanation of the sub-class "blue pens"). Indefinite expressions are classifying expressions, and as Lyons (1977) says, very often "we cannot tell whether an indefinite noun phrase is being used with specific reference or not; and the speaker himself might be hard put to decide." (p.188).

Schiffirin (1994) notes that the maxims of quantity and relevance may work together to constrain referring items, in terms of definiteness and explicitness. She says that "Definiteness is concerned with S's intentions and assumptions about what H can be expected to know. Explicitness is partially motivated by S's cooperative intentions, i.e. information presented to enable H to identify the intended referent." (p.199). She affirms that the quantity of information conveyed in a particular referring term is as important as the relevance of that information. She explains that whereas definite forms "indicate S's intentions to refer to a single entity that can be specifically identified by S, and that S expects H to be able to identify from whatever clues (textual, contextual) are available", explicitness "has to do with the presentation of information that actually enables H to correctly identify a referent, i.e. the lexical cues that allow H to single out whom (or what) S intends to differentiate from other potential referents." (p.199). As Coulthard (1977) says, the speaker has the responsibility for making a contribution sufficiently explicit to be clear; he must "membership" his listener each time the topic changes.

### 5.1.2.3 Degrees of explicitness in reference

The degrees of explicitness of referring expressions have been given little attention by linguists. Some look at explicitness at the mode and register level, others at the utterance level; few look at explicitness at the level of the noun phrase. Those who do examine referring expressions treat the explicitness / implicitness dimension in black and white terms rather than as a gradable quality on a cline from explicit to implicit. McCarthy and Carter (1994) state that "terms such as *implicit* and *explicit* are not absolutes, and are to be seen as tendencies rather than as sufficient or necessary conditions for classification." (p.10).

Linguists who consider explicitness at the mode and register level risk over-simplifying and over-generalising the case. Chafe (1982) describes the written mode as explicit and context-free, and the spoken mode as implicit and context-dependent. Mazzie (1987) finds that content rather than mode determines features such as implicitness, and that abstract topics contain more 'inferable' information than narrative data. This study analyses in depth the influence of topic on explicitness. Tannen (1982) finds that implicitness depends on register and genre. Biber (1988) finds that explicit references, defined as those that can be decoded without recourse to situation, occur more in academic prose than in popular lore texts such as informative texts found in popular magazines.

Pragmaticians discuss the issue at utterance level. Blakemore (1992) analyses explicitness and implicitness in terms of information conveyed either explicitly or implicitly, noting that the right amount of information is given to make the relevance between two utterances clear enough for the hearer to interpret the meaning using his contextual resources. Of all Grice's (1975) conversational maxims, the maxim of quantity is the one most concerned with explicitness: the speaker should provide the hearer with enough information to be able to understand. According to Grice, the speaker can imply more than his words say by flouting these maxims and using conversational implicature, what Brown and Levinson (1978) call going "off record". In this thesis, this approach to implicitness will be taken in the chapter on humorous conversational implicature (Chapter 7).

Halliday and Hasan (1985) look at explicitness at the level of referring expressions when they refer to personal pronouns, demonstratives, possessive pronouns and substitution as "implicit encoding devices" and say that the source for their interpretation could either be co-textual or contextual. They link implicitness with impenetrability, as this study does: "Exophorically interpreted implicit devices create an opaque link between the text and its context so far as speakers outside the context are concerned" (p.76-7). Hasan (1984) acknowledges that the degree of opacity is variable but does not develop a model of degrees of variability of the implicit devices.

Schiffrin (1994) comes closest to considering the degrees of explicitness of referring expressions but she only mentions them in passing, in her examination of variation analysis. She equates "explicit noun phrases" with "'lexically informative' full noun phrases", and lists general nouns, personal pronouns and zero personal pronouns as "less explicit" referring items. She is mostly interested in the difference between the two being the difference between the first mention of a referent (often indefinite) and the second mention of it (often definite). Her description of how these crosscut on a scale of degrees of explicitness is quite useful:

"I can use all of the following (and more) definite descriptions to refer to the same person: *my husband*, *Louis*, *Dr.Scavo*, *the man I live with*. These are all more explicit than the indefinites *an adult I live with*, *someone I met in college*. The definite *he*, however, is *less* explicit than the indefinites just given. Note, finally, that the explicit / inexplicit distinction is more continuous than discrete: *someone I met in college* is more explicit than *someone I knew when I was younger*, but less explicit than *someone I met in my third year of college*; *he* is less explicit than any of the above expressions, but more explicit than zero anaphora." (Schiffrin 1994: 199)

Schiffrin's scale combining definite and indefinite reference and adding detailed distinctions within each of these categories is unfortunately impractical for building a model to analyse data. It is also incomplete in that she does not examine the explicitness of noun phrases in terms of cohesion; a pronoun can surely be either implicit or explicit, depending on whether it is cohesive with a noun phrase carrying little information (e.g.:"a thing") or with a noun phrase carrying more information (e.g.:"a blue pen"). Schiffrin does not examine the effect of different determiners in the noun phrase (e.g.:"a pen", "the pen", "that pen") and she does not explore degrees of explicitness in verbs (e.g.:"to work", "to do").

The model used in this study contains different degrees of explicitness - super-explicit, explicit and implicit - for both anaphoric and non-anaphoric reference, and both definite and indefinite reference. See Figure 3 for examples of how the degrees of explicitness fit in with definite and indefinite reference. The figure is aimed to aid comprehension of the following definitions and is by no means comprehensive. The examples in italics are the grammatical implicit contextualisation cues, as will be explained shortly.

**Figure 3 : Degrees of explicitness and types of reference**

	Definite	Indefinite
Super-Explicit	the/that pen that I bought the pen with a nib	a better pen than mine a pen with a nib
Explicit	<i>the/that/his pen</i> <i>the better/other pen</i> <i>John</i> <i>that/there</i> <i>it/him</i>	a pen a better/another pen
Implicit	<i>the/that/his thing/person</i> <i>that/there</i> <i>it/him</i>	<i>a thing/person</i> <i>something/anyone</i> <i>one</i>

- **Super-explicit reference**

The term 'super-explicit' reference is used to mean that in which the referent referred to in the noun head is further identified by means of a post-modifier to add extra information. The post-modifier, such as a prepositional phrase, infinitival clause, relative clause, participial clause, adjectival phrase or noun phrase in apposition, is defining and restrictive but it is not obligatory (Huddleston 1988). This would have

been classified as cataphoric in Halliday and Hasan's framework but in the present model both anaphoric and non-anaphoric reference can be explicit or otherwise.

The term 'super-explicit' is preferred to another such as 'modified explicit', 'modified noun phrase' or 'noun plus post-head' because it makes it clear that this type of noun phrase is further along the scale of explicitness (at the other end from the implicit) than the explicit, or bald noun head. Thus "the pen that I bought" has more content, gives more information about the referent than the explicit "the pen", just as the "explicit" form carries more content than the "implicit" "it" or "the thing". In super-explicit reference, the speaker further identifies the referent for the hearer, as in the following example, in which AF explains which "street" she is talking about:

e.g.: 21042 AF Well **the street we go down** the City Cafe is in that.

The term 'super-explicit' is also the most suitable term because, not being limited to "noun plus post-head", it can include the completed comparison i.e. with the compared referring item in the text. Thus "a better pen than my last one" is more explicit than "a better pen". Super-explicitness of comparison should not be confused with endophora. If "my last one" is in the preceding text, the comparison is classed as super-explicit anaphoric; if "my last one" is not in the preceding text, the comparison is classed super-explicit non-anaphoric.

- **Explicit reference**

The term 'explicit' reference is used to mean that in which the referent referred to in the noun head is *not* further identified with a post-head modifier. This "bald" noun phrase can be understood by those knowing the text and/or context without the additional help of an explanatory or identifying expression indicating exactly which of all the possible referents with that name is being referred to. The following is an example of explicit reference from the data:

e.g.: 01034 AM And then of course we didn't get **the job**.

In the present analysis, the term 'explicit' reference includes both common nouns and proper nouns. The proper noun cannot actually be called explicit as such because it does not carry meaning; it has as much denotation as a personal pronoun or a general noun, which is classed as 'implicit' referring expressions. It *is* in the explicit category, however, because it identifies the referent as explicitly as 'explicit' referring expressions such as "my husband" do, and because it identifies the referent more

explicitly than 'implicit' referring expressions do. "John" is less generalisable than "that man" or "him". This reasoning is based on Schiffrin's (1994) framework mentioned above. The following excerpt about what was said on a lecture handout would have been more generalisable if CM's words had been "I did qualify it with what he said" instead of "I did qualify it with what Lyons said":

- e.g.: → 12146 CM Cos I'm sure it said Structuralism Saussure and then the next week  
it said Structuralism Bloomfield.  
12147 AM Ah that's it yeah. ((1))  
→ 12148 CM And I did qualify it with that Lyons what Lyons said about (0.5)  
being an American who was trying // to  
12149 AM // Mm. Mm.

The 'explicit' reference category includes the noun head followed by a post-head *complement* such as a prepositional phrase, a content clause, or an infinitival clause, as in "his refusal to go" or "the need for us to help her" (Huddleston 1988: 93). In this study, the noun with an post-head complement is considered to be in the same category as explicit "bald" reference because the obligatory complement depends on and is selected by the noun head. Whereas in super-explicit reference, the post-head *modifier* adds extra non-obligatory information to further identify the referring expression, the post-head complement is intrinsically connected to the noun head. In the following example of an explicit referring expression containing a complement, a student suggests how to modify a project if the discussion of a particular point is longer than the introduction stated it would be:

- e.g.: 17041 CM // And then you do and then you do a search for "briefly" and  
change to (0.5) change to "extensively" or something if you actually  
do discuss it in depth.

Here, "a search" selects "for", because of the verb "to search for"; the sentence would have lost its meaning if "for "briefly"" had been omitted.

One major type of complement in the explicit category is the post-head partitive genitive phrase. This is defined as that which completes the noun phrase by identifying the whole, the mass or the class of which the preceding noun is a part or a member, such as "on the back of American comics" and "95% of the people". In the following example of an explicit referring expression with a partitive genitive phrase, AF is talking about her cold:

- e.g.: 21029 AF Yes the worst was actually in the middle of the week when I was  
planning to work very hard.

Here, "the week" is the whole and "the middle" is the part. The noun in the post-head partitive genitive phrase functions semantically as the head noun; "the middle of the week" is more "week" than "middle".

In the present analysis, some anaphoric pronouns are included in the category of explicit reference. Those anaphoric pronouns that cohere with a contentful noun with explicit reference are themselves explicit. Whereas Schiffrin (1994) sees all pronouns as implicit, in this study pronouns are seen as implicit only if they are used non-anaphorically or if they are cohesive with an implicit non-contentful referring expression such as a general noun.

- **Implicit reference**

The term 'implicit' reference is used to mean that 'bald' reference (i.e. with no post-head modifier) in which the referent is not named by the referring expression, but is rather referred to with a "vague" expression. The implicit referring expression is a general noun or a personal, demonstrative or indefinite pronoun. "That thing", "a thing", "the person" or "people" have as much contentfulness as "that", "something", "he" or "they". Implicit reference also includes colloquial forms of general noun and vague noun clauses such as "the what's-a-name" and "what you said you'd do".

Implicit reference can be non-anaphoric or anaphoric. In the case of implicit non-anaphoric reference, the referring expression does not point out clearly to a referent; the referent can only be guessed at if the listener has the requisite background knowledge of the world outside the text. In the case of implicit anaphoric reference, the referring expression is cohesive with a presupposed item in the text that does not point out clearly to a referent or bring the hearer any closer to the referent's identification than the referring expression itself does.

In implicit non-anaphoric reference in the data, the referring expression is a non-anaphoric general noun, or a non-anaphoric pronoun. In the following example, DM and CM had been talking about handing work in on time; in unit 15045, DM suddenly shifts topic using implicit reference to something that has not been mentioned before:

e.g.:

15041	CM	Can't remember the last time I handed in anything late.
15042	DM	(heh heh // heh heh)
15043	CM	// Usually it's three months early.
15044	DM	(heh heh) Right. (8)
→ 15045	DM	So I typed <b>that thing</b> up again after you'd gone.

15046 CM Oh yeah.

Here, the general noun "thing" carries very little more semantic information than the pronoun "it" would have done. In the next example of implicit non-anaphoric reference, BM, mid-conversation about computers, apparently suddenly notices that FF is in the common room.

e.g.: 26106 BM You shouldn't be **here**.  
 26107 FF I got the job.  
 26108 BM How come she got back so early? (0.5)  
 → 26109 BM **That** was yesterday.

In this example, the demonstrative adverb "here" and the demonstrative pronoun "that" have no connection with the preceding text.

In implicit anaphoric reference in the data, the referring expression can be a general noun, a personal, demonstrative or indefinite pronoun that is cohesive with another item with implicit reference. The presupposed item is either another implicit anaphoric item, or a non-anaphoric pronoun or non-anaphoric general noun. In the next example, CM is describing Japanese beaches:

e.g.: 19109 CM **But-** they they're paranoid about their their islands er dissolving into the ocean so they've done all these cement they're called er (1.5) like the // er  
 19110 BM // What like  
 19111 CM No- no.  
 19112 CM **They're** huge like the size of this room.  
 19113 CM **One** is the size of this room.  
 → 19114 CM And they've got thousands of **these things** stuck out there with the islands.  
 19115 CM So you might get a stretch of about half a mile of nice sandy beaches and then there's this huge **what-you-call-it** breaking the surf.

Here there is cohesion but CM has not named the presupposed item for the "things", the "what-you-call-it"s to be cohesive with or the "they" to refer back to.

General nouns are classified as implicit whether they have a post-head modifier or not. The post-head modifier after a general noun adds little to make it as explicit as a contentful noun. In the following example from K4, if AM had not limited the reference of "stuff" to something that had to be read, presumably an article or a hand-out, he might not have communicated his idea at all:

e.g.: 14059 AM That's the **stuff** we- we read last week which we should've read this week. (0.5)

A further discussion of the general noun will follow in Chapter 6. It is included in this grammatical chapter as well as in the lexical chapter because the general noun bridges

the lexical and the grammatical boundary. As Halliday and Hasan (1976) say, the general noun is a "borderline case between a lexical item (member of an open set) and a grammatical item (member of a closed system)" (p. 274).

#### 5.1.2.4 Verbs

A detailed study of the grammar of all verb forms might have been relevant to an analysis of in-group language but it is beyond the scope of this study. Tense, for example, is not analysed, even though this is a deictic element and could have accompanied the study of deixis in the noun phrase.

The implicitness of verbs is analysed from a lexical point of view in Chapter 6, which defines verbs such as "to write" as explicit, being contentful, and general verbs such as "to do" as implicit, being a non-contentful. Initial ellipsis of the verb is examined in Chapter 7 as implicitness at the clause level.

#### 5.1.3 Hypotheses

All hypotheses in this part of the thesis centre on the degrees of explicitness. The general hypotheses were:

1. *Over time, the density of implicit reference and ellipsis increases.*
2. *K4 has more implicit reference and ellipsis than the non-course K areas.*

The first of these hypotheses is concerned with the influence of increasing knowledge over time, regardless of the K area. The second is concerned with the influence of the assumed K area, regardless of the dimension of increasing knowledge over time. Behind these hypotheses about the implicit language is the belief that over the duration of the course, the increasing common knowledge about the course and shared interpersonal knowledge causes the form of reference to become more implicit and vague, the referring expressions containing less information as precise identification of referents becomes less necessary. With time, the students have less need to speak explicitly: they can take in-group knowledge for granted and so the extension should not need to be signalled.

The present study focuses on the explicitness of *non-anaphoric* reference rather than on anaphoric reference because anaphoric reference contributes less to the exclusivity of the in-group conversation than non-anaphoric reference does. Thus "I bought the

blue pen" when the pen has already been mentioned does not exclude as much as "I bought the blue pen" when the pen has not already been mentioned. Moreover, this thesis is concerned not so much with how the text holds together as with how speakers refer to referents that have not already been mentioned. It is the non-anaphoric reference that is examined in terms of explicitness, in order to discover whether a new referent is referred to very explicitly with its name and post-head modifier to identify it, explicitly with its name but no post-head modifier or implicitly with just a general noun or pronoun.

The present study focuses on the explicitness of *definite* reference rather than on indefinite reference because indefinite reference contributes less to the exclusivity of the in-group conversation than definite noun phrases do. "I bought a blue pen" would not exclude as much as "I bought the blue pen". The possible exceptions to this rule are the indefinite comparative, general noun and indefinite pronoun. Utterances such as "I bought another blue pen", "I bought a blue thing" and "I bought something blue" might exclude the hearer who does not have knowledge of the original blue pen or does not have an idea of what all the possible referents are. Implicit indefinite noun phrases, which assume some listener knowledge of the referent, *are* analysed in the study of MSc in-group language.

The analysis of explicitness in this thesis centres on *non-anaphoric definite* reference because it is hypothesised that the in-group code contains references to referents not with the preceding text but in the mind of the hearer. The hypotheses about the development of non-anaphoric definite reference in all the data, concerned with the influence of increasing knowledge over time, regardless of the K area are:

3. *Over time, the density of all non-anaphoric definite reference increases.*

Within non-anaphoric definite reference:

4. *In period 2 in all K areas, super-explicit reference decreases.*

5. *In period 2 in all K areas, explicit reference increases.*

6. *In period 3 in all K areas, implicit reference increases.*

Super-explicit reference should decrease as the course advances, because the more the referents are guaranteed to be in the hearers' mind, the less the noun phrase needs embellishment to help hearers identify them. This decrease in super-explicit reference implies an increase in explicit reference: if there is a drop in post-modified heads there must logically be an increase in noun heads without post-head modifiers. Implicit

reference was expected to increase in period 3, because it seemed that, once the in-group had been established, reference can become more informal and vague.

The hypotheses about the development of non-anaphoric definite reference in topics depending specifically on knowledge of the MSc course, regardless of the influence of increasing knowledge over time are:

7. *K4 has more explicit non-anaphoric definite reference than non-course K areas.*

8. *K4 has more implicit non-anaphoric definite reference than non-course K areas.*

When the students talk on course topics, which depend on K4, they know that hearers must have the referents in mind and so they can use non-anaphoric definite reference, without post-head modification and in vague and general referring expressions.

Indefinite reference was not central to this study, just as anaphoric reference was not. It was examined, however, in order to discover the way that this form of reference relates to the model of implicitness. The hypothesis was:

9. *Over time in all K areas, implicit non-anaphoric indefinite reference increases.*

Implicit indefinite forms are the general noun as in "a thing" and the indefinite pronouns "something" and "anything".

## 5.2 METHOD

This section briefly outlines the code for grammatical reference, and describes the decisions taken and problems encountered in the process of coding the data.

### 5.2.1 The Categories

The grammatical reference coding tag usually consisted of three letters and one number:

- The first letter indicated phora type (anaphora, non-anaphora)
- The second letter indicated the reference type (definite article, indefinite article, demonstrative, personal, possessive, comparative);
- The third letter indicated the grammatical form of the reference or the part of speech (pronoun, adjective, adverb, ellipsis)
- The number at the end of the letter combination indicated the degree of explicitness (1: super-explicit, 2: explicit, and 3: implicit).

Appendix IV shows how the letters and numbers combine in the coding system and gives examples of each combination.

### 5.2.1.1 Types of reference and ellipsis

The term 'types of reference' is used to mean grammatical form such as demonstrative, personal and comparative (Halliday and Hasan 1983). This section contains a description of each reference type.

- **Definite reference**

This includes demonstrative reference (definite article and demonstratives, adverbs), personal reference (personal pronouns and possessive adjectives), and comparative reference (comparative adjectives and adverbs).

In the definite article category, both common and proper nouns were included. Some proper nouns actually had a definite article, as in the following comment about interview questions:

e.g.: 05028 BM And the woman asking them has got thirteen years of experience in **the British Council**.

Others had no article but were tagged as a demonstrative, as in the following:

e.g.: 08089 BF Anyway eventually after walking round the pubs for about an hour (0.5) we got to one that **Dave** and I usually go to. (0.5)

Nouns with demonstrative determiners and definite articles were not tagged when they occurred in adverbial phrases. Phrases of contrast, e.g.: "on the other hand", and addition e.g.: "in the sense that" were not analysed as they are fixed expressions whose meaning varies little with context.

The exception to the rule about adverbial phrases was time expressions such as "this week" or "at the end of this week" in which demonstratives and definite articles were tagged, because they were not fixed general expressions of chronological sequencing, but pointed out to specific moments, with a pragmatic meaning. In the next example, speakers have been talking about how unsatisfactory it is to do temporary teaching work:

e.g.: 05094 BM But on the other hand it's it's (0.5) it's- it would be useful to do that work (0.5) for **the future** like for example for **the summer**.

Here, "the summer" only has meaning for them in the light of the course timetable.

A distinction was made between personal pronouns that referred to actual entities and those that did not. The personal pronoun "it" in generalised empty non-anaphoric reference was not tagged, as in this example in which AF enters the common room and declares,

e.g.: 15097 AF God **it's** hot in here.

because "it" is simply providing a subject for the verb. Nor was "it" tagged in empty reference in fixed expressions with a meaning such as "already", "I agree". In the following example, AM explains why he left his group of friends after the pub:

e.g.: 11113 AM I thought I'd had too much to drink **as it is**.

The generalised pronoun "they" was tagged, on the other hand, because it has a more personal meaning. In the following example from a conversation about importing and exporting a computer,

e.g.: 06007 CM You're buying a computer?

06008 NF Yeah.

→ 06009 NF **They** sent me this.

"they" could be identified as the computer firm personnel/sales manager. Personal pronouns in tag questions were not tagged because the pronoun does not carry any meaning.

In all the data, there were no third person possessive pronouns. There were no non-anaphoric third person possessive adjectives either. The possessives category was maintained in the study, however, in order to study the instances of implicit anaphoric expressions. First and second person possessives were not of interest because they are always deictic.

In the category of comparison, the word "like" in sentence-filling expressions such as "things like that" and "something like that", when they meant "etc.", "and so on" or "I agree", was not tagged because this is not a case of a real comparison. Take for example this, in which BF talks of the convenience of her student house location:

e.g.: 04099 BF And King's Building's got a bar and **stuff like that**.

- **Indefinite reference**

All indefinite noun phrases were tagged the same, whether the determiners were "a", "an" or zero articles, "some", "any", "no", "every", "much", "a lot of". Indefinite noun phrases in expressions such as "have a look", "make a mistake", "take/spend/have (a

long) time" which are part of the verb phrases, and adverbial expressions such as "to an extent" were not tagged.

Indefinite pronouns were coded as anaphoric if the class or members of the class that they referred to were mentioned in the preceding text; that is to say, for example, when "someone" means "one of the people mentioned in the preceding text". In the following example, "somewhere" is anaphoric because it means "somewhere in the Fay and Cutler article."

e.g.: 16044 AF I seem to think the Fay and Cutler is an article actually.  
 16045 AF It's referred to **somewhere** or other em ((looks through papers)) em here we are (2) Fay and Cutler ((unintelligible)).

In the following however, a student addresses his colleagues sitting in the common room and deictic "anyone" means "any of you" so is non-anaphoric:

e.g.: 15123 MM **Anyone** got the key to the photocopier? ((1))

Indefinite pronouns in vague expressions such as "or something" or "and everything", were not analysed as part of reference but studied with other vague fillers such as "and so on" and "and that" in the analysis of implicit language features at the clause level (see Chapter 7).

- **Ellipsis**

Ellipsis of parts of the noun phrase was tagged but not eventually examined in detail because non-anaphoric ellipsis proved exceedingly rare. Ellipsis at the clause or utterance level (initial ellipsis and unfinished sentences) was not tagged here but in the part of the code of other implicit features. There was no category of substitution in the coding system because there are no examples of non-anaphoric substitution.

### 5.2.1.2 Spoken data considerations

Working with spontaneous recordings of groups of three or more speakers meant devising a system to accommodate the "messiness" of spoken discourse. The first problem was that, since few recordings contained beginnings of conversations, most conversations were captured mid-topic, with the topic already well underway. Thus, there were reference items that looked as if they might have had a referent in the preceding, unrecorded stretch of conversation. Since reference is more often anaphoric than not, these cases at the beginning of a recording were tagged anaphoric.

The second problem was that, because of the nature and function of the common room, speakers came and speakers went but the conversing was an on-going activity. Thus some speakers joined conversations already underway, and they necessarily missed the presupposed items of the anaphora. Occasionally, a referring expression seemed to be anaphoric to some speakers, and non-anaphoric to others. Witness this example, in which speakers discuss a programme about Melvyn Bragg:

- e.g. → 11064 BF And they were doing a profile of **him**.  
 11065 BF And I was sort of =  
 11066 NM **Who** was it?  
 11067 BF **He** was a guy who wrote this dirty book.  
 11068 BF Melvyn Bragg?

Such cases were tagged as anaphoric, because anaphora is not a question of hearer's conception.

The third problem arising from the fact that these are spontaneous conversations, was that they contain all the usual features of spoken language: stutters, repetition, false starts, and errors in reference type. In the case of stutters, as in:

- e.g.: 06091 NF Yeah but **this (this)** is just for er for January 1992.

the repeated demonstratives, definite articles, personal pronouns, etc. were counted as one instance. Repetition that happened over more than one discourse unit, as in:

- e.g.: 22160 DM Michelle and I got home she looked at her knees. (0.5)  
 → 22161 DM They were like **this**.  
 → 22162 DM Swollen up like **this**.

was tagged as two separate instances, even when they constituted a repetition of exactly the same words with exactly the same meaning. The second mention of the demonstrative, definite article, personal, etc. was labelled the same as the first. It was not treated as an item of cohesion with the first. In false starts to utterances, as in:

- e.g.: 16079 AM **(They) the third consonant** is the least remembered or something when you when you're when you only get it orally.

none of the incomplete constituents were tagged, partly because the false start loses its meaning and significance being an incomplete expression, and partly because this clearly makes it impossible to tag it anaphoric/non-anaphoric or explicit/implicit.

Errors in reference type, as in:

- e.g.: 17037 AF Can't you sort of say later on em these subjects will be revised  
briefly?  
 17038 BM (heh heh)  
 → 17039 NF Oh I do **(those)**.

were treated as if they referred as intended, and are tagged as if they were the right word. In this example, "those" was analysed as if it had been "that".

### 5.2.2 The Analysis

The tokens of each type of reference were first tagged throughout all the data. Then the tokens of each tagged feature for each day of recording (one day could contain from one to five dialogues) within each of the four K area files were counted. The density of each tag in each day was calculated, by finding the percentage of each one out of the total number of words in each day in each K area file. Finally, the average of these percentages for each of the tags in each dialogue was calculated for each of the three periods, to discover the overall changes over time and the difference between non-course dialogues and K4 dialogues. The average proportion of anaphoric and non-anaphoric reference was calculated, as well as the average density of super-explicit, explicit and implicit referring items in each period.

A qualitative study of the function of each reference type was made, to discover whether there was a difference between K4 and non-course K areas and to bring out differences in terms of context of reference and specificity of reference.

## 5.3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

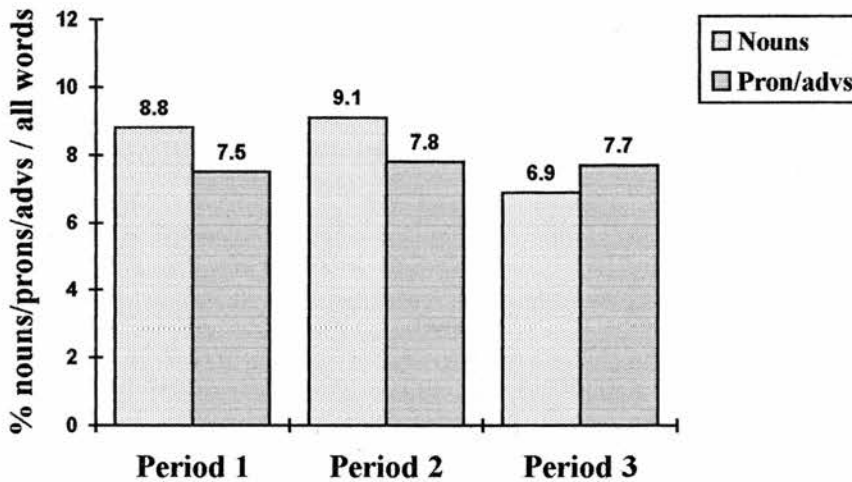
When this part of the code was given to three subjects for intercoder reliability testing, they scored 68%, 38% and 63%. The reason why it is possible for a coder to get such a low score as 38% may be that this part of the code is so complicated that coders either failed to understand all the intricacies, or they were quite simply discouraged by the complexity and did not give it the attention that it requires. It should be taken into account, too, that not all the coders were dealing with a subject that was in their own field. Because of the size and complexity of this part of the code, it was difficult to find more coders.

### 5.3.1 General Observation

A general observation should be kept in mind in the discussion of non-anaphoric definite reference and degrees of explicitness: the overall density of pronouns and adverbs does not change very much over time. As Figure 4 shows, the density of demonstrative and personal pronouns and adverbs remains fairly stable throughout the course. An increase in certain types of pronoun *cannot* therefore be said to be a reflection of a general increase in all pronouns and adverbs. Figure 4 shows that the

density of nouns drops in period 3. A low density of nouns is a feature of Bernstein's restricted code.

**Figure 4 : Density of all nouns and pronouns/adverbs out of all words**



If the drop in nouns is not matched by an increase in pronouns, one might ask oneself how speakers refer to referents in period 3. The answer may be that the drop in nouns is a result of the increase in incomplete sentences and initial ellipsis (see Chapter 7) in which subjects are ellipited. It may also be that since, further into the course, utterances are more typically short evaluations and statements of opinion (see Chapter 8), these require fewer nouns. This matter is given no more consideration in the thesis than this passing observation.

### 5.3.2 Non-Anaphoric Definite Reference

This part of the chapter describes the results of analysis as regards cohesion and definiteness (see Appendix IX for a table of all results). It provides a general picture of non-anaphoric definite reference and shows that it increases slightly with increasing knowledge over time and is a particular feature of K4 dialogues.

The hypothesis:

3. *Over time in all K areas, all non-anaphoric definite reference increases.*

was tested, first, just from the point of view of cohesion, to discover whether there is an increase in all non-anaphoric reference, regardless of whether it is definite or indefinite reference. (See Appendix X for the graph of results). Non-anaphoric reference is consistently higher in K4 (and increases more in period 2) than in non-

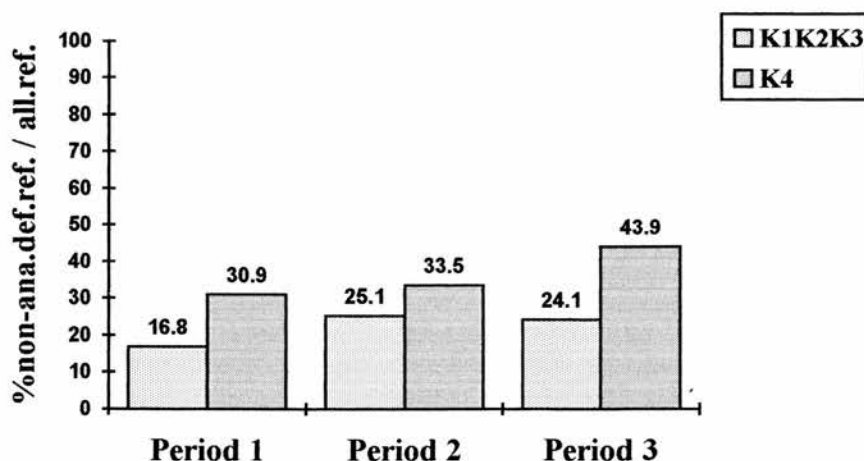
course K areas. This suggests that by period 2, students talking on course topics are more likely to introduce new referents with little connection with the preceding discourse than in period 1.

The same hypothesis was then tested from the other point of view, that of definiteness and indefiniteness, to discover whether there is an increase in all definite reference, regardless of whether it is anaphoric or non-anaphoric reference. The results show no great change in the density of either over time. Throughout the course, three quarters of noun phrases are definite ones: the percentage of definite reference out of all noun phrases is 74.16% in period 1, 79.55% in period 2 and 73.87% in period 3.

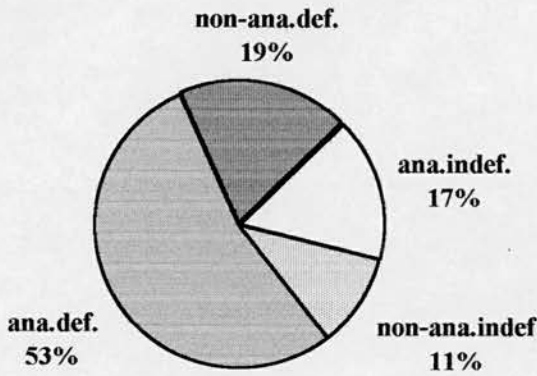
Next, the whole of the hypothesis was tested, and it was found that the density of all non-anaphoric definite reference out of all reference taking all K areas together increases in period 2 and drops in period 3 but does not return quite to the level in period 1 (24.7%, 29.34%, 26.65%). That is to say, overall non-anaphoric definite reference does increase slightly over time. It would seem that the longer the students interact as a group, the more they can refer to referents that are not in the preceding text, using definite referring expressions that assume that the referents can be identified because they are in the minds of the speakers.

Figures 5 and 6 show clearly that the main difference between K4 and non-course K areas is that K4 has much more non-anaphoric definite reference than non-course K areas. This means that students talking on course topics are more likely to draw from a permanent presuppositional pool of referents that they assume to be consciously in the minds of their interlocutors.

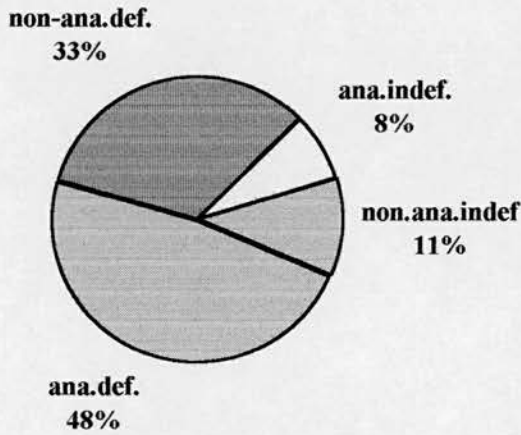
**Figure 5 : Non-anaphoric definite reference out of all reference**



**Figure 6 : Proportion of definiteness and cohesiveness out of all reference  
Non-course K areas:**



#### K4



The dramatic rise in non-anaphoric definite reference in all K areas in period 2 is caused mainly by the characteristics of K4 (see Figure 5). These results explain why, taking all K areas together, there is an increase in period 2: K4 with its higher density occupies 57% of period 2. The non-anaphoric definite reference density taking all K areas together drops in period 3 because K4 occupies less time.

#### 5.3.3 Degrees Of Explicitness

This part of the chapter focuses specifically on implicitness in non-anaphoric definite reference, in order to show how explicitly in-group members refer for the first time to a referent when they assume that it is known and already consciously in the mind of the hearers. It contains a general discussion of results as concerns all three degrees of

explicitness and a specific discussion of each of the categories. It shows that implicit reference increases slightly with increasing knowledge over time and is a feature of K4 dialogues in particular.

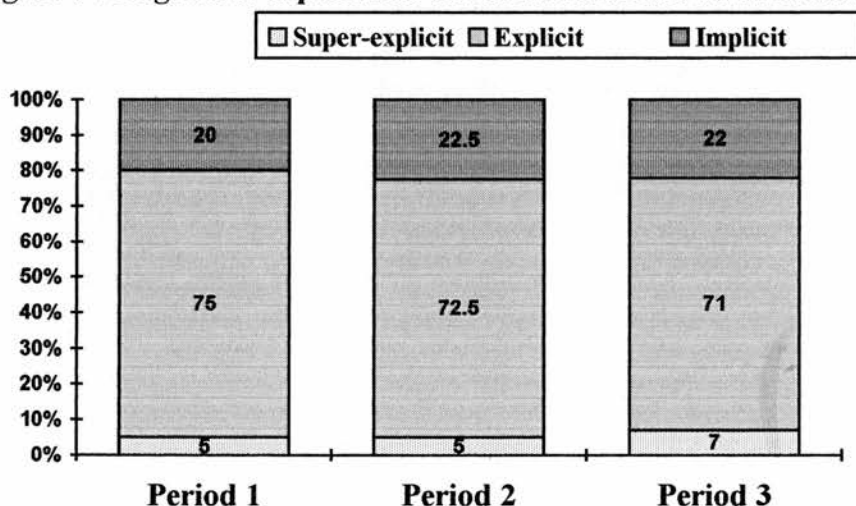
### 5.3.3.1 All degrees of explicitness

The main hypotheses that

1. *Over time in all K areas, implicit reference and ellipsis increase.*
2. *K4 has more implicit reference and ellipsis than the non-course K areas.*

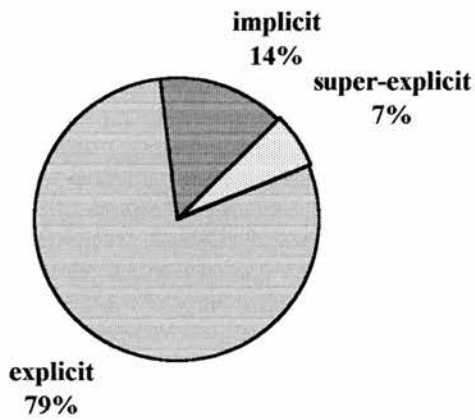
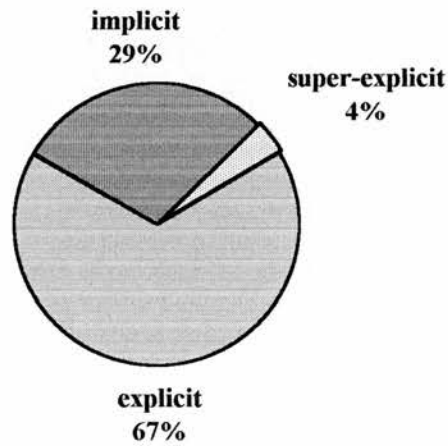
were confirmed (see Figure 7). Taking all reference together (anaphoric and non-anaphoric, definite and indefinite) there is a slight decrease in explicit reference in all K areas, and a slight increase in implicit reference.

**Figure 7 : Degrees of explicitness out of all reference in all K areas**



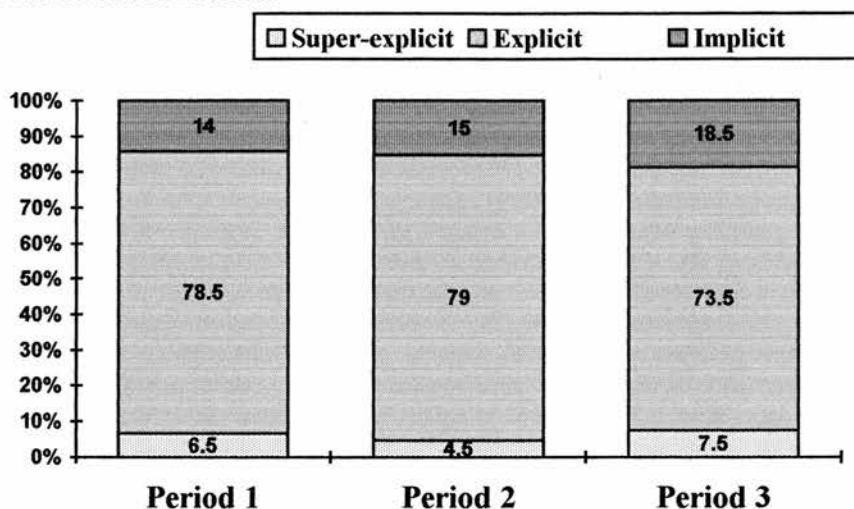
The pie-charts in Figure 8 summarise the findings with regard to the proportion of the degrees of explicitness, comparing non-course K areas and K4. There is a very clear difference: K4 has less super-explicit and explicit language than non-course K areas, and double the amount of implicit reference. These findings suggest that students feel less need to elaborate, explain and identify what they are talking about, when the topic is based on knowledge of the course.

Figure 9 shows the changes over time in degrees of explicitness in the different K areas and shows that not only does K4 have a higher density of implicit reference but that this increases dramatically in period 3, at the expense of super-explicit and explicit reference.

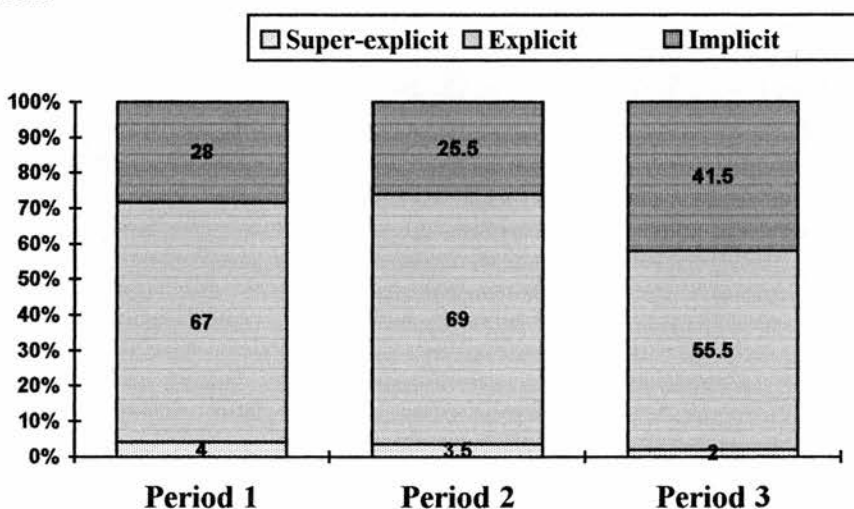
**Figure 8 : Proportion of degrees of explicitness in all the data****Non-course K areas :****K4 :**

In order to find whether there was an association between closeness to K4 and implicitness in non-anaphoric definite reference, the percentage of super-explicit, explicit and implicit referring items out of non-anaphoric definite referring items was calculated for each recording day in each K area, and then the average percentage of the three degrees of explicitness was found for each day, weighting the explicit referring expression percentage doubly and the implicit referring expression percentage triply. Thus, the three degrees were merged into one on a scale of explicitness (see Figure 10).

**Figure 9 : Density of degrees of explicitness out of all reference  
In Non-course K areas**



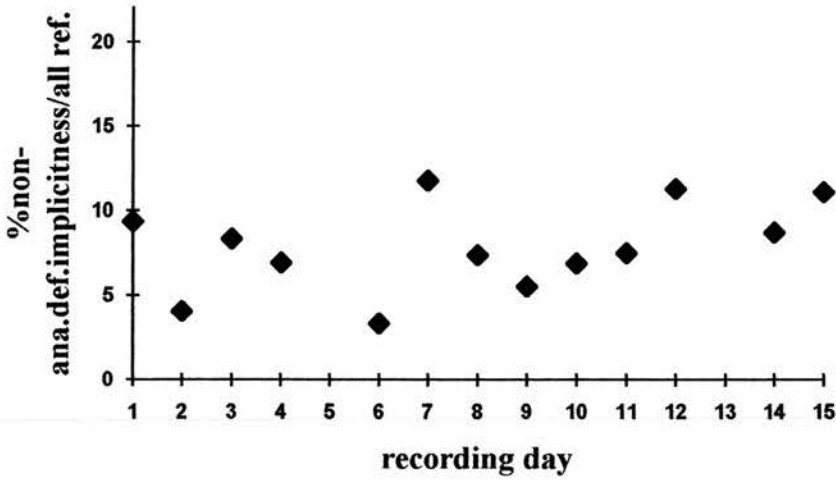
**In K4**



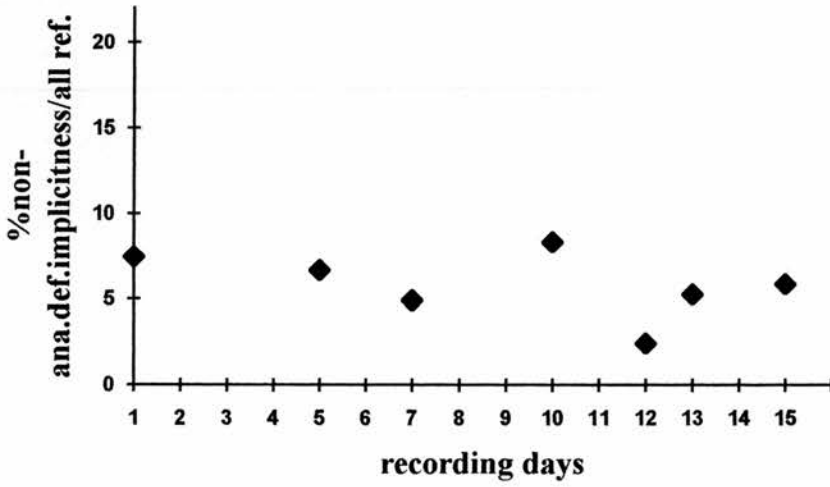
There was a great difference between K areas. The range of percentages is higher in K4 than it is in K3, and higher in K3 than it is in K2 etc. Thus, it can be affirmed that the closer the knowledge area is to K4, the more implicit the non-anaphoric definite reference becomes. This suggests that the closer a topic is to the course, the more students refer to referents that are not connected with the text assuming that they are in the minds of the speakers, using increasingly implicit and vague referring expressions.

Figure 10 : Weighted percentages of super-explicit, explicit and implicit non-anaphoric definite referring expressions in each K area.

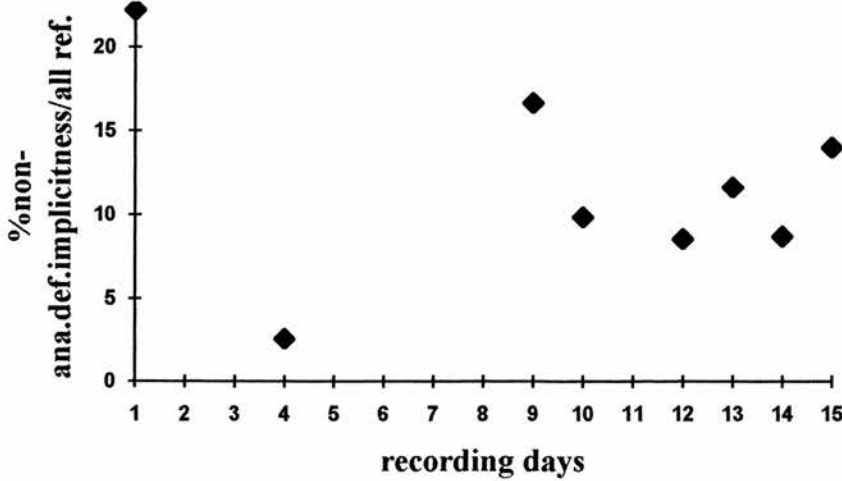
K1



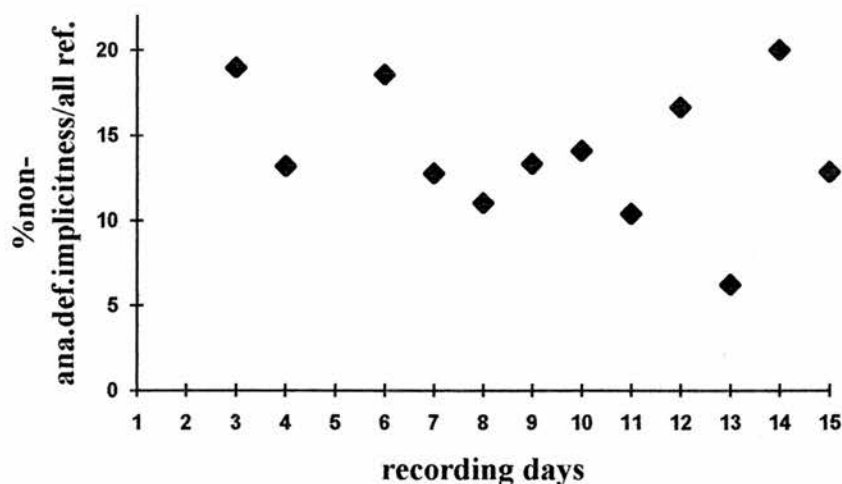
K2



K3



## K4



### 5.3.3.2 Super-explicit reference

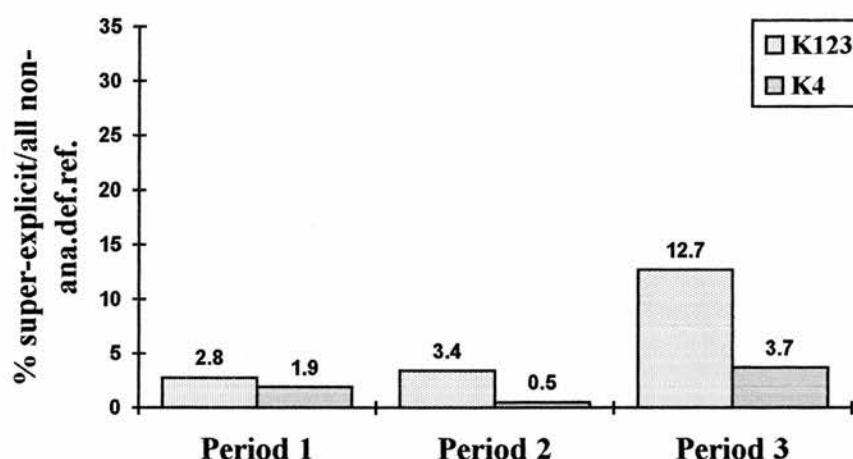
All aspects (anaphoric and non-anaphoric; definite and indefinite) of super-explicit reference (that in which the referent is identified by means of a modifier such as "the pen that I bought" or a 'completed' comparative adjective or adverb such as "a better pen than my last one") are not of great interest in the description of the in-group code. The hypothesis only concerns super-explicit non-anaphoric definite reference:

4. *In period 2 in all K areas, super-explicit non-anaphoric definite reference decreases.*

Calculations of the percentage of super-explicit reference out of all non-anaphoric definite reference, taking all K areas together, showed a decrease in period 2 but then a dramatic *increase* in period 3, (period 1: 3.22%, period 2: 2.25% and period 3: 10.89%). The hypothesis was not confirmed, in the sense that the decrease was not consistent. This reflects the tendency of all super-explicit reference to increase (see Figure 7).

Analysis of K areas taken separately showed that the increase occurs mainly in non-course K areas (see Figure 11). It is likely that since period 3 is a time when non-course talk is about future activities after the course (K3), super-explicit language is required to introduce referents that are known by each individual. K4 has consistently a lower density of super-explicit non-anaphoric definite reference than non-course K areas. This means that course topic referents referred to for the first time and as if they could be taken for granted as known are less likely than non-course topic referents to need additional information to identify the referent.

**Figure 11 : Percentage of super-explicit reference out of all non-anaphoric definite reference**



Post-head dependents in each K area type seem to differ functionally. In non-course K areas, they tend to have the function of informing, explaining and instructing. In the following example from K3, the post-head has a restrictive function. BF is explaining that her partner has been made warden :

- e.g.:
- 25064 BF He's been made into the warden of our house.
  - 25065 BF We've got a brilliant university house.
  - 25066 NF Ah and he's the warden.
  - 25067 BF Yep.
  - 25068 BF **The girl who was doing it** has dropped out of university.

In K4, post-heads tend to occur in utterances that express an opinion or add a comment. In the following example, AF gives her view of an article that all students had had to read:

- e.g.:
- 16032 AF I think- I find a real loss actually of not having read **the (0.5) Fay and Cutler article which seems to be underpinning this.**

It is not so much increasing knowledge over time that influences the amount of super-explicit reference, it is the K area. The implicitness of MSc common room conversations appears to be partly a result of the nature of noun phrases in K4. K4 has a lower density of super-explicit non-anaphoric definite referring expressions; K4 conversations occupy 40% of the recordings. This might be part of the explanation of the impenetrable nature of the students' conversations. (See Chapter 9).

### 5.3.3.3 Explicit reference

Explicit reference ('bald' reference with a noun, other than a general or vague noun, which is not followed by a non-obligatory post-head modifier, as in "the pen") in general (anaphoric and non-anaphoric; definite and indefinite) is the unmarked way of referring. The speaker assumes that the identification of the referent is clear enough without further explanation. In the data, there is a slight decrease in explicit reference.

The hypothesis that

5. *In period 2 in all K areas, explicit non-anaphoric definite reference increases.*

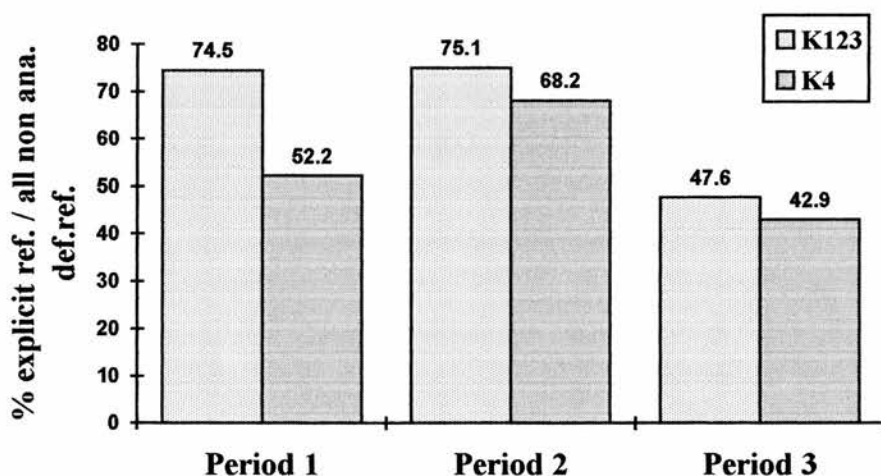
was not confirmed; it decreases dramatically in period 3 (period 1: 66.5%, period 2: 67.5% and period 3: 45.5%). This decrease occurs in both non-course K areas and K4: over time, students talking on any topic are less likely to introduce a new definite referent taking for granted background knowledge using an explicit noun.

The hypothesis that

7. *K4 has more explicit non-anaphoric definite reference than non-course K areas.*

was not confirmed; the density of explicit non-anaphoric definite reference is lower. When students are talking on a course topic they are less likely to use an explicit noun than they are on a non-course topic (see Figure 12).

**Figure 12 : Percentage of explicit reference out of all non-anaphoric definite reference**



An analysis of the reference types in explicit definite non-anaphoric reference shows that the noun phrase mostly contains demonstrative reference, especially in K4 topics. When talking about the course, students use course-related nouns with a definite

article and no explanatory post-head modification; they assume that the hearer can identify what they refer to. Thus they can use a technical term, as in the following example, in which speakers discuss the changes in tendencies in language teaching methodology. NF is confident that the term needs no explaining:

e.g.: → 18028 NF     You know you know what em like yeah er **the audio lingual**.

Similarly, speakers can refer to components of the course, using the in-house-terms that they know that everyone in the course is bound to understand without further identification, as in the following example in which DM mentions the end-of-course take-home exam:

e.g.: 27127 DM     By the time you get to the last week you'll have done most of what you need to- you'll know what you need to know for **the portfolio**.

Explicit non-anaphoric reference with demonstratives has different characteristics depending on the K area that they occur in. These functional differences in terms of context and specificity are discussed in section 5.3.4 of this chapter.

#### 5.3.3.4 Implicit reference

Implicit reference (that which includes ellipsis and referring expressions that refer with a "vague" or non-contentful expression such as a general noun or a non-anaphoric pronoun e.g.: "a thing", "stuff", "that thing", "their problem", "that", "he", "something") is the most important part of the study of the implicitness of the in-group code.

Analysis showed that implicit reference in all K areas increases over time. Figure 13 shows the proportions of tokens of pronouns and noun phrases used for implicit reference in each of the three periods, used to carry out a  $\chi^2$  test of significance. The value of  $\chi^2$  was 2.065, significant at the 0.005 level, and showed that, taking all four K areas together, the difference between the proportions of implicit reference and non-implicit reference in each of the three periods is significant. This confirms the hypothesis:

*1. Over time in all K areas, implicit reference increases.*

The more experiences the students share, and the more they know of each other, the more they use implicit reference.

**Figure 13 : Frequencies of implicit reference tokens and non-implicit reference tokens in each of the three periods, taking all K areas together.**

		Period		
		1	2	3
Reference items: implicit	yes	165	365	233
	no	709	1,403	852

Analysis showed that K4 has much more implicit reference than non-course K areas and that the density of implicit reference in K4 dialogues rises dramatically over time. Figure 9 shows that nearly half of K4's reference in period 3 is implicit.

Figure 14 shows the proportions of tokens of implicit reference in course and non-course K area topics, used to carry out a  $\chi^2$  test of significance. The value of  $\chi^2$  was 102.32, significant at the 0.005 level. It showed that, taking all periods together, the difference between the proportions of implicit reference and non-implicit reference in course topics and non-course topics is significant. This confirms the hypothesis:

2. *K4 has more implicit reference than the non-course K areas.*

**Figure 14 : Frequencies of implicit reference tokens and non-implicit reference tokens in course and non-course topics.**

		Course topic	
		yes	no
Reference items: implicit	yes	393	370
	no	943	2021

In K4, the course elements need little identification in reference because they are in the forefront of all the students' minds, even though the components may change according to events on the course calendar. In term one, students can take for granted that the subject of tutorial tasks and background reading will be in most people's minds most of the time. At the beginning of the second term, students know that their colleagues must be thinking about the examination and the first project. By the summer term, the students can assume that they are all thinking about the subjects that they choose to concentrate on for the portfolio and the subject to do the summer dissertation on.

Moving on now to implicit non-anaphoric definite reference, the hypothesis that:

7. *In period 3 in all K areas, implicit non-anaphoric definite reference increases.*

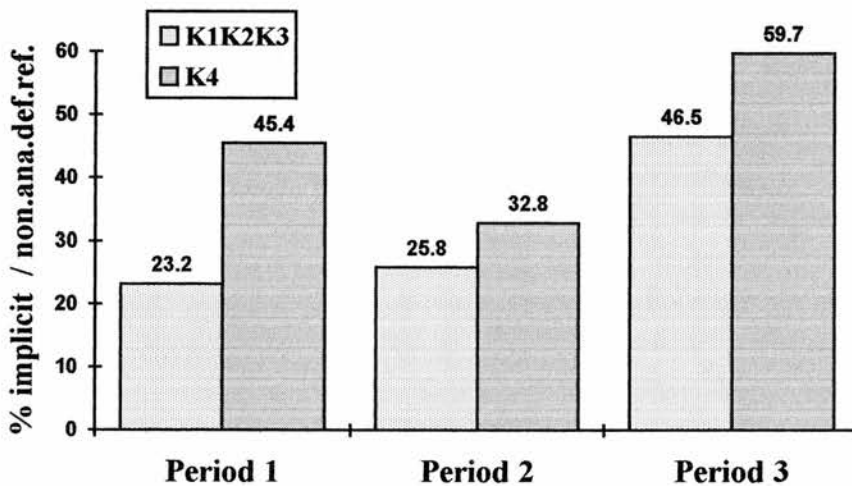
was confirmed most decisively: the percentage of implicit referring items in non-anaphoric definite reference rises sharply from 30.99% in period 1 and 30.96% in period 2 to 49.48 in period 3. This increase is very much greater than that of all implicit reference taken together (see Figure 7).

The hypothesis:

8. *K4 has more implicit non-anaphoric definite reference than non-course K areas.*

was confirmed (see Figure 15). The density of both K4 and non-course K areas rises dramatically in period 3. The rise in implicitness in non-course K areas in period 3 can be explained by the fact that this is the period in which K3 topics on doing a PhD and applying for the IALS scholarship occur. These are the topics out of all the non-course topics that are closest to K4.

**Figure 15 : Implicit Reference out of all non-anaphoric definite reference**



Similar calculations done to test the hypothesis

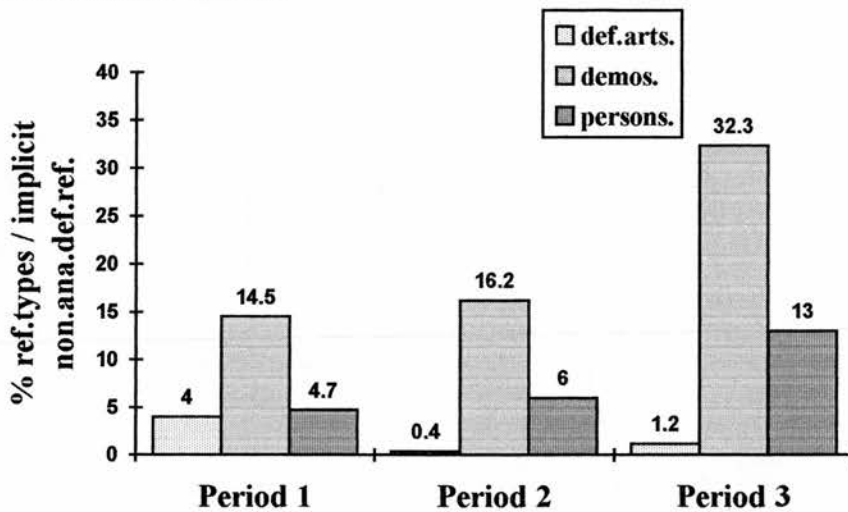
9. *Over time in all K areas, implicit non-anaphoric indefinite reference increases.*

show that there is little difference between the K areas and little change over time as far as indefinite reference is concerned. (See Appendix X).

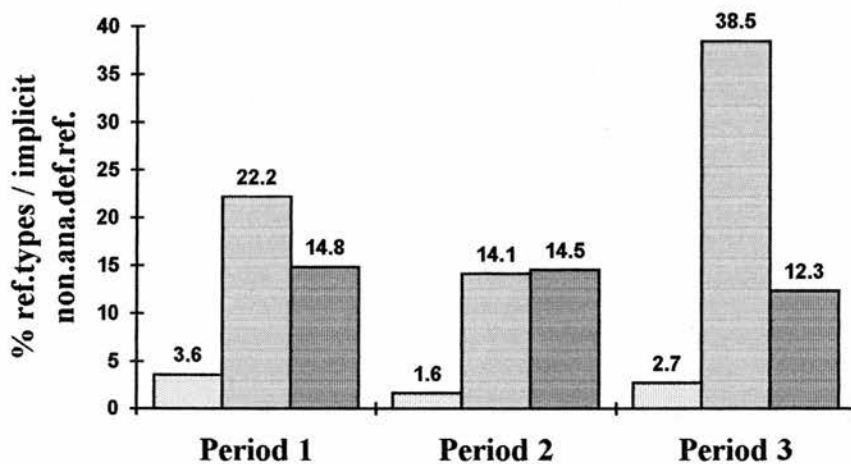
When the individual reference types in implicit non-anaphoric definite reference were examined in all K areas, it was found that definite articles occurring with general nouns are the least important feature of implicit non-anaphoric reference, and demonstratives and personal pronouns are a major one (see Figure 16). That is to say,

there is a higher density of non-anaphoric noun phrases such as "that thing", "this", "there" and "she" than there is of non-anaphoric "the thing".

**Figure 16 : Reference types in implicit non-anaphoric definite reference  
In non-course K areas**



#### In K4



The main difference between non-course K areas and K4 in this respect is that K4 has a higher density of non-anaphoric personal pronouns, and slightly more implicit non-anaphoric demonstratives. The following example, in which CM suddenly changes the subject and uses a non-anaphoric pronoun, is therefore characteristic of K4:

e.g.: 15161 DM Sometime this week I hope t- tomorrow I'll get them all done.  
 15162 AF What your core project?  
 15163 DM Yeah. ((0.5))  
 → 15164 CM Did **he** like did he like the idea?  
 15165 AF That's very energetic.  
 15166 DM Well you know what he's like.

CM knows that he can ask about the tutor's opinion on the progress of the project without giving him a name. Similarly, the following example with the referent of the non-anaphoric demonstrative determiner and general noun obscure to all but the interlocutors, is therefore typical of K4 :

e.g.: 20050 BM Did you see em X about **that MSc thing?**

As far as non-anaphoric ellipsis is concerned, there are almost no examples. In K4, the instances of non-anaphoric ellipsis are very much bound up with specific components of the course and would probably only be understood by an in-group member. In the following example of non-anaphoric ellipsis, speakers tell each other of the difficulty that they had with a tutorial task:

e.g.: 04136 DM And I wanted to show one of you somebody actually.  
 → 04137 DM I think he made a mistake yesterday when he was putting them up when the diagram was up I think he got **one wrong**. ((0.5))  
 04138 BF Oh I didn't copy them all down.  
 04139 BF I didn't have time.

The "one" cannot mean "diagram" because that is singular; unit 04138 shows that something plural is in mind. "One" might mean a "one branch" on a syntax diagram, "one example", or "one answer to a question." In the next example, students anxiously agree that the course event timetable is full:

e.g.: 13137 AM All right so one month later is the em // first course project.  
 → 13138 FF // And then (0.5) and then another the month after that so there's **quite a lot to do**.  
 13139 AM Right.

In this example, "a lot" probably does not simply mean "a lot of work" but more precisely "a lot of project writing".

### 5.3.4 Referents

This part of the chapter contains a qualitative comparison between non-course K areas and K4 in terms of the context and specificity of non-anaphoric definite reference. These aspects were analysed to see whether they might contribute to the exclusivity of the in-group code. It may be that the implicitness of K4 topics is caused not only by the non-anaphoric definite reference types in themselves but also by the fact that the referents are specific and in the context of background knowledge.

The discussion is based on global impressions of the data, rather than a calculation of the percentage of quantities because neither context type nor specificity were part of the tagging system and so could not be counted in a reliable way. They were not part

of the tagging system because they would have made the system too complex and over-burdened.

### 5.3.4.1 Context

The discussion in this section centres round the issues of whether the referents in the non-anaphoric reference are introduced or assumed to be known, and whether they are in the immediate situation surrounding the speakers or in the background knowledge that speakers have in their minds. On the whole, non-course K area non-anaphoric definite reference is introductory and situational, and K4 non-anaphoric reference is in the context of background knowledge.

- **Explicit reference**

In non-course K areas, most non-anaphoric demonstrative determiners in explicit reference are in introductory reference in narratives. The following example is from a dialogue about a hypnotist show:

e.g.: → 02008 MM It's just that I met someone afterwards and they said that what was happening was things like em (1) like at one-one point they got **these glasses**.  
 02009 MM OK.  
 → 02010 MM And they put these glasses on **these blokes**.  
 /.../ → 02085 MM He's got **this really quick way** of hypnotising people.

This use of the demonstrative is very close to the indefinite: they mean here "a pair of glasses", "blokes". Using a demonstrative here heightens the dramatic tone and increases the interest for the hearer. Only the proximal demonstrative can be used in this way and it is arguably an intimacy marker. The following story about weekend activities is brought closer to the audience by the demonstrative:

e.g.: → 22163 DM Cos we did **this enormous eight hour stretch**.  
 22164 AF Uhm.  
 → 22165 DM Up **this big bloody mountain**.

Hearers know that they are not expected to know these referents. A non-in-group member would be included in the audience because of this narrative semi-indefinite use of the demonstrative.

In K4, most demonstrative determiners in explicit non-anaphoric reference depend heavily on the background knowledge of the course. The demonstrative demands of the hearers that they remember the exact circumstances or conditions of a referent. In

the following example, speakers are comparing notes on an article that they had to read for a tutorial:

- e.g.: → 16012 AM I knew it was em the er em then again when when we went away after **that tutorial** we we took the paper we took er em we just sat and went through it together and basically line by line.
- /.../ 16020 AF I couldn't actually follow (0.5) an argument as such in it.
- 16021 AF I thought she was bit of a bore and hedging and surveying and so on and I couldn't see the point of **this semantic field boundary**.

The reference here is intertextual "That tutorial" seems to mean "That tutorial that we went to"; "this semantic field boundary" seems to mean "this semantic field boundary that we read about", but this modification is not necessary. In the following example, students probably shared interpersonal knowledge of a list of tutorial questions:

- e.g.: 03034 BM What we decided was we-we got did you get **that em list** em (2) the em the sh-topic sheet from XX on- on Monday?

The "that" here points to the referent in such a way that shows that the speaker expects his hearer to make an effort to remember which one he is talking about. A non-in-group member would be excluded by the demonstrative.

K4 demonstrative determiners in explicit non-anaphoric reference often occur in time adjuncts, relating experience to time within the course. In this example, part-timer AF tells DM about the planning of her assignments for the next two years:

- e.g.: → 29083 AF I don't think I'll do the dissertation **this year**.
- 29084 DM Oh no.
- 29085 DM You've got till next year.

Presumably, "this year" implies "in the first year of my MSc".

#### • Implicit reference

The difference between the K areas is again most marked in the case of demonstratives. Non-course K area demonstratives have referents in the immediate situation, whereas K4 demonstratives have them in the wider context of background knowledge.

In non-course K areas, non-anaphoric demonstrative determiners and pronouns are used in introductory situational reference in narratives, such as in the following K1 hypnotist show example, in which MM describes the people wearing the glasses and presumably imitates their faces to entertain his audience:

- e.g.: 02019 MM I mean just such little horrid smug expressions.
- 02020 MM Like **this** ((1))

Witness the following K1 example of introductory situational demonstratives in a narrative, in which DM tells of his weekend's climbing outing:

- e.g.: 22160 DM Michelle and I got home she looked at her knees. (0.5)  
 → 22161 DM They were like **this**.  
 → 22162 DM Swollen up like **this**.

Any person present in the conversation would understand the referent of the implicit demonstrative pronoun: DM seems to be gesticulating. The situational / proximal demonstrative is clearly much more explicit than the demonstrative that depends on background knowledge.

K4's demonstrative determiners and pronouns, on the other hand, are the most obviously intertextual of reference types. When the demonstrative determiner modifies intertextual non-anaphoric general nouns, they emphasise the implicitness of these spontaneous dialogues. The example:

- e.g. - 15045 DM So I typed **that thing** up again after you'd gone.

is a case in point. The great majority of K4 demonstrative determiners with general nouns could not be understood without the background knowledge. They occur in periods 2 and 3. The K4 non-anaphoric demonstrative pronouns frequently depend on background knowledge of the course. In the next example, CM may have been talking about core course material: the subsequent discourse units suggest that this is possible. The implicit non-anaphoric demonstrative pronoun occurs in the first discourse unit of a new topic:

- e.g.:→ 10052 CM When I first started studying I thought I'm going to learn seven or eight of **these** really well.  
 10053 CM Then I started with one.  
 10054 CM I went for the Language and Linguistics.

Non-anaphoric demonstrative adverbs in non-course K areas also seem to be mainly situational. K2 has several instances of situational adverbs in one dialogue in which CM explains what can be done with a certain computing package and the students are presumably pointing to a sketch on a piece of paper in front of them, or it may be a lap-top:

- e.g.:→ 26021 BM **Here** you have most of the body of the information here (0.5) in the middle of the page or towards // the right  
 26022 CM // Yeah.  
 /.../→ 26028 CM With a little heading **here** or something?  
 /.../→ 26053 BM So in fact- there's no way I can go in fact- cos the way I'm doing it at the moment you know if I as something **there** that obviously moves **that** across so I have to come back and move it back.  
 26054 CM Yeah.

- 26055 CM Can't do it.  
 /.../→ 26061 BM What if I set the tabs like **this**?

Non-course K area demonstrative adverbs *can* of course also require hearers to have background contextual knowledge. The background knowledge is often world events or current news issues, as in the following example, spoken at the beginning of a period of press invasion of the royal family's privacy: hearers need to be familiar with the "toe-sucking" incident:

- e.g.: 24019 DM Fergey?  
 24020 BF (heh heh) (1)  
 24021 BF A royal. ((2))  
 → 24022 MM Not a royal **now**. ((2))

Many of K3's demonstrative adverbs depend on background knowledge of DAL and IALS and they could make it difficult for an outsider to identify the referent. Take this example in which students discuss whether they are interested in trying for the IALS scholarship:

- e.g.:→ 28020 BF But the things that they wrote **there** I'm not really interested very interested in so that's // their specific areas.  
 28021 CM // No ESP and CALL and what else did they say?  
 28022 BF I don't mind ESP but em the Resource Centre CALL.

Here, only present course members could know whether "there" was "in a handout", "in a newspaper advertisement", or "on the department notice-board", (and whether "they" was IALS in general or specific members of staff, and which "things", or preferred topic areas, were listed for scholarship students).

The meaning of K4's non-anaphoric demonstrative adverbs can again be opaque; they depend mostly on background knowledge rather than the immediate situation. Most of them in K4 in periods 2 and 3 are concerned with time: what distance there is between the present moment and a project deadline, the end of a term, the date of the portfolio. In the following example, speakers discuss a colleague's project progress:

- e.g.: 15016 CM He's nearly finished writing.  
 → 15017 DM Well so he's nearly **there**.  
 15018 CM Yeah.  
 15019 CM Almost finished. (1.5)

The "there" seems to imply "the point at which he can hand in his project". The deadline or the date in question is assumed to be in the minds of the speakers; it is not mentioned.

Reference with definite articles and general nouns, whatever the K area, mostly assumes background knowledge and does not point to the immediate situation. Non-anaphoric general nouns with definite articles in K4 almost invariably point to

referents in the course: an article, a book, a linguist, a member of staff. In the following example, DM compares his project with BF's and refers presumably to the question or the issue under discussion as "the thing":

e.g.: 22084 DM Yeah we've looked at the literature and approached **the thing** very differently // but the actual practical bit in terms of what we included in my theory (3)

The lack of background knowledge with definite articles and general nouns in K4 could affect global comprehension for a non-in-group member. In the next excerpt from period 1, in which BM's colleagues tease him because he is flustered at not being prepared for the tutorial, no speaker refers to the tutorial task sheet by name:

e.g.: 07031 BM // (heh heh heh) So who've I been divided up with?  
 07032 MM With X.  
 07033 MM And she's not here.  
 07034 MM So you've got the whole damn thing to do. // (heh heh)  
 07035 BF // (heh heh)  
 → 07036 BM But I haven't got **the thingymajog** in my em=  
 07037 BF Are you sh-sure about that?

#### 5.3.4.2 Specificity

As in the case of type of context, discussed in the previous section, specificity is influenced more by K area than by increasing knowledge over time. Differences between K areas are most noticeable in the area of implicit reference. The following simplified description of differences shows that K4's general nouns with specific referents contribute to the implicit and exclusive nature of course topics.

- **Explicit reference**

As far as specificity of the explicit non-anaphoric noun with a definite article is concerned, K1 is the K area that has most non-specific reference. In K1, it contains generic reference to things that we all have, use or go to, such as "the radio", "the bank" and "the pub". In the following example, DM explains what happened on the morning when there was no 9 a.m. class:

e.g.: 04006 AF You mean you didn't get up earlier and make the most of the extra time? ((0.5))  
 → 04007 DM No I-I thought no I actually woke up at about er quarter to eight and I could've got on **the bus** I could have made it and I thought oh bloody hell I'll stay in the house.

Here, the speaker *may* have in mind one specific "the 8.30 a.m. number 87 bus going south, that I always get", but he refers to it with a generic noun.

K4 explicit reference with a definite article tends to be specific, as in the following. DM shifts topic with a comment about a lecture:

e.g.: 04137 DM I think he made a mistake yesterday when he was putting them up when **the diagram** was up I think he got one wrong. ((0.5))

Only in-group members would know which diagram this was specifically. When some nouns related to the course have specific reference, they contribute to the implicitness of the in-group code. In the following example, only group members know which "list" they are talking about and which "exercise"; they do not need further identification, even though in the MSc course there are many lists and many exercises.

e.g.:→ 04117 BM I just had one book which wasn't on **the list** which was too- too long really to give // me any conclusions.  
 04118 BF // No I- I haven't read anything specific for it.(2.5)  
 → 04119 BF But you could sort of (2) do **the exercise** without having read anything.

In the following, speakers would know which "project" specifically is being referred to:

e.g.: 22035 MM I've come for Silvia to give me my thesis. (1)  
 22036 MM And you?  
 → 22037 MM How's **the er project**?  
 22038 DM Just reading each others' now at the moment.

#### • Implicit reference

Non-course K area reference is more often non-specific than specific, whether it is with general nouns with definite articles or demonstratives or personal pronouns. K4 reference, whether with general nouns with definite articles or demonstratives or personal pronouns, is more often specific than non-specific.

In non-course K areas, when non-anaphoric general nouns occur with definite articles it is usually with non-specific referents, then. In this K1 example, the speaker most likely does not have in mind specific "things", when talking about what Melvyn Bragg said about world history on the chat show:

e.g.: 11082 NM Doom gloom. (1)  
 11083 NM No-one really challenged him.  
 11084 NM On this you know.  
 → 11085 NM Cos I mean since the Romans basically **the same things** are getting worse and worse.

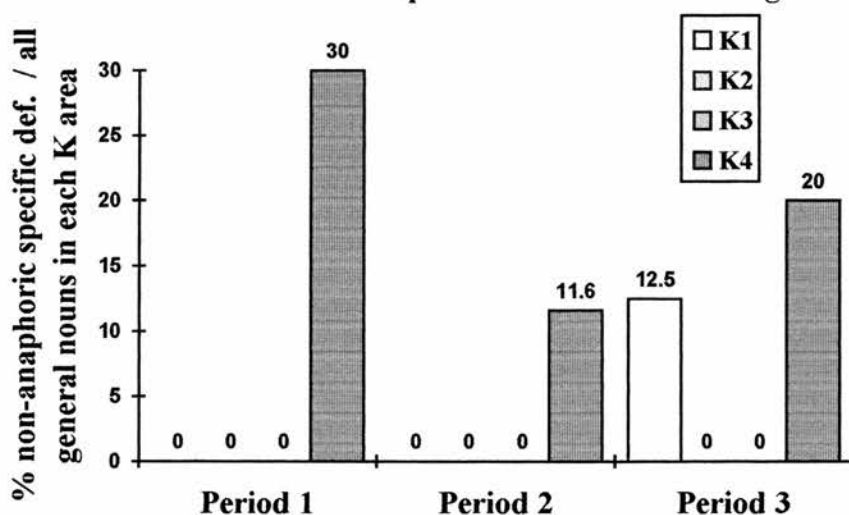
K4 definite articles, on the other hand, tend to accompany general nouns referring to specific referents. In the following excerpt, the tutorial task sheet that BM is looking for is not named as such; BM uses a general noun referring expression to refer to a specific referent.:

e.g.: 07031 BM // (heh heh heh) So who've I been divided up with?  
 07032 MM With X.  
 07033 MM And she's not here.  
 07034 MM So you've got the whole damn thing to do. // (heh heh)  
 07035 BF // (heh heh)  
 → 07036 BM But I haven't got **the thingymajog** in my em=  
 07037 BF Are you sh-sure about that?

The analysis of general nouns shows that K4 is radically different from non-course K areas in that it has a much higher density of non-anaphoric non-modified general course nouns with definite reference and specific referents (see Figure 17). This very small group out of all general nouns is of great importance in the description of the implicit language of the in-group. Non-anaphoric non-modified general nouns are doubly inaccessible to outsiders to the in-group when their referent is specific. In the following K4 example, BM starts a new topic with:

e.g.: 20028 BM How's it how's your going?  
 → 20029 BM I haven't given you **your thing** back.  
 20030 BM Do you still want it back?  
 20031 DM Yeah.

**Figure 17 : Percentage of non-anaphoric non-modified general nouns with definite reference and specific referents out of all general nouns**



Non-anaphoric demonstrative adverbs in non-course K areas are often with a non-specific meaning of "wherever"; that is to say, the speaker has no particular location in mind and nor is it important, it would seem. Take the following K1 example, in which speakers are discussing holidays in the Mediterranean and saying how polluted the beaches are:

e.g.: 19042 CM Do you- go and take a picture **there** and then go back to the pool?

In this example, "there" could mean "anywhere on the beach" or "somewhere outside the hotel".

K4 demonstrative adverbs tend to have specific reference, as in

e.g.: 07031 BM // (heh heh heh) So who've I been divided up with?

07032 MM With X.

→ 07033 MM And she's not **here**.

in which only in-group members would know whether "here" meant "here in this pre-tutorial", "here in the department today" or "here in Edinburgh."

Non-anaphoric personal pronouns in non-course K areas are mainly generalised or empty. In the following K2 example, two students give an overseas colleague advice on buying a computer. The meaning of "they" switches subtly from "people running the computer company" (06009), to "people who know about buying computers" (06014), to "people working in customs" (06057), without any of them being specified:

e.g.: 06007 CM You're buying a computer?

06008 NF Yeah.

→ 06009 NF **They** sent me this.

06010 AM And they persuaded=

06011 CM The best thing to do is use a che- master card or something.

06012 NF I don't have a master card.

06013 CM That's actually it's a good question. (0.5)

→ 06014 CM Like like **they** always tell you when you buy a computer use a master card because (0.5) then if you don't get what you want then you don't pay the master card and the master card has problems not you.

/.../ 06055 AM Because you're a foreigner in fact because you're a foreigner you can not pay VAT.

06056 CM No you guys.

→ 06057 CM Show **them** your passport and it says you have a temporary visa and then=

Non-anaphoric personal pronouns occur mainly in K1, and the "it" and "they" tend to have non-specific referents that any outsider would understand. In the following example, BF entertains listeners by dramatising her Hogmanay experiences:

e.g.: 08080 BF Cos we all met up er in the town centre at ten o'clock. (0.5)

→ 08081 BF And when we got there (0.5) **they'd** stopped serving. ((1))

"They" can be assumed to mean "pub bar staff"; most British adults would understand that. In the following K3 example, speakers discuss how the IALS scholarship system works and use a more limited but still generalised "they" referring to the staff at the Institute giving the grant:

- e.g.: 25022 NF You work for the scholarship- scholarship?  
 25023 CM Well you have to work for it.  
 25024 CM You have to work four hundred eighty hours.  
 25025 NF Ah.  
 → 250261 CM **They** get tuition for the salary.

When there *is* an instance of specific reference in non-course K areas, it tends to be in non-course sections of dialogue relating to a course topic, as in the following K1 example, occurring significantly in period 3. BF has just finished looking over DM's project, on project-handing-in deadline day:

- e.g.: 22092 BF But you - writes quite I mean reads quite fluently =  
 22093 DM Good. ((4))  
 → 22094 BF Well I'll go home then now (1) and sleep it off.  
 22095 DM Yes you get rid of your hangover. ((5))  
 22096 BF I got a // cold.

Presumably BF means "it" to refer to something like "the effort of doing the project" or "the strain of staying up late and working under pressure".

When K4 non-anaphoric personal pronouns have non-specific referents, they refer to "people in general" or "members of staff" in the Institute or the Department, or the linguists that wrote the papers or books that they are reading; they can be generalised. Speakers in the following example discuss what questions "they", the authorities that set exams, could ask in the exam:

- e.g.: 08022 AM But things like this linguistics as well.  
 08023 AM You know I don't mi-mind.  
 08024 CM You still got enough time for that? ((0.5))  
 → 08025 AM There's not a lot of things **they** can ask.

In the next example, speakers discuss what sort of answers "they", those that mark the exams and give the grades, expect in the portfolio and give each other advice:

- e.g.: 13162 AM Don't do any reading for it though. (2)  
 → 13163 AM So **they** expect quite long answers.  
 13164 AM I mean not like like the exam.

In the following example, speakers discuss when "they", those that control the programme, will publish their decision about moving a deadline:

- e.g.: 23019 DM Oh we've got three weeks now (2).  
 → 23020 DM When are **they** going to tell us whether it is or not? =  
 23021 BF After the (1) portfolio yeah.

08026 AM We haven't actually done it that deeply have we?

More often, K4 non-anaphoric personal pronouns are specific and refer to elements of the course such as projects and dissertations or to members of staff, as in the following example, in which students discuss how they used diagrams that a member of staff provided, in an exam answer:

e.g.:→ 12191 AM No because we had the er ones **she** gave // us.  
 12192 AM I just traced that.  
 12193 CM // Yeah.

Students can use a singular implicit non-anaphoric "he/she" with specific reference and be sure of being understood. The specific use of singular inanimate non-anaphoric personal pronoun in K4 refers to elements of the course: handouts, tutorials, projects, deadlines. Hence:

e.g.: 15053 CM I forgot to answer your questionnaire.  
 15054 DM Oh that's all right.  
 15055 DM // That's OK.  
 15056 DM That's fine.  
 → 15057 DM It's still the end of this week.

The "it" could be a handing-in deadline, or it could be a tutorial.

Although this part of the chapter has focused on definite reference, indefinite pronouns deserve a brief mention here because they vary from K area to K area in terms of specificity. In non-course K areas, they tend to have non-specific referents. In the following example, a hearer would not have to be an in-group member to know that "anything" does not mean "anything at all" such as "read the paper" or "have dinner" but rather social, cultural or sporting activities:

e.g.: 21001 DM Have a good weekend?  
 → 21002 DM Do **anything**? =  
 → 21003 AF Do **anything**. (1.5)  
 21004 AF I don't think so actually. (5)  
 → 21005 AF I did **nothing** as far as I can remember.

The K4 indefinite pronouns, on the other hand, are more often specific. In the following example, students are discussing diagrams drawn in their answers to the phonetics exam question. NF may have a specific person in mind but it is not important who it is:

e.g.: 12179 AM S:: I did drew one for each um phonetic sound so it was seven.  
 12180 NF I did too.  
 → 12181 NF **Somebody** said six because they think the two 'i' are the same and the four others were only consonants.

### 5.3.5 Shared Interpersonal Knowledge

This final part of the chapter contains an analysis of the features of sections of dialogue based on shared interpersonal knowledge. Analysis shows that implicit reference is not a feature of shared interpersonal knowledge sections but, when it does occur, the reference seems more obscure and exclusive.

As Chapter 3 showed, the main types of non-course shared interpersonal knowledge are that of the immediate family and past social activities outside the course, and the main types of K4 shared interpersonal knowledge are of the interlocutors' personality and attitudes towards components of the course and activities within the course.

The previous parts of this chapter have contained little mention of the context of shared interpersonal knowledge in dialogues because there are few instances of non-anaphoric definite reference in shared interpersonal knowledge sections. Shared interpersonal knowledge of attitudes, joint experiences, etc. are alluded to elliptically in other ways than through the in-group code.

#### 5.3.5.1 Super-explicit and explicit reference

In all the data, cases of super-explicit reference in shared interpersonal knowledge sections are exceedingly rare. This characteristic of shared interpersonal knowledge sections seems to suggest that if speakers talk about themselves or the interlocutor, then the referents are guaranteed to be in the conscious mind of the hearers and need no extra explanation for them to be recalled. When super-explicit reference does occur, the very isolated instances serve to underline the intertextual aspect: speakers point specifically to the fact that they share the knowledge. In the following example, speakers are showing solidarity with each others' anxiety about not managing to complete all the reading assignments:

e.g.: 14066 04 AM It's really it's just time isn't it?  
 14067 04 AM Nought else.  
 → 14068 4P AM Except **that time we were talking about.**

AM emphasises that this is a group sentiment.

Explicit non-anaphoric definite reference in shared interpersonal knowledge sections occurs in isolated cases in non-course K areas, especially in period 3. In K1, there is a small group of explicit non-anaphoric demonstrative determiners in a shared

interpersonal knowledge exchange that are overtly intertextual, in the sense that they refer to joint activities and experiences outside the course:

- e.g.:
- |         |    |    |   |
|---------|----|----|---|
| 27182   | 1P | MM | We er should have a- another battle of squash.  |
| 27183   | 01 | DM | Yes.  |
| 27184   | 01 | DM | Yes.  |
| 27185   | 1P | MM | I was enjoying that.                            |
| → 27186 | 1P | DM | I injured myself actually in <b>that game</b> . |
| 27187   | 1P | MM | Oh you did?                                     |
| 27188   | 1P | MM | And you kept mum about it.                      |

The only example in K3 is one from period 3, in which knowledge of a recent trip made by the person in question is shown:

- e.g.:
- |         |    |    |                                       |
|---------|----|----|---------------------------------------|
| → 26106 | 3P | BM | You shouldn't be <b>here</b> .        |
| → 26107 | 3P | FF | I got <b>the job</b> .                |
| 26108   | 3P | BM | How come she got back so early? (0.5) |
| → 26109 | 3P | BM | <b>That</b> was yesterday.            |

It is the density of both explicit and implicit non-anaphoric definite reference that could make this small exchange impenetrable even to members of the MSc course who did not have interpersonal knowledge of FF's life.

### 5.3.5.2 Implicit reference

The biggest group of implicit non-anaphoric reference in shared interpersonal knowledge is in K4, in which the demonstrative determiner with the general noun is the most frequent reference type. In the following example, there is no indication in the text of what is being referred to; this unit is the first of a topic shift:

- e.g.:
- |         |    |  |
|---------|----|--|
| → 20050 | BM | Did you see em X about <b>that MSc thing</b> ? |
| 20051   | DM | That's right.                                  |
| 20052   | DM | I'll go up and see if I can see it.            |

This demonstrative points to the "sharedness" of the knowledge by its very implicitness and informality, and could be an intimate in-group-membership-claiming strategy. A few implicit, vague noun clauses in the examples point to intertextuality of the exchanges:

- e.g.:
- |       |    |   |
|-------|----|---|
| 15158 | BM | Are you er (0.5) are going to do <b>what-you-you-thought-you'd-do</b> about your project? |
|-------|----|---|

Non-anaphoric personal pronouns are dense in K4 shared interpersonal knowledge sections of dialogues, especially in period 2. K4 personal pronouns occur in sections showing shared interpersonal knowledge of interlocutors' attitudes towards aspects and elements of the course: specifically the members of staff, referred to covertly:

- e.g.:
- |         |    |    |  |
|---------|----|----|--|
| → 15164 | 4P | CM | Did <b>he</b> like did he like the idea? |
|---------|----|----|--|

- 15165 04 AF That's very energetic.  
 → 15166 4P DM Well you know what **he's like**.  
 15167 4P DM It's difficult to tell isn't it?

This example also contains an example of comparative reference.

## 5.4 CONCLUSION

Increasing knowledge over time is weakly associated with the changes in reference. Taking all K areas together, the density of all non-anaphoric reference increases slightly in period 2 and drops slightly in period 3. K area seems to be a stronger influence, however. K4 dialogues contain a much higher density of non-anaphoric definite reference than non-course K area dialogues do. In shared interpersonal knowledge sections of dialogues, much is left unsaid but the implicitness is not brought about only by the nominal referring expressions.

The hypotheses that all super-explicit reference decreases and that all explicit reference increases were not confirmed. K4 has a lower density of super-explicit and explicit non-anaphoric definite reference than non-course K areas. This suggests that when the MSc students are talking on course topics and they mention something unrelated to the preceding dialogue, they are likely to assume that their interlocutors have enough background knowledge to be able to identify the referent without needing a post-head dependent.

The main change in language over time is the increase in implicit reference, especially in non-anaphoric definite reference and above all in K4. There is an overall increase in demonstrative determiners with general nouns, demonstrative pronouns and adverbs, and personal pronouns. K4 has a higher density of non-anaphoric personal pronouns than non-course K areas. As common knowledge of the course and shared interpersonal knowledge grow over time, so referents are referred to increasingly in an implicit and vague way.

This chapter has shown that the following grammatical features are typical of K4:

- explicit non-anaphoric noun phrases with definite articles and demonstrative determiners,
- implicit non-anaphoric general nouns with demonstrative determiners, non-anaphoric demonstrative pronouns and adverbs, and non-anaphoric personal pronouns and indefinite pronouns.

These are the grammatical implicit contextualisation cues.

There are marked differences between the K areas in terms of the context and the specificity of non-anaphoric definite reference. In non-course K areas, reference tends to be situational and non-specific. K4 referents tend to be specific and in the background knowledge. This increases the implicitness of K4 dialogues. An outsider could understand non-course dialogues better either because he can see the referent or because it has generic reference and therefore does not have to be identified precisely. Not so with K4 dialogues: speakers have one specific referent in mind and assume that hearers can find it in the background knowledge of the course.

The questions of whether the hearer's ability to understand the topic depends on the ability to relate the referring expressions to their referents, and what the relationship is between background knowledge and this ability are answered in the discussion of the impenetrability tests in Chapter 9.

As far as the function of implicit contextualisation cues are concerned, they are a reflection of common knowledge and an indicator of in-group membership. Students use terms with highly contextualised meaning and implicit reference because nothing more is needed in order for colleagues sharing the same knowledge to identify the referents. Using implicit contextualisation cues is convenient for them because they obey the co-operative maxim of quantity: give no more information than is needed (Grice 1975). Students obey the law of least effort: "man only makes as much effort as is needed to reach the goals that he has set himself" (Martinet 1970: 177).

It may be, however, that the students make a conscious choice to refer to referents in their shared context in an implicit way in order to *claim* intimacy, as a strategy for claiming in-group membership. To speak the language of the group is to be accepted as a member of the group. The question of whether the use of implicit language is a strategy for claiming in-group membership is discussed in Chapter 8.

## CHAPTER 6 : LEXIS IN REFERENCE

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### 6.1 INTRODUCTION

#### 6.1.1 Overview

This chapter continues the study of the implicit language used by the MSc students. Implicit language, as has been explained, consists of the in-group code of implicit contextualisation cues (at the noun phrase and verb level: implicit reference and explicit non-anaphoric definite reference, special course nouns and general words) and other implicit features (implicitness at the clause, utterance and exchange level). Chapter 5 contained a discussion of the grammatical implicit contextualisation cues and showed that increasing knowledge over time in K4 topics is associated with an increase in non-anaphoric definite reference, especially in implicit non-anaphoric definite reference.

The present chapter explores the lexical implicit contextualisation cues of the in-group code, and describes the analysis of the type of nouns and verbs chosen. The analysis shows that the choice of lexis is principally a reflection of the K area rather than the result of increasing knowledge over time. Thus special course nouns and course-related proper nouns feature more in course topics than in non-course topics. Moreover, it is in K4 dialogues that changes are seen with increasing knowledge over time.

Lexical analysis has a place in the present study of reference because it forms part of the study of the relationship between the context of background knowledge and language. The study shows that some common nouns used in course topics have a generalised range of meaning and acquire uniqueness or a limited pragmatic meaning in the context of the MSc course. It shows that some proper nouns have a metonymical meaning that only in-group members would understand.

Lexical analysis also has a place in the present study because lexis can be analysed from the point of view of the implicitness. The most important assumption is that the choice of lexeme can contribute to the implicit nature of the in-group code because

the lexemes carry different degrees of explicit information. This chapter discusses the gradability of contentfulness in lexical items: from proper nouns, to generalised nouns with implicit pragmatic meaning, to general nouns and verbs.

The general noun is at the extreme end of non-contentfulness. In the grammatical analysis, general nouns were analysed as part of the category 'implicit reference', which also included personal pronouns, indefinite pronouns and ellipsis (see Chapter 5). In the lexical analysis, general nouns are analysed as part of the category 'non-contentful lexical items' which also includes general verbs. As stated in Chapter 5, the general noun is a "borderline case between a lexical item (member of an open set) and a grammatical item (member of a closed system)" (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 274). General nouns are close to personal pronouns. Similarly, the non-contentful general "do" verb is on the borderline between the lexical verb and the substitute.

The chapter begins with a review of the literature on lexical non-contentfulness and vagueness. This is followed by an examination of each type of noun and verb. The chapter then shows that when general "do" verbs occur in the same utterance as general nouns and special course nouns, and together with grammatical implicit contextualisation cues, all these elements form a web of implicitness. The chapter also suggests that the intangibility of some nouns and verbs might contribute to the implicitness of the language.

The analysis of the MSc students' lexis in reference did not take into account lexical cohesion. Cohesion was analysed from only the grammatical point of view despite Hoey's (1991) assertion that lexical cohesion is "the single most important form of cohesive tie" (p.9). He would have us tag only the lexically cohesive, when analysing texts, on the grounds that "it is the lexical links that dominate cohesive organisation" (p.74). Hoey claims that the function of demonstrative modifiers is to draw attention to the givenness of some stretch of language and that "if that stretch of language proclaims its own givenness by being a lexical repetition or paraphrase, then to note the modifying demonstrative as a separate repetition would be double accounting". In this study, the tagging of cohesion was limited to the grammatical analysis because it was combined with the categories for definiteness and explicitness, and because the coding system tagged the different types of modifiers and also included pronouns.

### 6.1.2 Review Of The Literature

The importance of lexis in discourse analysis has only recently been recognised. McCarthy and Carter (1994) point out that "in spoken discourse analysis, vocabulary has often been relegated to a minor role in the features that combine to create the higher-order patterns of text-types and genres ... vocabulary choice is just as discourse sensitive as the grammatical choices" (p.104-105). Swales (1990) includes lexical choice as part of his definition of the academic discourse community, explaining that "somewhere down the line, ... understanding the rationale of and facility with appropriate genres will develop, control of technical vocabulary in both oral and written contexts will emerge" (p.32). When Kreckel (1981) states that the language of university students consists of "a multitude of in-group codes, discipline specific and social group specific ... taking discipline or group-specific knowledge for granted" (1981: 36), she refers to both grammar and lexis. Brown and Levinson (1978) list "in-group language" and jargon amongst their "in-group identity markers" that a speaker uses to claim in-group membership with the hearer. They argue that "the use of in-group codes - language, dialect, jargon, local terminology - assumes that H understands and shares the associations of that code".

Implicitness in terms of vagueness in lexical items has been touched on in linguistics literature, but not explored systematically. Ullman (1962) defines vagueness in language as the generic character of language e.g. "bird", referring to classes of things. Crystal and Davy (1975) say that there are three devices for expressing vagueness: dummy nouns expressing total vagueness such as "thingy", generic terms and collectives such as "bags of", and number approximations such as "about 30". Kennedy (1987) explores the vagueness of approximation devices of quantification. Lakoff (1972) calls vague lexical items words "whose meaning implicitly involves fuzziness" (p.195) and gives examples such as "sort of" and "approximately". Fodor (1977) claims that every word is vague in some way, because "Both for proper nouns and common nouns, one's knowledge of the referent may be extensive or quite fragmentary."

Channell (1994) is the one who has explored the subject in the greatest depth. She affirms that an expression or word is vague if a) it can be contrasted with another word or expression which appears to render the same proposition, if b) it is "purposely and unabashedly vague", or if c) the meaning "arises from intrinsic uncertainty". She finds three types of vagueness in language: vague additives such as "around ten",

vagueness by choice of vague words such as "thingy" and "loads of", and vagueness by implicature as in "Sam is six feet tall". Her study concentrates on approximators and vague quantifiers but she does devote some attention to words and expressions that refer vaguely to categories when she studies what she calls "tags" (referred to in this study as "vague fillers") such as "or something", "and things" and "and so on". She says,

"Hearers and readers need to draw on pragmatic information in order to identify the intended vague category. They use in particular: a) the surrounding linguistic context; b) the purpose of the text or conversation; and c) their world knowledge." (Channell 1994: 143).

Channell (ibid.) sees words such as "thingy" and "whatsisname" as "placeholder" words. Crystal and Davy (1975) call these "totally vague words". Channell's analysis of these vague expressions "shows that their meanings are themselves vague" (p.196). She says that "speakers share knowledge of how to understand them" (1994: 197) and that "it is apparently impossible to describe their meanings independently of consideration of context and inference" (ibid.: 198). She states that the hearer can go beyond the given information because he shares "pragmatic assumptions about likely category members" (ibid.).

Channell says that although placeholder words are empty semantically, they carry a pragmatic meaning: the speaker either does not know the word, has forgotten or does not wish to use it. Not using it avoids being offensive or pretentious although it can also be insulting. She says that vague language may be used to deliberately withhold information, to avoid showing uncertainty or a lexical gap, or to protect oneself or somebody/something else.

Most lexical choice has a social function. Specialised vocabulary from a permanent collocational environment can be used by members of in-groups to express solidarity. Atkinson (1981) discovered that medical students learned medical jargon and in-group language as part of their socialisation process. The ability to use the terminology correctly was one that developed over time but the conscious choice to use it in casual conversations was related to the desire for in-group membership. Widdowson (1993) suggests that each social group "closes off" the group through its choice of lexis. It is hoped in the present study to show that vague words and in-group expressions can have the socially cohesive function of claiming in-group membership and expressing in-the-same-boatness. As Halliday and Hasan (1976) say, general nouns express "interpersonal meaning" and "a particular attitude on the part of the speaker" (p.276).

### 6.1.3 Hypotheses

The lexical hypotheses are based on observation; the model of analysis is not an a-priori one. It seemed that at the beginning of the spring term, students used proper names and terminology a great deal, probably as a result of reading and discussing thinkers and their thoughts, and preparing for exams and projects. In the summer term, the names and terms were still there but there appeared to be more vague nominal and verbal expressions as well. Thus, the hypotheses were:

1. *Over time, the density of course special terms and proper names increases.*
2. *Over time, the density of general nouns and verbs increases.*

(The terms used in this hypothesis will be defined in the section on the method of analysis: 6.2.1)

Central to the analysis of lexis in reference was the comparison between the K areas. It was hypothesised that K4 differs from the other K areas in that:

3. *Language in dialogues based on K4 has more general nouns and verbs, and course special terms and proper names than language in dialogues based on non-course K areas.*

In Chapter 5, it was suggested that there is a permanent presuppositional pool of course knowledge. In order to discover the extent to which the same issues and concerns are in the minds of the students from week to week, the data was examined to find which nouns are repeated frequently, threading through several conversations, reflecting the recurrent topics that run from week to week. These nouns are referred to as "intertextually repeated" nouns.

Chapter 5 began with the observation that the density of nouns in all the data decreases in period 3. The density of nouns in each K area was examined to test the hypothesis:

4. *K4 has a lower density of nouns and verbs than non-course K areas.*

It was felt that a lower density of nouns would be partly responsible for the implicit nature of the language, since the entities are named less frequently. It was felt that just as K4 has more implicit grammatical reference, it may have a lower density of nouns and verbs. This part of the analysis, however, is not central to the study.

## 6.2 METHOD

### 6.2.1 The Categories

Each noun was given a tag that indicated whether it was course-related or not course-related, and whether it was proper (including the metonymical use) or common (including the technical and the generalised and the general). See Figure 1 and definitions below. Each verb was given a tag to indicate whether it was a lexical verb or a general "do" verb. See Figure 2 and definitions below. Appendix IV contains a full list of examples in each category.

#### 6.2.1.1 Nouns

Some nouns were not tagged. Nouns in verb+noun expressions, such as "have a look" and "bear relation to", were not tagged as nouns but were classified as verbs. Nouns in preposition+noun phrases in adverbial adjuncts of fixed expressions, such as "in terms of" and "in some senses", were not tagged as nouns either; these were classified as adverbial adjuncts.

In the categorisation of nouns, common nouns and proper nouns were classed in two macro-groups, according to whether the referent was in the course context or in the non-course context (see Figure 1).

**Figure 1 : Noun model**

Non-Course Nouns		Course Nouns		
		Special		Course-by-context
Common	Proper	Common	Proper	Common
General		-technical	-actual	
		-unique	-metonymical	
		-limited range		
		General		

The first macro-group was 'course nouns' which are ones that relate to activities and experiences in the course, ones that depend on K4. They are in two main groups of nouns with course referents: 'special course nouns' and 'course-by-context nouns'. It should be pointed out that non-course nouns can feature in K4 dialogues, just as course nouns can slip into dialogues that are predominantly non-course K area dependent.

Under the 'special course common nouns', there are three sub-divisions - 'technical', 'unique' and 'limited range'. Nouns were tagged 'technical' if they were intrinsically specialised terms independent of the context of the course. These were terms from linguistics and language teaching theory, such as "diglossia", "lexical syllabus" and

e.g.: 10028 CM I think there's there's going to be no **morphology** and no and no **X-bar**.

Nouns were tagged 'unique' special course common nouns if they were generalised nouns with specific pragmatic meaning, used to refer to intrinsic single components of the course, used in department organisation, mentioned in the course handbook, etc., such as "dissertation" and "the examiner". The term 'unique' means unique in the context of the course.

e.g.: 13143 CM **The portfolio** is on is in May. ((5))

'Limited range' special course common nouns are generalised nouns with specific pragmatic meaning that constitute an intrinsic class of components in the course. Limited range nouns are nouns that have a limited range of meanings in the context of the course. They are count nouns whose meaning is not expressed explicitly since they constitute the second noun of a two-word phrasal expression (Huddleston 1988:103) in which the first word (usually a nominal pre-head modifier) is understood. Examples are "[syntax] book", "[semantics] class" and "[SLA paper]", as in:

e.g. - 20020 CM SLA class next week and **the paper's** due in next Friday.

These nouns are intrinsically course-related, as distinct from nouns such as "mistake" and "diagram" which were tagged as course-by-context.

Under the 'special course proper noun' heading there are two sub-divisions: the 'actual intended use' of the proper noun and the 'metonymical use'. In the 'actual' use, the proper noun is used to refer to the writers, schools, etc. themselves. The proper noun may be the name of writers, such as "Chomsky", "Lyons" and "Fasold", as in:

e.g.: 07090 BF Conclusion drawn by researchers and by **Fasold**.

Other proper nouns are: sciences and schools of thought, such as "Descriptivism" and "Structuralism", books and journal titles, such as "ELTJ" and "Observation in the Classroom", parts of Edinburgh University, such as "King's Buildings" and "David Hume Tower", members of staff, such as "XX" and "XY", and students, such as "X" and "MM". Included in this group are the names of students' family members: spouses, partners and children, such as "Dave" and "Michelle", because course members could be expected to know them.

The other special proper noun sub-division is for the 'metonymical' use, in which the noun refers elliptically to something other than the course/linguist named, something other than the literal meaning of the words used. As with the limited range common special nouns, these nouns can be seen as one word of a two-word phrasal expression. In the case of the metonymical use, it is the second word that is understood. Proper nouns with metonymical use are MSc course names, such as "Syntax" meaning "Syntax course exam question", and "Language and Linguistics" meaning "Language and Linguistics option tutorial". Linguists' names are used metonymically too: "Brown and Miller" meaning "Brown and Miller's book", and "Channell" meaning "Channell's paper". In the following example:

e.g. - 08031 AM    Though though I haven't I haven't done any **Chomsky**.  
 "Chomsky" means study or revision of Chomsky's work for the forthcoming examination.

The special course 'general noun' category is structurally the same as the general non-course noun. General nouns were divided into two mini-categories: discourse general nouns and lexical general nouns, in order to keep the former out of the analysis. (The lexical is the one included in the implicit reference category in the grammatical analysis). The term 'discourse general nouns' refers to general nouns in expressions that do not have a referent but that serve a function in the discourse. The function may be introducing a new idea or suggestion, or a contrastive point of view, in expressions such as "The thing is..." meaning "The following is important". In the next example from K2, CM introduces his views on how to buy a computer:

e.g.: 06011 CM    The best **thing** to do is use a che- master card or something.

Another discourse general noun function is that of introducing an example, or holding on to a turn while formulating thoughts. For instance, the expression "things like", means "for example", as in the following excerpt from the hypnotist narrative:

e.g.: 02008 MM    It's just that I met someone afterwards and they said that what was happening was **things like** em (1) like at one-one point they got these glasses.

The last of the discourse general noun functions is that of hedging and softening, or simply filling the end of a sentence, in expressions such as "and things like that" and "and stuff" that mean "etc.", or simply "um". Take this example from K4, in which DM tries to formulate his feelings about exam essay questions:

e.g.: 10095 DM    Well that's the other reason I won't do an essay question.  
 10096 DM    Just the **sort of thing** er physically memory=

The second main group of course common nouns is that of the 'course-by-context' nouns. These are not intrinsically course-related but become course-related by their use in course topics. To take an example: the referents of "discussion" and "this week" are course-related when the "discussion" is one in a tutorial and "this week" means "this week in classes". In the following example, "pressure" means not "pressure of life in general" but "pressure from the staff and work in the course":

e.g.: 07011 BM There's a lot of pressure isn't it?

Keeping these common nouns separate from the other common course nouns allowed the intrinsically course common nouns to be studied in isolation. Including these terms, which are not intrinsically specialised, within the special terms category would have meant diluting the argument about an increase in special terms. Course-by context nouns have a category of their own within the course nouns category and separate from the non-course nouns, because an understanding of their meaning depends on an understanding of the course nouns. Their case is similar to that of the technical terms that exist independently of the course and yet are in the course noun category. They are not, however, as close to the course as the limited range course nouns which are intrinsically course-related in that they refer to components of the course.

The second macro-group was 'non-course nouns' (nouns with referents outside the course). These too are divided up into 'common' e.g.: "budgie" and "government" (and general nouns) and 'proper' nouns. The proper noun category contains countries and towns/cities e.g.: "Japan", and "Manchester", streets and buildings e.g.: "Leith Walk" and "Cowgate", famous people e.g.: "Julia Roberts" and "Ballesteros", names of products, companies and institutions e.g.: "IBM", and "The Education Dept", world incidents e.g.: "The First World War" and "The Gulf War", and times of year, months and days of the week e.g.: "Christmas" and "Monday".

Non-course common nouns and course-by-context nouns are not divided up into sub-categories "technical", "unique" and "limited range" as special course common nouns are. Technical non-course nouns are related to computing and occur mainly in K2 and K3. There is not a separate category for them because since the study focuses on in-group words, technical words that can be part of any person's common knowledge of word-processing are not of as much interest as those specialised technical words that are related to linguistics. Computing technical nouns occur in only two dialogues, whereas linguistics technical nouns are spread throughout all the recordings. Course-

by-context nouns cannot be technical, by definition. If course-related nouns are technical, they are classed as technical special course nouns.

The question might be asked, if the metonymical use of course proper nouns was studied, why was metonymy in all nouns and verbs not studied? The reason is that metonymy in course proper nouns is abundant and a striking characteristic of K4 language. There is no metonymy in non-course proper nouns in the data. Metonymy in all lexical items was not studied because a detailed study of this would not relate to the central focus of the investigation. (Instances of metaphor, hyperbole, irony and banter were analysed at the utterance level: see Chapter 7) .

### 6.2.1.2 Verbs

The verb categories were simpler than the noun categories. There were three categories: the 'all verbs' category, the 'be and fillers' category and the 'general "do" verb' category (which is defined below). See Figure 2.

**Figure 2 : Verb model**

<p>All Verbs</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- All non-"do" verbs</li> <li>- Pro-verbs "do" in endophoric contexts</li> <li>- General verbs "do"/"make"/"have" in fixed expressions</li> </ul> <p>Be and Fillers</p> <p>General "Do" verbs</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Lexical "do"</li> <li>- Pro-verbs "do"/"happen" in exophoric contexts.</li> <li>- General verbs "do"/"make"/"have" not in fixed expressions</li> </ul>
---

In the 'all verbs' category, all components of the verb were classified as one verb: thus "I forgot to change it" and "I keep thinking" are tagged once as "change" and "think". The 'be and fillers' category included the verb 'to be' and expressions such as "I mean" and "You know". The 'general "do" verb' category includes general verbs "do", "have" and "make" for reasons outlined below. It is called 'general "do" verb' to distinguish it from Halliday and Hasan's (1976) 'general verb'; the 'general "do" verb' category in this study contains more than their 'general verb' category.

Analysing "do", "make", "have" and "happen" verbs means distinguishing general meanings of these verbs from their other uses. The present analysis was based on Halliday and Hasan's distinctions between verbal substitute "do", lexical verb "do",



in which "done" means "answered", "worked on" or "written", or in :

e.g.: 10069 CM I've **done** all the people

in which "done" means "learned about" or "prepared to answer a question on". Pro-verbs "do" and "happen" are included when they refer to the whole propositional element and stand for an unidentified or unspecified process, as in "What was she doing?", "Nothing's happening" and "What am I to do?". The understanding of the pro-verb "do" standing for an unidentified or unspecified process depends on knowledge of the context. In the following example:

e.g.: 09027 AM What're you **doing**?  
09028 AM LPD?=  
the listener knows that the speaker is asking "What option courses are you taking?"

and not "What are you doing sitting there with your file open?" or "What are you planning to do with your family over the Easter break?"

Some "Do" verbs were not analysed because they are grammatical: the verbal operator "do" and the substitute "do". The verbal operator "do" is "a purely grammatical element whose function is to express simple present or past tense" in interrogatives, negatives, marked positives and short answers (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 127). Verbal operators "do" serving as prompts or backchannels are not included either, such as in the following:

e.g.: 02046 AM And they had to come down this aisle (0.5) in the middle of the audience - kind of. ((1))  
02047 BM And they **did**.

The verbal substitute "do" as in "She's never sung in England. She has done in France" is grammatical, being necessarily anaphoric. The following is an example from a dialogue about diagrams drawn in an exam answer:

e.g.: 12179 AM S: I did drew one for each um phonetic sound so it was seven.  
12180 NF I **did** too.

### 6.2.2 The Analysis

As with the analysis of grammatical items, the categorisation of lexical items was affected by the fact that the spoken data is interactive and unplanned. Re-phrasings and incomplete verbs were not analysed, in order to concentrate on verbs with completed and analysable meaning. When the same noun or verb was repeated interactively over several discourse units, by different speakers repeating their interlocutors' words to show solidarity, check comprehension and negotiate meaning,

each occurrence of a noun was counted. In the following, for example, 'project' was counted as three tokens:

e.g.:→ 29079 DM Yeah but this is for your dissertation or (0.5) are you talking about a **project**?  
 29080 AF Yeah.  
 → 29081 DM You're talking about a **project**.  
 → 29082 AF I'm talking about a **project**.

When speakers repeat their own words as a stutter or in a false start, as they hesitate, think what they are going to say and reformulate their ideas, it was counted as one token of the noun.

In 1993, a pilot study, based on three three-minute segments, was carried out in order to discover whether the noun categories then constructed could be used in the final analysis. The final study did not follow the pilot study noun model because the pilot study model did not have sub-divisions for the non-course nouns, and because it categorised technical nouns separately from course nouns. The pilot study categorisation was also unsatisfactory because there was no category for proper nouns, let alone a distinction between the actual use and the metonymical. It did not have a separate category for general nouns in the course noun macro-category.

In the final study, the proportion of each noun category out of all nouns, and of each verb category out of all verbs was found in each K area in each period. The intertextual repetition of nouns was examined.

## 6.3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The three people who tested the noun part of the code for intercoder reliability got the results 82%, 77% and 60%, which suggests that this part of the code could be used by any other coder and produce similar results to the ones in this study. (See Appendix XI for the table of percentages calculated in the analysis of lexis - both nouns and verbs).

### 6.3.1 Nouns

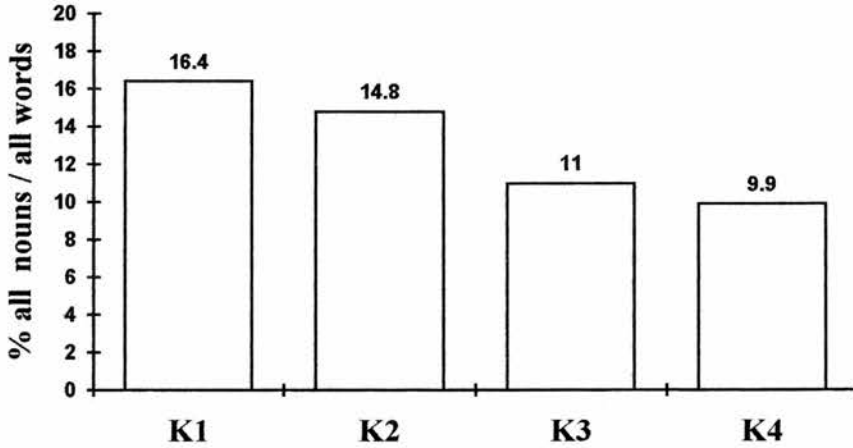
#### 6.3.1.1 General observation

The hypothesis:

4. *K4 has a lower density of nouns and verbs than non-course K areas.*

was confirmed. (See Figure 3). It appears that the closer the topic is to K4, the lower the density of nouns. There is no simple explanation for this difference in density. In Bernstein's terms, K4 dialogues use a more restricted code than non-course K areas. This is part of the picture of the implicit nature of language: persons, places and things, actions and events need to be named less frequently when students talk on course topics.

**Figure 3 : Density of all nouns out of all words in each K area**



### 6.3.1.2 Intertextually repeated nouns

Figure 4 shows the most frequent course nouns, calculated by counting instances with the "Find" function in Word 2.0b.

**Figure 4 : Totals of intertextually repeated nouns**

NOUN: No.of dials. No.of instances.			NOUN: No.of dialogues. No.of instances		
"time"	18	38	"group"	5	8
"book"	10	24	"lecture"	4	5
"language"	10	16	"Grammar"	3	12
"project"	9	29	"portfolio"	3	8
"work"	9	11	"student"	3	7
"Linguistics"	8	19	"exam"	3	4
"option"	8	9	"course"	3	3
"money"	6	11	"dissertation"	2	3
"class"	6	17	"article"	2	5
"question"	6	15	"discourse"	2	3
"Syntax"	5	14			

This method is primitive and the results would have been much more reliable and complete if a concordancer had been used. However, this would have required a different methodology and since this is not a central concern of the analysis, it does not merit putting the data through a concordancer.

The method does show that the most frequent intertextually repeated nouns (of the ones searched) throughout all the data are limited range special terms and metonymical proper nouns. This reflects the fact that in K4, there are recurrent topics running through the whole course, whereas in other K areas, the topics are more varied and are not recycled so much. It reaffirms the idea stressed throughout this thesis that there is a permanent presuppositional pool of course components that can be referred to repeatedly throughout the course.

### 6.3.1.3 Noun categories

- **Special course nouns**

When the hypotheses about course nouns:

1. *Over time, the density of course special terms and proper names increases.*
3. *Language in dialogues based on K4 has more general nouns and verbs, and course special terms and proper names than language in dialogues based on non-course-related K areas.*

were tested, it was found that course special terms and proper names do increase dramatically in period 2 but then they decrease in period 3 (period 1: 1.12%, period 2: 2.84% and period 3: 1.87%). Figure 5 shows not surprisingly that, out of all the nouns, K4 has a greater density of course nouns (special and proper) than non-course K areas have. It also shows that the density of all course special nouns and proper nouns increases in both K area types, dramatically in K4.

The *overall* drop in course nouns out of all words in period 3 can be explained by the fact that K4 dialogues occupy 57% of the data in period 2 but only 27% in period 3, and that K4 dialogues have a lower density of all nouns out of all words. However, it must be concluded that the main influence on the density of course nouns is not increasing knowledge over time, but the K area and the course events in period 2.

Figure 5 : Density of course special terms and proper nouns out of nouns

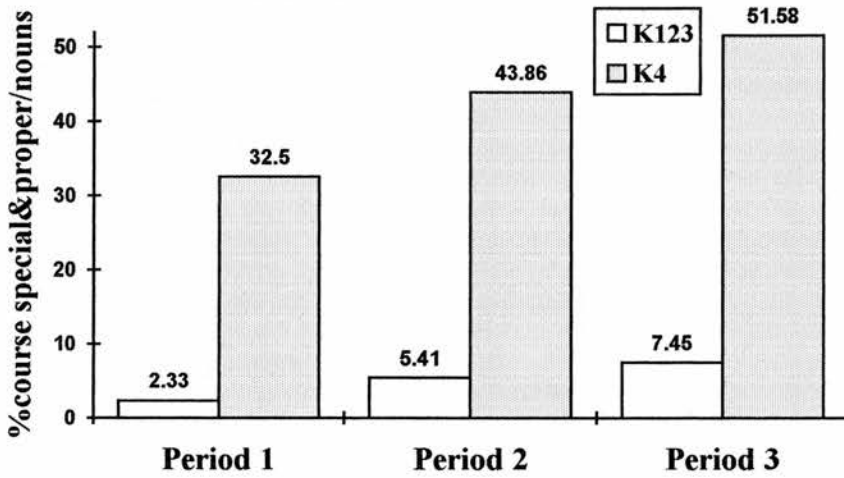
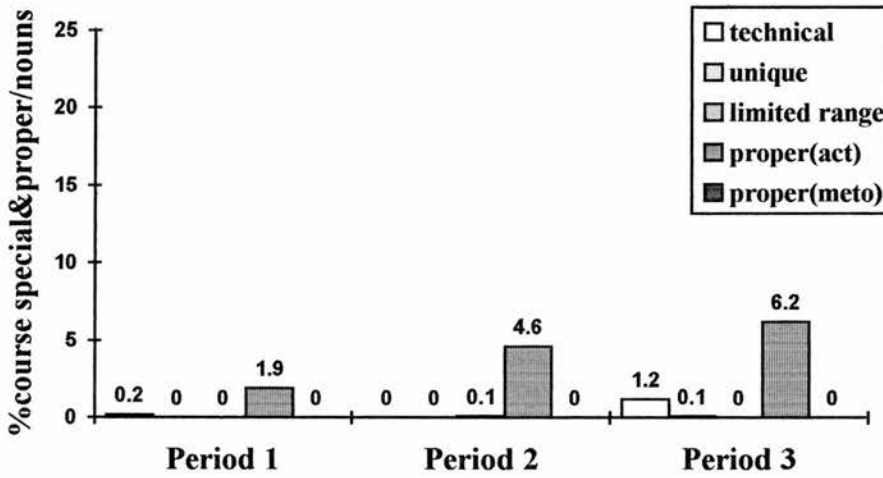
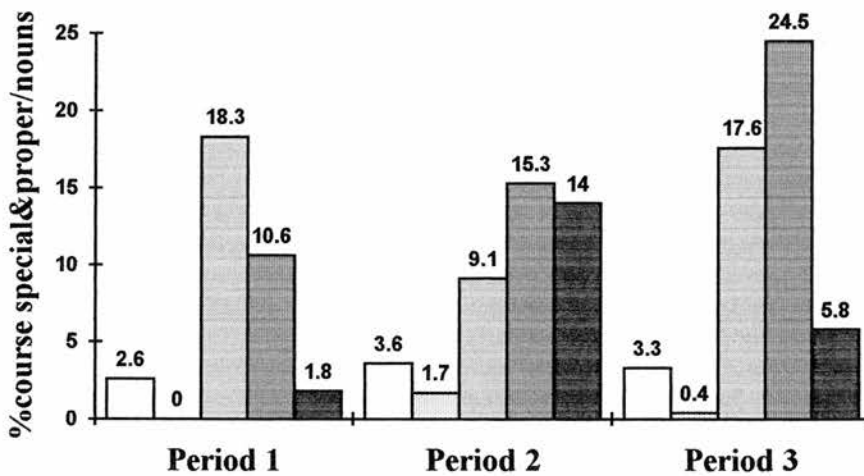


Figure 6 : Density of special course noun types out of all nouns  
In non-course K areas



In K4



The analysis was continued further by examining each type of special course noun in each K area. Figure 6 gives a clear picture of the difference between K4 and non-course K areas.

As far as non-course K areas are concerned, of all course nouns, the main ones are the course proper names with their actual use. In K1 and K2, the proper names are principally those of course members' families, course members and staff. In the following example, from K1, AF describes an outing with her son:

e.g.: 21033 AF Actually I was up at the City Cafe.  
 /.../ → 21035 AF Heaping plates of chips into **Julian**.

K3, being closest to K4, has not only proper names of course members and their families but also names of members of staff and university buildings. In the following example, students discuss what DAL members of staff have said about the IALS scholarship and job hunting:

e.g.: 25033 CM As **YY** said - I said I said I'm just going to get my reference to **IALS** and he said well that'll all change when you start looking for jobs you know. ((3))

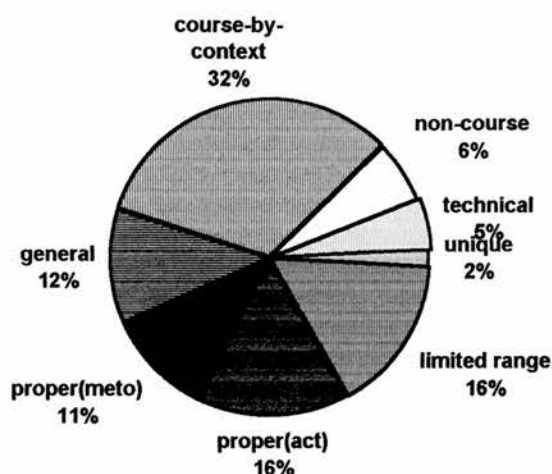
The density of proper names increases over time, most likely as a result of the increasing shared interpersonal knowledge of students' families and also because K3 dialogues, containing names of members of staff and university buildings, are greatest in period 3.

Figure 6 shows that in K4, most course special and proper nouns have a higher density in periods 2 and 3 than they did in period 1, and that the proper nouns, both the actual and the metonymical, show the greatest increase over the three periods.

The importance of K4 in terms of size (it occupies 42% of all conversations) calls for a description of the course nouns that occur within it. Figure 7 shows that 62% of the nouns in K4 throughout the whole course are special course nouns. 62% out of K4 represents just over a quarter of all nouns in all conversations.

Just as K4 has a high density of implicit grammatical reference, so it also has a high density of lexical items which, when analysed from a pragmatic point of view, could also be seen to have implicit meaning, only accessible to those with knowledge of the course. The most dense of the special terms are the limited range common nouns, the proper terms - the actual use and the metonymical. The density of the unique terms is lowest, most likely because the number of nouns possible in the unique group is small anyway.

Figure 7 : Proportion of all noun types in K4 in all periods



Limited range nouns refer to components of the course in such a general way that the full meaning is implicit. Not enough meaning is present in the noun itself to make the precise reference transparent to outsiders. Limited range nouns are only ever qualified by a demonstrative or possessive determiner. The course component may be an organisational one, such as a "term" or a "group" as in the following example in which "group" refers to the "pre-tutorial group for discussion of tutorial tasks amongst students before the tutorial itself with a member of staff":

e.g.: → 03010 BM // No no you're in X's **group** I think.  
 03011 NF Oh yes sorry.  
 03012 NF I keep thinking you're X.

The course component may be a piece of work, such as an "exercise" or a "project" as in the following, in which the "project" is the third project in the course and specifically the one that BM is doing:

e.g.: → 17002 CM How's your **project** going?  
 17003 BM ((unintelligible : whispered)) I tried to write the introduction over the weekend.

The course component may also be something that has been suggested to the students for reading, such as a "book" or a "paper". In the next example, BM offers DM an "article", which, it would seem, they have both read and both need because they appear to be doing the same project topic:

e.g.: → 15194 BM // What about the **article**?  
 15195 BM I wasn't really using it.  
 15196 DM I could quote from it actually.

In none of these examples is it necessary for the students to specify which "group", which "project" or which "article" is being referred to: the exact identity of the

referent is implicit and in-group members know what the range of possible referents is limited to.

In the category of course proper nouns with their actual use, the largest group is that which refers to linguists, books and journals, and sciences and schools of thought. An outsider to the course might be familiar with these but not know their particular significance within the context of the course. In-group members know what course option the linguist or school of thought is connected with, and what course task the books and journals were recommended for. In the following, BF asks about a book:

e.g.: → 14001 BF     **Semantics One.**  
       → 14002 BF     Is there another **Semantics?** (1)  
       → 14003 BF     Is there another book // called **Semantics** by **Lyons?**  
       14004 NF     // Yes.  
       → 14005 DM     // Yeah **Two.**

One of the most implicit ways of referring to course components is to use the proper name of the component without mentioning the component itself. This is the metonymical proper noun. Students use course names to refer to an exam question or a lecture. They can refer to the option course itself as in the following example:

e.g.: → 15135 BM     You do you do **Language Planning** don't you?  
       15136 DM     Yeah.  
       15137 DM     I've stopped doing that though.

The same question in a context outside the course might have referred to DM's occupation. In the next example, students refer presumably to a lecture or a tutorial:

e.g.: 09001 NF     Are you going to **Stylistics?**

They can refer elliptically to a tutorial homework task by using the name of the course for which the task was set as in the following:

e.g.: 04124 BF     Has anybody done their **Syntax?** ((1))

In the next example, they seem to be referring elliptically first to exam questions and then to revision for exam questions:

e.g.: → 12001 AM     So you didn't do the- the **Grammar** or the **Semantics?**  
       12002 CM     No.  
       → 12003 CM     I studied the **Semantics** quite a bit and then I didn't do it.

Students use the names of linguists to refer implicitly to theories or papers. In the following example, they are not talking about the linguist himself but, on the first occasion, about revision of course material on his theories for the exam, and on the second, about information given in course lectures about his theories :

e.g.: → 08031 AM     Though though I haven't I haven't done any **Chomsky.**

- 08032 AM Probably a bit late // now.  
 → 08033 CM // **Chomsky** doubles up in **Psycholinguistics**.

In the next example, they are not talking about Tolwood as a person; only an in-group member would know if they refer to a book, an article, a theory, etc.:

- e.g. → 15204 DM I didn't like the **Tolwood** at all.  
 15205 DM I thought it was a bit (0.5) a bit much really. ((0.5))  
 15206 BM It wasn't er it wasn't reflected anywhere.

Technical terms, which occupy a small percentage of all nouns in K4, are used in the context of the tasks set in the course. In the following example, AF is telling DM about her project. She uses terms with which they are both obviously at ease:

- e.g.: → 29030 AF Well the thing I'm most interested in is **pidgins** and **creoles** but I don't know that it's practical for a project.  
 29031 AF Um.  
 29032 DM You might get a trip somewhere  
 29033 AF (heh heh)  
 → 29034 DM Where are you going to find **pidgins** and **creoles**?  
 29035 AF Well I don't know. ((2))  
 29036 DM There's a lot been written on it.

Although outsiders to the MSc might know the term if they were linguists or language teachers, they could not know exactly what had been said in the course about these technical matters, so they would not know what these technical terms meant to the speakers concerned.

The way that these course special and proper nouns are used to refer to course components contributes to the implicitness of K4 language. The meaning of technical nouns and the proper nouns with the actual use is not strictly speaking implicit, except that students give them extra meaning by using them in connection with specific course events. The less contentful unique common noun, the limited range common noun and the proper noun with its metonymical use do depend entirely on the context for their meaning, and this makes them implicit.

- **General nouns**

With regard to non-contentful general nouns, neither of the hypotheses

2. *Over time, the density of general nouns and verbs increases.*
3. *Language in dialogues based on K4 has more general nouns and verbs, and course special terms and proper names than language in dialogues based on non-course-related K areas.*

were confirmed (see Appendix XII for the graph). The density of general nouns rises in period 2 and then falls, and K4 has a similar density to that of non-course K area dialogues. The influence on general nouns is neither increasing knowledge over time nor K area; it is course events in period 2.

These results suggest that the growing implicitness in the in-group code, which was observed in Chapter 5, is not caused by an increase in general nouns alone. The increase in implicitness in period 2 may be caused by the rise in general nouns, but the increase in implicitness in period 3 must be caused by the rise in non-anaphoric pronouns.

- **Non-course and course-by-context nouns**

There were no hypotheses about these two large groups of nouns, and analysis showed, predictably, that there were more non-course nouns in non-course K areas and more course-by-context nouns in K4 (see Appendix XII). The density of course-by-context nouns decreases dramatically in K4. This decrease is balanced by the equally dramatic increase in special course nouns (especially proper nouns), which is shown in Figure 5. No such changes are observed in non-course K areas. This shows yet again that lexis is influenced by K area and that in K4 it is influenced by the increasing knowledge over time.

An impressionistic analysis was carried out in order to see whether a study of these types of nouns would contribute to the picture of the in-group language, and reveal further differences between non-course K areas and K4 in terms of the characteristics of the nouns.

The main difference between non-course common nouns and course-by-context nouns is that while the former refer to predominantly concrete, first order entities (Lyons 1977) or physical persons and things that exist, the latter refer mostly to second order entities or events and processes that occur. This abstractness adds an element of intangibility to K4 dialogues. Whereas outsiders might easily imagine a physical thing and thus understand the conversation in K1, to imagine the sort of event or process that occurs in K4 they would have to be part of the on-going experience of the course. A few examples from each K area will demonstrate this.

K1 nouns are nearly all concrete and tangible. Because many K1 dialogues tell of the speaker's daily life, nouns refer to "the doorbell", "a baby-sitter", etc. Since many K1 dialogues are narratives, the nouns identify concrete entities and participants in the stories such as "buses" and "the lady upstairs". The nouns related to entertainment and outings are necessarily physical: "plates of chips", "pubs", etc. Descriptions of outings and experiences in the world require mention of the physical surroundings such as "islands" and "sand". The physical descriptions are often parts of the body: "head", "knees", etc. Narratives and descriptions require reference to actions and events, which are a little more abstract. Nominalisations of verbs, such as "sunbathing" and "hill-climbing" abound. Narratives and descriptions require reference to moments in time which might be classed as second order entities in that they occur in time and are real and conceptual. Such nouns are "hour" and "month".

K2 has a much lower proportion of nouns referring to first order entities than K1 does, yet the nouns are still mostly tangible. First order entities exist in the realms of schools and work, such as "certificates" and "master-card". Some of them are less tangible technical entities related to computing: "spreadsheet", "indents", etc. The second order entities tend to be changes in states of affairs such as "inflation" and "innovation", and observable events such as "interview" and "courses".

In K3, the proportion of concrete first order nouns and not so concrete second order ones is about 50:50. Nouns refer to first order tangible objects in DAL and IALS: the "coffee machine" and the "photocopier", and parts of daily life in the university: "queues" and "tea". There is a large group of nouns that straddle first and second order entities, in the sense that they are materialisations of intellectual activity, in connection with the IALS scholarship and higher degrees in DAL: "proposal" and "MLitt". In the following dialogue, students discuss the IALS deal:

e.g.:→ 25022 NF You work for the scholarship **scholarship**?  
 25023 CM Well you have to work for it.  
 25024 CM You have to work four hundred eighty hours.  
 25025 NF Ah.  
 → 25026 CM They get **tuition** for the **salary**.

Themes of work, time and money abound here; the nouns "job", "salary" and "years" occur frequently. In K3, there is a small group of third order abstract propositions that express attitudes and evaluations, such as "truth" and "danger". In the next example, DM warns BF not to try for the MLitt scholarship if she does not want to, in case she finds herself having to do it:

e.g.: 28048 DM It's a real **shame** to go for it if you're not interested isn't it really.

28049 BF Yeah.

There are very few instances of common non-course nouns in K4. They occur in those discourse units which really belong to other K areas but have been classed K4 because the number of units is so low that it has been counted as part of K4.

Course-by-context nouns form the biggest group of common nouns in K4 that are not special course common nouns. They are generally abstract second order entities. On the borderline between the non-physical and the physical is the materialisation of the intellectual in writing. Thus students talk about "introduction" and "words" in projects and exam answers that they have written. By far the largest group of course-by-context nouns are those that refer to abstract second order entities - processes and states. A large number of these are related to time: "hours" and "weeks" as they form part of the course experience. Most course-by-context nouns relate to intellectual activity, e.g.: abstract nouns such as "consideration" and "perspective", and to the relationship between thinkers, e.g.: "links" and "contacts". In the following example, the exact meaning of what is being talked about is "fuzzied" by the abstract nouns:

e.g.: → 12091 AM Because (0.5) I mean they had the same kind of **divide** didn't they?  
 → 12092 AM same **axis**.

There is a large group of abstract, third order entity nouns which are emotive, expressing attitudes and emotions: "pressure" and "mood". In the following, students look forward with trepidation to the summer dissertation:

e.g.: 21109 DM Been trying to think of something that might stretch to twenty thousand words. ((2))  
 → 21110 AF And that you might be able to find **endurance** for.  
 21111 DM And is not excruciatingly boring.

In summary, this impressionistic analysis has shown that there appears to exist a cline of tangibility along which the K areas can be placed, as far as their nouns are concerned. At the most tangible end is K1, whose nouns nearly all refer to first order entities; then K2 has mostly first order entities but some second ones; K3 has a 50:50 balance of first and second order entities and a few third order ones; at the most intangible end is K4, whose nouns nearly all refer to second order entities and which contains a substantial number that refer to third order entities.

The suggestion being made here is not that abstractness can be directly related to the overall picture of implicitness, but that abstract nouns depend more for their meaning on the context than concrete nouns do. Any hearer can picture a "bus" and a

"photocopier", but understanding the meaning of a word such as "consideration" depends on knowledge of setting, participants and topic, just as understanding the meaning of "endurance" depends on knowledge of the quality of the situation endured and the personality and attitude of the endurer. This point is obviously somewhat debatable and needs more investigation than it can be given here.

### 6.3.2 Verbs

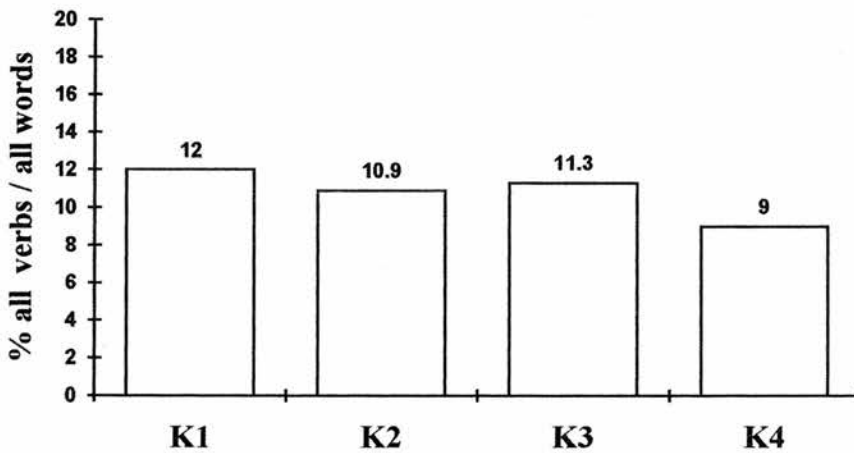
#### 6.3.2.1 General observation

Calculations of the density of verbs to test the hypothesis:

4. *K4 has a lower density of verbs than non-course K areas.*

show that K4 has the lowest density of verbs out of all the K areas (see Figure 8). It would appear that K4 has more incomplete sentences, in the sense of being verbless. This matches with the findings in the study of the density of nouns, in which K4 emerged as the K area with the lowest density. It is also a result of the fact that K4 language contains more feedback statements of expressions of solidarity and more evaluative utterances. This aspect will be discussed in Chapter 8.

**Figure 8 : Density of verbs out of all words in each K area**



#### 6.3.2.2 Verb categories

- **General "do" verbs**

The hypothesis

2. *Over time, the density of general nouns and verbs increase.*

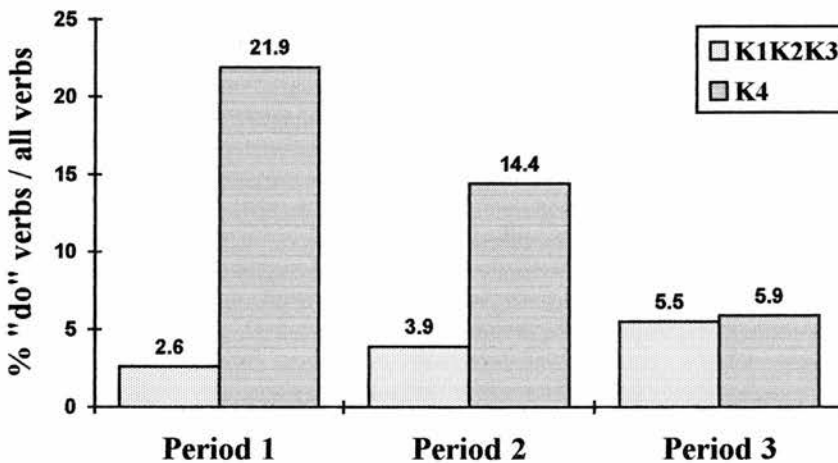
is confirmed, as regards the general "do" verbs. The density of general "do" verbs out of all verbs taking all K areas together in period 1 is 5.11%, in period 2 is 5.6% and in period 3 is 6.8%.

The analysis of the density of general "do" verbs also shows that for most of the course, K4 does have a much higher density of "do" verbs (see Figure 9). This confirms part of the hypothesis:

3. *Language in dialogues based on K4 has more general nouns and verbs, and course special terms and proper names than language in dialogues based on non-course-related K areas.*

The explanation for the K4 decrease may be that it is a matter of collocation. K4 general "do" verbs have a whole range of specific meanings such as "read books in preparation for [something]", "revise" and "answer an exam question on". By period 3, the exams are over, and with them discussions about revision and how well they did. Since students are on different option courses, there is less comparing notes about what they have read for a tutorial.

**Figure 9 : Density of general "do" verbs out of all verbs**



The fact that the overall density of general "do" verbs increases while K4's density drops so dramatically is yet again explained by the fact that K4 occupies much less time in period 3 than it did in period 2. The non-course K areas occupy more and their density rises. This may reflect the increase in informality (see Chapter 8).

- **The 'all verb' category**

A brief inspection of the most frequent verbs in the 'all verb' category shows little more than the fact that verbs reflect the main concerns of each K area. In K1, concerned with the social life of the students, the verbs "go" and "play" occur extremely frequently. Typical of K2 are verbs related to money and buying, such as "spend" and "cost", and technical verbs related to computing, such as "tab" and "indent". In K4, concerned with study, "write" and "read" are frequently occurring verbs.

As in the case of non-course common nouns and course-by-context nouns in which K areas differ along a cline of tangibility, K4 verbs tend to be more abstract than non-course K area verbs. K4 verbs reflect the mental activity of the course. Verbs such as "judge" and "define" contribute to the general abstractness and intangibility of the K4 lexical reference, as do "consist of" and "believe" in the following:

e.g.:→ 12115 CM They said Structuralism **consists of** Saussure.  
 → 12116 CM Then they told us what Saussure **believed**.

### 6.3.3 General "Do" Verb With Other Implicit Cues

Analysis of K4's general "do" verbs shows that they frequently collocate with lexemes with implicit pragmatic meaning (special course nouns and general nouns) and with implicit grammatical reference (non-anaphoric pronouns), taking them as a direct object (see Figure 10). This adds to the implicitness of a sentence that is already implicit, because the meaning of the "do" verb depends on the meaning of the special course noun or non-anaphoric pronoun.

34% of course general "do" verbs collocate with special course (non-general) nouns. 17% have limited range nouns as objects, as in the following in which "do" means "answer an exam question on":

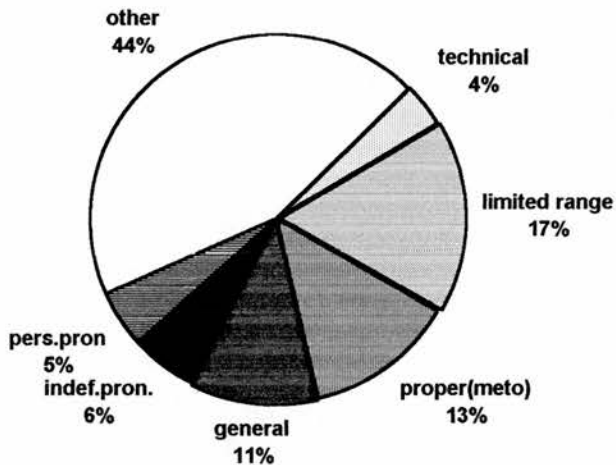
e.g.:→ 12221 AM No I'd- I- s- I thought I had to - best to **do the data questions** first  
 then you know // how much you've got for the essay.  
 12222 CM Then you know how // much time yeah.  
 → 12223 AM And I knew I **was going to do one essay** so.

In the next example, the first "do" accompanies a technical term and means "studying in order to write an answer to the project question on" and the second it accompanies a limited range noun and means "taking", "going to the classes".

e.g.:→ 20001 AF **Are you doing discourse** for your core project?

- 20002 BM No but maybe I should. (0.5)  
 20003 BM Maybe that would explain what it is about.  
 → 20004 BM I'm **doing my option** on discourse.

**Figure 10 : Proportion of K4 general "do" verbs with special course terms and implicit non-anaphoric pronouns out of K4 general "do" verbs**



13% of general "do" verbs have metonymical proper names as direct objects. In the following, the "do" verbs mean "work on the tutorial questions for":

- e.g.:→ 04124 BF **Has anybody done their syntax?** ((1))  
 04125 DM // I **did** it yesterday.  
 04126 DM Oh that's what I **was doing** yeah.  
 → 04127 BM // No I haven't looked at it yet.

In the following, the "done" means "revised material on Chomsky for the exams":

- e.g.:→ 8031 AM // Though though I haven't I **haven't done** any **Chomsky**.

In the next example "do" means not "revise" but "write an answer to the exam question":

- e.g.:→ 12001 AM So you didn't **do the- the grammar** or the **semantics**?  
 12002 CM No.  
 → 12003 CM I studied the **semantics** quite a bit and then I **didn't do** it.  
 12004 AM Yeah.

In the next, it does not mean "revise" or "answer questions" but "take the option course":

- e.g.:→ 15135 BM You do you **do Language Planning** don't you?  
 15136 DM Yeah.  
 15137 DM I've **stopped doing** that though.

To uninitiated outsiders, unit 15135 could have been taken to mean that he was a language planner by profession, as in "do town planning" or "do language testing".

In K4, when general "do" verbs combine with general nouns, the implicitness is double: neither the verb nor the noun could be easily understood by a non in-group member. In the following, students discuss what seems to be parts of a tutorial task, each one referred to as a "thing"; "doing" the thing is "answering the questions" in a particular part of the task, presumably:

e.g.: 03073 BM I **did** em the literary // **thing**.  
 03074 BM The literary language one.  
 03075 AM // I did the I **did** the business one.

In the next example, students compare how each of them have revised for the exam and the "people" would appear to be linguists and other thinkers; thus to "do" the "people" must mean to "revise", "prepare to answer questions on" them:

e.g.: 10069 CM No I've **done** all the **people**.

11% of course general "do" verbs have non-anaphoric indefinite pronouns and personal pronouns as direct objects. The first example here is of an extended use of the non-anaphoric indefinite pronoun, in which the pronoun must mean "any subject in this option course out of all the ones that we have touched on"; "doing" and "(want to) do" here mean "writing a project on":

e.g.:→ 29068 DM // If you **fancy doing anything** // you can  
 29069 AF // the guidelines for the project basically say **do what you like!**  
 29070 DM Yeah. ((2))  
 → 29071 AF They say you can take any any subject from the option course or **anything else you want to do**. // (heh heh heh heh heh)

The next excerpt contains an example of a non-anaphoric personal pronoun. Since the referent of "it" (unit 15050) is not mentioned, the meaning of "do" remains so obscure, even to the interlocutor, that the speaker has to name both the "do" and the "it" (unit 15053). The excerpt begins at the point that DM is talking about ideas for a project that he showed to his tutor; the "questionnaire" seems to have had something to do with it:

e.g.: 15048 DM Went to see XX (0.25) with it.  
 15049 CM How did it go?  
 → 15050 CM // Ah nuts! I **forgot to do it**.  
 15051 DM // He said it was OK  
 15052 CM Gee.  
 15053 CM I forgot to answer your questionnaire.

### 6.3.4 Shared Interpersonal Knowledge

When shared interpersonal knowledge sections, which run through all four K areas and increase over time, were examined from the point of view of grammatical reference, it was found that they contain very little implicit reference.

When they were examined from the point of view of lexis in reference, it was discovered that the most frequently occurring items of the lexical implicit contextualisation cues are the proper nouns with their "actual" use. These are generally names of course members and their families, and they occur mainly in period 3. Discourse units with proper nouns comprise about 10% of all shared interpersonal knowledge discourse units in K2, K3 and K4. In the following K3 dialogue, DM not only knows that BF's partner is known as Dave but also knows that he is considering applying to do a PhD, and that BF cannot plan her next year until she knows where her partner is going to be:

e.g.: 23014 DM Have you applied for anything? ((1))  
 23015 BF No.  
 23016 BF Not for the moment.  
 → 23017 DM Oh you're waiting for **Dave** // aren't you?  
 23018 BF // Yeah. Yeah. ((4))

In contrast, 50% of K1's shared interpersonal knowledge discourse units contain course proper nouns. In the following example, BF and AM discuss an evening that they had shared a part of:

e.g. → 11127 BF We went (0.5) back to no we went to the **PGSU**.  
 /.../→ 11131 BF **NF** was there.  
 /.../ 11136 NF We went to a disco afterwards.  
 /.../→ 11142 BF Did em **DM** and **Michelle** go to the disco?

Although course proper names are classed as explicit reference in the grammatical reference categories, the information that they carry would only be understood by in-group members who know the persons, places and things that they refer to. The use of course proper names could be a strategy for claiming in-group membership.

As far as verbs in shared interpersonal knowledge sections are concerned, it cannot be said that they contribute to the implicitness, but certain verb forms do *point to* shared interpersonal knowledge. Speakers frequently refer directly to the fact that they know about the interlocutor's feelings and motivations:

e.g.: 14023 BF **I can imagine why** you wouldn't want to.  
 e.g.: 23006 DM No **I didn't think** you did.

e.g.: 22059 DM **I know** you don't like them.

This again could be a strategy for claiming in-group membership.

## 6.4 CONCLUSION

Some nouns have a meaning contextually determined by the course and this adds to implicit language of the MSc in-group. These are the lexical implicit contextualisation cues of special course nouns and general words:

- technical terms
- unique terms
- limited range terms
- proper nouns (actual and metonymical)
- general nouns and verbs

The analysis of special course nouns shows that the most frequent are the limited range terms, proper nouns and metonymical proper nouns, and that there is an increase in technical and unique nouns and all proper nouns in period 2, as predicted. The unique, the limited range noun and the metonymical proper add to the implicitness of K4 dialogues because their precise referents are not named but implied and understood only by those sharing the in-group experience of the course. Shared interpersonal knowledge sections of dialogues contain few lexical implicit contextualisation cues. The hypotheses that the density of the general noun increases over time and that it is greater in K4 were not confirmed.

General "do" verbs do increase over time in all K areas and K4 does have more than other K areas. General "do" verbs, with their implicit meanings in K4 contexts, would only be understood by those with knowledge of the course, especially when they take as objects special course nouns and elements of implicit reference such as the general noun and non-anaphoric pronouns, which also depend on knowledge of the course for their meaning.

K4 also differs from the non-course K areas in that it has a lower density of all nouns and verbs, and whereas most non-course common nouns refer to physical, first order entities, most K4 course-by-context nouns refer to abstract, second and third order entities. K4 also has a number of abstract verbs. All of this may contribute to the intangibility of language in course dialogues.

As far as the function of lexical implicit contextualisation cues is concerned, it is possible that speakers consciously choose to use technical terms and proper nouns to claim in-group membership by using the terminology of the specialism. There may be an element of "We know how to use terms and names because we're Applied Linguists, aren't we?" It may also be that they can make a conscious choice to speak vaguely using metonymical proper nouns, limited range nouns and general words with their implicit meaning, for the same reason. Here, it may be a case of "We won't bother to name these things too carefully: we know what we're talking about, don't we?" The lack of precision also suggests that there is a desire to establish a relaxed, informal relationship between speakers. Chapter 8 contains further discussion of the function of implicit contextualisation cues.

## CHAPTER 7 : REFERENCE OVER UTTERANCES

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### 7.1 INTRODUCTION

This is the last chapter about the form of the 'implicit language' of in-group members. Chapters 5 and 6 contained a description of the 'in-group code' (implicitness at the noun phrase and verb level) and showed that implicit reference (implicit non-anaphoric definite reference with general nouns, demonstrative pronouns and adverbs and third person pronouns) increases with increasing knowledge over time. Chapters 5 and 6 also showed that all the other cues (explicit non-anaphoric definite noun phrases, technical terms, special course proper nouns, unique and limited range nouns, and general "do" verbs with other cues) are denser when students are talking on course topics, and increase over time only in course topics.

This chapter contains a description of the 'other implicit features' (implicitness at the utterance and exchange level) of the in-group's 'implicit language'. Based on observations such as Blakemore's that "a speaker's decision to convey information implicitly rather than explicitly is governed by his assessment of the hearer's contextual resources" (1992: 130), this chapter opens out the analysis of implicitness to focus on whole utterances and exchanges that show dependence on the hearer's in-group knowledge for their meaning. (For the coding system, see Appendices III and IV; for the tables of results, see Appendix XIII.)

The chapter is divided into three parts, each one containing a discussion of one type of implicit feature. At the end of each part, the relationship between the implicit feature and implicit contextualisation cues is examined. The chapter ends with a brief consideration of the influence of speakers' personalities on the features examined.

The first part of the chapter examines clausal ellipsis at the beginning and end of utterances. It examines unspoken implied meaning before and after an utterance. It contains a description of incomplete sentences with initial ellipsis, unfinished sentences, completed by the hearer or "left hanging" and vague fillers. These features contribute to the heavily context-dependent nature of in-group language.

The second part of the chapter examines unspoken implied meaning behind utterances. It examines meaning other than the literal meaning of the words used. It shows that humorous conversational implicature (hyperbole, irony, banter and ambiguous allusions) contributes to the implicitness of the in-group language.

The third part of the chapter describes the analysis of the dialogue structure and the exploration of the effect of implicit reference that extends over several utterances. It shows how implicit contextualisation cues on topic shifts can cause whole sequences of utterances to be implicit. It demonstrates how the cues can cause "hitches" (interruptions in the flow of communication) when the in-group code breaks down.

## 7.2 CLAUSAL ELLIPSIS AND VAGUENESS

This part of the chapter describes the analysis of changes in initial ellipsis, unfinished sentences and vague fillers as common knowledge increases over time and according to the K area. These features have implicit meaning in the sense that the hearer has to supply the missing meaning for himself, using his knowledge of the context. These features are pointers to background knowledge. (See Appendix IV for the coding system.)

### 7.2.1 Definitions And Hypotheses

The term 'incomplete sentences with initial ellipsis' is used to mean declarative and interrogative sentences without a beginning, i.e. with the subject or operator missing, such as ones beginning "Been there" or "Done that". Quirk et al. (1985) call this situational sentential ellipsis, saying that "the interpretation may depend on knowledge of a precise extralinguistic context" (p.895).

In initial ellipsis, the element missing could be the impersonal or inanimate subject "it", "that" or "there", and/or the verb to be: "is", "was", etc. For example:

e.g.: 05068 BM Then they start picking up March April.  
 → 05069 BM Not surprising really. ((2))  
 → 05070 AF Sounds plausible.

The element missing could also be the personal subject and the operator "have", "has", "would", "did", "does", etc. as in:

e.g.:→ 21001 DM Have a good weekend?  
 → 21002 DM Do anything? =  
 → 21003 AF Do anything? (1.5)

21004 AF I don't think so actually. (5)

Initial ellipsis does not depend so much on common background knowledge in order to be understood as unfinished sentences and vague fillers do, because usually the ellipsed subjects are first or second person referring to people present in the situational context. Yet initial ellipsis forms part of the elliptical and implicit language of the in-group. It is an informal structure and can be seen as a marker of intimacy (see Chapter 8).

The term 'unfinished sentences' is used to mean sentences without an end, at the end of a speaker's turn. There are two types of unfinished sentence. In the first, the sentence is completed by the hearer or responded to as if it were complete, and in the second, the sentence ends with a hanging conjunction and is not responded to directly by the hearer.

The first type of unfinished sentence occurs when such is the common background knowledge that the hearer can predict correctly what the speaker is going to say, demonstrated by the fact that he answers or completes the sentence. The following K4 example demonstrates how the hearer predicts the speakers' meaning:

e.g.: 12091 AM Because (0.5) I mean they had the same kind of divide didn't they?  
 12092 AM same axis.  
 → 12093 AM // They had the er mental and the ...  
 12094 CM // Yeah. (0.5)  
 12095 CM **What you what you know and what you do.**

The second type of unfinished sentence, ending with a hanging conjunction such as "so" and "but", is different in that the speaker does not appear to want to continue saying anything but possibly invites the hearer to join him in *thinking* about the implications of what he has said, using background knowledge of the context. The following example demonstrates this:

e.g.: 12222 CM Then you know how // much time yeah.  
 → 12223 AM And I knew I was going to do one essay so....  
 12224 CM I wanted to have a break between the two essays // so I thought //

The term 'vague fillers' refers to expressions with little informational content as in "and so on", "and all that", "and things" and "or something". Channell (1994) calls these items "tags" and Jefferson (1990) calls them "generalised list completers". They "cue the listener to interpret the preceding element as an illustrative example of some more general case" (Dines 1980) and depend partly on common knowledge of the

'more general case'. Utterances completed with a vague expression are only a little more complete than unfinished sentences with a hanging conjunction. As with that type of unfinished sentence, the speaker using the vague expression "or something" might imagine that the hearer could join him in thinking about the implications of what the "something" could be, using background knowledge of the context. The following example demonstrates this:

e.g.:→ 14043 BF She had sort of flu **or something**. ((4))  
 14044 DM There's a lot around isn't there?

The hypotheses were:

1. *Over time, in all K areas, the density of initial ellipsis increases*
2. *Over time, in all K areas, the density of unfinished sentences and vague fillers, increases*

The reasoning behind these hypotheses was that if implicitness at the noun phrase and verb level increases with increasing knowledge over time, then these implicit features at the clausal level are also likely to do so too.

Not all fillers and linguistic items that point to shared knowledge were analysed in this study. Fillers that are hesitation phenomena, hedgers, planners and channel checkers such as "I think" and "you know" were not studied because these could not be said to carry a particular implicit meaning that varies according to the context. A study of certain adjuncts that show shared knowledge might have contributed to the description of how students refer to their shared experience. Adjuncts of habit e.g.: "still" and "as ever" refer to knowledge of an on-going process; others such as "in the end" and "any more" that relate events to previous events, presuppose knowledge of the previous events. These adjuncts were not studied because they do not relate to the central hypotheses about implicitness.

## 7.2.2 Method

### 7.2.2.1 Categories

Initial ellipsis in this system includes only the omission of a subject and operator when they could be retrieved and put back in the utterance without the language sounding unnatural, taking into account that it occurs in casual conversations. In initial ellipsis there is usually part of a verb left in the utterance. This excludes, therefore, all

utterances that consist of a noun phrase or prepositional phrase only, as in answers to questions:

e.g.: 01040 CM Were you on a compound or were you...?  
 → 01041 MM **Yeah mainly in a compound.**

It also excludes utterances consisting of an adjective or adverb only, as in evaluations and expressions of opinion:

e.g.: 14016 NF I climbed a mountain.  
 → 14017 DM **Good.**  
 → 14018 BF **Very energetic.**

These types of initial ellipsis were not analysed, partly because they are characteristics of all spoken language and not only the informal, and partly because they are nearly always anaphoric, the missing elements being retrievable from the preceding text.

Although sentential ellipsis is obviously related to nominal ellipsis, they come in two separate parts of the coding system. Nominal ellipsis was not included in this part of the tagging system because it is concerned with implicitness at the noun phrase level as opposed to implicitness at the utterance level.

Unfinished sentences occurring within the turn of a speaker, or sentences that fade out under an overlap or are interrupted, were not analysed in the study because these sentences are not left unfinished by the speaker thinking that the hearer has enough information to understand the rest. These sentences are unfinished either because the speaker is reformulating his ideas or because the hearer is not interested enough or patient enough to let the speaker finish talking.

#### 7.2.2.2 Analysis

The density of all these features was calculated not out of all words but out of all discourse units, since these generally only occur once in a discourse unit. A general impression was taken of how these features relate to implicit contextualisation cues and common knowledge.

The average length of discourse unit, in terms of number of words, remained fairly constant throughout the course: eight in period 1, seven in period 2 and seven and a half in period 3. This means that the discourse unit is a constant and reliable unit of measurement for calculations.

## 7.2.3 Results And Discussion

### 7.2.3.1 General Observations

Taking all K areas together, analysis revealed that the density of utterances containing incomplete sentences with initial ellipsis increases dramatically throughout the course (Period 1: 1.7%, Period 2: 3.7%, Period 3: 5.2%). Thus the following K1 example, in which students discuss the problems of organising a party, is typical of period 3:

e.g.: 24037 BF The problem is we usually spend a fortune (3) on beer.  
 24038 DM On beer right.  
 24039 BF The oil and beer.  
 → 24040 DM **Something** wrong isn't there somewhere?

When each of the K areas was analysed separately, it was found that utterances with initial ellipsis are more typical of non-course K areas than of K4 (see Figure 1). Just as K4 has more formal, abstract lexis (see Chapter 8), it has less of this informal structure. It is the rise in the non-course K area density that explains the rise in all the data. Thus the following example from K1 about AF's son's growth-rate is typical of the non-course K areas:

e.g.: 21058 AF I measure him every six months.  
 → 21059 AF **Been doing** that since a couple of years ago.

**Figure 1 : Initial ellipsis in non-course K areas and K4**

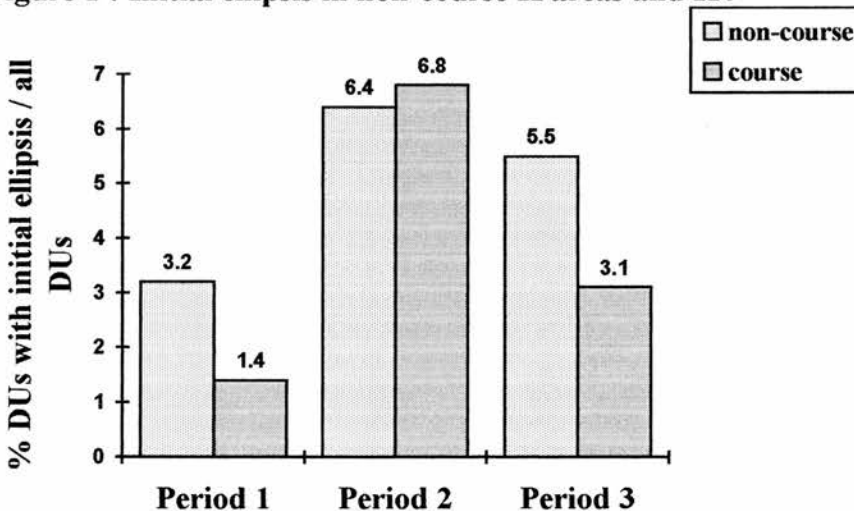
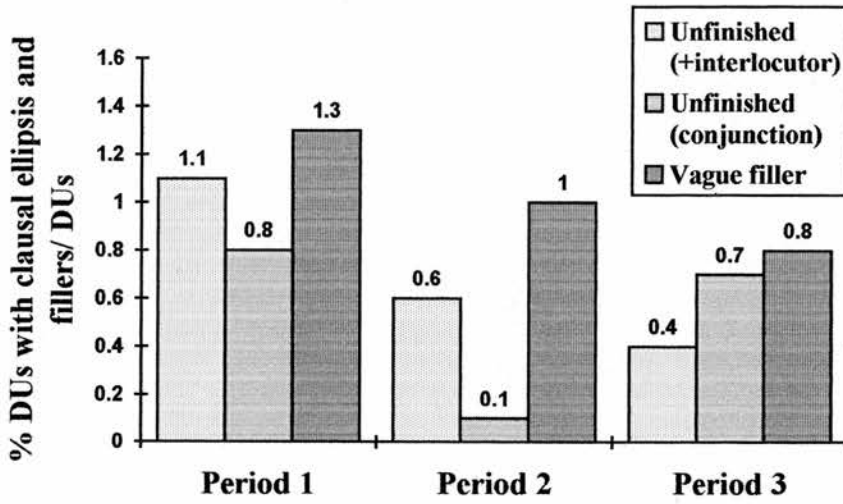


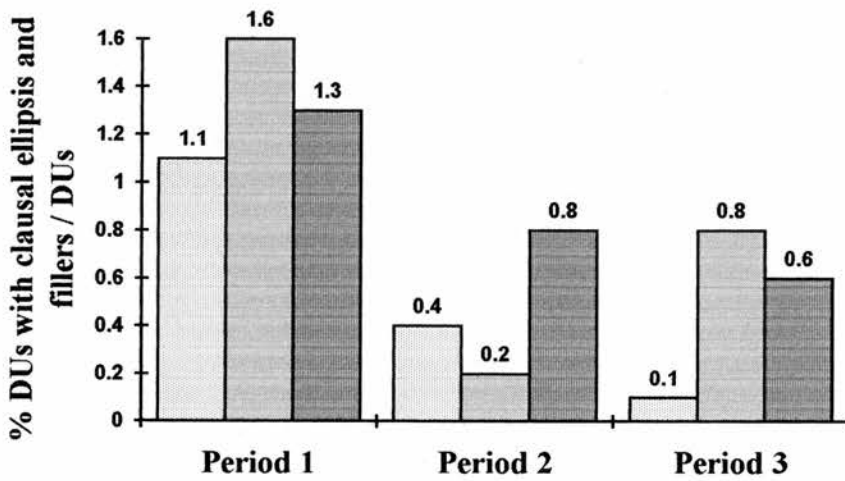
Figure 2 shows that, taking all K areas together, the density of unfinished sentences and fillers decreases over time. This does not confirm the hypothesis that:

2. *Over time, in all K areas, the density of unfinished sentences and vague fillers increases*

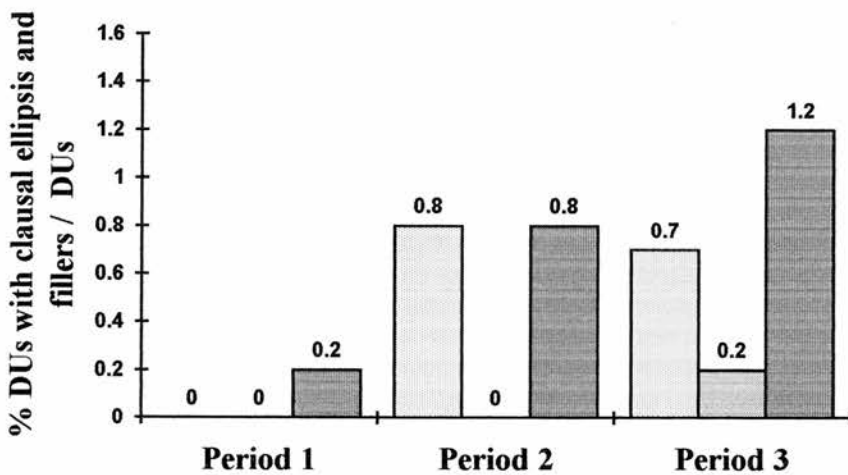
**Figure 2 : Unfinished sentences and fillers**  
**In all the data**



**In non-course K areas**



**In K4**



K4 does show an increase in these features, however. A comparison of non-course K areas and K4 shows that whereas in non-course K areas, speakers start the year pointing to the background knowledge that they bring with them, in K4, this delays until periods 2 and 3, by which time the background knowledge has accumulated.

Unfinished sentences with interlocutor completion in K4 could only be completed by in-group members with course knowledge and shared interpersonal knowledge. Thus in a course conversation about an option course, DM begins to talk about X, and CM knows what he means without his finishing the utterance:

e.g.:→ 15007 DM X's doing it for er ...  
15008 CM Yeah project.

Analysis of the unfinished sentence with interlocutor completion shows that implicit language is understood by in-group members. It seems at times, that they are saying the same sentence. Their minds are "on the same wave-length" and they are having the same ideas without having to express them fully. The following is an example of the unfinished sentence with interlocutor completion. The speakers are talking about the exam of the year before, and it is obvious that they think they know what their interlocutors are going to say:

e.g.:→ 12050 CM Last year was last year was choose three **choose three er...**  
12051 NF **Choose (0.5) Choose one of these.**  
12052 NF Structura // lism  
12053 AM // No no it was the thinkers.  
12054 CM From the point of view of the man not the school.  
12055 AM Yeah.

Conversations with these interactive features depending on common knowledge, and showing evidence of the speakers being "on the same wave-length", show that in-group members are close and united by their common experience of the course. In the following example DM, advising AF about planning her study, takes as given what AF is going to say and makes a comment about it:

e.g.: 29088 DM You'll have a lot to do next year if you don't do // another one this year.  
29089 AF // I know I know.  
→ 29090 AF **That's why I want to...**  
29091 DM It's in your interest isn't it to do // more than one.  
29092 AF // Yeah.

The unfinished sentences with a hanging conjunction are typical of the non-course K areas rather than K4. No specific information is implied in the unfinished part of the

sentence. The existence of a possible general contrasting situation is implied with "but", and the existence of a possible general resulting situation is implied with "so". In the following K3 conversation about whether BF will apply for the IALS scholarship, the effect of the "so" might be to soften the negative statement and to imply "therefore it is not worth talking about this any more". DM understands:

e.g.:→ 28032 BF I don't really want to carry on studying **so...**  
 28033 DM // (heh heh heh) (1)  
 28034 DM Are you having second thoughts about your future then?

As for the vague filler, the reason for the decrease in non-course K areas is not obvious. K4 vague fillers increase over time as knowledge of the course grows. K4 vague fillers add to the implicitness of the dialogue because only a hearer with knowledge of all aspects of the course could understand the full implications. In a typical K4 sentence with a metonymical proper name, a vague filler can include a general noun. Only a course member could imagine what "all those kinds of things" could be, in the following example:

e.g.:→ 10009 CM You're not bothering with going through Bloomfield **and all those kind of things?**((0.5))  
 10010 DM I don't want to write an essay.

In the following example, a hearer would need to have read the article in question to understand what the "and so on" referred to:

e.g.:→ 16021 AF I thought she was bit of a bore and hedging and surveying **and so on** and I couldn't see the point of this semantic field boundary.  
 16022 AF I found it extremely fiddley.  
 16023 AM Yes I- I couldn't see that.

### 7.2.3.2 Combination with implicit contextualisation cues

A small proportion of the discourse units that contain clausal ellipsis and vague fillers also contain implicit contextualisation cues: notably technical terms, course limited range nouns and proper nouns, and to a lesser extent non-anaphoric pronouns. The implicitness of the K4 language is increased when utterances containing special course nouns and non-anaphoric pronouns are left unfinished or completed with a vague filler. The following examples from K4 demonstrate this point.

Unfinished sentences with interlocutor completion can co-occur with special course nouns, as in the following conversation about the linguistics question in the exam. CM can refer to something that a linguist said and leave the sentence hanging, confident that his hearer knows how it ends:

- e.g.:→ 12148 CM And I did qualify it with that Lyons what Lyons said about (0.5)  
 being **an American who was trying // to...**  
 12149 AM // **Mm. Mm.**  
 12150 AM **Yeah. ((4))**

The hearer is expected to know what Lyons said about Bloomfield.

When vague fillers occur with special course nouns, only in-group members could imagine exactly what might be implied. In the following example, the hearer would have to know what other limited range nouns existed apart from "a lecture"

- e.g.: 29095 DM Are you wanting here?  
 29096 MM Sort of.  
 → 29097 MM Are you waiting for **a lecture or something?**

In summary, initial ellipsis increases dramatically with increasing knowledge over time, contributing to the increase in implicitness. Unfinished sentences and vague fillers, taking all K areas together, decrease over time, but in K4 they increase as knowledge of the course grows over time. They contribute to the implicitness of K4 as their comprehension depends on background knowledge. Unfinished sentences containing implicit contextualisation cues are doubly implicit.

### 7.3 CONVERSATIONAL IMPLICATURE

This part of the chapter describes the study of humorous conversational implicature and contributes to the picture of implicit language. It describes implicitness in the speaker's intention, implicitness in terms of an entirely different meaning than that of the words used. Humour in which the maxims of quality and manner are flouted was studied in order to find whether the nature of the conversational implicature varies with increasing knowledge over time and according to K area, and whether implicit contextualisation cues are used in humour.

Humorous conversational implicature was chosen as an object of study because of its dependence on background knowledge and because joking can be seen as a strategy for claiming in-group membership. This is discussed in the section on in-group markers in Chapter 8. (See Appendix III for the coding system.) Non-humorous conversational implicature was not analysed because there were few examples in the data. Those instances that occurred were mainly hyperboles used in descriptions of events and situations and a study of them would have contributed little to the central hypotheses.

### 7.3.1 Definitions And Hypotheses

Humour in the data falls into two categories (see Figure 3), depending on whether it lies in the meaning of the words themselves or in an implied meaning that is different from the literal meaning of the words. The first category is called, in this study, 'non-flouting' humour, in which speakers talk about funny situations or use funny language. The second category is called 'flouting' humour, in which speakers humorously flout the maxims of co-operation (Grice 1975), using hyperbole, irony, banter or ambiguous allusions.

**Figure 3 : The sources of humour**

<b>Non-flouting humour</b>	<b>Flouting humour</b>	
<b>Public</b>	<b>Public</b>	<b>Private</b>
- funny situation	- hyperbole	- banter
- funny language	- irony	- irony
	- ambiguous allusion	- ambiguous allusion

'Non-flouting' humour is public, in the sense that it is accessible to most hearers because it does not usually depend on knowledge of information that is not mentioned (see Chapter 8 for a discussion of non-flouting humour). 'Flouting' humour can be either public or private. 'Public flouting' humour does depend on knowledge of information that is not mentioned but it is still accessible to most hearers, except when it is based on K4. 'Private flouting' humour depends on knowledge of information that is not mentioned as well, but it is private in the sense that it also depends on shared interpersonal knowledge and familiarity with the interlocutor, which makes it accessible only to in-group members. All the sources of humour occur along a cline of implicitness: from the explicit public "non-flouting humour" through the implicit "public flouting humour" to the implicit "private flouting humour".

'Flouting' humour comes from conversational implicature, which relies on common knowledge that is not mentioned. Flouting humour is not related to all of Grice's (1975) co-operative maxims, in the data. The maxims of relevance and quantity, so important in the analysis of the degrees of explicitness, are not flouted on their own in humorous exchanges. They are flouted if the maxim of manner, which states that the speaker should be perspicuous and avoid ambiguity, is also involved. However, it is the maxim of quality, which says that the speaker should not wittingly lead the hearer

into erroneous beliefs and assumptions and includes metaphors, hyperbole, irony and banter, that is the one most involved in humorous utterances.

When the maxim of quality is flouted for comic effect, the outsider has a problem with truth. Although the language may be clear, hearers need some knowledge of the context and the speaker in order to appreciate that the speaker is "not telling the truth". The outsider could mistakenly assume that the words are to be taken literally. The outsider who *does* pick up the clues that an utterance is ironic or exaggerated then has the problem of determining how far from the truth the attitude expressed is. The outsider lacks the interpersonal knowledge about the speaker that would permit him to know what his attitudes and opinions usually are.

Flouting humour that is 'public' consists of irony and hyperbole about a third party or a situation, and ambiguous implicit humorous allusions to a third party or a situation. It can be used by familiars and usually by strangers too, and a non-in-group member would be able to appreciate it, unless it is based on K4.

'Private' flouting humour consists of banter (mock impoliteness to the interlocutor), irony about the interlocutor (mock politeness), and ambiguous implicit humorous allusions to the interlocutor. It can only be used by familiars, and a non-in-group member would not normally be able to appreciate it because hearers need shared interpersonal knowledge of the interlocutors, especially their attitudes and present mood.

Leech states that "While irony is an apparently friendly way of being offensive (mock-politeness), the type of verbal behaviour known as 'banter' is an offensive way of being friendly (mock impoliteness)" (1983: 144). Leech points out that irony permits aggression to manifest itself in a less dangerous verbal form than by direct criticism, insults, threats, etc. Brown and Levinson say that irony is "organised around the potential face threat posed by the critical comment" (1978: 262). Banter, on the other hand, is often a form of criticising light-heartedly or of teasing, and is a veiled aggression. Banter is more risky than interpersonal irony. If the hearer takes irony for its face value, nothing is lost because the speaker was seen to be being friendly; if the hearer takes banter for its face value, he may interpret it as an insult or criticism.

A feature of private flouting humour is that it is generally only socially acceptable for people who know each other well to use it. In order to embark on the risky

act of threatening the interlocutor's face, there must be a certain level of trust and awareness that the situational conditions are right for it.

The first hypothesis as regards humorous conversational implicature was:

1. *In all K areas over time the frequency of flouting humour increases*

Since it had been found that dialogues depending on shared interpersonal knowledge increase with interaction over time, and that other forms of implicitness increase at the same time, it seemed reasonable to assume that conversational implicature, implicitness in the speaker's attitude, also increases.

The next hypothesis was:

2. *K4 has more flouting humour than non-course K areas*

The reasoning behind this hypothesis was that since K4 parts of dialogues contain more implicit contextualisation cues, they might contain more humorous conversational implicature.

The last hypothesis was that:

3. *Most flouting humour in K4 contains implicit contextualisation cues*

Implicit contextualisation cues and implicitness at the utterance level in themselves cannot be seen as a flouting of the maxim of manner. The cues are not used intentionally in order to avoid a more clear and explicit reference, with the possible exception of the implicit personal pronoun which is used in order to avoid naming a member of staff. However, it was hypothesised that implicit contextualisation cues would be used in humorous conversational implicature because it seemed that the in-group code could be used to increase the in-groupness of humour.

### 7.3.2 Method

#### 7.3.2.1 Categories

There are two comments to be made about the categorisation of humorous utterances. The first concerns public flouting humour. It was decided to include, in this broad category, any "playing with the truth" that is not based on interpersonal knowledge. Overgeneralisation and understatement were included in the hyperbole category, for the convenience of coding. An example is the following comment by AM who is spilling his coffee as he comes in and prepares to tell the tale about his flat leaking:  
e.g.:→ 03058 AM ((Returns)) **I don't know I'm not doing very well with liquids**

**today.**((whispered))  
 03059  BM      // (heh heh)  
 03060  AM      // (heh heh)

The second comment about the categorisation of humorous utterances is that only the discourse units that contained the funny lines and any verbal response that contributed to it were analysed. This means that discourse units that contained laughter, written "heh heh heh", were not coded or counted as part of the humorous units. The presence of "heh heh heh" obviously does not indicate that something funny has been said or even that something intended as serious has been taken as funny. Students often laugh when they feel nervous or are filling in the silence between their utterances. Similarly, the absence of "heh heh heh" does not mean that there has been no humour. A student can say something amusing and his colleagues may just smile, outwardly or inwardly.

### **7.3.2.2 Analysis**

The percentage of discourse units containing all types of humour out of all discourse units was calculated within each K area. The average percentage of these in each period was found. The percentage of these containing implicit contextualisation cues was calculated.

In addition to the analyses aimed at testing the hypotheses, a brief examination of all flouting humour was made in order to discover any tendencies that might contribute to the general picture of the implicitness of in-group language. In addition, a comparison of non-course K area and K4 humour was made in order to discover if there were any differences between the two.

## **7.3.3 Results And Discussion**

### **7.3.3.1 General Observations**

A general analysis of humour showed that course events cause changes in the density of humorous utterances, more than increasing knowledge over time does. The density of discourse units containing all forms of humour taken together (non-flouting, public flouting and private flouting) drops dramatically in period 2 and returns to the level of period 1 in period 3 (period 1: 8.6%, period 2: 7.3%, period 3: 8.6%). Period 2 is the time when stress seems to be at its highest because of the demands that the course

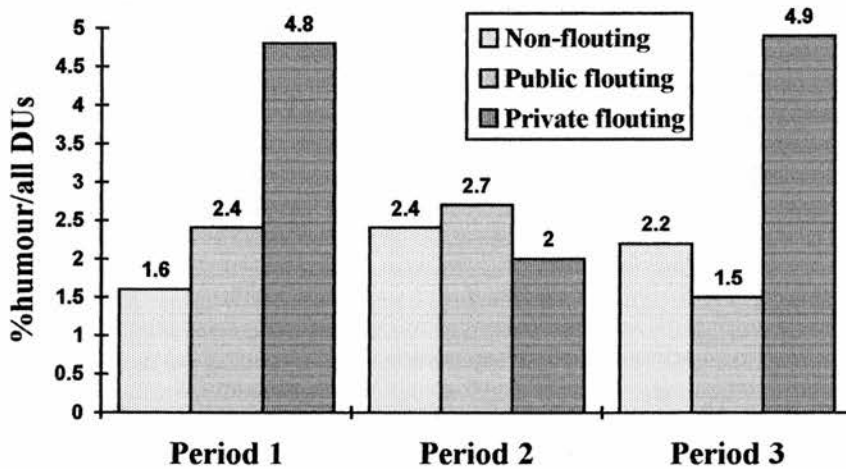
makes: the examination pending, projects to be handed in, the dissertation to be planned, etc. Period 2 is the least likely to contain humour.

The analysis of each of the three sources of humour taken individually shows, more precisely, that course events cause changes in the source of humour used (see Figure 4). In period 2, non-flouting humour actually increases. It is flouting humour that decreases, thus not confirming the hypothesis:

*1. In all K areas over time the frequency of flouting humour increases*

However, public flouting humour does increase slightly in period 2. It is private flouting humour that decreases and is responsible for period 2's decrease in flouting humour. Figure 4 shows that this decrease is all the more dramatic because the density of private flouting humour is very much greater than the other sources of humour in periods 1 and 3.

**Figure 4 : Density of each source of humour out of all data**



This means that although students might tell funny anecdotes, use funny language, and use amusing irony and hyperbole with relation to a situation or person to relieve the tension of period 2, they are less likely to indulge in humour at the interlocutor's expense, at that time. Even though at other times in the course, private flouting humour is the most widely used, students do not risk teasing each other in stressful period 2. Thus banter, as in the following example, in which BM teases AM about his tutorial task preparation, is safer in periods 1 and 3 when students are not quite so anxious:

e.g.: 03076 AM And I like what-I-did very well actually.  
 03077 BM Oh did you?  
 → 03078 BM **You did!**  
 → 03079 BM **Very good!**

- 03080 BM **That's great.** (heh heh heh) (1)
- 03081 BM **Well do you want us to take it to pieces or something?**
- 03082 AM Yeah yeah yeah go on.
- 03083 AM Rip it to pieces

Even the non-flouting humour depends to a certain extent on the hearer's knowledge of the world in order for the joke to be appreciated fully. When speakers play with the language, mix registers and express witty thoughts, in a non-course K area, the meaning is transparent. When, however, speakers use non-flouting humour in a K4 dialogue, the meaning may not be quite so transparent. In the following, CM entertains his colleagues with a witty saying expressing an amusing idea that he had encountered in the course context:

- e.g.:
- 18046 CM Somebody said the stronger you care what's that?
  - 18047 CM **You know people who feel strongly about studying Linguistics have absolutely no respect for the language anyway.**
  - 18048 NF // (heh heh)
  - 18049 BM // (heh heh // (heh heh heh heh))

Possibly only somebody who was familiar with the issues debated and the way aspects are analysed in Linguistics would appreciate this joke to the full.

Public flouting humour is implicit in that it depends not only on the hearer's knowledge of persons, things, events, etc. but also on his knowledge of the speaker's attitude and personality. This contributes to the implicitness of K4 sections of dialogue. Course members humorously use hyperbole to describe one member of staff as "fanatic" and another as "a maniac", to describe writing the dissertation as risking becoming "excruciatingly boring", and to assess their ideas for a project as "totally uninformed" and "basically stupid". The hearer who lacks information about why students should describe staff and themselves thus and what the students' attitudes and personality are, cannot gauge how close to the truth the description is.

As private flouting humour is the greatest source of humour and the most implicit form of humour, interpersonal irony, banter and interpersonal allusions were analysed in detail to discover their characteristics.

Interpersonal irony takes the form of over-polite and over-exuberant expressions. Irony can be an un-necessarily polite request for permission, as in the following example in which AM asks his colleagues if they would mind waiting for him. BM responds with banter and a mock refusal to grant permission, and NM joins him:

- e.g.:
- 03025 AM I'll just go and nip down and get some coffee.

- 03026 AM **If that's all right?**  
 03027 NM Yes.  
 03028 NM That's all right.  
 → 03029 BM **Well I don't know actually.**  
 03030 BM // We have we are all ready er  
 → 03031 NM // **Probably start without you.**

The irony can be a predicting or echoing of an interlocutor's sentiments in an exaggerated way. In the following, BM draws golf enthusiast CM's attention to the fact that he is "getting carried away":

- e.g.: 18097 CM He coughed once when another player was- was er cleaning his ball  
 and it throw him off it threw him off.  
 18098 CM And he felt so bad he gave him a hole.  
 18099 CM He was a match he was a match player.  
 → 18100 BM **A gentleman then.**  
 18101 CM Yeah like the guy was // the guy was twenty feet off the hole and he  
 said oh pick it up right and he gave him the hole.  
 18102 BM // (heh heh heh)  
 18103 CM You said he's a gentleman.  
 → 18104 BM **Oh you like that don't you? //**

Banter falls into two main categories. The first type is banter with which the speaker pretends to reprimand or accuse the interlocutor and flouts of the politeness principles of not disagreeing and not impinging. The second type is banter with which the speaker pretends to misinterpret the interlocutor's meaning and flouts the politeness principle of presupposing knowledge of the hearer's knowledge and values.

Banter in the form of a mock accusation can be a reprimand for not doing something. When DM tells the tale of how his wife's ankles swelled up after a mountaineering expedition, AF affectionately uses a mock accusation of neglect:

- e.g.: 22173 DM No no she wasn't in pain at the time.  
 22174 DM But after it's =  
 → 22175 AF **Not that you'd notice =**  
 22176 DM she walked. ((7))

It can also be an accusation of causing a situation. In the following, AF pretends to blame BM's wife for the fact that she cannot find employment easily:

- e.g.: 05124 AF I'm beginning to realise why em why jobs in language schools run  
 out so sharply in the autumn and in the spring.  
 → 05125 AF **It's all these damn MSc students and their wives // (heh heh)**  
 05126 BM // (heh heh heh heh)

Banter in the form of a mock misinterpretation can be a suggestion that the interlocutor's words are untrue, that he is lying. In the following example, DM had said that he had no money and needed to go to the bank. BF teases him:

e.g.: → 23066 BF **No money?**  
 → 23067 BF **What do you mean you've got no money? (2)**  
 → 23068 BF **You've a working wife.**  
 23069 DM That's why I have no money.

It can also be a pretended misunderstanding, as in the following in which MM comes into the common room and greets DM with a common question. DM cheekily pretends that he does not know that he is asking about what he is planning to do:

e.g.: 27160 MM Hello there.  
 27161 MM What are you doing?  
 /.../ → 27163 DM **Sitting here.**

The response of hearers to the speaker's private flouting humour is very often to defend themselves from the mock attack or at least to pretend to take it seriously. Rarely do they respond by laughing and only sometimes do they continue the joke. This may be because, although the speaker may intend the banter to be amusing in order to be socially acceptable, it can misfire and what the hearer feels is the attack.

Private flouting humour is doubly implicit because it depends not only on the hearer's knowledge of persons, things, events, and the speaker's attitude but also on knowledge of the speaker's past, present and future life, etc. The most implicit type of private flouting humour is the ambiguous allusion. It combines the flouting of the maxim of quantity and the maxim of manner. Witness the following example in which DM says that he did not go out this weekend:

e.g.: 14021 DM More than I did this weekend I'm telling you.  
 14022 BF You had friends didn't you?  
 → 14023 BF **I can imagine why you wouldn't want to.**  
 14024 DM Resting.  
 → 14025 BF **Yeah.**  
 → 14026 BF **Sure.** (heh heh)

BF's words border on the innuendo: she uses no referring expressions at all to point to what she "can imagine". A whole section of text is "missing".

Taking the data of all the K areas together, it can be concluded that, since flouting humour (implicit humour) does not increase with increasing knowledge over time, then implicitness in the source of humour is not associated with the increase in the

overall implicitness of the in-group code. Humorous implicature is present from period 1, before the code is fully formed.

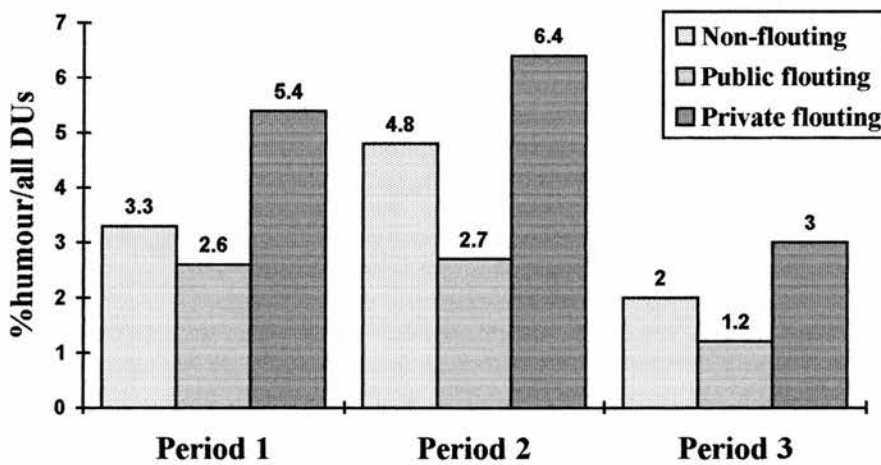
The hypothesis:

2. *K4 has more flouting humour than non-course K areas*

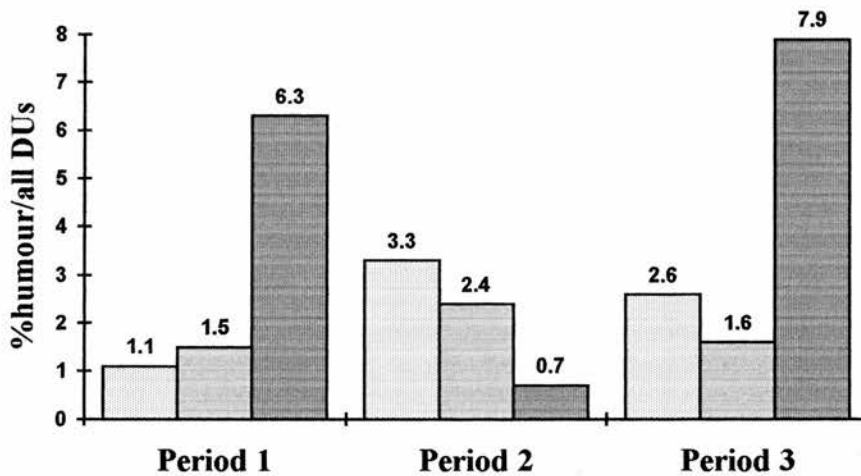
was not confirmed (see Figure 5). The overall density of flouting humour in K4 is similar to that of non-course K areas, although K4 does have less non-flouting humour.

**Figure 5: Density of each source of humour in each K Area type**

**In non-course K areas:**



**In K4**



The most important finding as regards flouting humour, was that the density of private flouting humour in K4 is exceedingly low in period 2. It seems that K4's low

level of private flouting humour in period 2 explains the overall drop in the density of all sources of humour taken together with all K areas together. This means that interpersonal humour in period 2 *is* acceptable so long as it is based on a K area not directly related to the course. It should be remembered, however, that K4 dialogues occupy 57% of period 2.

### 7.3.3.2 Combination with implicit contextualisation cues

This part of the chapter concentrates on K4, since this is the K area with the most implicit contextualisation cues. Any type of humorous utterance is private to a certain degree, if implicit reference is used. This is to say, although the source of the humour is not usually the implicit cue in itself, appreciation of the joke might be hindered if the referent is unknown.

54% of all K4 discourse units with public flouting humour contain implicit contextualisation cues. This confirms part of the hypothesis:

#### 3. *Most flouting humour in K4 contains implicit contextualisation cues*

When K4 hyperboles and irony occur in references to projects, members of staff, etc., the full appreciation of the humour depends on an ability to interpret the implicit contextualisation cues.

Some K4 hyperboles occur in utterances containing special course terms which could make a non-in-group member lose the force of the joke. In the following example of hyperbole, an outsider might not grasp to what extent AF is to be taken literally, not knowing the referents of "project" or "option course" (non-anaphoric definite limited range nouns), or the possible meaning of the indefinite pronoun "anything" and the general "do" verb:

e.g.: 29068 DM // If you fancy doing anything // you can  
 → 29069 AF // **the guidelines for the project** basically say do what you like!  
 29070 DM Yeah. ((2))  
 → 29071 AF They say you can take any any subject from **the option course** or **anything else** you want to do. // (heh heh heh heh heh)

In the following example of K4 irony, a student evaluates a member of staff's teaching style positively in order to imply that she does not like it:

e.g.:→ 29054 NF **I really like the teacher very much.**  
 29055 AF (heh heh)  
 29056 DM It's very relaxing. (1)

The presence of the non-anaphoric definite limited range noun, combined with ignorance as to the teacher's identity and NF's attitude, might make it difficult for an outsider to guess how ironic she was being, how much truth there was in her words.

When students use an allusion to in-group information, the humour lies in that everything is left unsaid. Such allusions are especially implicit because they are laden with implicit contextualisation cues. In the next example, BM asks what happened in DM's meeting with his tutor:

e.g.: 20041 BM Did he direct you to any books or anything about your or have you?=  
 → 20042 DM **No his book.**  
 → 20043 BM **His book right.**  
 → 20044 BM // (heh heh) **His book right.**  
 20045 DM // (heh heh heh) (3)

The whole in-joke is merely hinted at. Presumably, this tutor had suggested once too often that students read his book. The course limited range noun "book" increases the implicitness of the humour.

11.11% of private flouting humour discourse units contain implicit contextualisation cues. This low percentage does not confirm the hypothesis

### 3. *Most flouting humour in K4 contains implicit contextualisation cues*

That this form of humour has a low density of cues reflects the fact that it is based on shared interpersonal knowledge, in which there are very few cues.

When private flouting humour does contain cues, they make it even more private. The following is an example of banter in the form of a mock reprimand for not doing something. MM flouts the maxim of quality by pretending to be unsympathetic, by goading BM, who is distressed because he has not prepared for the tutorial:

e.g.: 07031 BM // (heh heh heh) So who've I been divided up with?  
 07032 MM **With X.**  
 07033 MM And she's not here.  
 → 07034 MM **So you've got the whole damn thing to do.** // (heh heh)  
 07035 BF // (heh heh)  
 07036 BM But I haven't got the thingymajog in my em=

The private flouting in this K4 banter is made more private by the reference to a student by her proper name "X" and by the reference to the tutorial task with the general noun "thing".

K4 banter in the form of a mock misinterpretation of the truth value occasionally contains implicit cues. In the following, CM knows that DM is being modest and does not intend him to believe what he says about his tutor's reaction to something:

e.g.: 15169 DM He said it wasn't terrible anyway.  
 15170 DM He said go ahead so (0.5) I'm going to go ahead.  
 → 15171 CM **Yeah he said this isn't terrible?**  
 15172 DM No no he didn't tell me that. // (heh heh)  
 15173 CM // (heh heh heh)

This K4 banter is more intimate because of the presence of the implicit non-anaphoric personal pronoun "it" and the implicit demonstrative pronoun "this" that is cohesive with it.

## 7.4 TOPIC SHIFTS AND HITCHES

This part of the chapter describes the effect of implicit contextualisation cues on the stretches of discourse that follow the cues. It examines the relationship between implicit contextualisation cues and various types of topic shift in order to show that the cues that occur on main topic shifts add to the implicitness of a whole exchange. Half of K4's topic shifts contain elements of in-group code. It also examines the relationship between implicit contextualisation cues and "hitches", or interruptions in the flow of conversation. It shows that the in-group code usually communicates but occasionally is so implicit that even in-group members have to check the implied meaning. (See Appendix III for the coding system for topic shifts and Appendix IV for the code for hitches.)

### 7.4.1 Definitions And Hypotheses

#### 7.4.1.1 Topic Shifts

Choice of topic was dealt with in Chapter 4 on K areas. The difference between K areas and topics was explained then: the K area is the area of taken-for-granted background knowledge on which the topic depends for its comprehension. Whereas K areas relate to each other in concentric circles, topics relate in networks, either cutting across K areas or relating to other topics within one K area.

In order to analyse topic shifts, the notion of topic had to be defined. There have been several approaches to the definition of topic: the formal, the surface cohesion model, the semantic, the pragmatic and the interactive (McCarthy 1991).

The first two approaches are related to linguistic features. The formal approach to topic definition sees topics as anything within topic shift boundaries or "stretches of talk bounded by certain topic and/or transactional markers" (McCarthy 1991: 132) such as a fall in intonation, pauses or fillers. Discourse markers indicating topic shift have been studied by Stubbs (1983) who has found them to include such elements as mitigation, self-referential metastatement and meta-reference to other people's talk. The surface cohesion model for defining topic says that "topics end where chains of lexical cohesion peter out" (ibid.).

The third and fourth approaches are related to meaning. The semantic framework finds a topic something that can be given a title, and the pragmatic approach defines topics as "strings of utterances perceived as relevant to one another by participants in talk" (ibid.). This is Sacks' (1972) "Why that now and to me?" approach, which takes into account the context of the speech event. This definition is also suggested by Wardhaugh (1985) who says quite simply that the comments that participants make in a conversation "cluster", and that "the focus of the cluster is a topic" (p.139).

The interactive criteria is that "something is only a topic if more than one speaker makes an utterance relevant to it" (ibid.). A conversational topic is a "consensual outcome not a private programme or agenda" (Wardhaugh 1985: 139). Brown and Yule (1983: 89-90) say that topics are negotiated and that speakers speaking topically try to make their contributions compatible with what they think the other participants are talking about.

The definition of topic used in the present analysis is: "What speakers say about something". A topic is therefore not "what is being talked about" but "what is being said *about* what is being talked about". It is not, for example, "Edinburgh buses" but "What happens on Edinburgh buses"; it is not "BF's husband" but "Why BF's husband did not apply for the PhD" A topic can be given a title that is an embedded question, as in "Why X happened" or "How to do Y." The inclusion of the WH-question word in every topic title helps to define the boundaries between topics. In the sense that the topic can be given a title, this definition is principally a semantic one.

This method of marking topic boundaries may be less precise than that of using shift markers as the formal approach does, but it does avoid the danger of becoming too mechanical and mistakenly saying that there is a topic shift every time there is a shift

marker or that there is no topic shift if none of the established markers can be found. The findings in studies about topic shift markers are appropriate to the culture of the participants in the study in question and it may be dangerous to suggest universal formulas. Using lexical chains to define topic boundaries can be equally dangerous because they stretch across from one topic to the next and some topics contain very little lexical cohesion. That is to say, the approach used in this study is not a formal one or one of surface cohesion.

The definition of topic as "What speakers say about something, expressed as an embedded question" is interactive. For a topic to be a topic, more than one speaker has to make a relevant contribution and "speak topically" even though the contribution is a backchannel while the other speaker holds the floor with his "speaker's topic" (Brown and Yule 1983). One speaker might have one sub-topic and the other another: the title is general enough to include any particular comment that each might like to contribute.

In the sense that all speakers make a relevant contribution to the topic in the title, the definition of topic used in the analysis is also a pragmatic one. Speaking successfully on a topic means obeying the Maxim of Relation. Sacks (1972) emphasises the fact that hearers expect relevance between any two utterances with his "The baby cried. The mommy picked it up" example. Sperber and Wilson (1986) say that in casual conversation, a modicum of relevance should be enough but that the speaker's words must be "relevant enough to be worth the addressee's attention" (p.160). Wardhaugh (1985) says that when a speaker introduces a topic shift he tends to relate it to the previous topic even though it is irrelevant, so as to make the conversation seem "an orderly, cooperative endeavour" (p.144).

The pragmatic approach to topic clearly requires a definition of relevance. Grice (1975) went no further than describing his co-operative Maxim of Relation as "be relevant". Leech (1983) redefined this with his Maxim of Relevance, saying that, "An utterance U is relevant to a speech situation if U can be interpreted as contributing to the conversational goal(s)" of the speaker or hearer (p.94). These goals can be both social and personal. Brown and Yule's (1983) reaction to Grice's simple instruction "Be relevant" is to ask "relevant to what?" They re-define it as speaking topically on the conversational or shared topic, making one's contribution fit closely to the topic framework (the activated features of knowledge of context, and the preceding co-text or domain of discourse). Speakers may also be speaking on a topic, in which case

their contributions may be relevant to one particular entity being discussed, expressing a personal topic, but not necessarily relevant to the existing topic framework.

In Sperber and Wilson's (1986) definition, when a speaker speaks relevantly, he modifies and extends the mutual cognitive environment, the topic framework and the co-text whose assumptions both speaker and hearer share, thus fulfilling the purpose of achieving successful communication. Cook explains Sperber and Wilson's definition in terms of schema theory, saying

"In each encounter in discourse, we start with a set of assumptions, whose accuracy we seek to improve. Information is relevant when it has significant effect on our assumptions: in other words, when it will allow us to alter our knowledge structures to give us a more accurate representation of the world."  
(Cook 1989: 73)

A successful communicator gives new information, working within the framework of the hearer's assumptions from the schemata of existing knowledge, without making too many demands.

The interest in topics in the present study centred specifically on topic shifts. A distinction was made between 'shift to a brand new main topic' and 'shift to a sub-topic with in the existing main topic'. For the definition of the latter, Stech's (1982) categorisations were helpful. He differentiates between "termination" in which a topic is shifted from one area to another and is never picked up again, and a "break" in which the topic shifts but later shifts back again. When the topics shift back, they fall into either an "embedded" sequence, in which one topic is within another, or an "alternated" sequence, when two topics recur alternately.

'Main topic shifts' are shifts to unrelated topics (see Stech's 'termination'). They can occur either from the existing K area to a new K area, or they can occur within the existing K area. An example of a main topic shift with little or no relevance to the preceding topic in a new K area is the following in which units 06107 to 06110 come at the end of a discussion about "how to get a computer out of the country" (K2) and 06111 begins a topic about "how they got on with their tutorial task" (K4)

e.g.:

06107	AF	And yet there's no reason why you shouldn't take it out.
06108	AM	Yeah
06109	AM	There is because she might sell it there you see.
06110	AM	There's this there's there's this tax on luxury items.
→ 06111	CM	<b>Yeah let's do this.</b>
06112	CM	We've only got like twenty minutes.

An example of a main topic shift to a new main topic with little or no relevance to the preceding topic in the same K area is the following:

- e.g.: 24024 MM Not a royal any more. ((2))  
 24025 BF Was she ever?  
 24026 BF Was she ever really I mean?  
 24027 DM She wasn't very real was she?  
 → 24028 BF **I was going to say you have to come round.**  
 24029 DM That'd be nice.

Until unit 24028, the topic had been about 'How people see 'Fergey' now'; at 24028, it turns to discussion of a 'How BF and DM could get together'.

A 'sub-topic shift' occurs within the hierarchical structure of a main topic, from one sub-topic to another in the same K area. The sub-topic shift can be to a closely related main topic with relevance to the preceding sub-topic, or it can be the resumption of a previous main topic after a short interruption or insert sequence (see Stech's embedded and alternated sequences). The following example demonstrates a conceptually and lexically linked drift. Before unit 18123, CM was saying who his favourite golfer was and why. This drifts logically and easily into the subject of whether CM himself plays golf.

- e.g.: 18120 CM And he had a slump for about six years and he's just in the last year he's come back.  
 18121 CM It's like now there's three in a row and he's in his thirties so he's pretty young. (4)  
 18122 CM So.  
 → 18123 BM **Do you play golf?**  
 18124 CM Yes.

The next example demonstrates the return to a previous main topic. Before unit 29051, the students were discussing the first of two ideas that AF had for a project. This topic is interrupted by the insert sequence about whether NF likes the class that she is going to. At 29057, DM prompts AF to return to the topic of her project and to tell him the second idea:

- e.g.: 29048 AF I'm just really interested in the whole sort of business of // language and formation  
 29049 DM // Yes.  
 29050 DM It is very interesting.  
 29051 NF I'd better go to my class. ((2))  
 29052 AF You did this last week didn't you? // (heh)  
 29053 NF // Yeah.  
 29054 NF I really like the teacher very much.  
 29055 AF (heh heh)  
 29056 DM It's very relaxing. (1)  
 → 29057 DM **And the other one?**  
 29058 AF Oh the other possibility I suppose is language attitudes. (3)

The present study does not include an analysis of topic structure, i.e. conversations are not labelled as to whether they have a hierarchical structure (one main topic and a number of sub-topics stemming from it) or a drift structure (the topics strung together relevantly but gradually moving away from the first topic). This was not relevant to the central hypotheses of this study and it is not a useful exercise for the analysis of casual conversations. Hudson (1980) points out that in most conversations, "the topic 'drifts' gradually from one subject to another" (p.133) and Coulthard (1977) says that in fact it is the sign of a good conversation if "talk drifts imperceptibly from one topic to another". As Wardhaugh says, "it is very unusual in conversation ever to talk on a well-defined topic in a highly systematic way" (1985: 139). Brown and Yule (1983) say that in casual conversations, "there is no fixed direction for the conversation to go" (ibid. p.84) and Carlson (1983) states that in social conversation, meandering and long winded answers are not irrelevant.

The present study of topic shift did not include an analysis of whether the shift occurs within a turn or between two turns. The matter of topic control, the frequency of shifts made while a speaker has the floor and those made at the beginning of a new turn did not relate to the central hypothesis of the changing nature of language over time.

Referring expressions on topic shifts were analysed in the study of the in-group language. Considering topic shifts from the point of view of reference, since the comprehension of the whole topic depends largely on the comprehension of the discourse unit introducing the topic, one would expect a topic shift to contain non-cohesive reference because, by definition, if the topic is not relevant to the previous topic, there cannot be referential or lexical ties. One would also expect a topic shift to contain indefinite reference: if it is a new topic the referent has not already been mentioned and is most likely not in the mind of the hearer. A new topic can require introductory reference. It is justifiable, too, to expect explicit and even super-explicit reference rather than implicit reference, in the first two units of a new topic; enough information has to be supplied in order for the hearer to identify the referent. Coulthard (1977) says that the speaker must "membership" his listener each time the topic changes.

The main reason for looking at topic shifts in this study is to examine the notion that implicit contextualisation cues occurring on the topic shift, on the very discourse unit

that introduces the new topic, can be responsible for the implicitness of whole exchanges that depend on comprehension of the cues. The hypothesis was:

*1. Over time, main topic shifts have more implicit contextualisation cues*

#### **7.4.1.2 Hitches**

The term 'hitch' is used to mean a temporary halt in the flow of communication. These occur mostly because of a misunderstanding, caused by a speaker's miscalculation of the knowledge of his hearer, and a misjudgement as to the degree of explicitness needed. What speakers assume to be known or unknown does not always correspond to the reality of what listeners actually know or do not know, and what they have in their minds at the time.

A hitch can occur when the Maxim of Relation is violated because the right amount of relevant information is not provided and the speaker does not make clear the "Why that now and to me". As relevance is "a special kind of informativeness", speaking successfully also means obeying the Maxim of Quantity, i.e. knowing how much information is needed for the hearer to identify the referent. A hitch can be caused by a violation of the Maxim of Quantity because the right amount of explicit information and definite reference is not provided. Hitches can be caused by a miscalculation of hearer knowledge and an inappropriate use of the contextualisation cues. Whereas in the case of conversational implicature, maxims are flouted intentionally and meaning is communicated, in the case of hitches, the maxim is violated by mistake and meaning is not communicated.

Wardhaugh (1985) says that implicitness and vagueness can cause misunderstanding: "We may be led astray by the imprecision of certain very common words, words whose meaning can be determined only in relation to the contexts in which they are used. But since those contexts may never be made fully explicit or may be differently viewed by speaker and listener, here too the result can be misunderstanding" (p.37). These imprecise "very common words" with contexts not "made fully explicit" are at the centre of the present study.

Misunderstandings can occur because of a speech act problem or a macro-function problem. Wardhaugh (1985) says that the speaker may think that someone has agreed when he has not, or that he has answered the question when he has not. The hearer may not understand the speaker's intention or the illocutionary force of his words; or

he may take something seriously when it is intended as a joke. This is not the same as a "misfire" which only applies to performative speech acts and occurs if one or more of the felicity conditions are not satisfied. Tannen (1991) says that misunderstandings occur between men and women because they speak with different macro-functions. She says that whereas men do "report-talk", or "public" speaking to negotiate status, inform and perform, women do "rapport-talk", or "private" speaking to negotiate relationships, interact and establish connections. In the data of the present study, few hitches are caused by such speech act and macro-function problems. A comparison of the talk of men with the talk of women would need another PhD.

As far as the 'repair' of the hitch is concerned, when the hearer halts the flow to make a clarification check or to gather further information and the speaker supplies the missing information or makes the reference more explicit, a repair has been made. Just as a hitch can occur because of a wrong assumption of hearer knowledge and insufficient information being provided, a repair can consist of the supplying of that information. In the following example, the "here" has to be made more explicit for NF to understand:

e.g.: 05046 AF I know I think most of them most of the English schools here are cowboy outfits anyway so.  
 05047 NF In-in Edinburgh or in this country?  
 → 05048 AF **In Edinburgh.** (heh heh).

Kreckel (1981) observes that "the better people know each other, the more they expect complete understanding" (p.40) and this study explores whether increased assumption of hearer knowledge means that it is more difficult to calculate correctly how explicitly to speak. The hypothesis was:

2. *Over time in all K areas, the frequency of hitches increases*

The assumption behind the hypothesis regarding hitches was that the more course knowledge and shared interpersonal knowledge grows, and the more implicit the language becomes, the greater the risk of a hitch.

As far as implicit contextualisation cues and hitches are concerned, even the in-group members themselves can at times find their colleagues' language too implicit to be accessible and have to repair the hitch by asking for a more explicit version of the same implicit referring expression. The hypotheses were:

3. *Over time in all K areas, the frequency of hitches containing implicit contextualisation cues increases*

4. *Dialogues based on K4 have a greater frequency of hitches than dialogues based on non-course knowledge.*

since these cues occur above all in K4.

### 7.4.2 Method

As far as topic shifts are concerned, the first two discourse units of the shifts were labelled because it was felt that if only the first unit were labelled, this could cause the first utterance stating the new topic to be lost, since the first unit is sometimes only a hesitation, a turn-holder:

e.g.: 15082 DM So I'll just do that today.  
 15083 DM And try to get a few out. ((15))  
 → 15084 CM **Oh that's...** (1.5)  
 → 15085 CM **My budgie pooped on my book.** ((0.5))

or a shift marker of some sort:

e.g.: 18011 CM MSc?  
 18012 BM Something like that you know.  
 18013 BM He's so =  
 18014 CM Medium level in shit and crap.  
 18015 BM (heh heh heh) ((4))  
 → 18016 CM **It's true though.**  
 → 18017 CM **The more you study the more you realise that there are no answers.**

The first recorded line of dialogues was not labelled in the topic shift coding system because there is no way of proving whether these units are at topic shifts or not. The cassette recorder was put down in front of the recordees when the conversation was already underway, for the reasons explained in Chapter 3. The first recorded line of a dialogue is most likely to be a continuation of an old topic, but it could also be a re-statement of the old topic in order to put the researcher in the picture, or a new topic started because recordees do not want their old topic to be taped. To study the first recorded lines would have been to study in depth the effects of the cassette recorder, and that does not relate to the central hypotheses of this study.

As far as hitches and repairs are concerned, the repair to a hitch usually comes in the discourse unit immediately following the hitch, so that the two form part of a set. However many discourse units are covered between the hitch and the repair, the sequence only counts as one hitch/repair. The hitch can consist of two parts: the unit that causes the hitch and the unit that contains a request for clarification. The repair may need to extend over several discourse units until it has achieved its objective.

Although most hitches are repaired, they may not be, either because comprehension of that unit is not essential to the conversation, or because there are too many participants in the conversation and/or not enough time to merit interrupting the exchange.

The percentage of occurrences of discourse units with each of the three types of topic shift and hitches out of all discourse units was calculated for each K area. An average for each period was found for each of the non-course K areas and for K4, as well as the average for all K areas together. (Chapter 8 examines frequency of topic shift in its discussion of extended topic length as marker of intimacy). Topic shifts and hitches were then examined in order to discover the socio-functional and the lexicogrammatical causes.

### 7.4.3 Results And Discussion

#### 7.4.3.1 General Observations

- **Topic Shifts**

As a general comment about topic shifts, before moving on to the discussion about implicit contextualisation cues on topic shifts, it should be said that the presence of shared knowledge on a topic shift can also make the whole of the following exchange implicit. An examination of shared knowledge in topic shifts showed that 19% of non-course K area topic shifts contain references to shared interpersonal knowledge, whereas only 12% of K4 topic shifts do. This difference may be due to the fact that K1 has such a high density of discourse units depending on shared knowledge.

As far as non-course K areas are concerned, K1 has a higher proportion of topic shift units depending on shared interpersonal knowledge than all other K areas have. This can make the whole topic somewhat exclusive, as in the following example of a main topic shift to a new K area, in which DM and MM talk about whether they want another game of squash. Only they know the details of "that game" and where the games take place, etc.:

e.g.:

27179	CM	You have nice hair though.
27180	CM	Always have.
27181	CM	Always will. ((5))
→ 27182	MM	<b>We er should have a- another battle of squash.</b>
27183	DM	Yes.

- 27184 DM Yes.  
 27185 MM I was enjoying that.  
 27186 DM I injured myself actually in that game.

Non-course K areas are less accessible too if a sub-topic shift is based on shared interpersonal knowledge. Proper names abound in non-course topic shifts with shared interpersonal knowledge. In another example, a speaker shifts topic with "Did you go to Manchester over Christmas?" showing interpersonal knowledge of the hearer's home town. In another, a speaker enquires about the bus routes, showing knowledge of the hearer's present address: "Do you - you have to get a bus at the foot of Leith Walk?" When a speaker introduces a new topic with a reference to an experience shared or to personal information about the hearer on the discourse unit of the topic shift, it functions as a claim to in-group membership.

When a K4 topic shift containing implicit contextualisation cues also contains shared interpersonal knowledge, the implicitness doubles. If for example there is a non-anaphoric general "do", a vague noun phrase and a special course limited range noun as well as evidence of shared interpersonal knowledge, as in the following, in which BM changes the subject from AF's topic about "how she sees fewer students this term", to a topic about "what DM's doing for his project", the exchange is doubly exclusive:

- e.g.: 15156 DM Mm.  
 15157 AF You kind of expect to see all your mates in the classroom and you look around and think what a lot of skivers. ((3))  
 → 15158 BM Are you er (0.5) are going to do **what-you-thought-you'd-do about your project?**  
 15159 DM I'm going to give out a questionnaire.  
 15160 DM And I'll give you one as well.  
 15161 DM Sometime this week I hope t- tomorrow I'll get them all done.

The implicit reference with a general noun is the main feature of K4 shared interpersonal knowledge at topic shifts. Thus a student can start a topic with "I (0.5) brought the what what's-a-name back." (15127), "So I typed that thing up again after you'd gone." (15045) or "I haven't given you your thing back." (20029) on the very shift units and exclude even other course members from the rest of the topic.

#### • Hitches

Taking all K areas together, the percentage of discourse units with hitches out of all discourse units rises in period 2 but falls again in period 3: 0.75% in period 1, 1.24% in period 2 and 0.86% in period 3, not confirming the hypothesis:

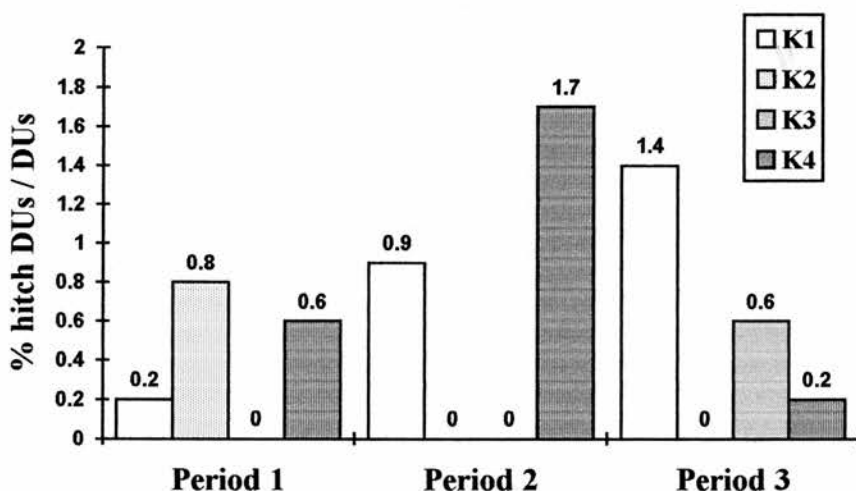
2. *Over time in all K areas, the frequency of hitches increases*

Figure 6 shows that K4 has an increased frequency in period 2 and that this may account for the overall increase in period 2. As has been mentioned, period 2 is a stressful time and this may cause inattention and hitches. K4 does not always have more hitches than the other K areas, so the hypothesis:

4. *Dialogues based on K4 have a greater frequency of hitches than dialogues based on non-course knowledge.*

was not confirmed. Figure 6 shows that there is a great increase over time in the frequency of hitches in K1. Apart from this, the frequency of hitch does not depend on either increasing knowledge over time or the K area.

**Figure 6 : Percentage of hitches in each K area**



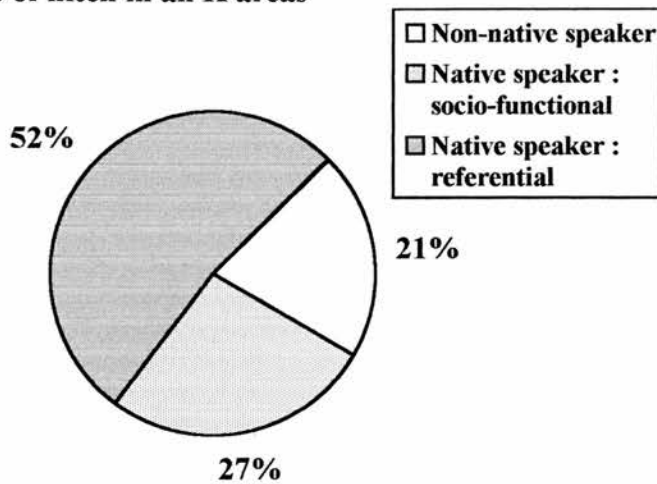
There are only five hitches in all the data that contain shared interpersonal knowledge. That is to say, reference to interpersonal knowledge is likely to be understood by the hearer however implicit the lexis or grammar may be.

The causes of hitch were examined in order to test the hypothesis:

3. *Over time in all K areas, the frequency of hitches containing implicit contextualisation cues increases*

and thus discover whether the implicit in-group code always works and to see whether the increase in K4 hitches in period 2 are caused by implicit contextualisation cues.

Figure 7 shows the distribution of the causes of hitch. 21% of hitches are caused by the fact that the hearer is a non-native speaker of English who is not familiar with the cultural background of Britain. These hitches were discussed in Chapter 3.

**Figure 7 : Causes of hitch in all K areas**

The rest of the hitches are brought about by the six native speaker of English recorded. They can be socio-functional: hitches caused by the hearer's lack of attention or request for information, that occur despite the fact that the speaker has provided enough explicit information to make comprehension possible. Most hitches (52%) are referential: caused the speaker not providing enough explicit information in his referring expressions to help the hearer identify the referent.

There are two main socio-functional causes of hitch. The first is the situation of the common room itself: the speaker does not take into account that the hearer cannot hear or concentrate in a noisy common room of students coming and going, rustling their papers, using the photocopier, etc. The second is the hearer's over-enthusiastic adherence to politeness principles: he interrupts to show solidarity.

The majority of the socio-functional hitches caused by the common room itself occur because the speaker miscalculates the hearer's ability to concentrate. The hearer may not actually be paying sufficient attention to the conversation or his concentration may be disturbed by people interrupting the conversation. Thus, situations occur in which he is unsure of what the topic is or cannot remember the information that had been given. Many of these hitches can in part be explained grammatically: the hearer is unable to make the connection between an anaphoric pronoun and the preceding presupposed item. The attention of an interlocutor may be stretched because the presupposed item is too far from the pronoun, or because the referent is ambiguous as in the following K4 example, in which the "it" of unit 15061 could have referred to either the questionnaire or the project draft based on the questionnaire.

e.g.: 15053 CM I forgot to answer your questionnaire.

- 15054 DM Oh that's all right.  
 15055 DM // That's OK.  
 15056 DM That's fine.  
 15057 DM It's still the end of this week.  
 15058 CM // I'm afraid I er. (0.5)  
 15059 CM OK.  
 15060 DM I've got to give it the I haven't given anybody else one anyway so.  
 (0.5)  
 → 15061 DM In fact he told me to re- revise it.  
 → 15062 CM **What was?**  
 15063 DM The questionnaire.

The second main socio-functional cause of a hitch is that of the hearer's over-enthusiastic obedience of the positive politeness principle of showing interest in what the speaker is saying. This type of hitch is not so much a lack of communication as an interruption in the flow with the hearer asking for more information than is needed for comprehension or predicting wrongly the speaker's next words. In the discussion about clausal ellipsis (section 7.2), it was suggested that the unfinished sentence which the interlocutor answers or completes successfully has the interactive function of emphasising a shared thought process. Even when the hearer fails to predict correctly the speaker's words, he claims in-groupness by "taking part" in the speaker's sentence:

- e.g.: 13104 FF Christmas wasn't an official holiday.  
 13105 CM What! (0.5)  
 13106 CM Why?  
 13107 CM That's that's a (0.5) Catholic =  
 13108 FF Well.  
 13109 FF It's- it's a it's a weird reaction against =  
 → 13110 CM **the workers.**  
 → 13111 FF **Well no it wasn't.**  
 13112 FF Because you had New Year off.

#### 7.4.3.2 Combination with implicit contextualisation cues

- **Topic shifts**

Taking all K areas together, the percentage of discourse units at shifts containing implicit contextualisation cues, out of all discourse units at shifts, increases dramatically in period 3 (period 1 is 18.5%, period 2 is 17.1% and period 3 is 24%). The percentage of discourse units at all *main* topic shifts containing implicit contextualisation cues, out of all discourse units, is higher in periods 2 and 3 than in period 1 (period 1 is 31.2%, period 2 is 32.9% and period 3 is 32%) which confirms the hypothesis:

*1. Over time, main topic shifts have more implicit contextualisation cues*

The peak in period 2 could be explained by the fact that there is more implicit non-anaphoric definite reference and special course nouns in period 2 because K4 is densest then.

Figure 8 shows that although the percentage of sub-topic shifts with implicit contextualisation cues is about the same for non-course K areas and K4, *main* topic shifts with implicit contextualisation cues are four times more likely in K4 than they are in the other K areas. About 50% of all K4 main topic shifts contain implicit contextualisation cues, whereas about 13% of non-course K areas do.

**Figure 8 : Percentage of DUs on shifts with implicit contextualisation cues out of all DUs on shifts**

K Area	Main topic shift		Sub-topic shift within same K area	All
	to new K area	in same K area		
Non-course	13.3	13.6	17.1	15.2
K4	46.9	51.9	19.9	29.6

The implicit contextualisation cues on topic shifts in K4 could affect the understanding of the topic as a whole. Coming on the very discourse unit that introduces a completely new topic, they can make all the topic that follows implicit and thus can influence the comprehension of the whole topic.

46.9% of main topic shifts to K4 contain implicit contextualisation cues. These can be, as in the following excerpt, explicit non-anaphoric definite reference to specific referents using special course limited range nouns, and course proper names referring to a member of staff. BM brings up a topic related to the task at hand:

e.g.: 03031 NM // Probably start without you.  
 03032 NM (heh) We're already ten minutes late so. ((5))  
 → 03033 BM Um.  
 → 03034 BM What we decided was we-we got did you get **that em list em** (2) **the em the sh-topic sheet** from **XX** on- on Monday?  
 03035 FF No I had it I had it read out on the phone to me last night.

The cue can be implicit non-anaphoric reference with a definite article and a general noun as in the following example, in which AF refers to a specific referent which only she and MM probably know:

e.g.: 15123 MM Anyone got the key to the photocopier? ((1))  
 15124 DM No.  
 15125 AF Is it still not there? (2)

- 15126 AF Oh MM!
- 15127 AF I (0.5) brought **the what what's-a-name back**.
- 15128 MM Yeah.
- 15129 MM Tell you what ((unintelligible)).

The cue can be an implicit non-anaphoric personal pronoun and non-anaphoric ellipsis as in the next example, in which DM mentions the time left before a deadline, on the first unit of the shift, but does not need to say what the deadline is for, and in the second unit of the shift he refers to something specific that hearers can identify:

- e.g.:
- 23017 DM Oh you're waiting for Dave // aren't you?
  - 23018 BF // Yeah. Yeah. ((4))
  - 23019 DM Oh we've got three weeks now (2).
  - 23020 DM When are they going to tell us whether **it is** or not? =
  - 23021 BF After the (1) portfolio yeah.

51.9% of main topic shifts *within* K4 have implicit contextualisation cues. Again these cues can be implicit non-anaphoric personal pronouns as in the following example in which DM changes the topic from one about "why he had done a task in advance" to one about "what an un-named lecturer wrote on the black-board":

- e.g.:
- 04131 DM I'm going away this weekend.
  - 04132 DM So had to do it.
  - 04133 BF Yah.
  - 04134 BF I've got to do it as // well.
  - 04135 DM // **He** made a mistake.
  - 04136 DM And I wanted to show one of you somebody actually.
  - 04137 DM I think he made a mistake yesterday when he was putting them up when the diagram was up I think he got one wrong. ((0.5))
  - 04138 BF Oh I didn't copy them all down.

The cue can be a course proper noun and an implicit non-anaphoric demonstrative determiner with a course general noun, as in the following in which the topic had been "what DM had read for his project" until unit 20050, and thereafter, it is about "whether DM got the MSc thing":

- e.g.:
- 20046 DM There are a few things in ELTJ. (2.5) about it. (0.5)
  - 20047 DM ((sniffs)) which are you know.
  - 20048 DM There's not a lot though. (0.5)
  - 20049 DM It's quite nice.
  - 20050 BM Did you see em **XX** about **that MSc thing**?
  - 20051 DM That's right.
  - 20052 DM I'll go up and see if I can see it.

Only 19.9% of sub-topic shifts in K4 contain implicit contextualisation cues. Again, this can be a course general noun, as in the following example in which students have been talking about "how the tutorial task has been organised" and BM suddenly

realises that he does not have all that is required. Only someone who had done the course would probably know that he referred to a tutorial task sheet:

- e.g.:
- 07012 NF Yeah we're in groups.
  - 07013 NF We have to divide into groups. ((1))
  - 07014 BM Er what ha- I didn't pick **my thing** up.
  - 07015 BM Did we have **a thing** to pick up?
  - 07016 BF Yeah.
  - 07017 BF You've got a task to do with one (0.5) with one other person.

The sub-topic shift can contain implicit non-anaphoric personal pronouns and course proper nouns as in the following example, which comes after a discussion about "what students did with materials after the exam". Unit 12037 starts a discussion about "what students thought that the examiners would ask in the linguistics question in the exam":

- e.g.:
- 12035 CM I put them in a little folder and // I'll look at them.
  - 12036 AM // Yeah.
  - 12037 CM Remember we s- we imagining that well **they** could ask **it** in terms of **Structuralism**.
  - 12038 AM Yeah that's right.
  - 12039 AM X was saying that.

This characteristic of K4 main topic shifts accounts, to a great extent, for the implicitness of the in-group language. If the introduction to a course topic in the topic shift itself is full of general and vague language, if the topic statement itself in the shift contains implicit language, then the successful comprehension of all that follows in the ensuing exchange on that topic and relates to that statement depends heavily on common knowledge of the background.

The features of unfinished sentences, completed by the hearer or with hanging conjunctions, and vague fillers very rarely occur in topic shifts. When they occur, it is in sub-topic shifts. However implicit a main topic shift's referring items may be, therefore, the idea has usually to be completely expressed: the vagueness cannot be at utterance level.

- **Hitches**

Whereas in the case of hitches with mainly socio-functional causes, the information is there in the text but the hearer did not hear it or was not concentrating, etc., in the case of hitches with mainly lexico-grammatical referential causes, the information is

not there in the text. The hearer is expected to supply it from his background knowledge but cannot identify the referent.

These hitches show little change over time and little difference between K area (see Figure 9). Most hitches with referential causes of all types (62.5%) occur in non-course K areas, but this is a reflection of the fact that non-course K area dialogues occupy 57% of all the data. This suggests that K4 implicit language is usually understood by in-group members as well as the more explicit non-course K area language is.

**Figure 9 : Number of hitches with referential causes in each K area**

K area	Period 1	Period 2	Period 3
K1	1	3	1
K2	2	0	0
K3	0	0	3
K4	1	5	0

The percentage, out of all hitches in all the data, of hitches caused by implicit contextualisation cues rises in period 3 (period 1 is 33.3%, period 2 is 33.3% and period 3 is 42.9%) and confirms the hypothesis:

3. *Over time in all K areas, the frequency of hitches containing implicit contextualisation cues increases*

However, this is a reflection of the fact that the density of implicit contextualisation cues increases, so this finding is not very useful.

More useful is the study of K4 lexico-grammatical hitches, because K4 has more of them than any one of the other K areas. Whereas each of the other K areas have only one hitch caused by implicit contextualisation cues, all K4's hitches with referential causes contain implicit contextualisation cues. That is to say, the implicit in-group code does not always work efficiently even for in-group members. Occasionally it is so vague and ambiguous that they have to check whether they have understood.

To start with an analysis of hitches caused by implicit course lexis in reference, the cause can be, for example, the metonymical use of the proper special course names, as in the following:

e.g.: 13010 CM You - when you read over **that syntax** didn't it seem very simple?  
 13011 CM After you read it again now?  
 → 13012 AM **Er you mean the book?**

13013 CM Yeah the book.  
 13014 AM Yeah.

Here, "that syntax" with its non-anaphoric demonstrative determiner pointing with definite reference to background knowledge could have meant, as it does on other occasions within the context of K4, "tutorial task", "an option's material for the exam", "exam question" or "all that has been studied from lecture notes and articles and books". In the next example, the one second pause after BF's course metonymical proper noun "Semantics", and possibly the expressions on the interlocutors' faces, tell her to repair her question:

e.g.: 14001 BF Semantics One.  
 → 14002 BF Is there **another Semantics?** (1)  
 → 14003 BF **Is there another book // called Semantics by Lyons?**  
 14004 NF // Yes.  
 14005 DM // Yeah Two.

"Semantics" could have meant "option" or "exam question", as in the case of "I studied the Semantics quite a bit and then I didn't do it". She repairs by supplying a super-explicit special course limited range noun "book" with a double post-head dependent for hearers to identify the referent.

The use of special course limited range nouns can also cause a hitch. In the following example, BF supplies the pre-head modifier in her repair:

e.g.: 07017 BF You've got a task to do with one (0.5) with one other person.  
 07018 BF It's been divi- the task **the whole task** has been divided up between the group.  
 07019 NF Yes.  
 → 07020 BM **What this one?**  
 07021 BF // No.  
 07022 BM // No.  
 → 07023 BM **What are we talking about?**  
 07024 BF To // day's.  
 07025 BM // Today's.

In the following excerpt, there are two hitches caused by limited range nouns in explicit non-anaphoric reference. They are in this case both modified ("the *first* paper" and "the *Meara* article") but the modification does not prompt recall:

e.g.: 16001 AM I think the em **the first paper** the main one was just just dense.  
 16002 AM I - I // spent  
 16003 AF // **which one?**  
 → 16004 AF **Channell or Emmorey?**  
 /.../→ 16010 AF **The- the // Channell paper?**  
 16011 AM // No the- yes that's it yes.  
 /.../ 16060 AF And **the Meara article** was did you read that?  
 → 16061 AM **I- that was the =**  
 → 16062 AF The testing.

There can be similar hitches in non-course K areas, especially in period 3, in parts of K3 that are closest to K4. In the following example, there is explicit non-anaphoric definite reference to a course related referent, the MLitt scholarship in IALS:

- e.g.: 28039 BF Well // spoke to YY about applying for **that MLitt**.  
 28040 CM // Yeah would've been nice to have someone around that I know. ((2))  
 → 28041 DM **What one?**  
 → 28042 DM **The scholarship thing?**  
 28043 BF Yeah.  
 28044 DM Right.

DM needs to check that "that MLitt" has an ellipsis of "scholarship".

There are fewer hitches caused by implicit grammar in reference without implicit lexical cues than there are with them. In the following K1 example, FF does not know whether implicit non-anaphoric demonstrative adverb "here" refers to the MSc course, to the university or to Scotland. CM's repair is not entirely clear:

- e.g.: 13091 FF I don't think you'll get Easter Monday holiday **here**.  
 13092 CM You don't!  
 → 13093 AM **You mean us or people generally?** ((3))  
 → 13094 CM It's here.  
 13095 CM // The term begins the twentieth

An examination of the relationship between topic shifts and hitches added to the picture of implicit in-group language. Only 5.6% of all topic shifts contain a hitch: they are mostly successful, that is to say. Nearly all the hitches at topic shifts are in non-course K areas. Implicit contextualisation cues never cause a hitch at a topic shift in K4.

## 7.5 INFLUENCE OF PERSONALITY

Each of the three implicit features discussed in this chapter were examined briefly in order to check whether the results could be said to be typical of all six recordees and therefore all the MSc students, or whether certain tendencies were just a reflection of the individuality of one or two members of the group. It was found that the individualities of the recordees did not skew the results; the tendencies discovered may indeed be generalisable.

It could be argued that initial ellipsis is as much a reflection of each individual's personality, their speaking style, their idiolect, as a reflection of increasing knowledge

over time. However, an examination of each of the six recordees' language showed that CM, DM and BM are equally responsible for the initial ellipsis (31%, 24% and 16% respectively), and all speakers use very much more in periods 2 and 3.

Impressionistic observation of flouting humour showed differences between the recordees, but this did not influence results to any great extent. BF's humour is nearly always private flouting humour, as is DM's. CM's humour is never private flouting humour.

The attitude to hitches may be a matter of personality. Some of the recordees show recurrent characteristics. AF, who is Scottish, causes hitches by introducing references to places in Edinburgh and wrongly assuming that her interlocutors have the background knowledge. CM and DM often cause hitches by not paying full attention to the conversation. BF can be guaranteed to give a careful and fully explicit repair to any hitch. AM and CM tend to be hasty with their repairs and CM gives unclear repairs, especially when a non-native speaker of English is involved.

## 7.6 CONCLUSION

Clausal ellipsis and vague fillers add to the implicitness of student dialogues. Although these features do not become more frequent with increasing knowledge over time in all the data, in K4, vague fillers and unfinished sentences completed by the hearer do become more frequent. As they depend heavily on background knowledge for their comprehension, they contribute to the implicitness of K4 language. When discourse units containing clausal ellipsis and vagueness contain certain implicit contextualisation cues (technical terms, proper nouns and non-anaphoric pronouns), this increases the implicitness K4 language.

As regards the function of clausal ellipsis and vague fillers, it may be that they are a reflection of in-group membership and a product of assumed common knowledge. On the other hand, in-group members may use these informal structures consciously to assert in-groupness by pointing to the fact that they share common knowledge. The use of language that points to the background knowledge creates a sense of involvement.

As far as humorous conversational implicature is concerned, none of the hypotheses were confirmed. Flouting humour does not increase over time; K4 does not have

more flouting humour than non-course K areas; and all K4 flouting humour does not have a high density of implicit contextualisation cues. Only in the case of public flouting humour do most K4 humorous utterances contain implicit contextualisation cues.

These findings suggest that implicitness in humour does not increase with increasing knowledge over time, unlike implicitness in reference. It can be said that all humour contains implicitness to a certain degree, and that private flouting humour contains more than non-flouting humour, yet the main influence on the type of humour used is not increasing knowledge over time but course events. The density of flouting humour falls in period 2 in which the stress is highest and K4 private flouting humour is minimal.

The function of humorous utterances is to entertain and to make a claim for in-groupness. Humour depending for its meaning on unspoken words is present right from term one. It is socially acceptable to tease the interlocutor and make funny comments about the world as it relates to him, right from term one. Private flouting humour is a strong in-group identity marker, depending on shared interpersonal knowledge and mutual trust. Banter is one of the sources of humour that most marks intimacy; it is a strategy and a symptom of in-groupness. In-group members know that they must be amusing to be a member of the in-group, but they also know at what point in the course they can joke, what they can joke about and what sort of joke they can make.

Turning finally to topic shifts and hitches and the effect of implicit contextualisation cues, it was found that approximately half of K4 shifts contain the cues. Implicit contextualisation cues on topic shifts can be said to cause the pervading implicitness of K4 dialogues. In K4, the in-group code itself occasionally breaks down as the referring expressions become so vague and ambiguous that even in-group members have to check whether they have understood the right referents. The code is not always used efficiently.

The function of implicit contextualisation cues on topic shifts is much the same as the function of implicit contextualisation cues at any point in a dialogue: the grammatical ones may reflect in-group knowledge and the lexical ones may constitute a conscious claim for in-group membership. When the in-group code occurs on the very unit that shifts the topic, this may be an economy measure, a time-saving device, or it may be

that students want to underline the sharedness of their knowledge and make a claim for intimacy. The function of the in-group code and the other implicit features is discussed further in the next chapter.

## CHAPTER 8 : FUNCTION

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### 8.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides the functional background to the analysis of the in-group code and implicit contextualisation cues. It contains a description of the socio-psychological context of the MSc students going through the experience of the course together, and a description of the group dynamism. It deals with the questions: "What evidence is there that the group has formed?", "What is the students' purpose in speaking to one another?" and "Why do they use implicit language?"

The chapter falls into four parts. The first explores in-group markers (informality, humour and topic length) in order to show that a group has in fact formed. The second part describes the analysis of the development of the macro-functions (the transactional and the interactional). It shows that the students' reason for interacting changes: over time there is an increase in language used to express solidarity and test the normality of progress. The third part of the chapter describes the study of speech acts (in terms of attitudes towards self, interlocutor and situation) in order to show the way that the students claim in-group membership. Expressions showing a positive attitude towards colleagues increase; those showing a negative attitude to themselves and the situation are reserved for K4 topics.

The last part of the chapter draws all these threads together to suggest that the function of implicit language (both the in-group code and the other features of implicitness) is to both reflect and claim in-group membership.

### 8.2 IN-GROUP MARKERS

This part of the chapter discusses the function of certain linguistic forms and shows that they contribute to the overall picture of group dynamics. The first section of this part contains a brief reminder about the literature on markers of intimacy. The other sections offer an analysis of the function of the relevant indicators in the data.

The examination of other components of the language of intimacy is aimed at contributing to general picture of the changes in the language that occur at the same time as the changes in implicitness. If the literature is right in saying that in-groupness can be shown by the presence of markers of intimacy, then a discovery of other components of the language of intimacy in the data, apart from the implicit contextualisation cues and other implicit features, can be used to demonstrate that a group formed or at least that its members wanted to claim in-group membership. Once it has been demonstrated that a group formed, the suggestion that the implicit language belongs to a formed discourse community can be confirmed.

### 8.2.1 Review Of The Literature

Markers of intimacy were mentioned in Chapter 2 in order to explain the general theoretical background to the study; here they are mentioned in order to show which ones were selected for the model of analysis. Some markers of intimacy discussed in the literature (forms of inclusion and non-fluent communication) were not relevant to the study, but others (informality, emotive language, humour and topic length) were taken as in-group markers in the present study and followed through the data.

Some of the linguistic markers of group membership that have been suggested are forms of inclusion and mutuality, then: "we" rather than "you" and "I", specificity of referring expressions such as "Jane" rather than "that person", and spatial and temporal indicators of proximity, such as "here's John" rather than "there's John" (Berger and Bradac 1982; Kelly et al. 1983). The present study did not take into account these distinctions because these forms are not always ones of inclusion and mutuality; they can vary according to the context. This list of markers is somewhat simplistic too: as has been shown in the present study, both the proper name and the general are markers of in-groupness.

Some linguists have found non-fluent communication to be a marker of intimacy. Edmondson (1981) finds false starts and other hesitation phenomena, which he calls "fumbles", (such as starters e.g.: "Well...", let-me-explain expressions e.g.: "I mean..." and "you know" and underscorers e.g.: "The thing is...") to be indicators of speakers who know each other well. Edmondson's let-me-explain expressions are known by Stubbs (1983) as sociocentric expressions and by Quirk et al. (1985) as comment clauses. These were not analysed in this study because non-fluent communication can have other functions, such as hedging, and it can have other causes, such as

nervousness. The hesitation phenomena of omissible hedging verbs (Brown and Miller 1980) such as "I think" and "I suppose" are more politeness ploys or softeners, planners or delaying devices allowing the speaker time to formulate his message, than markers of intimacy. Thus the use of non-fluent communication as a reflection of intimacy could not easily be isolated from these other functions and causes.

Jefferson, Sacks and Schegloff (1987) have suggested that informality in terms of an informal register of idiomatic expressions, popular words, slang and obscenities is an "invitation to intimacy" (p.160). The hearer can express solidarity by echoing or escalating obscenity. As Crystal (1987) points out, "The chief use of slang is to show that you're one of the gang." (p.53), and "cursing and swearing" can be "a marker of group identity and solidarity" (p.61). Informality, in terms of initial ellipsis, slang and expletives, was taken as an in-group marker in this study, since the use of informal language can be seen as a strategy to gain acceptance and in-group membership. In Chapter 7, initial ellipsis was studied from the point of view of implicitness; in this chapter it is seen as one of the features of informality.

Giles (1979), explaining his Accommodation Theory, says that "individuals shift their speech styles to become more like that of those with whom they are interacting." (p.46) and that this involves aligning their expression to their interlocutors' utterances in order to be accepted by them. Thus it can be assumed that if all the students in the present study use an increasingly informal style, in terms of initial ellipsis, slang and expletives, they do so to cohere with the rest of the group.

The use of expletives can be seen as an indication of a certain degree of intimacy, but in the present study expletives were analysed with caution because they can be as much a product of tension and anxiety as an invitation to intimacy. Lazarus (1963) found that environmental demands provoke tension. Argyle et al. (1981), in their examination of environmental setting, found that interpersonal threat and the threat of a new situation are anxiety producers, as is "overloading", in terms of excessive stimulus of information for extended periods. This is the situation of the MSc students: the course can make demands that cause them to feel stressed and overloaded with information, especially in the spring term.

The present study did not take expressions of anxiety as markers of intimacy, because anxious speakers often show their anxiety to total strangers. The study did not, therefore, go into the features discovered by Cutting (1991) looking at MSc students'

language, such as subjective modality emphasising a feeling of insecurity and lack of control. It did not follow up, either, the markers of extreme anxiety as suggested by psychologists: simplification, repetitions, less diversified lexical content (Osgood and Walker 1959), "ah's", sentence changes, repetitions, omissions, tongue slips, sentence incompleteness (Scherer and Giles 1979) and tone, breathy voice, rapid and irregular tempo and speech errors (Kasl and Mahl 1965).

In the literature, the use of emotive language in general has been considered a marker of intimacy. Goffman (1971) says that the speaker "will often present initially a front of diffidence and composure, suppressing any show of feeling until he has found out what kind of line the others will be ready to support for him." (p.326). When speakers feel relaxed in each others' company, they can disclose their inner feeling explicitly, in the hopes of being rewarded with solidarity; an emotion expressed is an emotion shared. Expression of emotion was taken as an in-group marker in the present study. Emotive language was analysed briefly in terms of lexicalisations of emotion. More importantly, however, the study centres on the expressing of positive and negative attitudes as a speech act that claims in-groupness (see section 8.4 on speech acts).

The function of humour as a marker of intimacy has been touched on in the literature. As Brown and Levinson (1978) say, "Since jokes are based on mutual shared background knowledge and values, jokes may be used to stress that shared background or those shared values. Joking is a basic positive politeness technique for putting H 'at ease'." (p.124). Psychologists and ethnomethodologists have also underlined the importance of joking in relationships. Nash (1985) affirms "We share our humour with those who have shared our history and who understand our way of interpreting experience" (p.9) and that "humour both expresses and is used to relieve psychic tensions." (p.20). Kuo (1994) found that humour was a group-defining element that stressed solidarity.

Humour was taken as an in-group marker in this study. In Chapter 7, humour was discussed from the point of view of implicitness, and the nature of humour based on conversational implicature was examined. In this chapter, the social function of all forms of humour is explored: the flouting and the non-flouting.

The function of flouting co-operative maxims has been mentioned in the literature. It has been suggested that using hyperbole, a speaker can heighten certain feelings and incidents for the listener in order to engage his attention and to entertain and amuse

(Brown and Levinson 1978; Wardhaugh 1985). Irony, Blakemore (1992) suggests, expresses the attitude of the speaker. As she says, "the speaker who leaves his attitude implicit suggests that the hearer and the speaker share assumptions about what, for example, is ridiculous or absurd" (p.170). Irony directed against a third party or situation unites the hearer and speaker who share the same attitude. Brown and Levinson (1978) suggest that banter is a way of asserting intimacy and a mechanism for stressing solidarity, since "in intimate relations there may be presumed to be minimal danger of face threats." (p.229). Leech (1983) says that underpoliteness can have the effect of "establishing or maintaining a bond of familiarity" (p.144). Johnson (1993) found that banter in male-bonding football-talk was "aggressive humorous backchat" that stressed similarity between speakers and created in-group norms.

The last marker of intimacy mentioned in the literature that was taken as an in-group marker in this study is related to topic shifts. When Tannen (1984) describes "high involvement style", she mentions that there tends to be a preference for abrupt topic shifts, the introduction of new topics without hesitation, and persistence of topic. Chapter 7 concentrated on knowledge and reference in topic shifts; this chapter discusses types and frequency of topic shift.

### 8.2.2 Informality

Informality was examined in terms of initial ellipsis, slang and expletives. Initial ellipsis was defined in Chapter 7. In the category 'slang' is included informal nouns such as "slob", "kid" and "quid", and popular phrasal verbs such as "go on about", "keep mum about" and "stick with". The category 'expletives' includes obscenities such as "bloody hell" and "screw them", and blasphemy such as "Oh God" and "Christ". (See Appendix IV for a list of slang and expletives). Slang and expletives can be in the form of a noun, e.g. "willy", "dosser", "shit" and "crap", as in:

e.g.: 18011 CM MSc?  
 → 18014 CM Medium level in **shit** and **crap**.

a verb e.g. "screw", "knacker" and "slag", as in:

e.g.: 16008 AM Em (heh) I was going to start **slagging** her off.

an adjective e.g. "bloody" and "crummy" as in:

e.g.:→ 08020 AM **Bloody** tosh, isn't it?  
 08021 CM Well it's- it's a bit abstract. ((1))

or an adverbial e.g. "hell of a" and "what on earth", and other expressions such as "for goodness' sake", as in:

- e.g.: 05024 BM Like what's the difference between monolingual and multilingual classes.  
 → 05025 AF // Oh for goodness' sake.

The hypothesis related to informality was:

1. *Over time, in all K areas, the density of initial ellipsis, expletives and slang increases*

This hypothesis was based on the assumption that if informality is a marker of in-groupness, then as the group forms so informality should increase.

If the literature is right in suggesting that informality is a marker of intimacy, then the MSc student dialogues over time do show an increase in intimacy, or in-groupness. Taking all K areas together, informality in terms of initial ellipsis increases dramatically throughout the course (period 1: 1.7%, period 2: 3.7%, period 3: 5.2%) and the level of slang and expletives rises slightly (period 1: 1.7%, period 2: 1.7%, period 3: 2.6%). (See Appendix XIV for a table of slang and expletive percentages).

Figure 1 shows that the difference between the proportions of discourse units with these informal features and those without them in each of the three periods is significant. The value of  $\chi^2$  was 12.206, significant at the 0.005 level. This confirms the hypothesis:

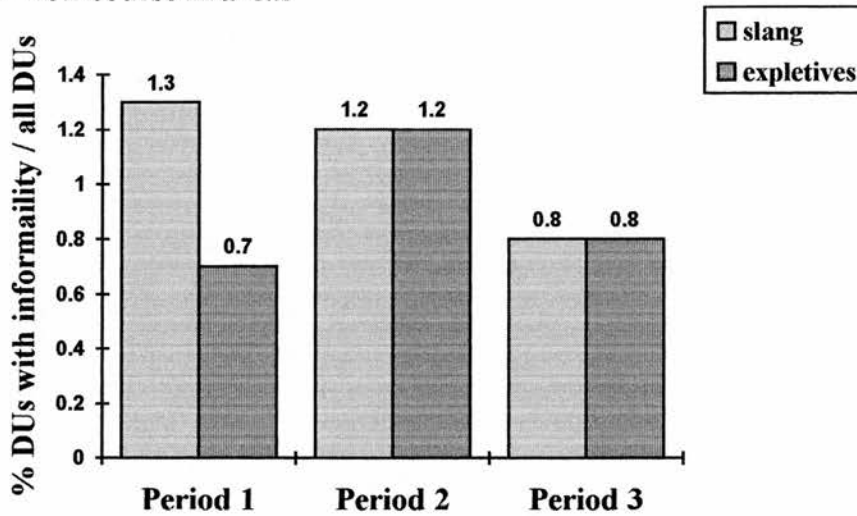
1. *Over time, in all K areas, the density of initial ellipsis and expletives and slang increases*

**Figure 1 : Frequencies of informal features taking all K areas together.**

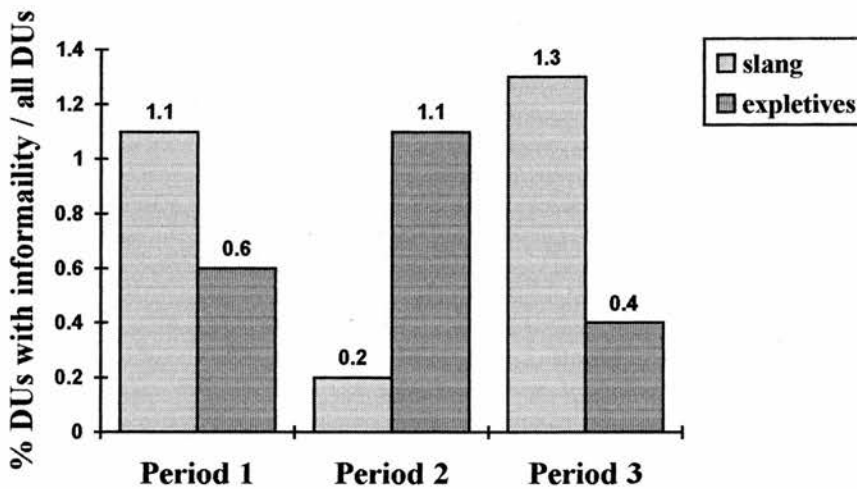
		Period		
		1	2	3
DUs with informal features :	yes	27	99	81
	no	713	1686	1001

When K4 was compared with non-course K areas in terms of informality (see Figure 2), K4 was found to be slightly less informal, although expletives are used more in moments of tension and anxiety in period 2. Figure 3 shows that, comparing K4 and non-course K areas, the difference between the proportions of discourse units with informal features and those without informal features in each of the three periods is significant. The value of  $\chi^2$  was 4.241, significant at the 0.05 level.

**Figure 2 : Density of discourse units with slang and expletives  
In non-course K areas**



**In K4**



**Figure 3 : Frequencies of all informal features in all the data in K4 and non-course K areas**

		K4	Non-course K area
DU's with informal features :	yes	72	135
	no	1423	1961

The findings about K4's lower density of features of informality coincide with the findings that there is a higher density of formal lexis: linguistic terms such as "X-bar" and "diglossia", abstract nouns such as "consideration" and "procrastination", and formal verbs such as "qualify" (meaning more informally "add a comment"), "dismiss" (meaning "say it is not important"), and "coalesce" (meaning "come together"). This

shows the effect of reading, hearing formal language in lectures and discussing intellectual matters in the formal context of the tutorial, which can also be seen in the increase in course proper nouns.

The density of expletives rises in period 2 as a result of tension and anxiety, produced by the demands of the course and the competition with colleagues, as well as the increased intimacy. The spring term is the moment when the pressure increases: students have to face a written exam and the first two projects, and they have to plan their portfolio question choices. By the summer term, they have become accustomed to the pressures of independent study and therefore the need to express nervousness is less necessary.

K4 expletives are a result of the anxiety. In the following K4 example, students remind each other fearfully how far away from a project deadline they are:

e.g.: 20024 CM // Just a week // to go.  
 → 20025 BM // **Oh God** right yeah.

This tension spills over into all aspects of K4. In the next example, BF suddenly remembers her class:

e.g.:→ 14072 BF **Bloody hell!**  
 14073 BF Is it eleven already?

The anxiety produced by the course in this period can occasionally spill over from K4 into non-course topics that are closely related to K4 topics. The following example is from a predominantly K2 topic, in which CM advises BM on the best computer programme for his project. BM assesses the state of his project so far:

e.g.: 26079 CM Wouldn't work cos when you start typing here // it just  
 26080 BM // Yeah.  
 → 26081 BM Yeah (1) I'm **buggered** aren't I?

A brief examination of emotive vocabulary in general showed that in K4 dialogues, especially in period 2, there is a large group of abstract, third order entity nouns which seem emotive: "rubbish", "pressure" and "mood", verbs that show the students' anxious feelings about their work: "panic", "worry" and "sweat", and adjectives associated with stress, such as "scared", "worried" and "bothered".

Non-course topic expletives differ from K4 expletives in that they seem to be more a claim for informality and intimacy than a result of stress. Only people who have known each other and interacted for a certain length of time could possibly assess the main male protagonist of a televised novel in the following terms:

- e.g.: 11052 AM Um he's a bit of a:  
 → 11053 BF Well (1) sort of like **a willy with on two legs!**  
 11054 AM Um.  
 → 11055 AM He's a bit of **a wimp** in the film.

Only people who have interacted over a certain length of time would feel free to dramatise their narratives with expletives, as in the following example:

- e.g.: 19086 BM When I saw the Thames Estuary, I said where's the **bloody** water?

### 8.2.3 Humour

As was seen in Chapter 7, the density of discourse units containing all forms of humour taken together (non-flouting, public flouting and private flouting) does not increase as the group forms over time (period 1: 8.6%, period 2: 7.3%, period 3: 8.6%). Humour is a normal part of any informal conversation (Crystal 1987). The main function of humour would seem to be to add amusement and interest to the conversation in order to be accepted as an in-group member.

An analysis of the function of all humorous utterances was made because humour was taken as an in-group marker. Humour usually implies an expression of attitude and therefore emotion. Expressions of emotion are markers of intimacy. Using language that presupposes knowledge of values and attitudes is a strategy for claiming in-group membership, and speakers who leave their attitude implicit suggest that the hearer and the speaker share assumptions (Brown and Levinson, 1978; Blakemore, 1992). Logic leads to the conclusion that humorous utterances are markers of in-groupness. Results of the analysis of the function of humour shows that it is socially cohesive, in that it entertains and points to shared background.

- **Non-flouting humour**

All non-flouting humour, a feature more of non-course K areas than of K4, seems to be aimed at adding enjoyment to the conversation and making the speaker seem more entertaining. He "displays" his wit and makes himself more attractive and thus may bring the hearers closer to him. 'Non-flouting' humour consists of joking, describing funny situations, dramatising and impersonating. When MM is telling his long narrative about the hypnotist show, for example, he makes his audience laugh by adding direct speech:

- e.g.:→ 02100 MM And another thing the one who's wearing these glasses the the

- hypnotist walks in front of the guy with the glasses on and **the guy with the glasses goes urghh!**
- 02101 MM He suddenly saw through yeah.
- 02102 FF (heh heh heh)

Non-flouting humour also consists of using funny language in the sense of mixing registers, using clichés ironically in a serious context or using elaborate and formal language for everyday events. Speakers use the language of other domains to add a sparkle to their conversations. In the following example, MM uses the language of advertising to detract from himself when CM praises his new haircut; CM echoes the humorous language by using a cliché himself:

- e.g.: 27175 CM Oh sweet cut.
- 27176 DM Wow.
- 27177 NF What's that you've changed.
- 27178 MM **I want to look different.**
- 27179 CM You have nice hair though.
- 27180 CM **Always have.**
- 27181 CM **Always will. ((5))**

In the following example from a K2 section of a dialogue about what initials could stand for, in which CM enjoys mixing vulgarity and expletives with the revered academic institution of the MSc, the meaning is explicit enough for any hearer:

- e.g.:→ 18009 CM // **Medium level in shit.**
- 18010 CM What's that?
- 18011 CM **MSc?**
- 18012 BM Something like that you know.
- 18013 BM He's so =
- 18014 CM **Medium level in shit and crap.**

'Non-flouting' humour can generally be used by strangers or familiars, and a non-in-group member would usually appreciate it because he would not normally need more knowledge than is referred to by the words used, in order to appreciate it. However, 43.3% of all K4 instances of non-flouting humour contain implicit contextualisation cues and this can make it less public. If the hearer is not familiar with the referent, the full implication of a joke playing with language and switching register can be lost. In the following, for example:

- e.g.: 15113 DM **She certainly fills- fills it up doesn't she?**
- 15114 DM **She's got lots of things to tell you I'm sure.**

only in-group members who knew who the implicit non-anaphoric "she", "it" and "things" refer to and had been in one of her lectures would enjoy the joke to the full. Similarly, in the following example:

- e.g.: 18033 NF And if you if you don't correct them in time you you repeat them.

- 18034 NF So they just avoid them completely and utterly.  
 → 18035 NF **They cut it out those pseudo-problems.** // (heh heh)  
 → 18036 CM // **Pseudo-problems** (heh heh)

any hearer might appreciate that "pseudo-problems" ("problems" categorised as a course general noun meaning "bad thing") was an amusing neologism but only a hearer who had read the article about the handling of error correction would know which the problems were, referred to with its non-anaphoric demonstrative determiner, and why they might be "pseudo". When K4 humour comes from playing with technical terms of linguistics, only a person who is familiar with the terminology could enjoy it, as in the following:

- e.g.: 17022 NF What er er asterisco how can you say?  
 17023 AF Oh yeah asterisks.(heh) ((1))  
 17024 BM Sorry.  
 → 17025 BM **We have an interlanguage.**  
 17026 NF I look at BM and I say (heh heh heh // heh) "Asterisco se dice...?"  
 (heh heh heh)

#### • Public flouting humour

Flouting humour can also contain an element of "display" and entertainment, and it is possible that for this reason it is present right from period 1. In the chain of narratives about bus drivers in K1, the hyperbole is interactive. Each speaker increases the exaggeration in order to make his contribution seem more relevant:

- e.g.:→ 04049 BF We had a **really neurotic** bus driver this morning.  
 /.../→ 04057 DM **Demented** bus driver.  
 04058 BF // (heh heh heh)  
 04059 AF // (heh heh heh)  
 04060 AF You get the occasional one. (2.5)  
 → 04061 AF **The wild ones** are on the on the green buses actually.  
 → 04062 AF They go at a **hell of a rate**.  
 → 04063 AF **Don't stop for anything**

The main function of humorous hyperbole, irony and allusions, in K4 dialogues however, appears to be that of emphasising the common background and asserting in-group membership. The following is an example of an ambiguous allusion:

- e.g.: 13001 AM It's a real text book.  
 → 13002 AM **It's not like Brown and Miller.**  
 → 13003 CM **Figure thirteen.**  
 → 13004 CM **See figure thirteen.**  
 13005 AM (heh heh heh)  
 13006 CM Figure twelve.  
 13007 CM Fi- figure fourteen.

13008 AM // (heh eh heh)  
 13009 CM // No figure thirteen. (7)

In-groupness is emphasised by the humour, by the implicitness of the reference to what happened, and by the use of the metonymical course proper noun. In the following example of humorous hyperbole, students exaggerate the consequences of the new option courses separating old friends, in order to amuse each other and to show good will:

e.g.: 15148 BM We'll have to go out sometime.  
 15149 DM Yeah.  
 → 15150 BM **Before we forget each other's faces.**  
 15151 BM // (heh heh) **It's true.**  
 15152 DM // (heh heh heh)

The interactional functions of entertaining and of claiming in-group membership, in flouting humour are very often inseparable. In the following example, BM flouts the maxim of sincerity to exaggerate his plight writing his project:

e.g.: 17032 BM I wrote my introduction and I thought that sounds really good.  
 → 17033 BM **I thought but (0.5) I'll be here for ever if I discuss what I've just  
 // said I'm going to discuss.**  
 17034 NF // (heh heh heh heh)

He is entertaining his friends with his dramatic exaggeration, and at the same time he is stressing the shared background (they are all writing projects) and the shared values (they are all having their problems). He is possibly using humour to predispose his hearers towards him in order to gain support and sympathy from them.

- **Private flouting humour**

Private flouting humour is a marker of trust and intimacy as well as in-groupness. To use interpersonal irony, banter and allusions, the speaker must be familiar enough with the interlocutor to be able to refer, uninvited, to him, his life and beliefs. Banter in the form of a mock rejection of the interlocutor is one of the strongest ways of saying how much one enjoys his company. In the following example, from the last few moments of the last dialogue recorded, a student enters the common room and there is nowhere for him to sit; DM gets up:

e.g.: 29105 DM No- no I was- I was going to move anyway.  
 29106 DM **Shit!**  
 → 29107 DM **I can't sit here and er be chatting to AF all day.**  
 29108 AF (heh heh)  
 29109 DM I'm afraid.  
 29110 AF Oh well.

Interpersonal irony and banter have their own particular functions. They can sometimes have the secondary aim of "bringing the speaker down a peg" and reducing the intensity or importance of what he is saying. Irony can be an excessive praising and congratulating, as in the following:

e.g.: 14031 BF I beat the sandwich rush.  
 14032 DM Oh yeah! (heh heh)  
 → 14033 DM **That's quite clever.** (5)  
 → 14034 DM **On the ball as ever.**

Banter occurs in nine cases out of ten between members of the opposite sex; this form of teasing sometimes verges on light-hearted, comradely flirting. BF enjoys teasing her male colleagues about the work that they are or are not doing. In the following example, DM shows pleasure that a deadline is to be moved forward and BF reprimands him in a warm tone:

e.g.: 23034 DM // O::h.  
 23035 BF Ah.  
 23036 BF **Oh you dosser!**  
 23037 BF **You're an absolute dosser!**  
 23038 DM (heh heh heh) Brilliant=

Banter might also be used as a probe for potential romantic partners but the investigation of that is beyond the scope of the present thesis. (In the impenetrability test - see Chapter 9 - one subject, answering a question to another dialogue, asked if BF and DM "fancied each other".)

Private flouting humour, a marker of such intimacy, is used much more than the other sources of humour right from period 1. This suggests either that the group has gelled already in period 1, or that it is used in period 1 as a way of establishing in-group membership. Students seem to feel the need to become a member of the in-group as soon as possible in the course in order to benefit from the support of fellow members.

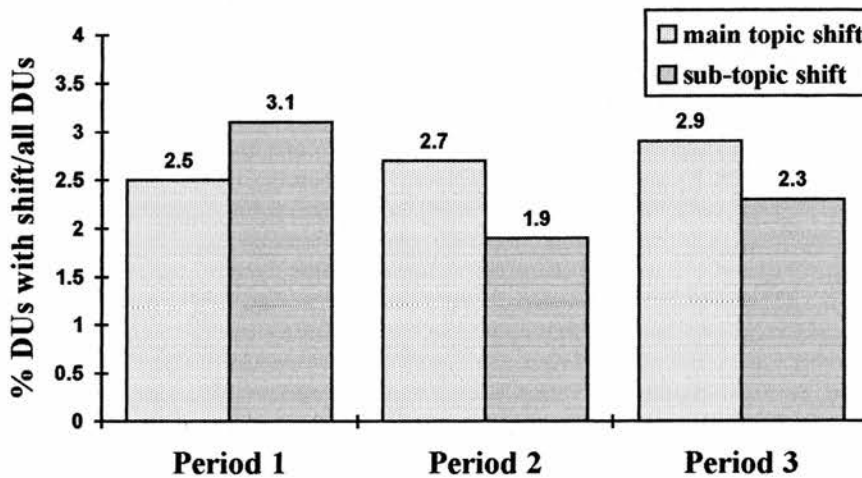
#### 8.2.4 Topic Shifts

In order to test Tannen's theories that the language of speakers who are "highly involved" shows abrupt topic shifts (or 'main topic shifts' in the present analysis) and the persistence of topic (measured in the present analysis by finding the frequency of 'sub-topic shifts'), the following hypotheses were formulated:

1. *Over time in all K areas the frequency of main topic shifts increases*
2. *Over time in all K areas the frequency of sub-topic shifts decreases*

Both hypotheses were confirmed (see Figure 4). By period 2, therefore, once a main topic has been established, any sub-topic within in it or the topic itself is likely to last longer.

**Figure 4 : Percentage of DUs with topic shifts out of all DUs**



The results suggest that by period 2, the students are "highly involved"; the group can be said have gelled by period 2. (Appendix XIII contains tables of results for both topic shifts and hitches).

### 8.2.5 Summary

This brief examination of a selection of markers of intimacy shows that the group has indeed gelled by period 2. That is when informality, in the form of initial ellipsis, slang and expletives increase. The examination of humour shows that the group begins to gel in period 1, because even then students indulge in irony and banter. If abrupt topic shifts and persistence of topic are to be taken as showing high involvement, then in periods 2 and 3, the students are becoming increasingly involved in the in-group.

The density of implicit contextualisation cues and other implicit features increases at the same time as these markers of in-groupness. It confirms, therefore, that the linguistic features analysed in this study are indeed part of the language of a group.

## 8.3 MACRO-FUNCTIONS

This part of the chapter begins with a definition of transactional and interactional functions of language, reached through a review of the literature. It then discusses the

analysis of the changes in function with increasing knowledge over time and shows that language in K4 dialogues has a particular type of interactional function: students use conversation to compare notes.

### **8.3.1 Review Of The Literature And Definitions**

Language is multi-functional and there is a cline from the transactional to the interactional; language usually contains aspects of both. Because most speech has both functions and the boundaries between categories are not at all clear, in the present study all talk is considered interactional except on the occasions when it is purely transactional or instrumental.

Language with a purely transactional function is concerned with the intentional transmission of factual, propositional information (Lyons 1977), the expression of content, "practical discourse", "designed to ... accomplish specific purposes" (Berry 1981: 132). It is "talk for getting business done in the world, that is, in order to produce some change in the situation that pertains" (McCarthy 1991: 135). Pure transactional language, should it exist, is instrumental. In casual conversation, the aim is seldom that of passing on new information in order for action to be taken.

Within the transactional/interactional cline is the function of communicating information that interlocutors believe is worth storing for future reference. As Sperber and Wilson (1986) claim, human minds have a long term aim of increasing their knowledge of the world. It is not always clear, however, to what extent the transmission of information is really aimed at informing the hearer and to what extent it is simply to be sociable in an interesting way. As Wardhaugh (1985) points out, "Often, we just want to be sure that everyone has access to the same information that we have, so we check up on what information is available rather than pass on anything that is particularly novel." (p.177).

The function of increasing knowledge of the world is closely related to the social function of normality-testing, of checking that one's experiences and reactions to them are acceptable. Argyle and Henderson (1985) call this "comparing notes, sharing experiences ... to build a shared cognitive world, to put our private experiences into words and compare them with those of others." (p.24). Berger and Luckman (1966) refer to normality-testing as reality maintaining, and say that conversations maintain reality by 'talking through' elements of experience and giving them a place in the

world. Schachter (1959) talks of affiliative behaviour as providing "a means of checking opinions against those of others." (p.84).

Others express the normality-testing function in terms of a psychological necessity. Stubbs (1983) says that language with this function is a way of "reliving experiences, releasing tension or 'getting something off one's chest'" (p.46). Duck (1991) says that friends are "benchmarks" to guide our attitudes and keep us emotionally stable.

Within the transactional/interactional cline, too, is speech with a predominantly interactional function, concerned mainly with expressing social relations. This is "social discourse" in which "participants are interacting for the sake of interacting" (Berry 1981: 132), and it serves "to establish and maintain social relationships" (Brown and Yule 1983: 2). McCarthy (1991) defines the interactional function as "the lubrication of the social wheels, establishing roles and relationships with another person prior to transactional talk, confirming and consolidating relationships, expressing solidarity, and so on" (p.136). Halliday and Hasan (1976) say that it is concerned with "the social, expressive and conative functions of language, with expressing the speaker's 'angle'; his attitudes and judgements, his encoding of the role relationships in the situation, and his motive for saying anything at all." (p. 26-7).

Language with a purely interactional function is what Malinowski (1923) called phatic communion, "a type of speech in which ties of union are created by a mere exchange of words" (in Laver and Hutcheson 1972: 149). Phatic communion refers to any stretch of speech whose function is to keep the channel of communication open between speakers and whose informational content is insignificant. As Tannen (1991) says, "small talk is crucial to maintain a sense of camaraderie when there is nothing special to say" (p.102). Leech (1983) argues for a Phatic Maxim which can be formulated as "avoid silence" or "keep talking".

Some sociolinguists have attempted to look at the way that the function of language changes with the intimacy but often conclusions have been based on hunches rather than on systematic studies. Goldberg (1983) feels that "conversational interaction between familiars is ... more often a matter of the reaffirmation of social relationships than the exchange of unknown information" (p.33). Wardhaugh (1985) has the same feeling: "much of the language between closely bonded people is phatic rather than informative" (p.54).

### 8.3.2 Hypothesis And Method

As far as the macro-function of the conversations was concerned, the hypothesis was:

*1. In all K areas over time, the density of utterances with a purely transactional function decreases*

to put to the test Goldberg's (1983) and Wardhaugh's (1985) hunches about interactional language being typical of intimates.

Function is a nebulous and subjective aspect of conversations to analyse. The analyst is often obliged to draw conclusions based on intuition. This is easier while the speakers are still relative strangers, but, as Brown and Yule (1983) say, "For the discourse analyst ... the more personal and particular the occasion for the participants, the more limited and circumspect he must be in his interpretation." (p.64). Fortunately, the researcher had enough experience of the MSc course, having completed it in 1990-1991, and having spent time in the common room during the recording year, so as to render the personal assessment of function not entirely guesswork.

The macro-function was established for a whole topic, as with the K area coding, rather than on an individual discourse unit level. The flouting of the maxims of quality and manner, and humorous units was labelled in the same field, for the convenience of coding, in order to avoid having to create a new field for humour.

Any exchange was categorised as transactional when the action needed was immediate, using speech acts such as requesting and offering, as in:

e.g.: 01055 BM Could you get me a tuna and sweet corn one please?  
01056 AM Me as well.

or when the action needed would be in the future, using speech acts such as giving advice, teaching/learning specifically how to do something, as in:

e.g.: 06011 CM The best thing to do is use a che- master card or something.  
06012 NF I don't have a master card.

All speech that did not have a purely transactional function (language for negotiating activity and getting things done) was coded as interactional, in order to keep the coding system simple. This meant also coding as interactional any discourse unit in which speakers seem to be interacting to increase their knowledge of the world and to test the normality of their experiences and attitudes, even though this has both a

transactional and an interactional function, being the transmission of information with a socially cohesive purpose.

In order to find whether using the in-group code could be said to be a strategy for claiming in-group membership, the hypothesis was formulated that:

2. *In all K areas, implicit contextualisation cues occur more in speech with an interactional function than in speech with a transactional function.*

The results of the analysis of this aspect are discussed in section 8.5.1.

The percentage of discourse units with a transactional function out of all discourse units was calculated. The proportion of each type out of all discourse units in each K area was found.

### 8.3.3 Results And Discussion

Only 15.7% of all discourse units have a purely transactional function. The examination of the transactional function with increasing knowledge over time (see Figure 5) showed that transactional unit density decreases, confirming the hypothesis:

1. *In all K areas over time, the density of utterances with a purely transactional function decreases*

(See Appendix XIV for tables of macro-function results).

**Figure 5 : Percentage of transactional units out of all DUs**

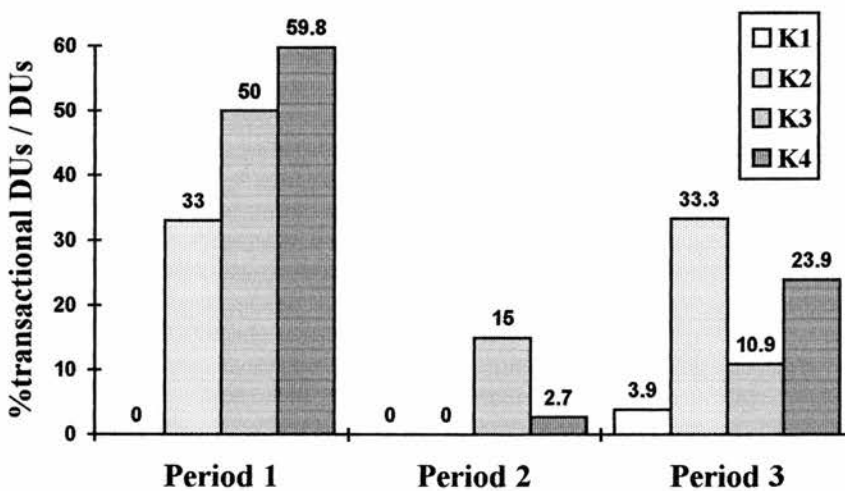


Figure 5 shows how this varies from K area to K area. Since K1 is talk about the world, there is little to be negotiated. The K2 transactional exchanges are concerned with giving advice about the computer. K3 transactional speech acts are concerned

with making requests and asking favours such as asking a colleague to get a cup of tea from the drinks machine.

Most K4 transactional language is concerned with negotiations about tasks: who is whose tutorial group, who will write out the questionnaire that they are working on together, who will negotiate the moving of the project deadline, or what a task consisted of. Students ask each other for advice about planning the year's projects and about the actual writing of the project, as in:

- e.g.: 17032 BM I wrote my introduction and I thought that sounds really good.  
 17033 BM I thought but (0.5) I'll be here for ever if I discuss what I've just //  
 said I'm going to discuss.  
 /.../→ 17037 AF **Can't you sort of say** later on em these subjects will be revised  
 briefly?  
 17038 BM (heh heh)  
 /.../→ 17041 CM // **And then you do and then you do a search for briefly and**  
**change to (0.5) change to extensively** or something if you actually  
 do discuss it in depth.

These functions of K4 transactional language explain why the greatest density is in period 1: that is when the students have exactly the same courses, exactly the same tasks and reading material. In periods 2 and 3, there is less to be negotiated, since they are working more on their own and have established their ways of studying.

The students spend the majority of their time in interactional talk, and as the course progresses, this is increasingly the function of talk. They are bonding and forming and maintaining group cohesion in order to benefit from it by obtaining solidarity and support from colleagues, learning from each other, and testing the normality of their progress and attitudes. Speakers ask their colleagues what they have revised for the exam, in order to check whether they themselves have revised enough:

- e.g.:→ 10001 CM **What are you - which ones are you concentrating on?**  
 10002 DM On the grammar // syntax.  
 10003 CM // Grammar sure.  
 /.../→ 10009 CM **You're not bothering with** going through Bloomfield and all those  
 kind of things?((0.5))  
 10010 DM I don't want to write an essay.

They ask how far their colleagues have advanced with the writing of their projects, in order to reassure themselves that they are progressing at the rate of the group:

- e.g.:→ 15020 CM **But I suppose you're moderately efficient.** (1)  
 15021 CM But I'm not near an outline.  
 15022 DM Oh God no I'm on my reading.  
 → 15023 DM **We've still got a long time.**  
 → 15024 CM **Yeah we've got a month.**

- 15025 DM **That's a lot.**
- 15026 CM **That's all right.**
- 15027 DM I'm not sweating at all!
- 15028 DM No I'm still doing my reading.

They check that they have the right information about the course, and check what each other's goals are, in order to ascertain the level of competition:

- e.g.:→ 08063 CM **Five's a bad mark right?**  
 08064 AM I think we get five we're fine.  
 08065 CM It's the other mark I want.

In these cases, the speakers exchange information to test the normality of their own situation or feelings and check how they rate in comparison with the group. The very fact that they choose a *K4* topic constitutes a demonstration of solidarity and a claim for in-groupness.

## 8.4 SPEECH ACTS

This part of the chapter explains the model devised for the analysis of speech acts, and describes how the expression of attitude changes with increasing knowledge over time, as does the focus of attention. It compares speech act realisations in non-course K area dialogues and K4 dialogues.

### 8.4.1 Review Of The Literature And Definitions

The speech act analysis framework used in the present study was based on the theories of Brown and Levinson (1978) who, in describing positive politeness strategies, list what amounts to speech acts used in chatting and establishing social cohesion. Discussing strategies for claiming common ground, they say that the speaker may claim common points of view, opinions, attitudes, knowledge and empathy with the hearer, by using in-group identity markers (see section 8.2), by conveying that the interlocutor is admirable and interesting and intensifying the interest of his contribution, by seeking agreement and avoiding disagreement. Their framework as it stands was not used to analyse speech acts, however, because it lacks a global systematicity and their categories are not mutually exclusive.

None of the existing systematic frameworks for analysing speech acts (Jakobson 1960; Hymes 1972; Searle 1979) were used as they stand either, because in the casual conversations, the MSc students are not performing a joint activity or trying to carry out a specific task together, and are thus not performing directives and commissives

such as commanding, requesting and demanding. The students are just sitting doing little else than drinking coffee together and perhaps looking through their lecture notes. They are, above all, chatting, and thus performing representatives and expressives: affirming, narrating, informing, explaining, etc. Moreover, the existing systematic frameworks were not used because the present study focuses more on the global attitude that the students show towards each other, than on the specific individual speech acts used to express attitudes.

The speech act model devised contains not only the dimension of attitude (neutral, positive or negative) but also the dimension of person (about the speaker himself, the interlocutor and the communication, or a third party or situation). The model thus contains nine macro-speech act categories (see Figure 6). (Appendix III provides more examples of realisations of Speech Act types).

**Figure 6 : Categories for speech acts**

attitude towards	Neutral	Positive	Negative
<b>Self</b>	I do/am	I do/am good	I do/am bad
<b>Interlocutor/ Communication</b>	You do. Here we are.	You are good I am with you	You are bad I'm not with you
<b>Situation/ 3rd Party</b>	It/he does	It/he does/is good	It/he does/is bad

The category 'attitude towards self', means the attitude of the speaker towards the speaker himself. This was labelled 'neutral' when it contained the speech acts 'inform', 'explain', 'answer polarity/information question' and 'narrate', or 'express own intentions, plans, wants, needs and desires', as in:

e.g.: 01007 AM And then er (0.5) I actually applied for a job in Gabbitas through Gabbitas.

It was labelled positive when it contained speech acts 'inform', 'explain', 'answer polarity/information question expressing satisfaction with self'; 'evaluate self positively'; 'show self in a positive light'; 'reassure/console self', as in:

e.g.: 10071 CM // I have s-sort of made an outline for each for each person.  
10072 DM Oh!  
→ 10073 CM And er (2) **I think I'll be OK now.** (1)  
→ 10074 CM I like essay questions.

It was labelled 'negative' when there were speech acts 'inform', 'explain', 'answer polarity/information question expressing dissatisfaction with self'; 'evaluate self

negatively'; 'show self in a poor light'; 'minimise praise of self'; 'criticise self'; 'excuse/justify self'; 'apologise', as in:

e.g.: 29010 AF I've got a couple of totally uninformed sort of basically stupid ideas for a project.

The category 'attitude towards interlocutor or communication' means the attitude of the speaker towards the hearer or towards the conversation itself. The main justification for having one category for both attitude to interlocutor and to communication was that the attitude to the interlocutor is often reflected in his attitude to the communication with that interlocutor. Thus, he who echoes his interlocutor's words or prompts him to continue shows solidarity with his interlocutor; and he who challenges the felicity conditions of his interlocutor or draws attention to the fact that he has not gauged his background knowledge correctly *could* be said to be showing a negative attitude to his interlocutor.

If the attitude towards interlocutor or communication was neutral, the speech act tended to be 'greet' and 'say good-bye', or 'ask after health'. The speaker's neutral attitude to the conversation included acts that fill the communication phatically, such as with a "I mean", "you know", 'checking and showing comprehension', 'catching interlocutor's attention' and 'taking the turn', 'repeating himself', 'laughing at own joke', 'adding an afterthought that adds no new information' and 'relinquishing the turn', 'backchannelling' (laugh) and 'acknowledging'. The expression of an *entirely* neutral attitude towards an interlocutor is rare in that even a ritual enquiry after an interlocutor's health could be said to be an expression of interest in him. 'Questions' and 'requests' and 'commands' were nevertheless categorised as neutral when there was no marked overt lexicalised expression of empathy or disagreement. Showing a neutral attitude to interlocutor implies asking 'polarity/information questions' about him, or 'making a request' or 'command', as in:

e.g.:→ 27205 CM **Can I ask you to get the notes for me for the last few classes. (2)**  
 27206 CM For // the  
 27207 DM // Sure. I-

The category 'positive' attitude towards the interlocutor or the communication included such speech acts as 'evaluate the interlocutor positively', 'reassure', 'console', 'encourage', 'congratulate', 'praise', 'sympathise', 'empathise with the interlocutor's feelings about his situation or himself', 'establish the normality of interlocutor's situation', as in:

e.g.: 22074 DM Is that the conclusion?  
 22075 BF Yeah.

- 22076 DM **Don't worry.**
- 22077 DM **The conclusion isn't it's not (1) it's not (2)**
- 22078 DM **I couldn't get anything like that.**
- 22079 BF **OK.**

Showing a positive attitude means 'agreeing with interlocutor', 'accepting', 'admitting' 'permitting' and 'thanking', as well as 'advising', 'warning', and 'suggesting interlocutor's action'. It means 'offering goods and action', 'promising' and 'inviting', and 'suggesting joint action', as well as 'echoing the interlocutor's words', 'prompting him to continue', 'predicting his drift', and 'finishing his sentence'. The speaker who shows a 'negative' attitude towards the interlocutor or the communication, 'disagrees' with interlocutor, 'mentions opposite point of view' or situation, 'challenges the factual content or truth value of what he says', and 'declines', 'refuses', 'denies' and 'defends', as in:

- e.g.:
- 03025 AM I'll just go and nip down and get some coffee.
  - 03026 AM If that's all right?
  - 03027 NM Yes.
  - 03028 NM That's all right.
  - 03029 BM **Well I don't know actually.**

He shows that there has been a hitch and 'challenges the felicity conditions', 'interrupts for clarification', and 'seeks repetition'.

Finally, there is the category 'attitude towards the situation or a third party'. It could be a 'neutral' 'informing', 'narrating', 'explaining', 'answering polarity/information questions', as in:

- e.g.:
- 11062 BF I saw him on the South Bank Show last night. (1)
  - 11063 BF With a trumpet player.
  - 11064 BF And they were doing a profile of him.

It could be 'positive': 'inform', 'explain', 'answer polarity or information questions expressing satisfaction with the situation or the third party', 'evaluate the situation or the third party positively', as in:

- e.g.:
- 04102 BF And the house is really nice so. (0.5)
  - 04103 BF I reckon it's all right. ((5))

It could also be a 'negative' attitude, as in 'inform', 'explain', 'answer polarity or information questions expressing dissatisfaction with the situation or the third party'; 'evaluate the situation or the third party negatively'; 'express fear and apprehension of the situation or the third party', as in:

- e.g.:
- 16021 AF I thought she was bit of a bore and hedging and surveying and so on and I couldn't see the point of this semantic field boundary.
  - 16022 AF I found it extremely fiddley.

## 8.4.2 Hypotheses And Method

The first hypothesis was:

1. *In all K areas over time, the density of positive and negative speech acts increases*

The hypothesis that it takes time for the "show of feeling" to become the norm was guided by Goffman's (1971) observation that the speaker "will often present initially a front of diffidence and composure, suppressing any show of feeling until he has found out what kind of line the others will be ready to support for him." (p.326), and by Brown and Levinson's (1978) theory that using language that presupposes knowledge of values and attitudes is a strategy for claiming in-group membership.

The second hypothesis was more specific:

2. *In all K areas over time, the density of expressions of positive attitude to the interlocutor and of expressions showing a negative attitude to a third party or situation and dissatisfaction with self increases*

It aimed to discover whether speech acts showing group cohesion abound and whether they could be considered functional in-group markers.

Speech acts were labelled for their face value. That is to say, if they were spoken tongue in cheek, they are analysed as if they were not, in the speech act field, and labelled as humorous in the macro-function field. The following is an illustration of this: units 05124-5 were labelled as an expression of a negative attitude towards a third party and also labelled as public flouting humour:

e.g.: 05124 AF **I'm beginning to realise why em why jobs in language schools run out so sharply in the autumn and in the spring.**  
 → 05125 AF **It's all these damn MSc students and their wives, // (heh heh)**  
 05126 BM // (heh heh heh heh)

This double labelling system meant that findings were not disturbed by speech acts being taken for their face value, and that conversational implicature could be isolated from the locution.

## 8.4.3 Results And Discussion

### 8.4.3.1 Intercoder reliability tests

Intercoder reliability tests were not satisfactory: 73%, 47% and 5%. This was the most difficult part of the code on which to obtain a high level of agreement.

One reason for disagreement between coders is that such is the multi-functional nature of speech acts, especially in spontaneous spoken discourse, that there are moments in which it is not obvious what speech act is being performed or whether several are present at once. Even such a broad coding system cannot avoid situations in which there are two functions and one coder thinks one predominates and another feels the other predominates. The following example is from a particularly marked area of disagreement in the coding excerpts:

e.g.: 15101 AF Are you shutting out this lovely sunshine?  
 → 15102 DM **It's getting in my eyes. =**  
 15103 CM Getting in my eyes.  
 → 15104 AF **Oh no!**  
 → 15105 DM **Yeah.**  
 → 15106 CM **Yeah.**

DM's comment "It's getting in my eyes" was coded in the analysis as a negative attitude to the sun, but two of the coders saw this as showing himself in a negative light. AF's "Oh no!" was also coded as showing a negative attitude to the sun, but two coders saw it as a criticism of CM and DM, and one saw it as an expression of sympathy with CM and DM. DM and CM's "Yeah" was coded in the analysis as showing a positive attitude to each other by agreeing; one coder saw this as showing a negative attitude to themselves, another saw it as implying a negative attitude to AF and the other as simply filling the conversation with a backchannel.

The other reason for the high level of coder disagreement is that coding speech acts is subjective and each person's interpretation of the implications of one excerpt can vary according to the coder's own personality, attitude and perception of the world. Coders seemed to see a meaning in the sentences that they themselves would have intended if they had spoken them. In the coding excerpts, this passage about the Psycholinguistics lecture and lecturer occurs:

e.g.: 15110 DM Psycholinguistics?  
 15111 AF Mhm.  
 15112 AF I have difficulty getting my brain going first thing in the morning.  
 → 15113 DM **She certainly fills- fills it up doesn't she?**  
 → 15114 DM **She's got lots of things to tell you I'm sure.**  
 15115 AF Yeah. (6) ((yawns)) (3)

On the coding of "She certainly fills it up, doesn't she? She's got lots of things to tell you I'm sure", coders did not agree. Whereas in the analysis, it had been coded as a neutral description of the lecturer, two coders saw it as a positive evaluation and one

saw it as a negative evaluation. This seems more a reflection of their own opinion of lecturers that deliver a densely packed lecture, than an interpretation of DM's opinion.

The low level of intercoder agreement of this part of the code does not seriously undermine the validity of this part of the study because of the size of the mini-corpus of data (26,000 words; 3,605 discourse units). If intercoders had been asked to take 3,605 decisions, it is likely that the majority of the codings would have corresponded to those of the researcher, because of the broadness of the categories.

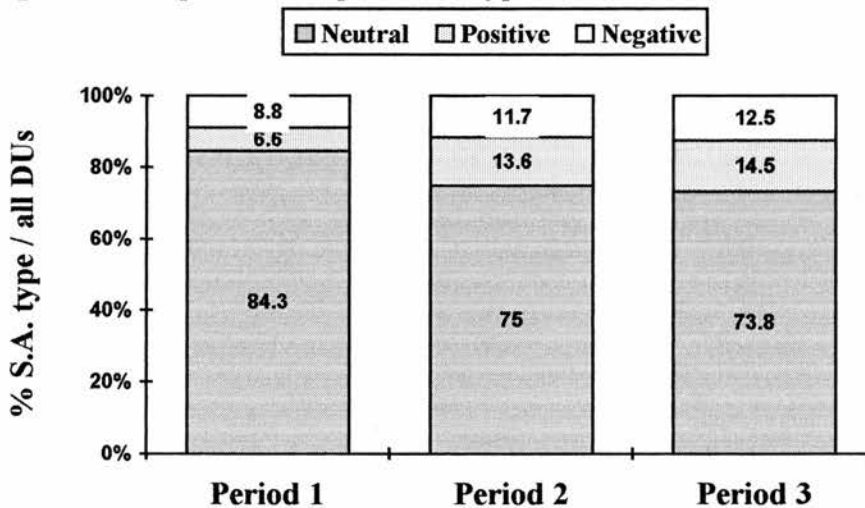
#### 8.4.3.2 General attitude and person dimensions

77.5% of all discourse units in the data contain language expressing a neutral attitude. (Appendix XIV contains a table of all speech act results; Appendix XV contains a figure showing the density of each type of speech act in each period.) To test the hypothesis:

1. *In all K areas over time, the density of positive and negative speech acts increases*

speech act types were grouped according to the attitude dimension (see Figure 7). The hypothesis was confirmed.

**Figure 7 : Proportion of speech act types in all K areas: attitude dimension**



The discovery that expressions of positive and negative attitudes increase over time coincides with the findings in section 8.2.2 of this chapter that vocabulary becomes more emotive ("pressure", "panic", "worried", etc.) over time and findings that slang and expletives increase over time.

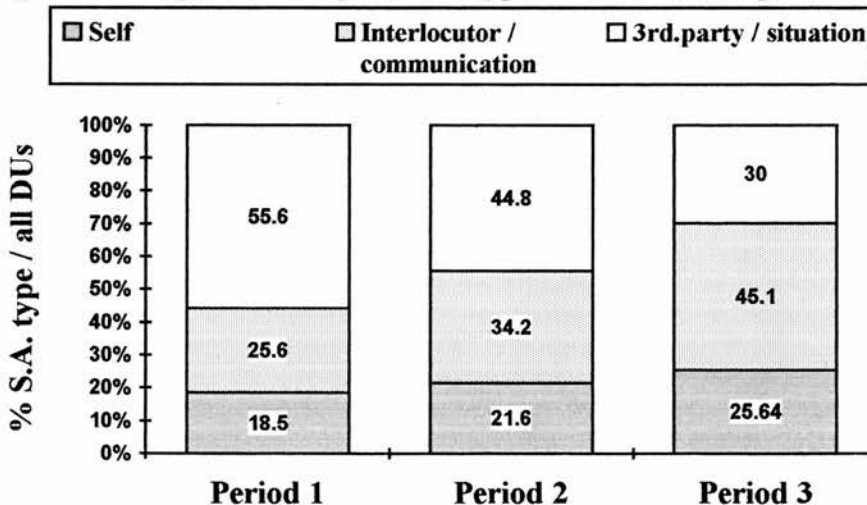
Not surprisingly, speech acts expressing positive and negative attitudes contain discourse units that are based on assumed shared interpersonal knowledge of attitudes and opinions. Shared interpersonal knowledge of attitude is most in evidence in K4 in speech acts of showing a negative attitude to a third party or a situation. In the following example, DM refers to his lecturer in terms of how his interlocutor views him:

e.g.: 15164 CM Did he like did he like the idea?  
 /.../ 15166 DM Well **you know** what he's like.  
 15167 DM It's difficult to tell **isn't it?**

Functionally, the expression of a positive and negative attitude is way of testing the normality of the speakers' views: speakers expect a reaction to the opinion expressed, whether agreeing or disagreeing. The expression of a negative attitude towards self or a third person or situation, risky with strangers in that the speaker cannot predict whether he will offend his interlocutors, is with familiars a marker of intimacy.

When speech act types were re-grouped according to the person dimension (see Figure 8), analysis showed a decrease in those relating to a third party or a situation, and an increase in the others especially those relating to the interlocutor and the communication. Over half of period 1 topics focus on matters that do not directly involve the speaker or the interlocutor, but by period 3, conversations centre on the speaker and the interlocutor.

**Figure 8 : Proportion of speech act types in all K areas: person dimension**



This change in the person dimension of speech act types suggests that when the students are strangers, they observe the politeness principle of not talking about themselves, but finding some external impersonal topic. The more the students

interact, the more personal they can become and the less face-threatening it is to talk about themselves and their interlocutors. Thus, by period 3, direct interpersonal questions can be asked, as in the following with its high density of "I" and "you" pronouns:

e.g.: 23051 BF Did **you** apply for work in IALS?  
 23052 BF No.  
 23053 DM **I** did in the end yeah.  
 23054 BF **You** did. (2)  
 23055 BF Have **you** heard?  
 23056 DM Yeah.  
 23057 DM I mean he said something like well  
 23058 DM **You** did as well didn't **you**?  
 23059 BF Sent in a form for blocks // t-  
 23060 DM // **I** never got the form.  
 23061 DM **I** haven't- **I** have to see him actually. (0.5)

The exception to this finding is the "getting-to-know-you" conversations of the first day of the course.

The person dimension is also influenced by K area and events in the course timetable. In period 2, with the stress of the exam and projects, students see the course not objectively as an entity in itself but subjectively as it affects them. In period 3, with the course nearing its end, they look again to the world outside, but the world outside has been affected by what the course has equipped them to do. In both periods, speech acts express attitudes to themselves.

#### 8.4.3.3 Positive to interlocutor / negative to situation and self

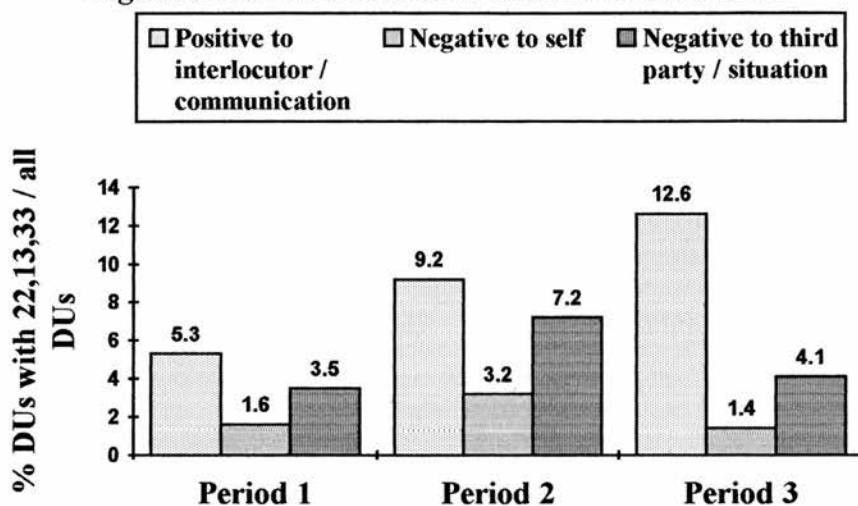
When the hypothesis

2. *In all K areas over time, the density of expressions of positive attitude to the interlocutor and of expressions showing a negative attitude to a third party or situation and dissatisfaction with self increases*

was tested, it was found that there is a marked consistent increase in expressions of positive attitude to the interlocutor, but that the negative attitude to a situation and self peaked in period 2 and then dropped in period 3. See Figure 9.

Figure 10 shows that the difference between the number of speech acts expressing a positive attitude to the interlocutor and the communication, and those not expressing it, in periods 1, 2 and 3, is significant. The value of  $\chi^2$  was 35.899, significant at < 0.005 level. The increase in such speech acts is not by chance then.

**Figure 9 : Density of expressions with positive attitude to interlocutor and negative attitude to situation and self in all K areas**



**Figure 10 : Frequencies of DUs with speech acts expressing a positive attitude to interlocutor / communication in all K areas in each of the three periods**

		Period		
		1	2	3
DUs with pos.to interlocutor : and situation	yes	38	161	145
	no	702	1624	937

The increase in expressions of positive attitude to the interlocutor may be indicative of an increased need to express in-the-same-boatness, in all K areas. The increase in negative attitude towards self and third party in period 2 is most likely a result of the stress caused by the course at that point, but it is also an expression of in-the-same-boatness and shared suffering.

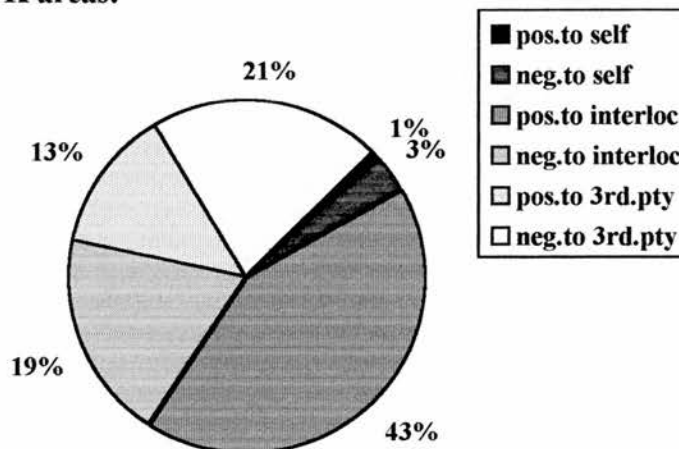
Figure 11 compares non-course K areas and K4 in terms of positive and negative speech act types only, taking all three periods together. K4 has more expressions showing negative attitude to towards self and third party and K4 predominates in period 2. This is why there is an overall peak in these expressions in period 2.

K4 has a significantly higher level of speech acts expressing a negative attitude both to the speaker himself and towards a situation or third party than non-course K areas have. Figure 12 shows that the difference between the number of speech acts

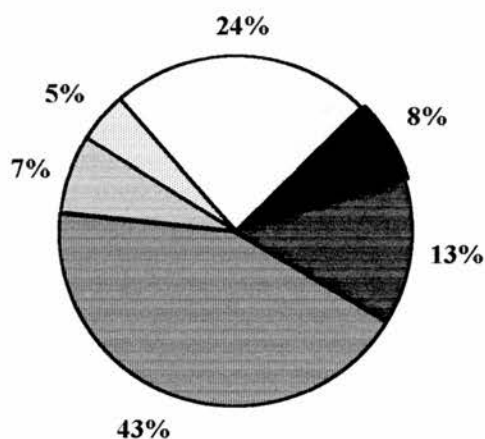
expressing a negative attitude to these two in K4 and in non-course K areas is significant. The value of  $\chi^2$  was 41.492, significant at  $< 0.005$  level.

**Figure 11: Proportion of each speech act types out of all positive and negative speech acts**

**In non-course K areas:**



**In K4:**



**Figure 12 : Frequencies of DUs with speech acts expressing a negative attitude to self and situation in K4 and in non-course K areas**

		K4	non-course K areas
DUs with acts negative to self: and situation	yes	152	97
	no	1343	1999

- **Positive To Interlocutor**

Utterances showing a positive attitude towards the interlocutor and communication constitute almost half of all non-neutral speech acts in all K areas, and the increase over time is dramatic.

There is an increasing number of utterances in which speakers empathise with each other using expressions such as "I've done that" and "same here". The following K3 excerpt is about whether to do a higher degree immediately or leave it till later; DM claims to share CM's attitude:

e.g.: 27069 CM Not doing any more schooling.  
 27070 CM It's either now (2) or never for me.  
 /.../ 27077 DM Yeah.  
 27078 CM But =  
 → 27079 DM But as- as I feel at the moment **I'm the same as you.**  
 27080 DM Finish.

An expression of empathy is particularly valued in K4 topics, as in this post-exam analysis:

e.g.: 12003 CM I studied the semantics quite a bit and then I didn't do it.  
 12004 AM Yeah.  
 → 12005 AM **Same thing here.**

Another common response to the worried colleague is to console him; to tell him "don't worry", that his progress seems fine. In the following, BM is worried because he does not have the papers for a tutorial; BF calms him playfully:

e.g.: 07027 BM I haven't got one of those.  
 07028 BM That's // no  
 → 07029 BF // **Stop panicking.**  
 07030 BF What's wrong with you boy? // (heh heh heh)

In the next example, CM says that he is going to miss the last week of class and seeks the approval of his colleagues; solidarity-giver DM reassures him by minimising the problem:

e.g.: → 27126 DM **Er it's no big deal.**  
 27127 DM By the time you get to the last week you'll have done most of what you need to- you'll know what you need to know for the portfolio.  
 27128 DM If you're answering questions anyway so (3) **shouldn't be a problem. ((2))**

On occasions, students do more than console their colleagues; they encourage them, agree with their course of action and show approval of attitude and activity. In the

following example from the discussion about whether to continue studying immediately or wait till later, DM assures CM:

e.g.: 27099 DM **You're doing the right thing.**

When they show approval, they may actually praise or congratulate their colleagues. This happens more in K4 than in other K areas: students tell each other they have done well, or have good arguments and ideas. In the following, DM finishes reading BF's project and offers approval:

e.g.: 22086 DM There's nothing (1) there's nothing startling that I can see missing from this (2)  
→ 22087 DM **and it's very readable. (1)**

In periods 2 and 3, students who feel close to each other do not always show empathy and approval by praising. They trust each other enough to risk threatening each other's face by offering advice and warnings. Thus, in period 2, when DM fears that he will have difficulty finding a dissertation topic, AF's response is *not* "don't worry":

e.g.: 21109 DM Been trying to think of something that might stretch to twenty thousand words. ((2))  
/.../ 21111 DM And is not excruciatingly boring.  
/.../→ 21115 AF ((Blows nose)) **Well you might have to just face that and cope with it. ((sniffs))**

In period 3, when part-time student AF says that she is not going to do more than one project this year, DM does *not* say "you'll be all right" but, quite directly,

e.g.:→ 29088 DM **You'll have a lot to do next year if you don't do // another one this year.**  
29089 AF // I know I know.  
29090 AF That's why I want to.  
→ 29091 DM **It's in your interest isn't it to do // more than one.**

Politeness principles prohibit showing an overtly negative attitude to the interlocutor, and indeed there are few examples of this. In the following K4 example, CM's refusal to empathise with the tension that others feel appears to unnerve AM and FF a little:

e.g.: 13126 CM Do you realise that we have from er March nineteen until (0.5) April the twentieth?  
13127 CM With nothing to do?  
→ 13128 AM **Nothing // to do?**  
13129 FF // We got a project to hand in at // em (heh heh)

They express a contrary attitude openly.

- **Negative attitude towards self**

Expressing a negative attitude to themselves may be socially required for in-group membership, when students are talking about the course, in stressful period 2. In K4 dialogues, students criticise themselves and their work, possibly in the hopes that the interlocutor will contradict them or reassure them of the normality of the situation. They say that their "handwriting is awful", that they are "no good at memory things", that they "never get things done on time", that they cannot "get [their] brains going", that their project is "just what everybody says" and that they cannot "come up with" a point themselves. In the following example, the speaker shows himself in a negative light as he describes how he did the tutorial task:

- e.g.:→ 04111 BM And I reached the stage where **I'd no idea**.  
 04112 BF Yeah. ((1))  
 04113 BM And also when I- when I was looking back I realised I actually hadn't read the first part again which gave me a real big clue for one of the first.  
 → 04114 BM It was **really stupid**.  
 04115 BF Yeah.

Students express worry about themselves, as in the following example:

- e.g.:→ 29063 AF **I'm not very good at thinking up ideas**.  
 29064 AF Especially in Linguistics.  
 29065 AF There's such a fuzzy field isn't it?  
 29066 DM It's very amorphous er.

If speakers feel that they have alarmed interlocutors about their good progress, they minimise the significance of it by either playing it down, as in:

- e.g.: 29010 AF I've got a couple of **totally uninformed sort of basically stupid ideas** for a project.

or justifying in some way, as in the following:

- e.g.: 04129 BM You're well ahead aren't you?  
 04130 BF Can you=  
 → 04131 DM **I'm going away this weekend**.  
 → 04132 DM **So had to do it**.  
 04133 BF Yah.

- **Negative attitude towards third party / situation**

There are more instances of expression of a negative attitude to a third party or situation than there are expressions of a positive one. Non-course K area dialogues and K4 dialogues have about the same density of expressions of a negative attitude,

but K4 has far fewer expressions of a positive one. In non-course K areas, positive and negative attitudes to a third party or a situation are expressed at the evaluation stage of narratives. It may be that there are more negative evaluations than positive in non-course K area narratives, because they capture the attention of the audience more.

K4 contains an especially high density of negative expressions in stressful period 2. Students complain that the revision for the exam is "a lot of work", that 3,000 words for the project is "lot" to write, that there is "a lot of pressure", and that the main problem is "time". They evaluate theories and fields of thought as "rubbish", as "fuzzy", and as in the following:

e.g.: 08020 AM **Bloody tosh**, isn't it?  
08021 CM Well it's- it's **a bit abstract**. ((1))

They complain that books are too "theoretical", that articles are "scurrilous", or "fiddley" or, as in the following:

e.g.: 14087 NF // And- and- and- then what about this one?  
14088 NF **It's completely use- useless.**

They evaluate some lecturers in an exaggeratedly negative fashion: one is a "fanatic" and so is another, as the following example shows:

e.g.: 13036 AM Cos I got the impression the other guy was a **bit of a maniac**.

#### 8.4.4 Summary

The hypothesis that the density of positive and negative speech acts increases was confirmed. There is also an increase in speech acts that relate to the interlocutor and the communication. The biggest group of positive and negative speech acts is those which express a positive attitude to the interlocutors and the communication and it increases over time, as hypothesised. The hypothesis that expressions showing a negative attitude to a third party or situation and to self increase was not confirmed: there is a peak in period 2 because they are denser in K4 dialogues, which show signs of tension in period 2.

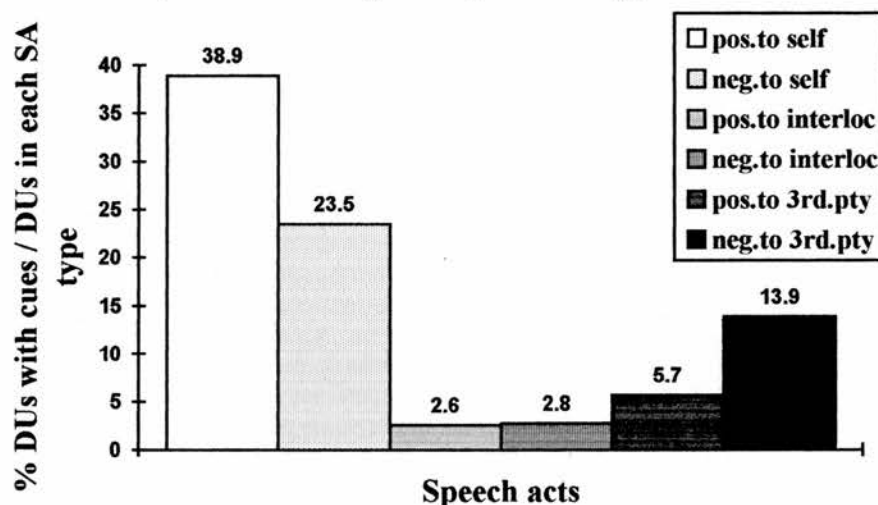
### 8.5 FUNCTION OF IMPLICIT LANGUAGE

This part of the chapter examines the function of implicit language. It explores the macro-function and speech acts associated with implicit contextualisation cues, and suggests why group members use the various parts of the in-group code.



speech acts that predominated in K4 dialogues. Using these speech acts with a high density of implicit contextualisation cues seems to be particularly socially acceptable way of talking about oneself and the course.

**Figure 13 : Density of DUs with implicit contextualisation cues out of all DUs in each positive and negative speech act type**



In-group membership requires that members evaluate themselves in the course context using implicit language. Thus, even when BF shows satisfaction with herself by demonstrating how well she has organised her project, she shows in-group membership by using a non-anaphoric definite noun phrase with a special course limited range noun:

e.g.: 22060 BF I don't but I I have sorted out quite a // bit  
 22061 DM // Yeah.  
 22062 BF More than that **the last project**. (1)

Similarly, when CM shows himself in a positive light because of how well he has prepared for the exam, his general "do" verb and his general noun show that he still wants to be seen as one of the group:

e.g.: 10069 CM **No I've done all the people**.

The general words give the impression that he may attach little importance to his achievement.

Showing oneself in a negative light is an in-group identity marker; doing it using implicit contextualisation cues strengthens the claim for in-group identity. In the following, AM admits that he has not prepared well for the exam, and uses the general "do" verb, the special course metonymical proper noun "Chomsky", and the non-anaphoric demonstrative adverb "now" meaning "so close to the exam":

e.g.: 08031 AM // Though though I haven't **I haven't done any Chomsky**. (1)

08032 AM Probably a bit late // now.

In the next example, BF criticises her project, using the special course limited range noun "paper", the technical term "Language and Linguistics", the non-anaphoric indefinite pronoun "everybody", course proper names and implicit the non-anaphoric pronoun "this":

- e.g.: 17051 BF **It's just my my paper is on Language and Linguistics is just what everybody says.**  
 17052 CM Yeah.  
 17053 BF **According to Newmeyer we have this.**  
 17054 BF **According to Lyons this. (2)**

The bonding activity of sharing a negative feeling about a situation, especially when it is the course, is even more bonding if the course is referred to with an implicit non-anaphoric personal pronoun:

e.g.: 08047 AM I'll be glad when it's finished. ((1))

A negative evaluation of an article seems more intimate if the word "article" is not needed and the metonymical use of the proper name of the author suffices:

e.g.: 16052 AF I didn't think **the Channell** was very helpful.

Using an implicit non-anaphoric personal pronoun in an expression of negative attitude towards an invited speaker is an in-group claim as it contributes to the exclusivity of the communication:

- e.g.: 13028 AM Do you remember when **he** came to talk about it?  
 13029 CM Yeah.  
 13030 AM He could **he** couldn't seem to explain it simply but (0.5) you can.

The same is true of non-course topics that are indirectly related to the course. In a K3 topic about the subjects that IALS would like its scholarship students to do, BF can imply a negative attitude to two of the subjects, referring to them with a non-anaphoric definite noun phrase with a course proper noun and a technical term abbreviation:

- e.g.: 28021 CM // No ESP and CALL and what else did they say?  
 28022 BF I don't mind ESP but em **the Resource Centre CALL**

Her disapproval of the subjects can be felt in her intonation, in this case.

Expressions of a positive attitude towards the interlocutor more rarely combine with the use of implicit language, but when they do, the result is a strong claim for in-groupness. Witness these lines from a conversation about the best computer software for BM's purposes; CM shows a positive attitude towards his interlocutor by offering advice and he uses a colloquial general noun:

e.g.: 26195 CM You could ask **what's-her-face**.  
 26196 BM She said it was possible. ((1.5))

The informality reinforces the intimacy.

### 8.5.3 In-Group Markers

Implicit contextualisation cues and other features of implicitness are used throughout K4 dialogues regardless of the speech act. The fact that they do not occur mostly in expressions of a positive attitude towards the interlocutor does not mean that they are not used to claim in-group membership. They feature in expressions of negative attitude to self and situation, and using these speech acts is a way of claiming in-group membership.

Implicit language *reflects* in-group membership whenever it is used, and in that sense, it is an in-group marker. As the group forms, this language that depends on and points to common knowledge increases. If it is possible to use implicit language consciously, using it may constitute a *claim* for in-group membership.

It is unlikely that students could consciously choose to use implicit grammatical contextualisation cues of non-anaphoric definite reference and implicitness, or other implicit features such as initial ellipsis, unfinished sentences and vague fillers. It is unlikely that they are aware that they shift topic using elements of the in-group code. Yet these elements of implicit language reflect in-group membership.

On the other hand, just as the students must choose to use the in-group markers of slang, expletives, emotive language and humour in general, and to use interactional language expressing a positive attitude to the interlocutor, it may be that they consciously choose to use the lexical contextualisation cues of technical terms and metonymical proper names. They may even intentionally use limited range course nouns and general words, dependent on the context for their meaning. They may also choose to joke using conversational implicature referring indirectly to their common and shared knowledge. These elements of implicit language not only reflect in-group membership, they can be used to show in-group membership. However, the fact that the students choose to use these elements consciously does not necessarily mean that their motive is to claim and assert in-group membership.

There is no way of testing whether all the students were aware of the way they talked and used the cues in order to claim membership, or whether they were just unconsciously complying with the Cooperative Principle of Quantity of giving as much information and explicitness as needed. Even if the six recordees could be contacted and asked why they used them, it is unlikely that they would be able to analyse their motive, especially four years after the event.

## **8.6 INFLUENCE OF PERSONALITY**

As far as the influence of personality on the use of informal language is concerned, the six recordees' use of both slang and expletives is much the same, with the exception of BM who uses twice as many expletives as any of the others. Slang and expletives increase slightly over time but BM's contribution in periods 2 and 3 is small. The increase in this feature of language is not caused by the presence of particular individuals in the recordings, therefore.

The study of speech acts showed general tendencies regardless of personality. Although personality was not studied in depth, an overall global impression of personality in the data was taken. BM likes to express negative feelings about third parties and situations; CM tends to show himself in a positive light and deny solidarity and reassurance to his colleagues; DM is the warmest solidarity-giver, guaranteed to express a positive attitude towards his interlocutors; AF indulges in self-deprecation, modestly showing herself in a poor light; and BF most enjoys a little banter with her male colleagues, playfully showing a negative attitude to them. AM has the lowest percentage of humour in his units and he had no outstanding characteristics to mention in the functional aspects.

## **8.7 CONCLUSION**

This part of the analysis contributes to an understanding of the group dynamics of the MSc discourse community. The in-group has formed by period 2, judging by the increase in informality, emotive lexis and lengthening of topics. It began to form in period 1, judging by the banter and interpersonal irony present then.

Speech with an interactional function predominates and increases, just as expressions of a positive attitude to the interlocutor and the communication increase as the group forms. It is probable that "group-forming" functions of establishing social

relationships and passing the time by increasing knowledge of the world are strongest in period 1. By period 2, the group is formed and the "group-using" function of normality-testing is stronger. Students can claim in-group membership in order to use the group to test their opinions and progress against that of the others and relieve anxieties by receiving solidarity from the group members.

As far as function of the implicit language is concerned, implicit contextualisation cues occur most in interactional discourse. The use of implicit language may be a strategy for claiming in-group membership or simply a reflection of membership. It is likely that the lexis of implicit reference (e.g.: technical terms, proper nouns and general words) and humorous conversational implicature mostly 'claim', while the grammar (e.g.: non-anaphoric definite reference and clausal ellipsis) mostly 'reflects'. What can be affirmed with certainty is that reference reflecting in-groupness is used in utterances that seem to have the function of claiming in-groupness.

## CHAPTER 9 : TESTS

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### 9.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter contains a description of two tests that were performed in order to support the conclusions reached through the linguistic and functional analysis in this study: that the implicit language reflects in-group membership and that it may cause dialogues to be impenetrable to an outsider.

The first test adds a dimension of triangulation on the subject of the form and function of conversations. The six recordees themselves were interviewed and tested in order to confirm pre-analysis impressions about relationships, function, topics, the in-group code and conversational implicature, and also to determine whether the recordees could be said to represent all NSs in the MSc. In Chapter 8, it was suggested that the in-group markers present in their language showed that they were members of a formed social group. This chapter deals with the recordees' assessment of their relationship with the other members, and how this affects their language.

For the first test, the recordees were asked to listen to some excerpts of their own dialogues and explain the reference of the implicit language that they had used. The test confirmed that they could identify the referents of their own in-group code.

The second test focuses on the issue of impenetrability and whether it can be associated with the implicit language. Impenetrability is defined in terms of the hearer's inability to understand the topic of a dialogue. That is to say, a conversation is not inherently impenetrable; it can be impenetrable to one person and not to another. Three different groups of outsiders to the course were asked to listen to excerpts of the dialogues and answer comprehension questions focusing on the implicit language. It was found that when the language is implicit, a dialogue can be exclusive to an outsider who does not have the knowledge that is taken for granted. This chapter describes the quantitative and qualitative analysis of the answers.

The chapter ends with a brief qualitative analysis of the performance of NNSs on the impenetrability test, which was given to them to help with an exploration of the applications of findings to English Language Teaching (see Chapter 10).

## **9.2 TEST 1: FORM, FUNCTION AND GROUP DYNAMICS**

Triangulation was carried out on 29 May 1992, at the end of the MSc course. The six recordees had to be interviewed before they left; one was to go to England, one to the Sudan, two to Japan, and one to the Caribbean. This meant that they were interviewed before all the dialogues had been transcribed, and before the coding system had been devised or the data analysed. Thus the questions that they were asked were not ones that sought confirmation of conclusions formed from analysis; they were ones that aimed to find how realistic the researcher's first impressions were and how relevant her concerns.

This explains the triangulation interview's focus on the different depths of relationship within the MSc and how this difference affects the form and function of interaction. Different depths of relationship is not a central concern of the data analysis in the study. The study takes a diachronic rather a synchronic approach to the association between levels of intimacy and forms of expression.

### **9.2.1 Hypotheses And Method**

As was explained in Chapter 3, one of the main objectives of the triangulation was to check whether the six recordees formed a special group of friends within the course or whether they were just course associates. "Friends" were defined, in terms of frequency of interaction, as people who spoke to each other at least ten to fifteen minutes three times a week. "Associates" were defined as people who only spoke to each other about two to five minutes once a week. It was felt necessary for the generalisability of the findings to the rest of the MSc group to know whether the characteristics of their language could be said to be representative of the language used with all members of the MSc course, or whether they were typical of a small group of friends.

Triangulation was used in order to check whether the researcher's understanding of the function of their interactions tallied with their understanding of them, and whether

the topics that they used with each other were the same as the ones that they used with other students on the course.

Triangulation was also needed in order to show that, months after having the conversations, the six recordees could still understand the in-group code and conversational implicature. It was hoped that similar tests could be given to different groups of subjects who were not the six recordees, and the results compared (see section 9.3 for results of the impenetrability test).

The researcher invited the recordees to dinner to thank them for their co-operation, and to observe and test them. Triangulation consisted of her observations made during the free over-dinner-talk, analysis of a written questionnaire after dinner and finally her observations of the unguided discussion that followed on naturally from the questionnaire.

For the first part of the questionnaire (see Appendix V), the recordees were asked to listen to four fragments of recorded conversations in which they themselves had taken part, and to answer general questions about relationships, function and impenetrability, and specific questions about particular words and expressions. (This part of the questionnaire was the basis of a similar questionnaire given to non-in-group members for the impenetrability test.) The aim was to test the hypotheses:

1. *the six recordees could identify the topic*
2. *the six recordees could identify the referents of implicit contextualisation cues*
3. *the six recordees could identify the conversational implicature*

For the second part of the questionnaire, the recordees were required to answer questions about what they thought the function and form of their talk was in the common room. The hypotheses were that:

4. *the six recordees talked with "friends" using functions, topics and language different from the ones used with "associates"*
5. *the six recordees had interacted with each other as "friends".*

### **9.2.2 Results And Discussion**

Chapter 3 described the nature of the relationships between the six recordees and the rest of the MSc group, as revealed by the triangulation dinner. It seemed that they constituted an open group of four "friends" (AF, BF, BM and DM) plus two

"associates" (AM and CM). They had each gone out socialising with at least one member of the six, and they all showed shared interpersonal knowledge about each other, but they said that they did not consider themselves to be an exclusive group since they had spent as much time with other colleagues as with each other. On average, they each considered about eight different students out of the whole course as "friends", but of these only three were from the group of six recordees. Thus the hypothesis:

5. *the six recordees had interacted with each other as "friends"*.

was not confirmed, in the sense that they were not a special micro-in-group. Their language can be taken as representative of the language used by all NS students on the course, regardless of frequency of interaction, therefore.

Part one of the questionnaire, focusing on the recordees' ability to de-code the implicit contextualisation cues and conversational implicature, showed that the recordees got on average 97% of the questions about reference right. In fact, all recordees except DM got all but one answer right. This confirms that:

1. *the six recordees could identify the topic*
2. *the six recordees could identify the referents of implicit contextualisation cues*
3. *the six recordees could identify the conversational implicature*

It confirms that in-group members understand each others' implicit language.

The only question that all recordees got wrong was the one that asked: "BM says, 'I haven't given you your thing back.' Any suggestions what the 'thing' might be?". Even BM himself could not remember what he was talking about. This confirms that when the general noun is non-anaphoric, the referent needs to be in the mind of the interlocutors at the time of hearing.

DM's main difficulty was with flouting humour. In Dialogue 2, he did not know that AF had meant to tease him with her banter "You mean you didn't get up earlier and make the most of the extra time?", and in Dialogue 4, he missed the fact that BM was not being serious when he said that maybe he should do a project on discourse because "that would explain what it is about". The other students knew that BM was being ironic. AM, for example said "He knows that it would be foolish to start a project that he knew nothing about", and AF said "If he's doing it as an option he must have understood the core course". It seems that even the participants of the dialogue can occasionally have difficulty in assessing the truth value of the interlocutor's words.

Part two of the questionnaire showed that the researcher's understanding of the function of their interactions (that it was mainly interactional) tallied with theirs. In the questionnaire, most of them said that they spoke to both friends and associates to "enjoy their company", to "have a laugh", "to pass the time" and to "see how they fared compared to others". As far as speaking "to relieve their anxieties" is concerned, however, whereas most said that they would do this with friends, only two of the six said that they did it with associates. One explained that his main aim with associates had been "to get precise and particular information", and another said that he only spoke to associates when he needed to borrow articles, books or lecture notes (i.e. their speech had a mainly transactional function). In the post-questionnaire discussion, they insisted that their main aim talking with friends had been "just to pass the time". This shows that conversations with members with whom speakers interacted frequently were more interactional than conversations with people with whom speakers interacted less. Analysis of the data showed that all conversations become more interactional over time.

In answer to the question about the topics of conversations, most of them said that they would talk about the world, Edinburgh and everyday life (K1) with both friends and associates. Whereas they would all talk about linguistics and the staff (K4) with friends, only half of them would use these topics in conversations with associates. Most would risk talking about other students (K4) to friends, but none would do it with associates. As for the topic of the speaker's personal life and their feelings, the male recordees said that they never spoke to any of their colleagues on the topic, and the female recordees said that this topic was reserved for those three or four colleagues with whom they interacted frequently and at length. Discussion with recordees showed that they believed that only interlocutors with whom speakers interacted more frequently share interpersonal knowledge of each other.

Analysis of the data showed that sections based on shared interpersonal knowledge increase, as do positive and negative attitude speech acts. Analysis shows that, despite the recordees' protestations that personal topics and discussion of feelings were restricted to conversations with friends, by period 2, all six of them were mentioning aspects of their personal life and could not help showing feelings, attitudes and opinions in what they said to both associates and friends.

The analysis of data showed that course events dictated the topics of conversations, and suggested that stressful period 2 needed K4 topics. Discussion with the six recordees revealed their lack of awareness of the importance of topic choice at a given time. As the recordees listened to themselves on the cassette recorder, they were amused at what they saw as the spinning-out of conversation on what seemed to them, looking back, irrelevant and uninteresting topics. In the post-questionnaire discussion, although some of them said that they felt the common room dictated chat about course topics, they insisted that it did not matter very much what they actually said about them. AM claimed that in his talk with associates the topic was "of NO consequence" [his underlining and capitals].

The recordees' comments about the sort of language matched their comments about topic, that personal topics and talk about feelings were for a limited audience. In part two of the questionnaire, the question about language revealed that they felt that slang, obscenities and emotional language were reserved for friends. Analysis of the data showed that slang, obscenities and emotional language was used by and with all six of the recordees, and therefore must be used with all NSs in the course.

In conclusion, triangulation confirms the hypotheses that:

4. *the six recordees talked with "friends" using functions, topics and language different from the ones used with "associates"*

It also reveals the discrepancy between the topics and language that they thought they used, and the topics and language that analysis shows that they used. The six were not a special micro-in-group of friends and yet they used forms and topics with each other that they said were reserved for friends. The interest in the distinction between friends and associates was dropped in the analysis of the data. The six represent all NS in the course and in that respect, all their comments were useful.

### **9.3 TEST 2: IMPENETRABILITY**

Labov (1972) and Gumperz (1982) say that the function of social group codes is to bring about group cohesion by members showing their superiority over another group and actively excluding outsiders, using their context-dependent language. MSc students do not intend to exclude any outsiders, and yet an outsider can be excluded because of the implicit language.

### 9.3.1 Hypotheses And Method

The objective of this test was to determine whether implicit language could cause impenetrability of the dialogues and also to arrive at a clearer definition of the outsider, to whom dialogues might be impenetrable. Although impenetrability is a gradable quality, for the purposes of the questionnaire, a text was deemed to be impenetrable when a hearer was unable to understand the topic completely. The test was devised to find how much background knowledge was needed in order for a hearer to understand the topic of a conversation and the reference of the implicit referring items.

The method of data collection for the analysis of impenetrability was similar to that of the questionnaire in Test 1 in that subjects listened to dialogue fragments and wrote answers to a questionnaire containing global questions about the topic and specific questions about the referents of referring expressions and their implications. (See Appendix VI for the questionnaire.) It was different from Test 1 in that it took place after the data had been analysed systematically (in July 1994) and in that subjects were divided into three different groups (A, B and C) and were asked to work on six selected dialogue fragments. None of the subjects knew personally any of the six recorded. The method of data analysis was more rigorous than in Test 1, in that it contained detailed quantitative analysis and the application of statistical tests.

Subjects were divided into the three groups according to the K areas that they possessed. Group A consisted of twelve people living in the South of England some of whom had visited Edinburgh. Although the majority of this group did not have knowledge of Edinburgh, they were considered to have K1, knowledge of the world. These were not English teachers.

Group B consisted of sixteen English teachers, twelve of whom worked in IALS but knew nothing of any DAL MSc course, and four of whom were from another language school in Edinburgh and knew nothing of either IALS or DAL. These all had K1 and K2, knowledge of language teaching and study, and the twelve IALS teachers had K3, knowledge of Edinburgh University, DAL and IALS.

Group C consisted of twelve people with experience of an MSc course; nine were ex-MSc students who had done different Edinburgh University DAL courses in years prior to or since the 1991-2 course and three were occasional MSc teaching staff who

are based at IALS but give one lecture in DAL every year. The students had K1, K2 and K3. Although K4 is knowledge of the 1991-2 MSc course, many K4 components are permanent features of courses from year to year: the staff, the courses, the assignments and deadlines, knowledge which Group C subjects could have. Past MSc course students would certainly have had similar experiences that would give them enough knowledge to be able to appreciate K4 dialogues. They lacked the shared interpersonal knowledge and knowledge of the particular 1991-92 group.

There was also a group of eight NNSs who were English teachers following a course at IALS over the summer. These were typical of the category of persons who might later be candidates for a DAL MSc course. They did not have K1 of Edinburgh and Britain but they did have K2, knowledge of language teaching and studying. The results of this last group's questionnaires were not included in the quantitative study of impenetrability. However, these subjects' answers to the questionnaire were examined qualitatively, with a view to arriving at conclusions about the applicability of the study's findings to teaching.

Although Groups A, B and C subjects were meeting the dialogues as outsiders, the conditions under which they met them were not identical to those that a "real" casual visitor to DAL would experience if he happened to sit in the common room and overhear the MSc students talking. The subjects in the experiment could only hear the conversations; a "real" outsider would be able to gather more information about the conversation and the participants by watching them talking. This fact is not of great importance as regards topic and implicit language, but seeing the body language and facial expression of participants might give the overhearer clues as to the seriousness of conversational implicatures. All subjects were given the test under the same conditions, in a language laboratory.

In the selection of the six dialogue fragments, the same questionnaire as with the six recordings in Test 1 was not used because the Test 1 dialogues were chosen to contain the highest concentration of implicit cues, whereas Test 2 required a more representative sample of the dialogues. To guarantee generalisability, and to ensure that the selection of the dialogues was not influenced by anything in their content, dialogues were chosen at equal time intervals through the course. It was decided to take fragments from dialogues at the beginning of each of the three periods. The fragments start at the first new main topic or sub-topic shift of each dialogue, last for 20-25 discourse units, and end at a main topic or sub-topic shift.

Each fragment has only one K area, as this makes it easier to relate particular results with particular K areas. The number of dialogues from each K area represents the proportion of total time in that K area throughout the course. Since in all the recordings, 30% of the discourse units are in K1 and 42% are in K4, whereas only 16% are in K2 and 12% in K3, the questionnaire has two dialogues from both K1 and K4 and just one dialogue from each of K2 and K3. In order to have dialogues from the K area that features most in each period, there is a K2 dialogue in period 1 and a K3 one in period 3 (see Figure 1).

**Figure 1 : The period and K area of each of the six dialogues selected**

Period	K1	K2	K3	K4
1		1		1
2	1(1P)			1 (4P)
3	1(1P)		1 (3P)	

The figure shows that fragments were chosen from periods 2 and 3 that contained shared interpersonal knowledge (coded P). This was because shared interpersonal knowledge is rare in period 1 but features in about 3% of discourse units in periods 2 and 3. The fragments contain at least one discourse unit of shared interpersonal knowledge.

There were two types of question. There was one topic question, which was "What is the main topic of this dialogue; what are the people talking about?" and there were five reference questions for each dialogue, each focusing on one of the following in the dialogue and asking what it referred to: non-anaphoric definite noun phrases with proper nouns and common nouns (including general), and with demonstrative, personal and indefinite pronouns.

Coding answers was necessarily subjective. The researcher was in a position to code reliably, however, since a) she had done the MSc course herself in 1990-91, b) she had been "present" throughout the 1991-92 course, and c) she had analysed 26,000 words of their discourse and this had taken her inside the minds of the speakers, so much so that she sometimes knew more than the interlocutors themselves knew about their colleagues.

Coding the reference answers to the questionnaire was difficult at times because of the test design. The questions were designed to permit open and free answers because

another design such as multiple choice questions would have risked offering the right answer to students who would not otherwise have thought of it at all. Although answers were open and free, they were coded either right or wrong for the convenience of counting, but because they were open and free, a variety of possible answers had to be accepted. In the case of the question about the topic, almost anything was accepted, except the very obviously wrong. In Dialogue 2, for example, the topic was considered to be "Who is in whose pre-tutorial group", but answers such as "Meeting up and then going on to a discussion group" and "Who's joining who in this informal discussion" were accepted, and answers such as "Research methods in Applied Linguistics" and "Planned trip somewhere" were coded as wrong.

In the case of the detailed questions about referring items, the range of possible answers was smaller: hearers either knew something about the referent or they did not. This method of coding answers meant counting as wrong any answer that offered two possible answers. In Dialogue 5, for example, an answer to the question "How long do you think 'long time' is?" such as "several months or several weeks" was counted as wrong, where "several weeks" alone would have been right.

Answers of all three groups of subjects to all questions on all dialogues were first analysed quantitatively, and then qualitatively in order to discover what types of referring questions each group of subjects answered incorrectly.

For the quantitative analysis, the answers were coded as follows: for each dialogue, topic comprehension (ability to answer the topic question) was scored as a dichotomous variable (correct, incorrect), and reference comprehension (ability to answer the detailed cue questions in the text) was scored on a six-point scale (0 - 5) because there were five questions. In the model used, therefore, the dependent variables were (i) the scores on the topic question (6 scores for each individual, one for each dialogue; the score being 1 or 0, depending on whether the topic was identified correctly or not) and (ii) scores on the reference questions (6 scores for each individual for each dialogue, each score on a scale from 0 to 5). The independent variable was "in-group knowledge" (meaning, for the purposes of this test only, K2, K3, K4 and shared interpersonal knowledge and represented by group membership) which is coded, A, B and C (where A represents individuals with no in-group knowledge, B represents those with some in-group knowledge [K2 and K3], and C represents those with most in-group knowledge [K2, K3 and K4]).

The point of interest was whether common knowledge of the course and shared interpersonal knowledge aid the understanding of topic and text, and what the relationship is between in-group knowledge, knowledge of topic and knowledge of referents. The working hypotheses with regard to the sample dialogues, were that:

1. *There is an association between in-group knowledge and scores on the topic question*
2. *There is an association between in-group knowledge and scores on the reference questions*
3. *There is an association between scores on the topic question and scores on the reference questions*

The null hypothesis was that there is no association between any of these.

In the analysis, the mean of topic answers right and the mean of reference answers right taking all the dialogues together and all the three subject groups separately, was calculated. The distribution of reference answers right in the case of the topic answer being right and being wrong was examined for each of the dialogues, taking all the three subject groups together.

All statistical tests were carried out using the three primary variables (scores on the topic question, scores on the reference questions and in-group knowledge) and two more variables derived from the primary variables. The derived variables were i) "overall topic knowledge", a score for topic knowledge obtained by adding the scores for the topic variable for dialogues 1, 2, 4 and 5, and ii) "overall reference knowledge", a score for reference knowledge obtained by adding the scores for reference questions for dialogues 1, 2, 4 and 5.

## **9.3.2 Results And Discussion**

### **9.3.2.1 Quantitative analysis**

In order to help comparisons between groups, the number of individuals in each group who identified the topic was found and percentage out of all those in the group was calculated. See Figure 2. It can be seen from this table that the dialogues with the lowest percentage of individuals who identified the topic correctly are Dialogues 2 and 4. These are both K4 dialogues.

Some dialogues and groups were not used in the statistical tests. Dialogues 3 and 6 were not used because all subjects identified the topic of these dialogues correctly, and the scores for these two dialogues would not contribute to the analysis as the statistical tests compared the two groups: topic question right and topic question wrong. For this reason no further use was made of the scores for Dialogues 3 and 6 in the analysis. Of the four dialogues used, as far as K areas were concerned, two (Dialogues 1 and 5) were from non-course K areas and two (Dialogues 2 and 4) from K4. As far as periods were concerned, two (Dialogues 1 and 2) were from period 1, one (Dialogue 4) was from period 2 and one (Dialogue 5) was from period 3. Group C was not used in the statistical tests on topic scores either, because they had all topic answers right.

**Figure 2 : Number of individuals in each group correctly identifying topic in each dialogue**

	A (n=12)	Group B (n=17)	C (n=13)
Dialogue 1	7 (58.3%)	16 (94.1%)	13 (100.0%)
Dialogue 2	3 (25%)	10 (58.8%)	13 (100.0%)
Dialogue 3	12 (100.0%)	17 (100.0%)	13 (100.0%)
Dialogue 4	9 (75.0%)	13 (76.5%)	13 (100.0%)
Dialogue 5	10 (83.3%)	16 (94.1%)	13 (100.0%)
Dialogue 6	12 (100.0%)	17 (100.0%)	13 (100.0%)

First, the relationship between in-group knowledge and overall topic knowledge was examined, to test the hypothesis:

- 1. There is an association between in-group knowledge and scores on the topic question*

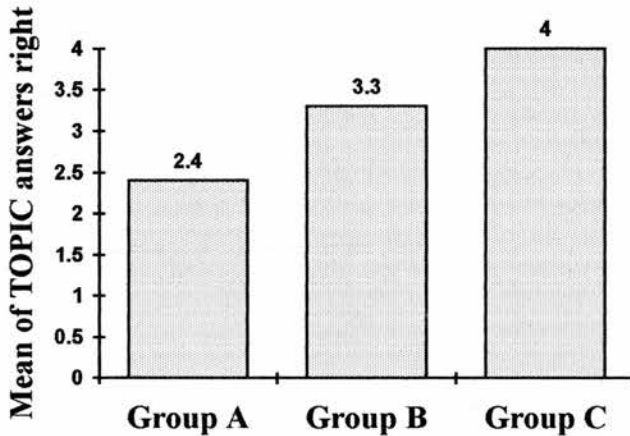
Figures 3 and 4 show the mean score of each group of subjects on the topic question.

The tables show that in this data the overall topic knowledge (as determined by the answers to the topic questions in the questionnaire) increases as in-group knowledge increases.

A t-test shows that this difference is significant ( $t = 2.68$ ,  $df = 19$ ,  $p = 0.015$ ). (Group C is omitted from this analysis since there is no within-group variance for this group). This confirms the hypothesis that there is an association between in-group knowledge and impenetrability.

**Figure 3 : Overall topic knowledge for Groups A, B and C**

in-group knowledge	N	overall topic knowledge	s.d.
Group A (low)	12	2.417	0.900
Group B (medium)	17	3.235	0.664
Group C (high)	13	4.000	0.000

**Figure 4 : Overall topic knowledge for Groups A, B and C**

Next the relationship between in-group knowledge and overall reference knowledge was examined, to test the hypothesis:

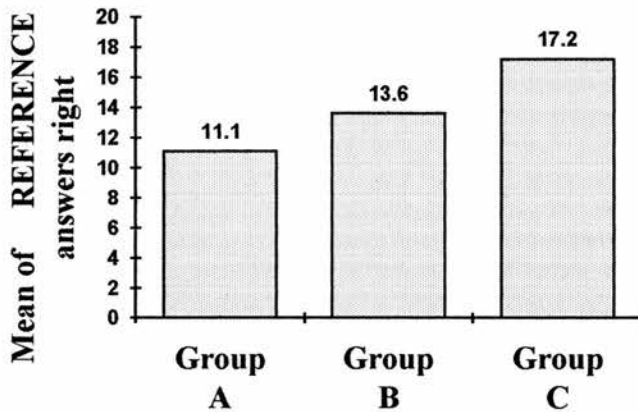
2. *There is an association between in-group knowledge and scores on the reference questions*

There were five reference questions in each dialogue, so the maximum possible score on the overall reference question variable is 20. Figures 5 and 6 show the mean scores for the three groups. The figures show that in this data overall reference knowledge increases with in-group knowledge.

**Figure 5 : Overall Reference Knowledge For Groups A, B And C**

in-group knowledge	N	overall reference knowledge	s.d.
Group A (low)	12	11.083	2.193
Group B (medium)	17	13.588	1.622
Group C (high)	13	17.231	1.481

**Figure 6 : Overall reference knowledge for Groups A, B and C**



A one-way analysis of variance shows that the overall effect of in-group knowledge is highly significant ( $F = 38.67$ ,  $df = (2,39)$ ,  $p < 0.0001$ ) and so the null hypothesis was rejected. The results of a Scheffe test show that the comparisons (Group A vs Group B) and (Group B vs Group C) are both significant ( $p < 0.05$ ). This confirms the hypothesis that there is an association between in-group knowledge and the ability to identify the referents of implicit language.

The analysis supports the following generalisations: a) the ability to identify the topic of a dialogue is dependent on in-group knowledge, i.e. the more in-group knowledge a subject has, the more he will be able to identify the topic of the dialogue, and b) the ability to understand the referring expressions depends on in-group knowledge, i.e. the more in-group knowledge a subject has, the more he will be able to identify the referent of the referring expressions. This can be interpreted to mean that in all K areas, the closer the hearer is to the 1991-2 MSc course, the more he will understand the topic and referring expressions.

The next part of the analysis examined the relationship between topic knowledge and reference knowledge, taking Dialogues 1, 2, 4 and 5 separately, to test the hypothesis:

3. *There is an association between scores on the topic question and scores on the reference questions*

First, the in-group knowledge factor of the subjects was left out i.e. subjects in groups A and B were analysed together. (Group C subjects were omitted because they got all topic answers right). Subjects who identified the topic correctly were categorised "Topic Correct", and those who did not "Topic Incorrect". Figure 7 shows the mean scores for those in both groups.

For Dialogues 4 and 5, which are taken from periods 2 and 3, the mean score on the reference questions is higher for the group who identified the topic correctly than for the group who failed to identify the topic.

**Figure 7: Mean scores for reference questions for all subjects who identified the topic correctly and all subjects who failed to identify the topic**

Dialogue number		Topic Correct	Topic Incorrect	T	df	p
1	mean	3.957	4.167	0.48	7	0.6500
	n	23	6			
2	mean	1.460	1.750	0.71	26	0.4800
	n	13	26			
4	mean	4.000	2.857	3.43	14	0.0041**
	n	22	7			
5	mean	3.269	2.670	0.88	2	0.4700
	n	26	3			

An independent t-test was performed for each dialogue, with the score on the reference questions as the dependent variable and the score on the topic question as the independent variable. The null hypothesis was that the mean scores of the two groups is the same and the hypothesis was that the "Topic Correct" Group will have a higher score than the "Topic Incorrect" Group. Point-by-serial correlations were also conducted. The value of  $t$  is statistically significant at the chosen probability level for Dialogue 4 but not for Dialogues 1, 2 and 5. This indicates that the association between topic knowledge and reference knowledge is only strong in Dialogue 4. Dialogue 4 is a K4 period 2 dialogue.

In the last part of the analysis, the relationship between topic knowledge and reference knowledge, (still taking Dialogues 1, 2, 4 and 5 separately) was examined for the subjects in Groups A and B separately (i.e. including the in-group knowledge factor of the subjects), in order to test the general hypothesis that topic knowledge is associated with reference knowledge. (Appendix XVI shows the mean scores for both types of question in each of the six dialogues, taking the three groups separately).

"Overall topic knowledge" scores were correlated with "overall reference knowledge" scores. Figure 8 shows the point-by-serial correlation between overall topic knowledge scores and overall reference knowledge scores for each dialogue. The value of the correlation coefficient for the four dialogues together is 0.590, which is significant at  $df = 28$ ,  $\alpha = 0.05$  (one-tailed test). This analysis shows that there is a

strong association between topic knowledge and cue knowledge taking all the four dialogues together. Getting the topic right is related to getting reference answers right, when all the dialogues and all the groups are taken together.

**Figure 8: Correlation between overall topic knowledge scores and overall reference knowledge scores**

	Group A	Group B	Total
Dialogue 1	- 0.409	- 0.236	-0.098
Dialogue 2	- 0.524	- 0.096	-0.135
Dialogue 4	0.602	0.390	0.482*
Dialogue 5	- 0.121	0.631	0.217
Dialogue 1, 2, 4 and 5	0.487	0.300	0.590*

Taking the dialogues separately, it is again in Dialogue 4 that there is a strong association between topic knowledge and reference knowledge. Only in Dialogue 4 (from K4 period 2) does getting the topic right depend on getting the reference questions right. This could be interpreted to mean that only in this dialogue is impenetrability associated with not knowing the referents or understanding how they are referred to. It would seem that in the case of K4 dialogues in period 2, understanding the cues is more vital to the understanding of the topic than it is in non-course topics.

The negative correlation for Dialogues 1 and 2 in the Group A scores suggests, rather strangely, that Group A subjects were more likely to identify the referents if they failed to identify the topic than if they succeeded in identifying the topic. This is because of two individuals getting all reference questions right and the topic wrong in Dialogue 2. The explanation of this may be because these two subjects were using guesswork to answer the questions. It may also be that the dialogue was not suitable for the test.

These findings suggest that if the hearer has no knowledge of language teaching (K2), the University (K3) or the MSc course (K4), non-course topics can be understood even when all the details are not understood. Non-course topics can be wrongly understood even when the referent is identified. Non-course topics differ from course topics in that the latter are only understood when the majority of the referents are identified. Course topics are more impenetrable, therefore, than non-course topics for an outsider to the DAL MSc discourse community.

### 9.3.2.2 Qualitative analysis

- **Main study: Groups A, B and C**

A qualitative analysis of the answers to the reference questions showed better the differences between the groups and it demonstrated which of the implicit contextualisation cues are most likely to affect understanding of the topic.

Before starting this discussion, it should be mentioned that the subjects' answering correctly depended on the state of their knowledge but it was also influenced by other factors. The ability to answer the questions seemed to reflect to a certain extent the level and type of their education: some of the less educated members of Group A failed to grasp how individual words functioned in textual cohesion, simply because they were unused to thinking about language. The lack of appropriate knowledge also caused some Group A subjects to read more into the dialogues and questions than was actually there.

Subjects in Groups A and B misinterpreted a wide range of referring items: non-anaphoric personal pronouns, demonstrative pronouns and adverbs, indefinite pronouns, limited range nouns, the general nouns, proper nouns, and metonymical proper nouns. In both of these groups, the most frequent wrongly answered questions were ones asking about non-anaphoric demonstrative adverbs, limited range nouns and the metonymical proper nouns. These occur in Dialogues 2 and 4, from K4.

The non-anaphoric demonstrative adverbs gave both of these groups problems since they could not imagine exactly what the implications were. Thus, in Dialogue 4 for example, when AM says "It is probably a bit late now" to study Chomsky, all subjects could say that "now" meant "at this moment", but only some of the Group B subjects could appreciate the implications in the context of the course and wrote answers such as "the exam is very soon, too soon to spend time on the reading required."

In both Groups A and B, but especially in Group A, the lack of understanding of the limited range nouns and metonymical proper nouns affected the understanding of the whole topic. In Dialogue 2, for example, subjects who did not know that the limited range noun "group" refers specifically to the "pre-tutorial study group", and simply suggested vaguely that its referent is "a group of students", could not appreciate the topic. In Dialogue 2, the topic is "Who is in whose tutorial group"; the students are

settling down to prepare to work on their tutorial task. Subjects suggested that they are discussing "a planned trip somewhere" or "filling in time ... not much content".

Ignorance of the referent of the metonymical proper nouns also makes the dialogue impenetrable, it would seem. In Dialogue 4, for example, Group A subjects did not know that metonymical proper nouns "Language and Linguistics" and "Psycholinguistics" refer to the courses that had these names rather than the field of study itself, and they did not know that the term "Chomsky" refers not to the man himself but to his theories that students had studied. This seemed to make it difficult for subjects to appreciate that the students are talking about course material and that the topic is "What AM and CM studied for the exam". Thus subjects left the metonymical proper noun questions blank, wrote comments such as "haven't the foggiest idea" or went to great lengths trying to define the sciences, writing for example "modern ways and approaches to researching information for the study of how and what people say", then suggested that the topic was "Chomsky" or "Psycholinguistics, whatever they are".

The other implicit contextualisation cues, non-anaphoric personal, demonstrative and indefinite pronouns, general nouns and proper nouns with their usual use, caused fewer problems. In the case of proper nouns with their usual meaning, the groups were similar in that neither Group A subjects nor Group B subjects could identify the people who were referred to by name. They were different in that whereas Group B subjects could identify institutions, Group A subjects could not. In Dialogue 1 for example, they could not say exactly what "the Council" was, offering suggestions such as "UNESCO", "could it be overseas council?" and such like. Most Group B subjects knew that it was "The British Council".

The general noun "things" and indefinite pronouns "somewhere", "anything" and "somebody else" in Dialogues 4 and 6 gave a few Group A subjects problems. One subject thought that the "things" in Dialogue 4 were not points in an exam question but "assignment topics"; another thought that "Have you applied for anything?" in Dialogue 6 referred to "a study course" rather than a job.

Personal pronouns caused many more wrong answers for Group A subjects than they did for Group B. Group A people did not know the reference for "it" in Dialogue 1, "they" in Dialogue 3 or "we" in Dialogue 5, whereas Group B people only had difficulty with the "we" in Dialogue 5. Understanding the "we" in "We went to Arran"

depended on shared interpersonal knowledge of DM's wife; even Group C subjects got the referent of "we" wrong.

Group C wrong answers were limited to the questions that required shared interpersonal knowledge: proper nouns referring to people and the "we". Getting such answers wrong did not affect the comprehension of the topic in the way that not understanding the metonymical proper nouns and limited range nouns did for Groups A and B.

Group C subjects showed an appreciation of the full implications of referring expressions in K4 dialogues: they rightly identified the "groups" as "pre-tutorial groups", and "Language and Linguistics" and "Psycholinguistics" as "core courses" for example. They could appreciate the full implications of pronouns and added details showing their insights. In answer to the question about the referent of "this" in Dialogue 6, for example, in BF's line "Imagine doing another two years of this", one subject did not simply answer "studying Applied Linguistics" but put feelingly "Toiling away studying on a post-grad. course, mounds of reading, essays, lectures, seminars, limited social life, etc. etc."

Group C subjects, being so familiar with the context of the course, apparently felt free to read between the lines. They could appreciate the humorous conversational implicatures: the irony and the banter. One commented that NM's opening remark in Dialogue 2 was "ironic"; another said that the "Long time no see" of Dialogue 6 was "ironical". Another, at the end of her answers to Dialogue 6 added a little note: "Do BF and DM fancy each other? Yes. From the way she complains about Dave, and he is supportive and warm and yet sounds sarcastic (jealous) in line 12". It could be that the closer the subject is to the in-group, the more they feel in a position to state opinions about their feelings.

- **Secondary study: NNSs**

Nine NNSs teachers of English on an English teachers' refresher course in IALS in August 1994 who were given the impenetrability test got scores similar to those of the NSs in Group A, i.e. those who were not English teachers. Their scores were not analysed quantitatively like Group A, B and C's because NNS were not part of this research. Although their scores were similar to those of Group A, the cause of the wrong answers was different.

Nearly all the NNS wrong answers can be explained by lack of cultural knowledge. In the dialogue about Hogmanay, for example, they thought that the "they" (a generalised institutional personal pronoun) who were "serving" in the "pubs", referred to "the people in the restaurants", "the waiters", and "friends". They did not realise that in the context of "pubs", "they" who are "serving" can only be the bar staff.

Similar cultural gaps can be seen in their answers to the questions requiring explanations. The Dialogue 6 question "How could BF have done a PhD? DM says 'Oh you might as well do one as well then.'" required an answer such as "She could convert from her MSc". Two of NNSs thought that she might do it by teaching. The Dialogue 3 proper noun question "Who or what is implied by 'Manchester', in 'Did you go to Manchester over Christmas?', do you think?" required an answer such as "Her family lives in Manchester". One NNS said that it was a city in the North of England; she may have felt that her geographical knowledge was being tested. It could be that the cultural gap in these two examples affects the understanding of the question as well.

Some wrong answers seem to have lexico-grammatical causes as well as cultural ones. In Dialogue 1 topic question "what are the people talking about?", some NNS thought that the students were discussing their present jobs, as if they were going back to them, whereas they were clearly talking about past experience of contracts that were finished. This misunderstanding may be explained by the NNSs' inattention to the implications of the past tenses, as in "I was with them" and "we'd intended to go to Argentina".

#### 9.4 CONCLUSION

Triangulation with the six recordees themselves confirm conclusions about form, function and group dynamics. The interactions between them can be taken as typical of any NS in the MSc course.

Impenetrability test results show that the closer the hearer is to the 1991-2 MSc course, the more he will understand the topic and referring expressions. The tests also show that, taking the dialogues together, impenetrability is associated with the inability to identify the referents of the in-group code. Taking the dialogues separately, the only one that shows a strong association between the inability to

identify the topic and the inability to identify the referents is Dialogue 4, from period 2. Both Dialogue 2 and Dialogue 4 had the lowest percentage of individuals getting the topic question right; these two dialogues are from K4. Here, there is some connection with implicitness: K4 has the greatest density of implicit contextualisation cues.

The results seem to suggest that the ability to understand the topic depends on the ability to understand the referring expressions. However, the relationship between impenetrability and implicitness cannot be proved to be one of cause and effect, and it cannot be affirmed for certain whether understanding the referring items makes a hearer able to understand the topic, or vice versa. On the other hand, there are good grounds based on common sense, for supposing that if a hearer has enough K4 to understand the implicit language, he will be able to understand the topic.

Knowledge of the course is what separates Group C (those who have K1, K2, K3 *and* parts of K4) from the other two groups. Group C subjects did not find any of the dialogues impenetrable and identified almost all of the referring items' referents. Group C results were almost as good as the results of the six recordees themselves in the triangulation questionnaire. This seems to suggest that people who have been through the MSc course as a student or participated minimally as a member of staff, belong to the same discourse community as the 1991-2 MSc students: they speak the same implicit language. Group C subjects got answers wrong that depended on shared interpersonal knowledge; this is what separates them from the 1991-2 MSc in-group.

There are two types of divide and outsider, therefore. There is the divide between DAL MSc discourse community members and outsiders to the discourse community, and there is the divide between the 1991-2 MSc in-group and outsiders to that particular MSc in-group. Group C subjects were members of the discourse community but outsiders to the 1991-92 in-group, and Group A and B subjects were outsiders to the discourse community of DAL MSc students. Discourse community members know how to use the discourse community implicit language and in-group members know how to use the implicit language to refer particularly to their group's context (see Chapter 10 for further discussion of this point).

## CHAPTER 10 : CONCLUSION

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### 10.1 OVERVIEW

This final chapter begins with a summary of the components of implicit language and the definition of in-group members. It then summarises the main influences on language change in the data: increasing knowledge over time, course events and K area. It also summarises findings as regards the function of the student interaction and the function of the implicit language.

The next part of the chapter outlines the limitations of the study, as concerns the categories of analysis and the generalisability of the model of analysis. It makes recommendations for research into the generalisability.

The chapter finishes with suggestions for possible applications of the findings to the fields of Teaching English as a Foreign Language, clinical pragmatics and forensic linguistics.

### 10.2 SUMMARY

#### 10.2.1 Implicit Language

This thesis describes the longitudinal analysis of the implicit language of the 1991-92 MSc students in the University of Edinburgh's Applied Linguistics Department. Figure 1 shows that the term 'implicit language' includes both the in-group code of implicit contextualisation cues and other implicit features. Whereas the former occur mostly in K4 dialogues, the latter occur in all the data.

### Figure 1 : The implicit language of the in-group

The model of the in-group code of implicit contextualisation cues :

- explicit non-anaphoric definite noun phrases. e.g.: "the article"
- technical terms of ELT and Applied Linguistics. e.g.: "'X-bar", "interlanguage"
- special course proper nouns - actual and metonymical use. e.g.: "Dave", "Chomsky", "your Chomsky"
- special course unique and limited range nouns. e.g.: "the exam", "the project"
- implicit non-anaphoric definite reference with general nouns, demonstrative pronouns and adverbs, 3rd. person personal pronouns and indefinite pronouns. e.g.: "the man", "that thing", "that", "there", "she", "anything"
- general "do" verbs with limited range nouns, course proper nouns (metonymical) and non-anaphoric pronouns. e.g.: "do (your Syntax / it)"

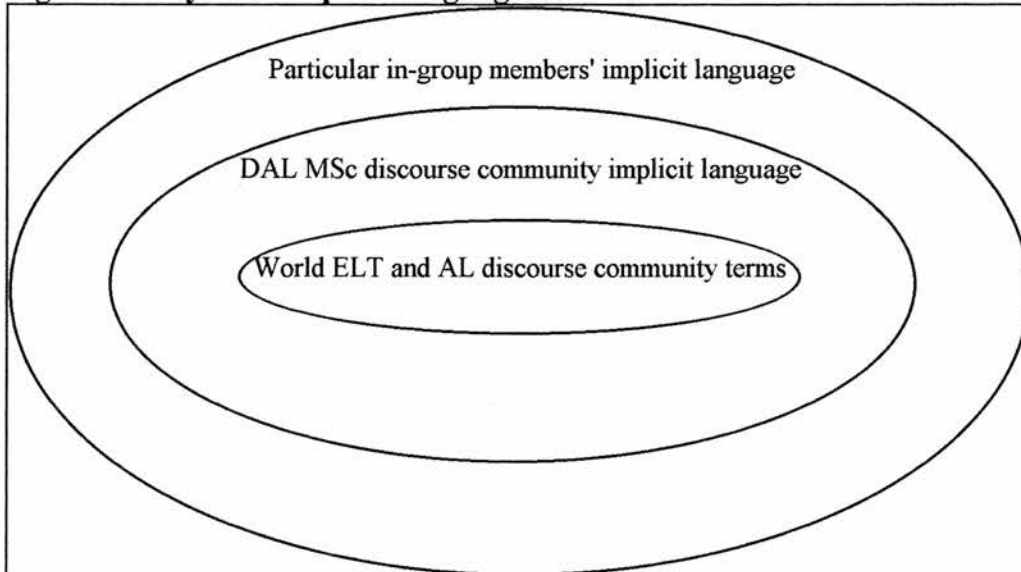
Other implicit features of casual conversations:

- initial ellipsis. e.g.: "Do anything?"
- unfinished sentences. e.g.: "the mental and the ..."
- vague fillers. e.g.: "or something".
- humorous conversational implicature. e.g.: "Not that you'd notice."

### 10.2.2 In-Group Members

The implicit language is used by members of an academic discourse community. Figure 2 shows that there are different layers of the language.

### Figure 2 : Layers of implicit language



Any person who has studied and works in the field of Teaching English as a Foreign Language and Applied Linguistics belongs to the world ELT and Applied Linguistics

discourse community and should be able to understand the specialised technical terms used in that field.

Any person who has taught on, has studied for or is doing an MSc in DAL of Edinburgh University belongs to the discourse community of DAL MSc students and staff and should be able to understand the DAL MSc discourse community implicit language that students use in the casual conversations in the common room. This language contains an in-group code with features from restricted code (non-anaphoric definite reference, implicit pronouns and general nouns) and from elaborated code (specialised technical terms of Applied Linguistics, proper and metonymical proper nouns, and unique and limited range course terms). It also contains other implicit features, typical of all casual conversations such as initial ellipsis, unfinished sentences, vague fillers and humorous conversational implicature. It consists of a hybrid of genres: the casual conversations genre and the Applied Linguistics academic writing genre.

The term "in-group members" applies to all members of one particular MSc course, regardless of the length or depth of relationship with other members. Any NS should be able to understand the way that the DAL MSc discourse community implicit language is used by their own particular in-group. The in-group members' code includes names of student members and their families (e.g.: "Dave"), and it may have special names for staff members (e.g.: "Fergey") and options (e.g.: "Sla"). In-group members use proper and metonymical proper nouns from the discourse community implicit language to refer, with definite reference, to particular entities in their own course (e.g.: "*your* Syntax", "*any* Chomsky", "*that* group" and "*the* project") and they use implicit referring expressions (e.g.: non-anaphoric "she", "that" and "the thing") whose specific reference can be understood only by other in-group members with common knowledge of that particular course and shared interpersonal knowledge of the interlocutor.

The impenetrability tests showed that DAL MSc discourse community members understand the DAL discourse community implicit language. They showed that the closer the hearer is to the 1991-2 MSc course, the more he will understand the topic and referring expressions.

The tests confirmed the link between implicitness and impenetrability. A hearer only understands the topic of all conversations if he both has course knowledge and shared

interpersonal knowledge and can identify the referents of the implicit contextualisation cues. The tests showed, more particularly, that outsiders to the discourse community of DAL MSc students have difficulties with text questions requiring identification of the referent of pronouns, general nouns, course proper nouns, metonymical proper nouns and limited range course nouns. They showed that discourse community of DAL MSc members who were outsiders to the 1991-92 in-group only had problems with text references depending on shared interpersonal knowledge.

### 10.2.3 Changes In Form And Function

The main assumption made in this study was that with interaction over time, the group's common knowledge of the course and shared interpersonal knowledge would increase, and that there would be changes in the language, as knowledge of the course and shared interpersonal knowledge increased with interaction over time.

#### Figure 3: Changes in form and function

Features that increase in period 2 and continue increasing in period 3:

- shared interpersonal knowledge sections
- implicit grammar in reference
- informality in terms of initial ellipsis
- length of topic
- interactional function
- speech acts involving expression of attitude and the interlocutor

Features that increase in period 2 and decrease in period 3:

- K4 dialogues
- non-anaphoric definite reference
- implicit course lexis in reference
- emotive vocabulary
- non-humorous utterances

Features that are densest in K4 dialogues:

- non-anaphoric definite reference
- implicit grammar in reference
- implicit course lexis in reference
- formal, intangible lexis
- topic shifts and hitches with implicit contextualisation cues

Analysis showed that some features of language do increase in period 2 and continue increasing in period 3, but that events on the course calendar also have a great influence on the way that the students talk (See Figure 3). Thus some aspects of language change in period 2 but then the tendency is reversed in period 3. Still other

aspects of language do not show any remarkable changes from one period to another, but rather vary according to the K area. Some aspects only increase over time in K4.

### 10.2.3.1 Changes in topics and language

- **Influence of increasing knowledge over time**

The main changes that occur consistently from the beginning of the course to the end are a dramatic increase in dialogue sections based on shared interpersonal knowledge and a gradual increase in most forms of implicit grammar in reference.

The hypothesis that with increasing knowledge over time, sections of conversations assuming shared interpersonal knowledge would increase was therefore confirmed. In non-course K areas, shared interpersonal knowledge is mostly that of the immediate family and social activities outside the course, and in K4, it is of interlocutors' attitudes towards components of the course and activities within it. It would appear that, as the group forms, speaking on a topic directly related to the interlocutor's life becomes increasingly acceptable and possibly even expected, as speech acts focusing on the interlocutor increase (see section 10.2.3.2).

The hypothesis that over time, the density of vague, implicit reference and ellipsis increases was also confirmed. Main topic shifts show a steady increase in implicit contextualisation cues over time, cues on the very shift itself making the whole topic implicit. Confirmed too were the more specific hypotheses that over time, explicit and implicit non-anaphoric definite reference increases. General "do" verbs increase in period 3 and contribute to the implicitness when they occur in utterances that have special course limited range nouns, metonymical proper names, general nouns with non-anaphoric reference, and non-anaphoric indefinite, personal and demonstrative pronouns.

The fact that implicitness increases suggests that as the group forms, there is less need to supply information to identify referents. As topics are increasingly based on knowledge acquired in the group, so the speakers can assume that hearers do not need explicit reference because they have the referents in their minds as they interact.

- **Influence of course events**

Some features change in period 2 but return to the period 1 level or near it, in period 3. In period 2, there is a peak in K4 dialogues, non-anaphoric definite reference, and slang and expletives, and there is a trough in humorous utterances.

Events throughout the course influence the choice of topic. In period 1, the students prefer safe topics based on K2 knowledge of the past of language teaching experience. Period 2 is a time when the course events cause students to talk earnestly of little else but topics based on K4. By period 3, the students have adapted to the pace of the course and they look ahead to what lies after it; they use K3 knowledge of the PhD and scholarship possibilities.

The hypothesis that topics drawing on knowledge of the MSc course increase over time was not confirmed, therefore, because the time spent talking on topics in K4 increases in period 2 and falls again in period 3. K4 is, however, the predominant K area taking all the data together: it is the background to 42% of all dialogues.

Period 2 sees a peak in non-anaphoric definite reference. This is because it is a characteristic of K4 which predominates in period 2. In K4 topics, speakers refer to new referents in the common background taking it for granted that they are in the minds of the hearers. From the point of view of lexis in reference, because K4 predominates in period 2, the level of special course terms peaks in period 2.

Certain features of the language are a product of the stress of course events. Emotive lexis and expletives abound in period 2. The hypothesis that the frequency of flouting humour would increase was not confirmed because the density of private flouting humour (banter and interpersonal irony and ambiguous allusion) falls in period 2 and rises again in period 3. In period 2, teasing and joking about the interlocutor in K4 topics appears not to be acceptable.

- **Influence of K area**

The influence of course events and the influence of K area on the students' language are closely related, because period 2 has special characteristics not only due to the course events but also due to the fact that K4 predominates in period 2.

The differences between non-course K areas and K4 can be felt in all three periods. Language in course topics has more non-anaphoric definite reference, implicit grammar in reference, special course lexis, and unfinished sentences and vague fillers with implicit meaning; it has more topic shifts containing these and hitches caused by them. It has more private, interpersonal humour based on conversational implicature.

The greatest difference is in the form of reference. As far as grammar in reference is concerned, the hypothesis that language in K4 dialogues would have more non-anaphoric definite reference than language in non-course K area dialogues was confirmed. K area has a stronger influence than increasing knowledge over time as regards non-anaphoric definite reference. The density of K4's non-anaphoric definite reference rises dramatically throughout the course.

K area has a strong influence on the degree of explicitness, too. The hypothesis that language in K4 dialogues would have more implicit reference and ellipsis than language in non-course K area dialogues was confirmed. As far as implicit reference is concerned, K area has as strong an influence as increasing knowledge over time. K4 dialogues have less super-explicit and explicit language, and more implicit language than non-course K area dialogues do. The density of implicit contextualisation cues in K4 dialogues increases dramatically over time. In K4, there are more topic shifts containing implicit non-anaphoric reference than there are in non-course K areas. These topic shifts make the whole of the topic that they introduce implicit.

One of the biggest differences between K areas as regards both explicit and implicit reference is in the context of noun phrases with demonstrative determiners and pronouns. In non-course K areas, especially in K1, they often occur with a narrative or a situational function and are non-specific, whereas in K4, demonstratives often depend on background knowledge and are specific. K4 is especially inaccessible to an outsider because of the non-anaphoric non-modified general nouns with definite articles or demonstrative determiners with specific referents in the background knowledge, and because of the general "do" verbs with specific meanings.

As far as lexis in reference is concerned, it is the K area that influences the choice of lexeme. Language in K4 dialogues has more special course nouns: technical terms, unique and limited range, proper nouns and metonymical proper nouns, than language in non-course K area dialogues. The K4 limited range nouns and metonymical proper nouns are vague terms that depend heavily on the context of the course for their

meaning and thus add to the implicitness of the in-group code. In addition, nouns and verbs in K4 dialogues are generally less tangible than non-course K area ones and this might add to the inaccessibility.

Implicitness on the utterance level, seen in unfinished sentences and vague fillers, is affected by K area to the extent that in K4 dialogues, these elements increase dramatically in period 2 and continue increasing slightly in period 3. When these features combine with implicit contextualisation cues they add another element of implicitness to K4 language.

When the MSc students are talking on course topics, they assume that their interlocutors have the referents in their minds. The referring expression is vague, but the referent is specific and hearers are expected to identify it in their background knowledge.

K4 dialogues contain hitches caused by implicit contextualisation cues. These occur because even the students themselves cannot at times understand the metonymical proper noun, the limited range noun, or the non-anaphoric pronoun. Although such hitches are rare, it appears that the in-group code is not always explicit enough. Occasionally it breaks down.

As far as humorous conversational implicature is concerned, K4 contains a higher proportion of banter and interpersonal irony than non-course K area dialogues do. K4 dialogues are less likely to contain explicit funny narratives than non-course K areas. K4 humour, especially the public flouting type, is doubly exclusive because not only is the truth value in doubt for the outsider but also the reference is implicit and dependent on in-group knowledge.

Shared interpersonal knowledge sections of all K area dialogues, which increase dramatically over time, have their own characteristics. There are predictably few instances of super-explicit reference, as referents are guaranteed to need no precise identification. This may in part explain the overall drop in super-explicit reference. Implicit contextualisation cues, unfinished sentences and vague fillers in these sections underline the sharedness by making the language more implicit. Topic shifts containing shared interpersonal knowledge make the whole of a topic exclusive.

### 10.2.3.2 Changes in function and group dynamics

- **Evidence of group formation**

Some of the markers of intimacy that sociolinguists and psycholinguists have discovered increase steadily throughout the course; they are associated therefore with the increasing knowledge over time, rather than with course events or K area. If informality can be taken as a marker of in-groupness, then the group becomes increasingly intimate throughout the course: there is a dramatic increase in initial ellipsis in period 2 and again in period 3. If the expression of emotion is a marker of intimacy, then the steady increase in the density of positive and negative speech acts throughout the course shows that the group is forming. If abrupt topic shifts and persistence of topic are features high involvement, then the steady increase in main topic shifts throughout the course and the decrease in sub-topic shifts in period 2 are evidence of a group in formation.

Humorous utterances do not increase over time but if humour is used to stress the shared background and values and is a group-defining element that stresses solidarity, then it can be taken as an in-group claimer. Students assert in-groupness using humorous utterances right from period 1.

Presumably, the students do not consciously choose to use initial ellipsis and longer topics; these are reflections of in-groupness. They may, however, choose to speak showing emotion, humour and interest in the interlocutor in order to claim in-group membership.

It appears that the group has formed in period 2 and continues gelling in period 3. It is reasonable to claim therefore that any changes in form or function that occur in periods 2 and 3 can be associated with the formation of the group.

- **Influences on function**

Increased interaction over time is associated with a decrease in the density of utterances with a purely transactional function, as hypothesised. This means that there is an increase in the density of utterances with a predominantly interactional function. Increasing knowledge over time is also associated with an increase in the density of

positive and negative speech acts and ones that relate to the interlocutor and the communication, and especially in speech acts expressing positive attitudes.

Course events also affect function. In period 1, "group-forming" functions of establishing social relationships and passing the time by increasing knowledge of the world seem to be strongest.

By period 2, the group is formed and the "group-using" function of normality-testing is stronger. Students can consciously claim in-group membership by talking on K4 topics and shared interpersonal topics, in order to use the group to test their opinions and progress in the course and relieve anxieties by receiving solidarity from the group members. They may or may not consciously use emotive vocabulary and expletives to show in-the-same-boatness and predispose hearers to give them feedback on their situation. There is a peak in speech acts expressing a negative attitude to a third party or situation and to self, possibly because of the stress. Sounding negative may be a conscious choice to gain the acceptance of the group.

In period 3, speaking about the interlocutor and the speaker himself and expressing both positive and negative attitudes are very common strategies for maintaining in-group solidarity and intimacy, especially using shared interpersonal knowledge and joking about it. Although the stress of period 2 has diminished, members still use the group to gain comfort and this time to obtain advice about future plans.

- **Function of implicit language**

The hypothesis that interactional discourse contains more implicit contextualisation cues than transactional speech was confirmed. Referring items depending on in-group knowledge are used mostly in utterances with an interactional function.

Whether students consciously choose to use implicit language is debatable. When the language used to express solidarity and test normality is vague and implicit, the use of implicit contextualisation cues could be a strategy for reinforcing the claim for in-group membership. It may, however, simply be a reflection of in-group membership. Students may be aware of the way they talk and use the in-group code consciously to claim membership, or they may unconsciously comply with the Cooperative Principle of Quantity. It is likely that the lexis of the in-group code (e.g.: technical terms, unique and limited range nouns, proper nouns and general words) and humorous

conversational implicature mostly 'claims', while the grammar of the in-group code (e.g.: implicit reference, non-anaphoric definite reference) and unfinished sentences and fillers mostly 'reflect'.

### **10.3 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY**

#### **10.3.1 Categories**

The number and letter coding system used to categorise each item in the analysis was somewhat more detailed than was necessary. The grammatical reference part of the code was one that was particularly unwieldy. For the examination of different parts of it in combination with lexical reference and the functional labels, it was necessary to group together the larger sub-divisions. In order for this model to be truly reproducible, should other discourse analysts wish to use it to examine their data, not only would the grammatical reference part of the code need to be simplified (e.g. the possessive, comparative and ellipsis categories dropped and some of the demonstrative categories collapsed), but also the lexical part would benefit from simplification (e.g. the course-by-context special course nouns merged with non-course nouns).

Even the K area part of the code was more detailed than it needed to be. The real comparison was between course topics and non-course topics: the divisions (K1, K2 and K3) within the non-course topics were somewhat artificial and since they were different sizes, comparison was not always helpful.

The plans to analyse different combinations of various parts of the code and trace at what point each implicit contextualisation cue emerged were also rather ambitious. Whereas general tendencies of implicitness and non-anaphoric reference can be traced, a study of each individual implicit contextualisation cue was not found to be statistically significant, or in fact very useful.

#### **10.3.2 Generalisability**

The conclusions about DAL MSc casual conversations are based on the study of recorded conversations of six recordees who are taken to represent NS in any MSc course talking with another student.

Claims have been made about the generalisability of the in-group code containing the DAL MSc discourse community implicit language (see section 10.2.2 In-group Members), and whenever the researcher sat in the MSc common room in 1993, 1994 and 1995, and observed students' casual conversations informally, she was aware of the abounding "thing"s and non-anaphoric "he"s and "it"s in any year's group. This suggests that subsequent years of MSc students have used a similar in-group code. However, she has not been able to prove that all DAL MSc discourse community members use an in-group code that contains all the elements examined.

This study has the same limitations as all case studies have, in that there can be no guarantee that the particular is representative of the general. Generalisability cannot be proved in case studies or in any psycho-sociological study involving human beings. Reasonable conclusions drawn from common sense can be made, however. The findings of the present study may be generalisable because the size of the database (26,000 words) is great enough to be representative, and because the conditions surrounding the recordings and the variables involved are easily reproducible in any MSc common room.

The six recordees' individualities do not cause particular tendencies to develop in the data that could make the findings in this study not generalisable to any group of NSs. The fact that one recordee uses more expletives than the others or that one is a better solidarity-giver than another does not unbalance the general picture.

### **10.3.3 Impenetrability**

The third limitation is related to the impenetrability test. It would have been more useful if NNS ex-MSc students had also done it, in order to discover how much they understand of the MSc implicit language. This would have shown whether all in-group members understand the code, regardless of first language and regardless of whether they actually are able to use it. It would also have been useful information on which to base any application of findings to teaching.

## **10.4 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH**

In the DAL MSc courses, the general tendency is for the NSs to make a great effort in term one to interact with as many as possible of their NNS colleagues. By term two, with the strain of the course, this enthusiasm has abated somewhat; they no longer

seem to have the time or the energy to make a great effort. It would be useful for the designing of syllabuses for pre-sessional courses, to study NS interactions with NNSs in order to discover where they succeed and where they fail. In terms two and three, NSs limit their social interaction to other NSs and a small number of overseas students who have somehow managed to integrate themselves into the NS group. It would be interesting to study whether these overseas students do better in the course as a result of this.

A similar study, using the model of the implicit language could be carried out on another MSc DAL in-group, so as to support the claims for the generalisability of the study, and it might be revealing to test the hypothesis that the DAL MSc discourse community is typical of all MSc Applied Linguistics discourse communities, or indeed all MSc discourse communities regardless of the specialism.

Research into the casual conversations of any discourse community, academic or otherwise, defined as a group of people who are jointly engaged in fulfilling common goals, using established intercommunication mechanisms, a particular genre and specific lexis (Swales 1990) could be carried out, using the model suggested in this study. The discourse community need not be academic; it could be a football team's supporters, an Alpine Garden Society or animal rights protesters.

Research into the language of casual conversations of other groups of people, such as regular cronies in a local pub or neighbours over a garden fence, might show whether any group of people who interact frequently have a particular implicit language, with its in-group names, limited range terms with non-anaphoric definite specific reference and implicit referring expressions.

## 10.5 APPLICATIONS

It is hoped that this study will have value in itself as a contribution to knowledge about natural spoken language and especially about the implicit language of in-groups. The knowledge could be used in a number spheres of language in society, especially in the field of language teaching. As McCarthy and Carter say,

"By studying the natural patterns of everyday situations, we can come to a much better understanding of what each one demands of participants in terms of cultural and linguistic behaviour. With such information, we are better placed to design syllabuses and materials, evaluate existing ones and, perhaps most important of all, to understand the interpersonal and inter-cultural areas

of language learning that are most sensitive to subtle differences in the manipulation of interpersonal grammars."

(McCarthy and Carter. 1994: 123)

### 10.5.1 English Language Teaching

The findings in this study as regards overseas students' hitches and the wrong answers in the impenetrability test could be used to devise activities to be incorporated in pre-sessional courses for EAP students in British universities. This might imply an awareness-raising session with the teachers themselves on these courses.

In the data, the NNS hitches are due to cultural gaps. NNSs can be helped by pre-sessional courses aimed at awareness-raising of linguistic and interactional culture: slang, and speech act realisations and politeness principles. They need practice in recognising turn-taking and topic shift markers, and using strategies for requesting clarification and introducing irrelevant topics, etc. Use can be made of TEFL course books such as Dörnyei and Thurrell's "Conversation and Dialogues in Action" (1992) which trains students to repair misunderstandings and comprehension problems by providing exercises to practice ways of asking a speaker to repeat or explain, and ways of checking comprehension. The gaps in background knowledge of British culture can be filled by the incorporation of texts on aspects of British student life and traditions and possibly British humour, and by inviting outside lecturers to talk on these subjects.

Few EAP courses incorporate activities that take the social aspect of the students' life into account. EAP course books such as Lynch's "Study Listening" (1983) and Flowerdew's "Academic Listening" (1994) concentrate on training students to listen and speak in formal academic situations: to follow lectures, take notes and participate in tutorials. They do not include exercises intended to prepare them to sit in the common room and interact socially with their colleagues, conversing casually about intellectual matters and referring in an informal way to aspects and components of their academic life.

Few advanced learners' listening and speaking course books concentrate on dialogues in which nothing is happening except that the speakers are passing the time together, realising informatives (informing, reporting, expressing and assessing), keeping a

conversation going to fill the silence agreeably and testing the normality of their experiences and reactions to them.

Course books such as Webster's "Keep Listening" (1981), Underwood and Barr's "Listener's: Men and Women in Society. Students and Their Attitudes" (1982) and even Abbs, Cook and Underwood's "Realistic English Dialogues" (1979) which deals with a group of people "whose social and professional lives interact", contain mostly dialogues and interactive speaking exercises in which the speakers are doing things: organising parties, waiting at bus-stops and suchlike. If the dialogue does not have a predominantly transactional function, at least "something is happening" in the sense that the dialogue is used to demonstrate realisations of directive and requestive speech acts.

Aston (1988) advocates getting away from transactional language and moving towards a more interactive discourse. Course books such as Dörnyei and Thurrell's "Conversations And Dialogues In Action" (1992) do teach advanced students to be sensitive to dialogues in which something is happening under the surface, but even these situations are concerned with negotiating and "getting things done".

Course books tend to introduce dialogues and activities of a public nature: service encounters, interviews, conversations containing the explicit description of events and the explicit expression of opinions. Few course books contain dialogues of a private, intimate nature, containing language that might exclude an outsider. Course books that do contain less public and more intimate dialogues have exercises to train learners to pick up cues about how well people know each other by asking them to look at formality and informality markers, politeness formulas or the lack of them. It is unusual to find an exercise that points to implicit grammatical items and vague lexical items as markers of intimacy, markers of how well the speakers know each other.

On the receptive level, one of the aims of many advanced learner and EAP books is to teach vocabulary with content, and this may be why there are few dialogues in which the vocabulary to be learned from the text is minimal and consists of the non-contentful, the "empty semantically" (Channell 1994) "thing" and "do" and limited range well-known words with a specific in-group meaning such as "group" and "book". In listening to conversations with these features, the comprehension difficulty for the students would lie not with the 'level' of vocabulary, i.e. with low frequency words, or even with the wide variety of referring expressions, but with the fact that

the meaning of relatively high frequency words has to be supplied by the listener using knowledge of the context.

McCarthy and Carter (1994) stress the need to take into account the inferencing principle, when devising a discourse syllabus, so that learners learn to infer linguistic and cultural meaning autonomously. Students are rarely trained to guess what is being talked about, by piecing together vague expressions such as general nouns and verbs, and non-anaphoric definite noun phrases and imagining the referents from the possible context, and rarely are they asked to guess what the conversational implicature is.

Students should also be trained to recognise when their lack of comprehension of casual conversations is because of their own linguistic or cultural gaps, and when it is because of the implicit and vague language. They might take comfort from knowing that NSs of English need to, as Channell (1994) says "draw on pragmatic information in order to identify the intended vague category" (p.143) and that they too can have difficulty understanding implicit language sometimes even when they possess the appropriate world knowledge.

On the productive level, foreign language learners generally look for the most precise and explicit way of expressing themselves in order to ensure that they communicate their meaning. Brown (1979) said that one aspect of acquiring a second language is "learning to be imprecise" and that learners often sound "bookish and pedantic" because they do not know how to use vague expressions. McCarthy (1993) suggests that ellipsis is a system rather than a behaviour; it is an aspect of spoken language that students can be taught explicitly to produce.

Crystal and Davy (1975) emphasise the importance of teaching students to be aware of the appropriateness of imprecision in conversational English, saying that the "lack of precision is one of the most important features of the vocabulary of informal conversation" (p.111). They stress the function of imprecision: "the use of lexical vagueness is undoubtedly a main sign of social and personal relaxation. ... the 'choice' of the vague lexical item is conducive to maintaining the informal atmosphere of the situation" (p.112). Unfortunately, when they discuss the teaching implications of their findings in informal conversations, they do not suggest productive exercises to give students practice in using vague lexis.

Cook (1989) suggests the use of exercises that oblige the student to take into account the common knowledge, evaluate the known information and remove superfluous information from passages. This implies removing complete phrases and words from sentences, but exercises could also be devised that train students to remove content from words and leave less contentful words in their place, and therefore remove explicitness and leave implicitness.

EAP students in pre-sessional courses should be trained to be aware of the function of vague and implicit language using dialogues such as in the data, and to interact appropriately in order to make their own language more acceptable for their colleagues and thus claim in-group membership. They could be given practice in the use of the discourse community implicit language with its metonymical proper nouns and limited range course terms, and its implicit referring expressions such as non-anaphoric "she", "that", "the thing", "something" and general verb "do". They might also be informed of the other functions of vague language, listed by Channell (*ibid.*): being polite, avoiding being offensive and derogatory, and avoiding sounding pretentious.

### **10.5.2 Clinical Pragmatics**

The findings in this study about the function of implicit and vague language in reflecting and possibly claiming in-group membership might also be of some use to those working in clinical pragmatics. A great deal of work has been done on the speaker's compliance with the maxims of quantity and relevance and his ability to refer effectively, and the listener's interpretation of speech acts.

The goal of clinical pragmatics is described by Smith and Leinonen (1992) as that of characterising "clients' communicative behaviour and ability with a view to diagnosis and remediation by considering not only the role of the client in communication but also of the context of situation and of those interacting with the client." (p.44). Clinical pragmatics treats clients with communicative disabilities because of semantic-pragmatic disorders by developing their pragmatic knowledge. Smith and Leinonen say, "Since communicative performance demands the integration of complex knowledge and a variety of skills, the client's confidence to experiment with imperfect abilities is crucial to the acquisition and mobilisation of communicative competence." (*ibid.*: 252).

The part of clinical pragmatics that this study relates to in particular is that which treats clients who have difficulty taking into account the hearer's knowledge and who misinterpret the speakers' meaning. As Smith and Leinonen say, people who have trouble communicating may not be performing speech acts successfully, "because the right things are not being said in the right way at the right time and because the implications of what is said by either party are not fully understood by at least one of the participants" (p.149).

Smith and Leoninen describe the case of a pragmatically dysfunctional boy whose utterances lacked the theme part of information structure corresponding to the unknown. Hassibi and Breuer (1980) found psychotic children who did not realise that words must have shared meaning to be understood and used pronouns without having provided the reference. McTear (1985) cites the case of a boy with "a tendency for literal interpretation, ... failure to use ellipsis, difficulty in making factual and especially causal information clear, ... failure to take his partner's knowledge into account or failure to differentiate between his own and other people's knowledge" (in Smith and Leinonen 1992: 158). Bryan (1988) found that adults with right hemisphere damage had difficulties in speech act comprehension and comprehension of non-literal meanings, an inability to use contextual information to derive meaning and appreciate metaphors, humour, etc.

It may be that dialogues such as the ones in the data could be used to demonstrate to "clients" with semantic-pragmatic disorders how speakers who share a great deal of common knowledge, because they are members of an in-group, take into account the common knowledge and refer to entities in a vague way and yet identify them sufficiently to guarantee communication. In-group conversations could also be discussed by clients and therapists in terms of the non-literal meanings of the humorous conversational implicature. Clients could be made to see the social function of implicit language, and how using it can make them more accepted as one of the group or at least one of a pair.

### **10.5.3 Forensic Linguistics**

The findings in this study about the implicit and vague nature of the language of people who share common knowledge could also help those involved in forensic discourse analysis.

This discipline is a relatively new one (the first British conference of Forensic Linguistics was held in 1992) and the methodology of forensic discourse analysis is still being developed. In forensic linguistics, linguists are asked to analyse the language of police transcripts and either say whether it is authentic or fabricated, or determine the intentions of the interlocutors. They can also be asked to analyse tape-recordings of suspects' conversations and determine the intentions and speech acts involved. The importance of understanding implicit, vague language and recognising the speaker's meaning and intention has been referred to in the literature on this subject.

Coulthard (1992) says that forensic discourse analysis was born as a result of linguists being asked to check whether the written records of witness and suspect interviews and statements have been tampered with by whoever owned the recordings, in most cases the police, and may die as the police forces turn to tape-recording or videotaping interviews. He finds that the fabricator of interview and statement records makes three kinds of mistakes: psycholinguistic ones, ones of quantity and ones of discourse structure. The psycholinguistic mistake is to copy a version of one verbatim record to another word for word, overlooking the fact that speakers do not remember the exact words that they or anyone else has used. The discourse structure mistake is to reproduce the interview with rapid topic-shifts, omitting the characteristic topic-linked follow-up questions.

The quantity mistake is to break the quantity maxim and make nominal groups and clauses "over-explicit". A quantity mistake consists of fabricating discourse in which a speaker gives information that he is known to know, or in which a speaker uses more pre-head or post-head modifiers than is necessary or relevant, as in "Walker was carrying ... two white plastic carrier bags. ... Walker gave me one of the white plastic carrier bags." The fabricator is "creating his text with the overhearer, in this case the court, in mind", forgetting that conversations usually contain utterances shaped for a specific addressee with common knowledge and are consequently "frequently opaque and at times incomprehensible to an overhearer" (p.249).

Shuy (1993) examines transcripts of recordings that have not been tampered with but are being used to accuse a suspect of committing a language crime, such as threatening, offering a bribe and soliciting. He finds that a linguist is needed to analyse the discourse, because laymen often have a number of misconceptions about language. These misconceptions are: believing that meaning is found in individual words, that all

people in a conversation understand the same things by their words and that people say what they mean and intend. With regard to the misconception about speaker's meaning and intention, he suggests that a linguist very familiar with the tape-recording is in the best position to analyse speakers' compliance with the maxim of relevance and speech acts such as promising and admitting. The linguist can determine how these are affected by factors such as setting and role relationships and decide whether a language crime has been committed.

Discussing the second of these misconceptions, Shuy cites what he calls "vague reference", as in "The man came today" used by a wife to a husband and "incomplete sentences or ambiguously uttered ones" in which third person personal pronouns are "the major culprit" (p.16). When pronouns are "imperfectly referenced", says Shuy, even though the interlocutors share knowledge of the world, feelings, beliefs and concerns, the listener may infer the wrong meaning and the speaker may not realise that he has been misunderstood. He suggests that often only a linguist who has listened to the tape 50 times and can "walk in the shoes" of the participants, can detect such ambiguities and thus say whether Y accepts X's bribe, agrees to his illegal plan, etc.

These findings can be stated in the terms of the present study. Coulthard is citing the repeated super-explicit noun phrase as an unnatural feature of any conversation, once the topic has been established and enough background information provided. Shuy is quoting the use of an implicit non-anaphoric definite noun phrase with an unmodified general noun and implicit non-anaphoric personal pronouns, as markers of interlocutors who share knowledge of the world, feelings, etc. and as sources of communication hitch.

The model of implicit contextualisation cues and other pointers to common knowledge which are markers of intimacy could be used in forensic discourse analysis. The model could be used to detect tampering with transcribed records of interviews taking place well into the questioning, i.e. once the police officer can be assumed to be familiar with most of the referents.

The model could also be used in the analysis of conversations between suspects. It could help towards determining whether suspects were speaking for the first time or whether they had known each other for a length of time before the conversation and could possibly be accused of working in cahoots. The model may help towards

determining whether suspects were conspiring. If the language was more vague and implicit than required, they could be said to have the intention to make the communication impenetrable to any overhearer, and to have something to hide. The "give-away" might be a hitch in communication because of the language being too implicit for even the intended hearer.

## **10.6 CONCLUSION**

This thesis has described a longitudinal study of the formation of the implicit language of an academic discourse community. It has shown that the knowledge area assumed has as great an influence on the form of the language as the effect of increasing knowledge with interaction over time. Although the generalisability of this case study is questionable, it is hoped that the findings constitute a contribution to linguistics and that they may be useful in the fields of Teaching English as a Foreign Language, clinical pragmatics and forensic linguistics.

# APPENDIX I : PLAIN TRANSCRIPTION OF ALL DATA USED

## PERIOD 1 : OCTOBER 4 - NOVEMBER 7

### OCTOBER 4

- MM So you were in em  
(0.5)
- AM In Sudan.
- MM Sudan.
- AM Mmm. I've been there for three years but um one year em promoted one year and that included two years.
- MM Was that with the Council?
- AM No-no. Em (1) That's for the Sudanese government.(0.5) And then er (0.5) I actually applied for a job in Gabbitas through Gabbitas.
- CM Yeah they they do a lot of private em secondary school don't they.
- AM So I was with them. But.  
(2)
- BM What did you say? Advertised through what.
- AM Gabbitas Thring is um an educational er appointments agency. (1) Yeah, through them we'd intended to go to Argentina er (4) but that fell through.
- BM I actually did (2) have a job set up in Argentina. Same thing happened. Fell through. It was inflation. And then it came back on again.
- AM Oh.
- BM By that stage I thought no way. (ha ha) Cos of inflation. You know they said it was under control. Well, I was looking at it later and I thought well=  
=You fancy getting it clear.
- CM =You fancy getting it clear.
- BM Yeah I-I don't fancy this.
- AM Oh so you know because my wife had to change her name. (2) Because apparently the Argentinean authorities re-must have you must have the same name on your passport as your birth certificate. And my wife had changed her name because her parents had (0.5) divorced and em her mother had married again. (0.5) But she'd always been known by one name. So we changed it back and in between that of course em we'd been married at that stage so now she has three names.
- BM (Heh heh heh heh heh)
- AM and then of course we didn't get the job.  
(13)
- BM So how about yourself MM?
- MM Em I taught in Japan like CM did a couple of years eh south coast for years (0.5) and couple of months here and there Portugal, Italy, was in Saudi Arabia for three months but.
- BM Well did you like it.
- MM It was interesting. Three months is enough though.
- CM Were you on a compound or were you.
- MM Yeah. Mainly in a compound. Teaching military telecommunications.  
(3)

- BM That was some time ago was it?  
 MM About two and a half - three years ago yeah.  
 BM Ah right.  
 (4)  
 MM A lot of the Sudanese in Saudi. I mean a lot of the (0.5) a lot of the clerical work (0.5) a lot of the stuff like I mean say mid-management work are done by Palestinians.  
 BM Yes=  
 MM =Egyptians Sudanese Somalis.  
 AM I think that was one of the problems with Kuwaitis. (2) Half their work force about a million people was made up of (0.5) foreign Arabs. I think the Sudanese quite a lot of Sudanese go to em Saudi Kuwait and places like that. They bring in a lot of foreign currency that way.  
 (3)  
 MM I think I might go and have another bun.  
 AM I thought I was going to get another one.  
 BM Could you get me a tuna and sweet corn one please.  
 AM Me as well.

### OCTOBER 11

- MM But then afterwards someone said later the hypnotist actually whispered in your ear what you do.  
 FF So it wasn't hypnotism at all then.  
 MM No it was hypno- they were hypnotised. They weren't - they weren't - they didn't know what they were doing.  
 FF Did they guy volunteer or did he=  
 MM =Yeah the guy volunteered. I'm not saying he wasn't hypnotised. It's just that I met someone afterwards and they said that what was happening was things like em (1) like at one-one point they got these glasses. OK. And they put these glasses on these blokes. And the blokes acted as if the audience was naked.  
 BM (heh heh)  
 FF Everyone was naked. (heh heh heh heh)  
 MM Was naked yeah. And they definitely were. There's no doubt about it. Whatever the hypnotist said to them. I mean you just had to see their faces. I mean just such little horrid smug expressions. Like this (1)  
 BM (heh heh // heh)  
 MM //And the and the and the guy. One guy was shaking his head around. He just couldn't believe it. He was so excited.  
 FF Remember you used to get //adventures  
 BM // (heh heh heh)//  
 FF // just like that on the back of American  
 comics. On Superman comics. You see // glasses  
 BM // Yeah. X-ray glasses.  
 FF Where you saw X-ray glasses=  
 MM =but actually - in it - and one guy - there was three guys on the stage. No-one was actually disappointed which seemed to me quite sort of ruined it and he wouldn't let the hypnotist take his glasses off. No!  
 FF (heh heh heh heh)  
 (2)

- AM Yeah. I've been to one of those sessions. Some-somebody was supposed to be er (0.5) what do you call it - it was a woman and there was somebody else - a man who was supposed to be a stripper going down the aisle.
- BM And he hypnotised him.
- AM Yeah.
- BM Oho. I think that's // wicked.
- AM // it was in em=
- BM =(heh // heh heh)
- AM //It was in em - where was it (1) in em in em (0.5) George Street in em the Chambers er. And they had to come down this aisle (0.5) in the middle of the audience - kind of.  
(1)
- BM And they did.
- MM And again there were these two blokes. I mean one they were Olivia Newton John and em // whatever the character's called. John Travolta.
- BM // (heh heh) Hang on. Where did you see this. What is // it
- MM // This is in Fresher's  
Week at at the Pleasance.
- BM Oh.
- MM And eh and you know and they did all the stuff (1) and it wasn't quite so good and this one guy he'd obviously seen the Grease film and he was a fat slob of a guy. He was doing all the movements like John Travolta does and otherwise never ever did because he looked such a prat. The hypnotist s-said afterwards that - you could just see it once and it could stick in your mind and come out at the appropriate place. And the other guy obviously hadn't seen the film. He'd just heard it. So his act wasn't very good. But they were playing such male female roles these two blokes.
- AM (heh heh)
- BM What you mean he hypi - he hypno - he hypnotised one of the blokes into being a // (heh heh heh)
- MM // Yeah one one of the blokes was Olivia Newton John and one of the blokes was John Travolta.
- BM A::h. That's really sick.
- FF When - when he snapped them out of it? What - I mean did these guys slink off shame-faced or what.
- MM No cos that's one of the interesting things. 95% of the people who this happens to they know exactly what's happening all the time. There's no I didn't know what I was doing. They know what they're doing. But it just seemed like a good idea at the time.
- FF // (heh heh heh) I know the feeling.
- BM // (heh heh heh)
- MM That's the only way they can express it. They're they're perfectly conscious. (0.5) I mean. And like and like at one point this guy said to him who's the who do you like most of all you know who's the most best looking girl and he's not hypnotised at this point and he said I think Christine or someone no, no a woman who's a pretty woman
- BM // Eh
- MM // Julie Roberts
- AM She's very shy.
- BM (heh heh) I don't like her.
- MM So so he keeps he's got this really incredible part. He's got this really quick way of hypnotising people. He just goes like this. They're - they're- they're just talking

normally and he just brings his hand up boom and they're gone. And that's how initially he hypnotises them. Then he just goes ((click)) and they're just completely gone. No problem at all.

AM // (heh heh heh)

FF // (heh heh heh)

MM And so he said he said listen to me I am em (0.5) Julie Roberts. When - when you wake up you're going to be like Julie Roberts.

FF (heh heh heh // heh heh)

BM // (heh heh heh)

MM And then he starts looking around and he comes over and sits on his knee and really really you know obviously hypnotised and the hypnotist. No the the guy comes to sit on- on Julie Robert's knee an immensely big guy really he's a big fat slob of a guy.

BM (heh heh heh)

MM And another thing the one who's wearing these glasses the the hypnotist walks in front of the guy with the glasses on and the guy with the glasses goes urghh! He suddenly saw through yeah.

FF (heh heh heh)

MM It was horrific.

FF You haven't said what they've done when they came to again. When he snapped them out of it. (0.5) Did they (0.5)

MM Um. Well what happened is // that

FF // I mean when you wake up are you sitting on the=

MM =No no like the last - the last thing that he did was to use an example was er (0.5) Gary Glitter the Gary Glitter thing Gary Glitter. And so what was happening was that it really got the audience going. He was saying Get up come on. He got to really make him go. Get up and make Gary go. There was a lot of standing on chairs and such and that's when he brought him out. And when he brought him out everyone really sort of stood up and yeah! And and he he really came out then. Then he came out.

FF Yeah.

MM All of them when they came out one by one. And they ((unintelligible)) So everyone was cheering. So they got really good. And when they were on stage they got such a round of applause.

## OCTOBER 18

NM We were discussing er current research methods in Applied Linguistics.

BM Is that right.

NM It's a learned discussion.

NF I'm coming. I've just arrived. I'm coming.  
(0.5)

NM Mhm? With us?

NF I think so.

NM // With us?

BM // No no you're in X's group I think.

NF Oh yes sorry. I keep thinking you're X.

NM Oh. (heh heh)

BM (heh heh heh heh) We all look the same!  
(2)

NM Em well we yes OK.

BM Hang on. There's somebody else.

- NM Er::: Y is not here.
- BM Ah. Y doesn't come on // Oh he's
- NM // No. I don't know. I mean he isn't here now. (2) Er, this is  
BM's I think.
- BM Oh that's mine sorry thank you.
- AM I'll just go and nip down and get some coffee. If that's all right?
- NM Yes. That's all right.
- BM Well I don't know actually. // We have we are all ready er
- NM // Probably start without you. (heh) We're already ten  
minutes late so.  
(5)
- BM Um. What we decided was we-we got did you get that em list em (2) the em the sh-  
topic sheet from XX on- on Monday.
- FF No I had it I had it read out on the phone to me last night.
- BM Um because we- we decided to do one topic each.  
(2)
- FF In the group.
- BM // Yeah.
- NM // Yes.
- FF Oh I see right.
- BM But I mean you obviously er I don't know.
- FF So these are the ones that you two chose while I // was
- BM // Yeah. (0.5) Is that all right?
- FF Yeah. (0.5) Except I don't know now what I'm=  
BM =Ahm.
- NM Um I mean we all have the same problem I think.
- BM That was it. (0.5) Well I (2) ah right yeah. (1) I wrote some- some lines here.  
(1)
- NM That's fairly lengthy.
- BM Ah but well I had I had a lot of free time! (2) Um. (3) Oh yeah. (2) Where's my pen.
- AM ((Returns)) I don't know I'm not doing very well with liquids today. ((whispered))
- BM // (heh heh)
- AM // (heh heh)
- BM Did you have some kind of accident.
- AM Well at six thirty this morning. (0.5) Downstairs (0.5) comes up and rings the door  
bell.
- BM Aha.
- AM I've got er- I've got water dripping on my head. Have you got a leak in your flat. (0.5)  
And I've got a leak in my flat. So yeah liquids and me are just not like that at the  
moment. Not getting on. (4) Who did the=  
BM =Well I did I did the=  
NM =I did the computers=  
AM =You did the computers=  
BM =I did em the literary // thing. The literary language one.  
AM // I did the I did the business one. And I like what I did very  
well actually.
- BM Oh did you. You did! Very good! That's great. (heh heh heh) (1) Well do you want us  
to take it to pieces or something?
- AM Yeah yeah yeah go on. Rip it to pieces.

## OCTOBER 25

- DM No but yesterday we had to come in for ten didn't we.  
 BF Oh I see.  
 DM I forgot to change it.  
 BF OK.  
 DM That's why // I  
 AF // You mean you didn't get up earlier and make the most of the extra time?  
 (0.5)  
 DM No I-I thought no I actually woke up at about er quarter to eight and I could've got on the bus I could have made it and I thought oh bloody hell I'll stay in the house.  
 AF Mmm.  
 (1.5)  
 DM And I did. (1) But I know I didn't make the most of the extra time.  
 (2)  
 AF Do you - you have to get a bus at the foot of Leith Walk? (0.5) Walk along to there?  
 DM No. There's a bus stop er about two minutes walk away from the house.  
 AF Is there?  
 DM Mhm.  
 AF And what do you get what - what bus do you get from there then?  
 DM It's an eighty - s'an eighty nine. (1) It's the number of the bus I mean it // goes round down  
 AF // One of those  
 ones that goes away out of town into Midlothian.  
 (0.5)  
 DM Yeah. Where it goes after that I've no idea but  
 AF Sort of Bonnyrigg or somewhere like that.  
 DM Right. (0.5) I mean I've got on a couple of times I've got buses going the wrong way. That's a nightmare. These circular buses. //You get on them going the wrong way.  
 BF // I've done that  
 BM They change numbers don't they.  
 DM You can // really really  
 AF // Well we know at least they don't the - the one and the six are different numbers. They used to just be the one both // ways.  
 DM // Mmm?  
 (2)  
 AF Which um. (1) On the thirty five and the thirty four - well the thirty - the thirty five goes both ways. (0.5) It's the thirty four in the other direction. I think. (0.5) It's very confusing where - we live cos just near Julian's school the thirty four and the thirty five both go in both directions. If you get the wrong one it branches off. // (heh heh)  
 DM // Right.  
 // Mhm.  
 BF // Yeah.  
 (7)  
 BM I had a really bizarre conversation with a bus driver over that and em it was early in the morning and he had the particular kind of accent that I c- didn't quite catch everything he said. He didn't quite catch everything I said either. So it was working both ways. So we had this really confusing conversation. (0.5) I was on the wrong bus. But anyway I'd got on it.

- BF (heh heh) (1) We had a really neurotic bus driver this morning. Cos he (0.5) there must be something wrong with his hearing and everybody was getting on and saying forty please. He said well what kind of fare do you want? You know  
// (heh heh heh)
- DM // (heh heh heh)
- BM // (heh heh)
- BF I wish you'd speak up you know. (heh heh) Really annoyed with everybody.
- DM Demented bus driver.
- BF // (heh heh heh)
- AF // (heh heh heh) You get the occasional one. (2.5) The wild ones are on the on the green buses actually. They go at a hell of a rate. Don't stop for anything. If you got to // want to get somewhere
- BF // Limited stop buses are they?
- AF No just the no they're just em the the SMT buses // the green ones that go
- BF // Oh.
- AF into Saint Andrew's Square. The big ones and the little ones and the (0.5) I d- I don't know. I think they're on some sort of productivity bonus or something.
- BF (heh heh)
- DM What the more times they go round. // (heh heh)
- AF // Yeah something like that.
- BF Sponsored bus drivers. // (heh heh)
- DM // (heh heh heh)
- AF // (heh)
- BM They give change don't they.
- AF They do.
- BM They're sort of we give change!
- DM If you can get on the bus you get change then.
- BF Ah right. // That's good.
- DM // Yeah.
- AF If you don't mind breaking your leg as you try and get on. (heh heh) Really old buses too.  
(1)
- BF Exactly yeah.
- AF Where- where do you stay then BF.  
(0.5)
- BF It's a house opposite King's Buildings.
- AF Oh that's not too handy is it.
- BF It's not too bad. I don't mind. I mean (0.5) // It's about ten minutes on the bus.
- AF // I suppose yeah. Yeah.
- BF And I can walk it there in thirty minutes.
- AF Yeah. Yes it's not too bad.
- BF And King's Building's got a bar and stuff like that. You know if I was // going to
- AF // Yeah
- BF And the house is really nice so. (0.5) I reckon it's all right.  
(5)
- AF Are you going to wander and find our the rest of our group.
- BF Yeah. I suppose we'd better hadn't we. (0.5) How did you get on with this then.  
(2)
- BM I did. I went through it. (0.5) Sort of see if I can predict. And I reached the stage where I'd no idea.

- BF Yeah.  
(1)
- BM And also when I- when I was looking back I realised I actually hadn't read the first part again which gave me a real big clue for one of the first. It was really stupid.
- BF Yeah.
- BM But em (1.5) I didn't do any reading. (0.5) I just had one book which wasn't on the list which was too- too long really to give // me any conclusions.
- BF // No I- I haven't read anything specific for it.  
(2.5) But you could sort of (2) do the exercise without having read anything.
- BM No I know that. But I just - just - some background to it. But (0.5) I did the exercise.  
(2) I did it before I went to bed. (heh heh heh)
- BF Has anybody done their syntax?  
(1)
- DM // I did it yesterday. Oh that's what I was doing yeah.
- BM // No I haven't looked at it yet. Oh you were doing it in the library weren't you.  
You're well ahead aren't you.
- BF Can you=  
DM =I'm going away this weekend. So had to do it.
- BF Yah. I've got to do it as // well.
- DM // He made a mistake. And I wanted to show one of you somebody actually. I think he made a mistake yesterday when he was putting them up when the diagram was up I think he got one wrong.  
(0.5)
- BF Oh I didn't copy them all down. I didn't have time. I was trying to listen rather than copy.
- DM I wanted to ask him about that.  
(0.5)
- BF Well you know the can I just ask you about the exercises. There-there are some that say children like sweets.

## NOVEMBER 1

### NOVEMBER 1 DIALOGUE A

- BM The one down Canongate.
- BF Mmm. Has she backed out now?
- BM No- no. Because they haven't offered her the job. Necessarily. But what it is is occasional. So it might be=  
AF =So they're not actually offering a job as such. // They're offering to employ her  
BM // No it's not too  
AF as a free-lance. That's what most of the schools here // do.  
BM // That's right yeah. (0.5) So they're offering er - well they haven't offered her anything. But they said well it might be hopefully like two hours. (0.5) a day for maybe a two-week block.
- AF Yeah.
- BM And then nothing.
- AF Yeah that's the sort of thing I get.  
(2)
- BM But (heh heh) laughing afterwards cos they said the- the interview was really simplistic.(0.5) You know you only get like- like- the woman hadn't read the CV

because Julie's been teaching for three or four years now and they've been teaching for much longer I know that. But she's asking her questions like (0.) if-if Julie couldn't answer the questions=

AF =(heh heh)=

BM =then- then Julie would have to would have had to've been really stupid. Like what's the difference between monolingual and multilingual classes.

AF // Oh for goodness' sake.

BF // Oh God.

BM For goodness sake you know. And the woman asking them has got thirteen years of experience in the British Council. She made-made the- made that very clear from the beginning. For goodness sake- Je- . There are ways of finding out these not ask- so what happens in that // situation

AF // Insulting actually isn't it.

BM It's insulting you see. That's what Julie found.

AF Put somebody's back up.

BM She said you- you think I'm lying. (0.5) You know and- and she brought her certificates and everything and that. And then she'd go we- we have to phone about these. (1) We have to phone them up you know because well you know there are a lot of cowboy outfits and cowboy teachers and we have to make sure that we've got professional teachers. (0.5) You know Julie said- and then the other side of it- so you think I'm lying?

BF Yeah. Yeah.

BM I mean I know you've got to sort of verify them but I'm not saying that. But there's ways of doing it.

AF So yeah putting it that way is really a bit=

BM =And then it was only for a really occasional (heh) occasional work // offer.

AF // I know I think

most of them most of the English schools here are cowboy outfits anyway so.

NF In-in Edinburgh or in this country.

AF In Edinburgh. (heh heh).

BM She said the school was absolutely beautiful.

BF Was it?

AF Oh really?

BM Inside really // very well kitted out.

AF // I haven't been there.

BF Oh that's unusual. Cos they u-usually have really awful // premises. I mean everything

BM // Exactly. But no you come in she says it's really impressive the reception area's really impressive em really well decorated. And there's a students sort of common room area. She showed- brought me the brochure. And I said does it really look like that. It does. (1) Really sort of modern and clean and well painted. (1.5)

AF Well they must be doing all right.

BM Must be yeah. But they've only got two teachers and they're going down to thirty students in February. It's sort of low. Then they start picking up March April. Not surprising really.

(2)

AF Sounds plausible. Branching out a bit.

(5)

- BF So does that mean that she's- well obviously she'll look for something else then as well.
- BM Just keep looking. Yeah. I mean they haven't nes- they haven't necessarily offered it to her but I-I think they're desperate. (0.5) What I think they need to have people on tap=
- BF =Yeah=
- BM =to cover their hours because they offer students (0.5) certain facilities and if a student wants it like extra classes over and above their- their time table classes=
- AF =they've got to have it. Well this yeah this is the catch because I mean crummy places that I've been working for for the last couple of years they do just the same sort of thing. They try to persuade you (0.5) to be available but they're not prepared to pay any retainer. They want to be able to phone you up and have you come in. And of course you know half the time they can't so they're left scrabbling around. I mean you know they're only. (1) Nobody with any repute is able to do that anyway. (0.5) Um (0.5)
- BF Yeah.
- AF Um. (0.5) So they're only sort of able to get people who are in between things or in or who are retired and not sort of doing very much anyway or pe-people teaching during vacations. S-so it's really pot luck for the students.
- BM That's the other side of it as well.
- AF A real shame.
- AF It's quite demoralising.
- BM But on the other hand it's it's (0.5) its- it would be useful to do that work (0.5) for the future like for example for the summer. Get yourself known around places.
- BF Mmm.
- BM So you're in a position to get a job. (1)
- BF Has she applied to all the like FE places here.
- BM Yep. (0.5) The FE pla- she's not quite sure who's in charge of what but she's applied for education- adult education classes. That's FE as well isn't it.
- AF Yes it is.
- BM Plus it's you can't canvass for them. (1)
- BF Oh really.
- BM Yeah. I'm not quite sure which ones you can't canvass. Some you can canvass and some you can't. If you canvass for the ones you can't you're disqualified. (1) You're put down as I'm not sure how it works. But there you go.
- AF What do you mean by canvassing. Does it mean ring // up
- BM // Ring up and say have you got a job for me. // I'm- I'm a so and so
- AF // Yeah. You've got to actually go through the=
- BM =You've got to go through // the
- AF // the community education department.
- BM Supposedly.
- AF Or the education department. Yeah basic- yeah (6)
- BF What about the Institute here. (2)
- BM They have their full complement. (1)
- AF You know I mean I'm beginning to realise why=

((unintelligible : conversations mix))

- BM You're beginning to realise what?  
 AF I'm beginning to realise why em why jobs in language schools run out so sharply in the autumn and in the spring. It's all these damn MSc students and their wives,  
 // (heh heh)  
 BM // (heh heh heh heh)  
 AF Now I know why I was never wanted after October.  
 BF Yeah that's right. (heh)

## NOVEMBER 1 DIALOGUE B

- AM Did you hear that CM.  
 CM No.  
 AM She said how-how can I be sure that when I send - send them my cheque they won't they won't just take the cheque and not send me the computer. She's sending it to a reputable British company.  
 CM Well could be this is this is the UK that's why. (heh)  
 AM Well no this just doesn't happen here in the Western world.  
 CM You're buying a computer?  
 NF Yeah. They sent me this.  
 AM And they persuaded=  
 CM =The best thing to do is use a che- master card or something.  
 NF I don't have a master card.  
 CM That's actually it's a good question. (0.5) Like like they always tell you when you buy a computer use a master card because (0.5) then if you don't get what you want then you don't pay the master card and the master card has problems not you.  
 (0.5)  
 NF Yeah. But I have to do a lot of you know to go to the bank again and ask for a master card.  
 CM Yeah. Are you buying the same things here?  
 ((Unintelligible : Italian mixed))  
 NF The same. Yeah. The same model. And because it's cheaper.  
 (1)  
 CM It's cheaper. How much is it.  
 AM Three hundred quid. Less. Two // nine four.  
 CM // Three hundred?  
 AM Two nine four with delivery // charge.  
 NF // Two nine four. Yeah.  
 (0.5)  
 CM You don't get a hard drive do you.  
 AM No. Two disk drives.  
 (0.5)  
 NF Two?  
 CM Well that's six hundred dollars.  
 (1)  
 NF It says in the advertisement it is two hundred forty five. Why do we pay // two nine  
 AM // Ah cos  
 cos  
 NF It's the post?  
 AM In subscript underneath it says plus VAT em

- ((unintelligible : Italian mixed))
- AM On top of which is seventeen and a half per cent. It's just that if you're a business you don't pay VAT. So that's why they=
- NF =If you're a business=
- AF =You do but you get it back.
- AM Well yeah. You get it back. (0.5) If you're lucky.
- NF But my father is in a // business!
- CM // But you have to // pay
- AM // The only way you // get
- NF // He can come over for me.
- AM Listen. Listen. Because you're a foreigner in fact because you're a foreigner you can not pay VAT.
- CM No you guys. Show them your passport and it says you have a temporary visa and then=
- AF =You've got to take it out. I don't think you get it back while you're in the country.
- AM Yeah presu=
- CM =They only send you to check that after you've left the country.
- AM Yes that's right. When you go through customs.
- NF Yeah?
- AM Do you have this form. When you go through customs there's a special place you go to and you get it back but I think if you stayed if you lived here for a year it comes out.
- CM Yeah.
- NF No but if I take it with me.
- AM But if you bought it just before you went at Christmas you might be able to get the VAT back.
- NF Right. // I have
- AM // Which is which is fifty pounds.
- AF Well except you'd have to take it.
- NF // with me.
- AF // and not bring it back.
- NF Yeah you couldn't bring it back in then.
- AF In fact it's not a lot easier.
- CM Yeah. You could bring it back.
- AM No. You wouldn't. They stamp it. (1) Export. (1.5)
- CM They stamp it where.
- AM On your passport. Well they do it with cars anyway. They put it on your passport. (4) And that's that's a another problem. When you go home. You know you're not supposed to do that. You're not supposed to import stuff.
- NF Yeah but this this is just for er for January 1992. I have this er=
- AM =No-no no.
- NF No. ((unintelligible))
- AM Yeah ((unintelligible)) It'll come ten years later. (1) So when when you go through customs you just have to say it's yours. Cos I-I had a little machine you've probably realised and I just said well you know I'm not selling. It it's mine. (0.5)
- NF Yeah.

- AM And they write it in your passport. My-my father's car they write it in his passport. He's taking the car out the country and he can't leave the country without the car. (1) They'll probably let you. Just let just arrive late at night=  
 AF =That'd be a bit different because Greece is your home. And yet there's no reason why you shouldn't take it out.  
 AM Yeah. There is because she might sell it there you see. There's this there's there's this tax on luxury items.  
 CM Yeah let's do this. We've only got like twenty minutes.

## NOVEMBER 7

- BF Are you working pretty hard.  
 MM Yes.  
 FF I'm going to send you a- I'll tell you in class.  
 BF I-I think we should em  
 (2)  
 BM Do we=  
 BF =show what happens when discourse breaks down. // (heh heh heh)  
 BF // Aah! (0.5) Someone hog the  
 whole conversation.  
 (0.5)  
 NF No let's say // something that makes sense like  
 BF // Yeah say something rude.  
 BM There's a lot of pressure isn't it.  
 NF Yeah we're in groups. We have to divide into groups.  
 (1)  
 BM Er what ha- I didn't pick my thing up. Did we have a thing to pick up?  
 BF Yeah. You've got a task to do with one (0.5) with one other person. It's been divi- the task the whole task has been divided up between the group.  
 NF Yes.  
 BM What this one?  
 BF // No.  
 BM // No. What are we talking about.  
 BF To // day's.  
 BM // Today's. No who's (0.5) I haven't got one of those. That's // no  
 BF // Stop panicking.  
 What's wrong with you boy. // (heh heh heh)  
 BM // (heh heh heh) So who've I been divided up with.  
 MM With X. And she's not here. So you've got the whole damn thing to do. // (heh heh)  
 BF // (heh heh)  
 BM But I haven't got the thingymajog in my em=  
 BF =Are you sh-sure about that? Can you prove it? (1) Thingymajog!  
 NF What's that. A jog?  
 BF It-it should be thingymajig. (0.5) It means thingy. (0.5) When you can't find the right word.  
 NF // Ah.  
 BF // Right? And it should be thingymajig. It means thingymajog.  
 NF (heh heh) It doesn't mean anything!  
 BF (heh heh) No it doesn't mean anything anyway.(0.5) Thingymajog.  
 NF It seems like I don't have to worry about that. (heh heh heh)

- BM No you don't.
- BF No don't worry.
- BM (( Spanish)). I haven't got anything.  
(0.5)
- NF Do you want to see mine? What do you want.
- BF Sociolinguistics.
- BM I-I haven't got a bit of paper there so what was my task.
- NF Yeah. Oh where's mine. Oh yeah. Ho ho ho ho.
- BM Do you know what I did yesterday. I managed you know I s-spent a long time on it but I actually didn't get to the end of the bloody task. (heh heh)
- BF Well your task was (1) number one. You had to do the (2) all of that. (6) Yes you had to present these points. (1) So go for it.
- BM ((reads quickly in an undertone))  
(10)
- BF I read it once.
- MM There are a few questions we have to answer so=
- BF =Yeah. (1) Are we going to this altogether now or are we going=
- MM =No- no- no- no.
- BF Right.
- BM Could you just read out the like no just the situ- it was the situation?  
(1.5)
- BF The situation.
- BM Yeah.
- BF Researchers. (0.5) Who did it like.
- BM Hold on. Researchers. Yeah.=
- BF =Methods.
- BM Methods.
- BF Data.
- BM Data.
- BF Results.
- BM Results.
- BF Conclusion drawn by researchers and by Fasold. Ha ha.
- BM Oh no!
- BF I haven't done that . (0.5) And your comments please. (2) Mr. BM what are your comments on this. Here's X . You're all right.

## PERIOD 2 : JANUARY 13 - FEBRUARY 10

## JANUARY 13

## JANUARY 13 DIALOGUE A

- CM Did you study pretty hard so far?  
(1.5)
- AM Um.
- CM You study at home I suppose.
- AM No, I did quite a bit of work in the National.
- CM Oh the National Library?
- AM In the National yeah. (1) And I've been I've been pleased with the progress of essay type questions. I've been doing a lot of the grammar. I did a lot of the grammar recently.
- CM Oh you have // excellent.
- AM // Of the grammar. Not necessarily coming up with the answer but I just I don't know it. // That was all.
- CM // Are you taking that option this- this term.
- AM Eh no next term. Gram- Grammar Two. But it I mean it's it's just (0.5) I don't know. It's just I don't know. Bloody tosh. isn't it.
- CM Well it's- it's a bit abstract.  
(1)
- AM But things like this linguistics as well. You know I don't mi-mind it.
- CM You still got enough time for that?  
(0.5)
- AM There's not a lot of things they can ask. Cos we haven't actually done it that deeply have we.
- CM I've spent the most time right now on all this all this load of er in Language and Linguistics.
- AM // Yes.
- CM // Cos I really want to answer that question. // Em.
- AM // Though though I haven't I haven't done any Chomsky. (1) Probably a bit late // now.
- CM // Chomsky doubles up in Psycholinguistics.  
There'll be a question on him in that.
- AM And I've I've haven't done anything about the Psycholinguistics. I haven't done Chomsky. Which is (0.5) probably very stupid but you // know.
- CM // Avoiding Chomsky in Linguistics is:: procrastination I think.
- AM We::ll. No em avoiding it in terms of em (1.5) in terms of er I mean obviously in relation to other things you've got to=  
=Yeah=  
= but not necessarily you know in depth. Cos (0.5) I mean things like Linguistics Research and that stuff in Language and Linguistics. It's quite interesting actually. I was really quite pleased. I mean it's (2) I don't know. I'll be glad when it's finished.  
(1)
- CM Yeah // it's

- AM // I'm not really into it.  
 (4)
- CM Now XX's got me scared.  
 AM Why.  
 CM Well she said // Yes I'm afraid they do mark hard.  
 AM // Oh yeah yeah thanks XX. Cheers.  
 (3)
- CM I'd rather expect that than think they mark easy and then be disappointed.  
 AM Yeah.  
 (4.5)
- CM What's a good mark again?  
 AM Eight. But it's eight out of nine.  
 CM What's a decent mark. Six?  
 AM Oh six or seven.  
 CM Five's a bad mark right?  
 AM I think we get five we're fine.  
 CM It's the other mark I want.  
 AM You don't want -. No I don't like living near the edge. (0.5) Not me  
 (1)
- CM Pay five thousand pounds to scrape by.  
 AM Yeah I haven't got money for that at all.  
 (30) ((unintelligible : BF enters))
- AM Did you go to Manchester over Christmas?  
 BF I did yeah. Just for a week. (0.5) A short visit.  
 AM Came back here for Hogmanay?  
 BF Yeah.  
 AM Was it good?  
 BF It was good yeah. It was a bit crowded though. Cos we all met up er in the town centre at ten o'clock. (0.5) And when we got there. (0.5) they'd stopped serving.  
 (1)
- AM Ten o'clock?  
 BF About ten o'clock. All- all pubs had stopped serving. We- // we really!  
 AM // (heh heh)
- BF We hadn't had anything to drink and sort of and we couldn't believe it. What this is Scottish New Year you know? (0.5) Anyway eventually after walking round the pubs for about an hour (0.5) we got to one that Dave and I usually go to. (0.5) It can be a bit rough but it // it has  
 AM // Which one is it.  
 BF It's the Royal Oak. Right and they have live music. (0.5) We got there and they were serving so everybody desperately ran to the bar and got a drink.  
 AM Yeah.  
 BF And then we went to the Tron at midnight.  
 AM Right.  
 BF Which is that square where they=  
 AM =Trample all over you. I got I got // I did  
 BF // Well they didn't actually. It was it was very good (0.5) er (0.5) humanly. I mean people were (0.5) I mean there was lots of you know sort of pushing and shovelling around but it wasn't (0.5) they weren't shoving you on the ground and // things like that which I mean I believe in Trafalgar Square it gets  
 AM // Yeah yeah yeah

BF // quite nasty  
 AM // I've- so I've heard yeah.  
 BF You know it was very good humoured. So we did that then we went to // er  
 AM // on to X's  
 party after that then?  
 BF We went to BM and Julie's.  
 AM Oh yeah.  
 (1)  
 BF I mean we were going to go to Leith but (1) well h:: I mean I just got too tired. I just  
 couldn't be bothered. (heh) (1) So what did you do?  
 AM I don't know actually. Nothing. No em what-what did we do.  
 AF Did you go to your wife's parents'?  
 AM Yeah. And first footed.

### JANUARY 13 DIALOGUE B

NF Are you going to Stylistics?  
 CM Mm?  
 NF Are you going to Stylistics.  
 CM No.  
 NF Oh.  
 CM Is that er XX?  
 NF No it's:: YY.  
 (12)  
 CM Oh I've got (1) Second Language Acquisition and Language Programme Design.  
 NF Ah.  
 (12)  
 AM What's that.  
 CM It's my schedule.  
 (0.5)  
 AM Oh that's pretty impressive. It's your er  
 CM Oh yeah. It's easy.  
 AM Yeah?  
 CM Yeah. Has a has a tabling feature. You just write in this side and write in the top and  
 then every time you tab it goes to the next box.  
 AM Really. That's very // good.  
 CM // Yeah it's very good.  
 AM This is one of Japanese types for English?  
 CM No it's IBM. (0.5) It's Mi- Microsoft Word.  
 (0.5)  
 AM That's very good. (2.5) What're you doing. LPD?=  
 BF =Mac ill wraith. What's that.=  
 AM =That's me.=  
 CM =S'him.=  
 BF Is it?  
 AM Yeah.  
 (0.5)  
 CM How do you say that?  
 AM McIlwraith.  
 BF // Sorry. I think I'd better get out.

- CM // Mellwraith.  
 AM (heh heh) (0.5) That's all right. Em.  
 CM I suppose a Scottish name is it or possibly Gaelic.  
 (2)  
 AM Well it's probably Irish actually.  
 CM Is it?  
 AM Yeah. Um. (1) Celtic yeah.  
 CM Celtic.

### JANUARY 13 DIALOGUE C

- CM What are you - which ones are you concentrating on.  
 DM On the grammar // syntax.  
 CM // Grammar sure.  
 DM Er the grammar syntax and semantics.  
 CM Semantics. Um.  
 (0.5)  
 DM And possibly the phonetics.  
 CM Yeah. You're not bothering with going through Bloomfield and all those kind of things.  
 (0.5)  
 DM I don't want to write an essay.  
 CM Oh you don't want to write an essay. (8) You don't like essays or are you or // er  
 DM // I don't  
 mind writing essays when I've got time but I don't want to be under the - an hour's time limit. My handwriting's pretty awful.  
 CM Oh right yeah.  
 DM I just don't want to get into it. (1) I feel more comfortable with the data stuff.  
 (1)  
 CM There's a chance of getting everything right with data you know.  
 DM Well yes. // There's a slim chance. With syntax.  
 CM // With syntax. With syntax there's a pretty good chance. If the question is the same as the last few times.  
 DM Yes it's very limited isn't it. What- what you get asked.  
 CM Yeah. I think there's there's going to be no morphology and no and no X-bar.  
 DM So what on earth is it going to be about.  
 CM Don't know. (0.5) Kind of scary actually.  
 (2)  
 DM No I-I think it's going to be very similar to last year's.  
 CM I don't know. (2) ((NF enters.)) Hi. (1) How are you doing. (1) How are you.  
 NF Fine- fine. Just // fine.  
 CM // Just fine.  
 (3)  
 NF I saw you in the library. Last night.  
 DM // Sorry?  
 CM // Yeah. (1) I'd reserved a book that I had I had to turn back.  
 NF Ah. (3) I was there just for a minute. Then I realised I had lectures!  
 CM Aha.  
 DM And you had to run back.  
 NF (heh heh heh) Yeah. (3) Ah.

- (3)
- CM When I first started studying I thought I'm going to learn seven or eight of these really well. Then I started with one. I went for the Language and Linguistics.
- DM Aha.
- CM And that took so long.=
- DM = // There's a lot.
- CM // The bibliography.
- DM There's a lot in there.
- CM There's a lot in it. It's all interesting at least for me. It's interesting but there's a lot of work though.
- DM Yeah.
- CM A lot of books to read.
- DM Yeah. (1) So did you do everything. // Or sort of choose a few people.
- CM // Em. (0.5) No I've done all the people.
- DM // Really?
- CM // I have s-sort of made an outline for each for each person.
- DM Oh!
- CM And er (2) I think I'll be OK now. (1) I like essay questions.
- DM Ah.
- CM That was all my undergraduate exams were essay questions.
- DM Oh yeah. That's mine too. You know. (2.5) A kind of literature degree.
- (1)
- CM Yeah.
- DM It was all like that.
- (2.5)
- CM Mind you they were more like more like critical essays you know.
- DM Yeah.
- CM Perception questions as opposed to knowing things.
- DM Yes Language and Linguistics is definitely a knowledge thing isn't it. You have to know // your stuff and put it down. You know. Memorising. That's what I.
- CM // Yeah you have to know.
- DM And the other thing I-I've got very bad at (0.5). Memory things.
- CM Well you've been out of school for a while.
- DM Well that's the other reason I won't do an essay question. Just the sort of thing er physically memory=
- CM =Yeah=
- DM =you know takes so long you know.
- (10)
- CM ((yawns))
- (1.5)
- DM What about your core project. Have you=
- CM =I.: drew up an outline for that. It's got to do with the er phonetics. (1). Kind of funny doing a thing on phonetics but I think I'm- I'm going to do it on=
- ((MM enters))
- DM =Hello. How are you.=
- CM =Japanese.
- DM Japanese.
- CM Yeah. (1) Teaching pronunciation.
- DM Yes? There's quite a bit written on the on the=
- CM =Yeah. There is. Yeah I've done quite a bit of thinking about it before.

DM Aye.  
 ((Unintelligible : conversations mix))

## JANUARY 20

### JANUARY 20 DIALOGUE A

BF If you're not watching TV I can tell you the next one. The em his wife (1) gets very ill. She's got cancer.

AM Aha.

BF And (0.5) well I mean eventually she dies but um (0.5) they they break up the relationship. Because because the young girl thinks it's wrong that he should be that he should be nursing the wife. And actually (0.5) he becomes very concerned about his wife. And he doesn't think about her. And I mean she dies within a matter of months.

AM Right.

BF And he he's actually in mourning after that and (0.5) then he decides he'll try and find her.

AM Oh.

BF And when he when he does he can't can't find her at all. And her her family they close ranks they won't tell him. And in the end he's quite convinced that they don't know where she is.

AM Yeah.

BF But he hears a rumour that she's pregnant and he's going abs- he's he's beside himself.

AM Aha.

BF Cos it's it's his child. And em (0.5) anyway eventually he manages . She's she turns up in the town and he sees her. And by this stage you know he's living in a-a derelict cottage. He's an alcoholic. He's drinking a bottle of whiskey a day. And he er (heh) you know he goes to rack and ruin kind of thing. And you know it's all very sort of=  
 AM =So is it is it a happy ending. Tell us. Tell us.

BF The ending is I mean she they have this huge argument because she had an abortion. And em he's furious. He wants the baby obviously. Anyway but they have this big argument and right at the end you think there's been a big mistake you know just he writes to her that he's going to leave the town.

AM Aha.

BF He puts some money in an account for her and says invest it like this. It's a (heh) letter from a bank // manager.

AM // Aha. Yes.

BF It's really - I'm going. I'm going to leave at this time.

AM Mm.

BF And then he says do what you like.  
 (1) ((NF enters))

AM Hi.

NF Hi.

BF And just as he (0.5) leaves (0.5) or just as he is about to leave he gets a note through his door // from her.

AM // saying

BF And he knows she writes at the end I know you're going to be there. So=  
 AM = Um he's a bit of a::

BF Well (1) sort of like a willy with on two legs.

- AM Um. He's a bit of a wimp in the film.  
 BF He's a bit sort of wimpy in the book. Cos he's so adoring.  
 AM Mm.  
 BF I mean he's credulous really. (1) Maybe Melvyn Bragg's like that.  
 AM Maybe.  
 (2)  
 BF I saw him on the South Bank Show last night (1) With a trumpet player. And they were doing a profile of him. And I was sort of =  
 NM = Who was it?  
 BF He was a guy who wrote this dirty book. Melvyn Bragg?  
 NM Melvyn Bragg. Mm. Yes. He was on the radio this morning  
 BF Was he?  
 AM On Start of the Week yeah. (2) It was actually it was quite interesting.  
 NM Yeah. Richard Walpole this morning.  
 AM Yeah it was interesting.  
 NM Oh he's just written some book about (0.5) doom and prognostications for the (languages).  
 AM (heh heh) Doom gloom. =  
 NM = Yeah. Doom gloom. (1) No-one really challenged him. On this you know. Cos I mean since the Romans basically the same things are getting worse and worse.  
 AM (heh heh)  
 NM By that criteria you know it's the (society revealed). (5) I don't know.  
 (1)  
 AM Did you go to this pizza on Friday.  
 NF Piss?  
 AM No-no pizza. Was it Pizza Hut or =  
 BF = Pizza Hut.  
 AM Was it any good?  
 (1)  
 BF It was pizza. // It was it was the usual=  
 AM // Pizza yeah.  
 NF = Did you go for the pizza after we went to the pub? =  
 BF = Yeah. =  
 NM = I don't like I don't like pizza.  
 NF // Oh.  
 BF // It filled the gap you know. It was functional. Cheap.  
 NM You went home.  
 AM I went home round about half past seven no. I didn't go. I just thought =  
 NM = You had enough of it AM.  
 AM No- no- no. Because no- no- no the thing- the thing I just downed four in quick succession. And I found myself slurring. I thought I'd had too much to drink as it is.  
 BF That's why we went for something to eat.  
 AM Yeah.  
 BF Cos we'd all been like that.  
 AM Yeah.  
 BF But we went into like there's a group of us went for a pizza and another group went to a place called the Phenicia.  
 AM Phenicia yeah. Just along from the Pear Tree yeah.  
 BF Which I think was a little bit more expensive than the Pizza Hut.

- AM No- no I mean I mean once I get I get in that situation. I can't do two things. Go from one to the other.
- NM Aye.
- AM Did you go anywhere el- anywhere else after that?
- BF We went (0.5) back to no we went to the PGSU. After that. (1) I stayed there till about eleven. I don't know about the others. NF was there. Did you stay latish?
- NF Er::
- BF PGSU?
- NF Yes- yes em. (1) We went to a disco afterwards.
- BF Oh there you are.
- AM You went to a disco. O::h!
- NF // (heh heh heh)
- BF // The night went on yeah. (0.5) Did em DM and Michelle go to the disco?
- NF Yeah. Yes. // (heh)
- BF // Cos they were going down to Worthing the next day.
- NF (heh) No they they they had to go (0.5) // away (0.5) fairly early.
- BF // Yeah. They were going right down to Sussex
- NF Aha?
- BF To Worthing.
- NF Yeah. (heh)
- (3)
- AM I didn't do any work over the weekend.
- (2)
- BF Neither did I. It was great. Loved it.

### JANUARY 20 DIALOGUE B

- AM So you didn't do the- the grammar or the semantics.
- CM No. I studied the semantics quite a bit and then I didn't do it.
- AM Yeah. Same thing here. I just you I mean first question was it something like father of forty- forty? That was the grammar one.
- (1)
- CM Oh yeah. I didn't even look at it. Yeah. I didn't even I never had time for it // when I was studying.
- AM // Mm. Mm. I was kind of I kind of knew during the morning that I wasn't going to do grammar. But I had been studying it // like
- CM // Yeah.
- NF Hi.
- CM Hi.
- NF I haven't seen you this term?
- (1)
- CM Pardon me?
- NF I haven't seen you this term. (heh heh)
- CM Oh yeah yeah.
- AM Well there he is now. // (heh heh)
- CM // (heh heh)
- NF // (heh heh)
- (6)
- AM But it is good. It's really I felt so free on- on er Saturday you know.

- CM Yeah. I just fell asleep on Friday night. We had er  
 AM (heh heh heh)  
 AM No I just realised we got all these these files and books. (0.5) I thought I'm probably going to need these // again. Certainly  
 CM // Yeah. I put them in a little folder and // I'll look at them.  
 AM // Yeah.  
 CM Remember we s- we imagining that well they could ask it in terms of Structuralism.  
 AM Yeah that's right. X was saying that.  
 CM Yeah.  
 (2)  
 NF The- the- the- the question for Language and Linguistics this term the last the second question is the same as last time.  
 AM Is it? Oh?  
 NF Exactly the same.  
 AM That's it's changed to school.  
 NF Yeah. Changed to school.  
 AM Though I think // everybody  
 CM // That's not exactly the same thing. Last year was last year was choose three choose three er.  
 (1)  
 NF Choose (0.5) Choose one of these. Structura // lism  
 AM // No no it was the thinkers.  
 CM From the point of view of the man not the school.  
 AM Yeah.  
 CM It was write on one of the following. Bloomfield Saussure Chomsky.  
 NF Mm.  
 CM And this one was write on Structuralism Functionalism =  
 NF = But almost the same! Almost =  
 CM = Yeah yeah. But it's a different // point of a different perspective.  
 AM // Yeah. Yeah. I think we we'll get extra marks for kind of angling it more =  
 CM = towards =  
 NF = towards =  
 AM Yeah.  
 CM Structuralism.  
 AM Yeah. // Rather than just writing about Saussure. Which I did =  
 CM // You mean (0.5) That's what I did.  
 AM (heh heh)  
 CM I know what I know that Saussure is a Structuralist. I know Bloomfield was too.  
 AM Yeah.  
 CM But I'm trying to define Structuralism outside of those two.  
 AM Yeah. Cos er also I didn't think there was much I-I there wasn't much contact between them? So I mean how can you say there's one school if there's not- not even a =  
 CM = Well I think Lyons said that (0.5) that there that Descriptivism er was a particularly American version of Structuralism. And not really related // in any  
 AM // Well that cos yeah. Cos // to me  
 CM // Developed independently I think.  
 AM Yeah. (0.5) Yeah. Because (0.5) I mean they had the same kind of divide didn't they. Same axis. // They had the er mental and the

- CM // Yeah. (0.5) What you what you know and what you do.
- AM Yeah. It was just that Saussure concentrated on the mental and Bloomfield concentrated on the on the // physical. But em (1) Yeah. But again cos I was in the
- CM // Yeah.
- AM library and we were trying to work out whether whether they could've Bloomfield could've come into contact with Saussure's (0.5) writings in Europe. But in fact he was in Europe before nineteen before the first world war so (0.5) Saussure was writing about then.
- (2)
- NF I think last term I saw you had a book Schools of Linguistics. Do you still have it?
- AM Yeah- yeah. It's mine. It's mine.
- NF It's your?
- AM Pri- pride and joy.
- NF Mhm. So can I borrow it sometime.
- AM Yeah sure. Yeah. (1) Ah.
- (2)
- CM In all those books when they described Structuralism they didn't describe they didn't say this is Structuralism. They said Structuralism consists of Saussure. Then they told us what Saussure believed.
- AM Yeah.
- CM You know like Language and Linguistics. And that's how they that's how they taught // through the issue.
- AM // Yeah.
- CM So you know I think if we did that that way.
- AM Mm.
- CM That's a good argument. Just to give precedents.
- AM Yeah.
- CM You know.
- AM Yeah. (1) Yeah that's right yeah.
- CM They know with their section I mean their section is Structuralism.
- AM Yeah.
- CM But it all goes in terms of Saussure.
- AM Yeah.
- CM What Saussure believed. About sign =
- AM = Yeah that's // right yeah. Because because er Bloomfield came down with the
- CM // and signifier. (0.5) Yeah.
- AM Descriptivists. He was a separate.
- CM Yeah.
- AM Because that's what threw me you see cos I-I kind of thought there was a- a link between Bloomfield and Saussure.
- CM Yeah. I- // I- I-
- AM // I was going to kind of include it but I thought it's best not to in that // if I'm wrong then
- CM // Yeah. It's an eerie hybrid. Cos I'm sure it said Structuralism Saussure and then the next week it said Structuralism Bloomfield.
- AM Ah that's it yeah.
- (1)
- CM And I did qualify it with that Lyons what Lyons said about (0.5) being an American who was trying // to
- AM // Mm. Mm. Yeah.

(4)

- CM It did it did throw me a bit. (0.5) I was expecting them more on just the men.  
 AM But I mean that's what I ended up writing. Then I kind of half way through I looked at the question. Oh no and describe how they influence =  
 CM = Yeah =  
 AM = I was kind of changing the angling it differently. (1) But it was basically just on Saussure. (1) I had that the you know the lecture handout though imprinted in my brain.  
 CM Oh yeah. (heh // heh heh)  
 AM // When I was writing it that was it was just completely organised before it came out.  
 NF // (heh heh)  
 CM // Oh that's nice.  
 AM Yeah. (0.5) No I mean I don't know if it's nice because it's too rigid you know (0.5) sort of (0.5) yeah.  
 NF What's the other options that you did?  
 AM Em syntax and em (0.5) er phonetics.  
 (0.5)  
 NF Ah.  
 AM Yeah. I couldn't do the seman- I didn't revise for the semantics.  
 NF Phonetics. Which one did you do.  
 AM The- the first one. You know that er =  
 NF = OK. The- the- the ar- articulatory.  
 AM Yes that's it.  
 (0.5)  
 NF How many diagrams did you draw?  
 AM S:: I did drew one for each um phonetic sound so it was seven.  
 NF I did too. Somebody said six because they think the two 'i' are the same and the four others were only consonants.  
 AM Yeah but they're not the same because it depends what they're coming from and what they're going to // doesn't it. Because you're  
 NF // Yeah I did seven too. I did seven too.  
 CM Seven what. Seven // figures?  
 NF // Seven diagrams.  
 AM Yeah.  
 CM Each your own creation seven times?  
 AM No because we had the er ones she gave // us. I just traced that.  
 CM // Yeah. Oh.  
 AM Um. Er. No. (1) I think you need to I mean you know what she's like. She's really fanatic. So that if you don't // get it it  
 NF // (heh heh) (0.5) (heh heh heh)  
 (0.5)  
 AM Aha.  
 CM But a good teacher all the same.  
 AM A wonderful teacher yes. (heh heh heh) (0.5) But em (0.5) What else did you do?  
 NF I did the phonetics syntax and er grammar. (0.5) Grammar and syntax really took a long time. I finished syntax within six oh forty minutes.  
 CM Yeah.  
 AM Yes. Yes.

- CM I was worried after the first essay because I'd gone overtime. I found that fifty minutes had passed. I was reading and started preparing. But then by quarter to four I was finished. I did // the syntax and then I had // a lot of time. An hour and a  
 AM // Yeah. // Yeah.  
 CM quarter for the last one.  
 AM No I'd- I- s- I thought I had to - best to do the data questions first then you know =  
 CM = Then you know how // much time yeah.  
 AM // how much you've got for the essay. And I knew I was going to do one essay so.  
 CM I wanted to have a break between the two essays // so I thought  
 AM // Ah yeah. Yeah.

## JANUARY 20 DIALOGUE C

- AM It's a real text book. It's not like Brown and Miller.  
 CM Figure thirteen. See figure thirteen.  
 AM (heh heh heh)  
 CM Figure twelve. Fi- figure fourteen.  
 AM // (heh eh heh)  
 CM // No figure thirteen. (7) You - when you read over that syntax didn't it seem very simple? After you read it again now?  
 AM Er you mean the book?  
 CM Yeah the book.  
 AM Yeah. Yeah.  
 CM You know when I first looked at it I thought what's this. // I'll never get this stuff.  
 AM // Yeah.  
 CM Now after four months of it.  
 AM Yeah.  
 CM Seems pretty easy. Pretty easy. Except for the exam.  
 AM // Yeah. Yeah.  
 CM // (heh heh heh)  
 (1)  
 AM E::m. Do you remember when he came to talk about it?  
 CM Yeah.  
 AM He could he couldn't seem to explain it simply but (0.5) you can. Cos it's quite simple. But (0.5) he wanted to start right from the beginning. He wanted to. He should have been able to answer specific questions. (1) So I just wondered how well he understands it himself. (1) Cos I got the impression the other guy was a bit of a maniac.  
 (6)  
 CM That's a nice bag. My wife makes bags like that. With that fabric. That kind of paper sheet on it.  
 AM ((suppresses heh heh heh heh)) With pieces like carpet?  
 CM No stuff like er (0.5) like furniture covering that's what it is.  
 (10)  
 AM Wouldn't like to see that a little further behind.  
 (1)  
 NF ((suppresses heh heh heh heh))  
 CM If we speak in Japanese do you think she'd still understand?  
 (60) ((talks with researcher))

- AM The same style.  
 CM Yeah the same the same kind of style. Like that kind of fabric you know like the tapestry of (1.5) you like that's what you call them isn't it?  
 FF Yeah. I'm sure that she makes a much better quality than mine.(heh)  
 CM Oh I don't know.  
 (1)  
 AM She must have er a big sewing machine. then.  
 CM She has a sewing machine.  
 AM Yeah?  
 CM She did a lot of crafts and thread work and stuff. She makes fabric-covered boxes and (1) and er baby blankets and  
 AM ((unintelligible))  
 CM What?  
 AM // ((unintelligible))  
 CM // Ah you guys.  
 FF // Do you // need a  
 AM // small blankets you mean.  
 CM Yeah like like blankets for different cribs.  
 AM Aha. ((sniffs))  
 CM And they're quilted in kind in soft colours.  
 AM Aha.  
 (19)  
 NF Do people celebrate Easter here?  
 AM Mm? Think so.  
 (1)  
 FF Yeah they seem to come to eat here. // (heh heh heh)  
 AM // (heh heh heh)  
 NF // (heh heh heh)  
 CM And you can buy Easter cream eggs in Scotland?  
 (0.5)  
 FF That's right.(4) It used not to be a holiday.  
 (1)  
 NF That is in the spring vacation.  
 FF The date changes. Yeah. I think // this year.  
 CM // It's always a Friday and a Monday. Right?  
 AM But it's usually forty days after Lent. // I mean I  
 FF // I didn't oh  
 AM On Shrove Tuesday.  
 FF Yes. That's right.  
 AM Which // is next  
 NF // Eh March twenty-three.  
 FF Is it?  
 NF Yeah March 20 to April what April>  
 FF Oh that's the holidays yeah.  
 NF Yeah // March.  
 FF // Actual Easter itself is the weekend seventeenth of April to (3) twentieth. I don't think you'll get Easter Monday holiday here.  
 CM You don't!  
 AM You mean us or people generally.  
 (3)

- CM It's here. // The term begins the twentieth  
 FF // You don't get it's the (1) It's E-English. Everyone gets a holiday but E-  
 Edinburgh er gets a =  
 CM = Why // why  
 FF // Edinburgh gets // a  
 CM // Christian Scotland's a Christian country why?  
 FF Yes but it's Papist to go to have a holiday. We never used to take Christmas off.  
 Christmas wasn't an official holiday.  
 CM What! (0.5) Why. That's that's a (0.5) Catholic =  
 FF = Well. It's- it's a it's a weird reaction against =  
 CM = the workers.  
 FF Well no it wasn't. Because you had New Year off. You celebrated a Pagan festival  
 instead. // (heh heh heh)  
 AM // That's right. // (heh heh heh)  
 CM // You celebrate Halloween and Hogmanay!  
 FF Well not Halloween so much. You know well that's (1) big big things come in from  
 the States.  
 CM Yeah. I guess that's true.  
 FF But em // no you the- the  
 CM // Burn's day. That sort of thing.  
 FF The- the- Scot well the traditional Scottish church would have worked with the four  
 on Communion seasons. You had communion four times a year. The year was more  
 divided up into four communion seasons rather than Christmas, Easter which were em  
 (hastened production). (heh heh heh)  
 CM Do you realise that we have from er March nineteen until (0.5) April the twentieth.  
 With nothing to do.  
 AM Nothing // to do?  
 FF // Well got a project to hand in at // em (heh heh)  
 AM // Yes.  
 CM The project the project is due on =  
 AM = The twenty-seventh.  
 CM The thirtieth of March.  
 AM Thirtieth. (1) And then that's the first or the second one.  
 FF The core project's the twenty-first.  
 CM Thirtieth of March and the twenty-seventh of April.  
 AM All right so one month later is the em // first course project.  
 FF // And then (0.5) and then another the month  
 after that so there's quite a lot to do.  
 AM Right. And then we've got another one in a month. We've got three and one in June.  
 The core project =  
 CM = The portfolio is on is in May.  
 (5)  
 NF Portfolio end of May?  
 CM // Yeah.  
 NF // I thought it was in June.  
 AM Yeah I thought so too.  
 FF Twenty-seventh of April May.  
 CM Twenty-seventh twenty-seventh to twenty nine.  
 (3)  
 FF Yeah we have teaching until then. The Friday then we have the weekend.

- CM And that's it.  
 FF Portfolio on =  
 CM = We just got a thesis to write a dissertation.  
 NF Portfolio we have to finish within three days?  
 CM Yeah.  
 AM Pick it up on nine o'clock on a Wednesday and hand it in on Friday before five. (2)  
 God. That means you have to have everything prepared.  
 NF Yeah.  
 FF Yeah.  
 AM Don't do any reading for it though. (2) So they expect quite long answers. I mean not  
 like like the exam. Three hours.  
 NF Long answers?  
 CM Long answers.  
 NF How- how long.  
 FF It depends. They - they haven't decided how long you've got to do it yet. So it'll have  
 to depend a bit on how you =  
 CM = How many sides have they decided.  
 AM It should be four or five. Yeah. (2) How many =  
 CM = How many option projects do we have three?  
 AM Three. Three.  
 FF Portfolio?

## JANUARY 27

### JANUARY 27 DIALOGUE A

- BF Semantics one. Is there another semantics?  
 (1) Is there another book // called Semantics by Lyons.  
 NF // Yes.  
 DM // Yeah Two.  
 NF // Two One and Two.  
 DM A::h right. (1) OK.  
 NF The end is the long the long sentence.  
 DM Something meaning in context.  
 NF Yeah. Ah last- yesterday I- I went to a wonderful place.  
 (0.5)  
 DM Where.  
 NF Pitlochry. (3) Beautiful loch. (14) I climbed a mountain.  
 DM Good.  
 BF Very energetic.  
 DM Yes.  
 BF Very energetic! (heh)  
 DM More than I did this weekend I'm telling you.  
 BF You had friends didn't you? I can imagine why you wouldn't want to.  
 DM Resting.  
 BF Yeah. Sure. (heh heh) For a man =  
 DM = Resting my brain.  
 (3)  
 BF I beat the sandwich rush.  
 DM What's that?

- BF I beat the sandwich rush.
- DM Oh yeah! (heh heh) That's quite clever. (5) On the ball as ever.
- BF When it comes to food yeah that's about it.  
(1)
- MM An increasing number of queues wherever you go to eat.  
(4)
- BF We'd beaten I mean we were practising from half past nine at- at Pollock. And then X said I'll go and get a sandwich and she went the other way. (0.5) She should have been here before me.
- DM Perhaps she's been waylaid.
- BF She hasn't been well has she.
- DM Really?
- BF She had sort of flu or something.  
(4)
- DM There's a lot around isn't there. At the moment going around.. (5) Are you going to the coffee machine BF? Would you mind er =
- BF = Yeah. What do you want.
- DM Tea with everything in it. (9) The top button. (3) What a strange name.
- FF Yeah. (heh) Extraordinary.
- DM Slomith Rimmon-Kenan.  
(39) ((Unintelligible : conversations mix))
- AM Yeah. It's a good book. Yeah that's the stuff isn't it. That's the stuff we- we read last week which we should've read this week. (0.5) So read it again. I found it. It's in there.
- NF Chapter six.
- AM Chapter six.
- NF And then when I was reading it I said what's this.  
(1)
- AM It's really it's just time isn't it. Nought else. Except that time we were talking about.
- DM Oh thank you.
- NF It doesn't look expensive.
- AM It doesn't look expensive but you'd be surprised.
- BF Bloody hell. Is it eleven already! Oh my God!
- DM You got a class now?
- BF Yeah I have.  
(10)
- AM No cos something like that hardly anyone's going to buy it so they might they have to put the price up. (3) I also got em (1) whatsit (2) what's it called that chap about observation in the classroom. (3) Is that for this week?
- NF Yeah.
- AM For this week.
- NF Yes.
- AM I wish I. Cos I read I read Chapter six last night. (5) So I'll have to read chapter seven now. I've read that I've read that before // actually
- NF // And- and- and- then what about this one. It's completely use- useless.
- AM You've read that have // you.
- NF // Yeah.
- AM Oh cos I was going to read that this afternoon.

## JANUARY 27 DIALOGUE B

- DM Did she have much to say?  
(0.5)
- CM No she just couldn't remember if we were on the - the right track.  
(0.5)
- DM How many people are doing it.
- CM Eh. There's- there's more than there was just two of us there but there's more than that doing it. Just X and I were there.
- DM X's doing it for er =
- CM = Yeah project.
- DM Yeah.  
(1)
- CM And er I think Y and Z. I know Z is doing // it.
- DM // Z is definitely doing it. That's good. (2)  
He's quite good.
- CM Yes he's well he called me to find out what she said. (1.5) He's nearly finished writing.
- DM Well so he's nearly there.
- CM Yeah. Almost finished. (1.5) But I suppose you're moderately efficient. (1) but I'm not near an outline.
- DM Oh God no I'm on my reading. We've still got a long time.
- CM Yeah we've got a month.
- DM That's a lot.
- CM That's all right.
- DM I'm not sweating at all! No I'm still doing my reading.
- CM Though I suppose sometimes you just can't get in the mood to do it you know.
- DM Yeah though it's nice to get it over with.
- CM Yeah.
- DM Right though I never do things like though. Never get things done early.
- CM I like to think I pace myself but it's more like I'm procrastinating.
- DM That's right yeah.  
(2)
- CM Oh I didn't realise that was on tape.
- DM Yeah. Yeah. (heh)  
(3)
- CM I'm a very hard worker. // (heh heh)
- DM // (heh heh heh heh heh)
- CM Can't remember the last time I handed in anything late.
- DM (heh heh // heh heh)
- CM // Usually it's three months early.
- DM (heh heh) Right. (8) So I typed that thing up again after you'd gone.
- CM Oh yeah.
- DM But I did get it finished. Went to see XX (0.25) with it.
- CM How did it go. // Ah nuts I forgot to do it.
- DM // He said it was OK
- CM Gee. I forgot to answer your questionnaire.
- DM Oh that's all right. // That's OK. That's fine. It's still the end of this week.
- CM // I'm afraid I er. (0.5) OK.
- DM I've got to give it the I haven't given anybody else one anyway so. (05) In fact he told me to re- revise it.

- CM What was.  
 DM The questionnaire.  
 CM Oh. Right.  
 DM That it's not um politically correct as it stands. I think it talk about native speakers without specifying that I mean native English speakers.  
 CM Ah yeah.  
 DM I've just got to chan-I'd better change it or something.  
 CM So do you want me to change it? // Do you want me to  
 DM // Well he's going to well it's the same thing.  
 CM OK  
 DM It's just cosmetic. Yeah cosmetic. The actual thing's exactly the same. It's got // the analysis  
 CM // Yes well that could be confusing if you don't know what =  
 DM = That's right =  
 CM = anything about it =  
 DM = That's right. Yeah. (2.5) So I'll just do that today. And try to get a few out. (15)  
 CM Oh that's (1.5) My budgie pooped on my book. (0.5)  
 DM Oh (heh) You got a budgie?  
 CM I got my wife a budgie. I bought her a budgie for Christmas.  
 DM ((suppresses heh))  
 CM And she never plays with it only me.  
 DM So just you. (2)  
 CM It flies around our living room. (0.5) Lands on your head (0.5) Climbs up your shirt.  
 DM ((suppresses heh))  
 CM Poops all over everywhere.  
 DM Lovely. (31)  
 AF God it's hot in here.  
 DM Is it?  
 AM Yeah. (1) Really. (0.5) Are you shutting out this lovely sunshine?  
 DM Its getting in my eyes. =  
 CM = getting in my eyes.  
 AF Oh no!  
 DM Yeah.  
 CM Yeah. Not used to that are you?  
 DM No. (6) What's that. Psycholinguistics?  
 AF Mhm. I have difficulty getting my brain going first thing in the morning.  
 DM She certainly fills- fills it up doesn't she. She's got lots of things to tell you I'm sure.  
 AF Yeah. (6) ((yawns)) (3) Oh I just want to sit down. (1) You going to get on your bike?  
 DM Have you got to go?  
 NF Yeah. I suppose I have. I shouldn't this morning.  
 DM Yeah right. ((MM and BM enter))  
 MM Anyone got the key to the photocopier? (1)  
 DM No.  
 AF Is it still not there. (2) Oh MM! I (0.5) brought the what what's a name back.

- MM Yeah. Tell you what ((unintelligible)).
- DM How are you?
- BM All right.
- DM I haven't seen you very much.
- BM No I haven't seen you very much.
- DM We must not fit at all.
- BM You do you do language planning don't you.
- DM Yeah. I've stopped doing that though. I did stop doing that last week. SLA?
- BM I'm not doing that.
- DM Ah. We haven't got many things in common then.
- BM Wow. We've parted ways.
- DM That's right. That's right. Yes.  
(2)
- BM We'll have to go out sometime.
- DM Yeah.
- BM Before we forget each other's faces. // (heh heh) It's true.
- DM // (heh heh heh)
- BM I mean there's that many people you just don't see any more.
- AF I know. It's really strange.
- DM Mm.
- AF You kind of expect to see all your mates in the classroom and you look around and think what a lot of skivers.  
(3)
- BM Are you er (0.5) are going to do what you you thought you'd do about your project.
- DM I'm going to give out a questionnaire. And I'll give you one as well. Sometime this week I hope t- tomorrow I'll get them all done.
- AF What your core project?
- DM Yeah.  
(0.5)
- CM Did he like did he like the idea?
- AF That's very energetic.
- DM Well you know what he's like. It's difficult to tell isn't it. Yeah. He said it wasn't terrible anyway. He said go ahead so (0.5) I'm going to go ahead.
- CM Yeah he said this isn't terrible.
- DM No no he didn't tell me that. // (heh heh)
- CM // (heh heh heh)
- BM Did- did- you have you read any of his book at all.
- DM Yes. I read some bits and pieces but =
- BM = useful in any way?
- DM Not really no =
- BM = No.
- DM But er after reading I mean I've got to say I've read it.(0.5) And it's not (0.5) well it's not very- it's very theoretical.
- BM It is theoretical.  
(0.5)
- DM So there's some things you can talk about but I'm not going to spend very much time. Do you need it?
- BM No I don't need that.
- DM OK. Great. // Great.
- BM // No problem.

- (2)
- DM Yeah.
- BM If I need it I'll tell you.
- DM Yeah. That's really kind that that // you
- BM // what about the article. I wasn't really using it.
- DM I could quote from it actually. I definitely I might do that.
- BM Do you think it's pretty easy. It's pretty it's scurrilous isn't it.
- DM I think it is awful. There's there really =
- BM = some truth in it.
- DM Yes the Tolwood? I didn't like the Tolwood at all. I thought it was a bit (0.5) a bit much really.
- (0.5)
- BM It wasn't er it wasn't reflected anywhere. It wasn't didn't it's not so likely that maybe this happened. Of course it happened. But maybe it shouldn't.
- DM No.
- BM And maybe it'd be a better idea if you tried to prepare yourself as much as possible.
- DM In fact it was a very positive kind of // yes go away and do it. And screw them.
- BM // Yeah. And just screw the classes.
- DM That's right yeah.
- BM That's the thing about you get that by the end of your the official part of your (talk). Your actual experience cos you've already had the job.
- DM That's right yeah. Yeah. Yeah.

### FEBRUARY 3

#### FEBRUARY 3 DIALOGUE A

- AM I think the em the first paper he main one was just just dense. I - I // spent
- AF // which one.
- Channell or Emmorey.
- AM You know her.
- AF No.
- AM Oh sorry. Em (heh) I was gong to start slagging her off. (( laughing ))
- AF No- no- no. The- the // Channell paper
- AM // No the- yes that's it yes. I knew it was em the er em then again when when we went away after that tutorial we we took the paper we took er em we just sat and went through it together and basically line by line.
- AF M // hm.
- AM // And eventually we found wh-what her argument was. But it took er I can remember spending an hour on my own and I could not work out what she was going on about.
- AF I looked through it rather swiftly so I probably missed most of it. (heh heh)
- AM Yeah.
- AF Um. Yeah. I couldn't actually follow (0.5) an argument as such in it. I thought she was bit of a bore and hedging and surveying and so on and I couldn't see the point of this semantic field boundary. I found it extremely fiddley.
- AM Yes I- I couldn't see that. I think that was somewhere near the end.
- AF Yeah.
- AM It was an example of em
- AF That- that seems to umm bear some relation to the lexical syllabus doesn't it.

- AM Mm. I can't  
(0.5)
- AF Fixing on words and so on.
- AM Yes.
- AF I think- I find a real loss actually of not having read the (0.5) Fay and Cutler article which seems to be underpinning this =
- AM = Yes that's it. I mean you would have been better to use that rather than this  
// one.
- AF // Yah. Yah. I would.
- AM Em
- AF Place it in the library and that would have been helpful.
- AM Yeah. Yeah. Well is it very long? Is it a book? Or.
- AF I seem to think the Fay and Cutler is an article actually. It's referred to somewhere or other em ((looks through papers)) em here we are (2) Fay and Cutler ((unintelligible)). There's fifteen pages in the article.
- AM Right. This would be much better than that cos that's what we've done any way.
- AF Yeah.
- AM Yeah.  
(1)
- AF Yes. I didn't think the Channell was very helpful.
- AM No. Near the end -the- the-conclusion's very inconclusive.
- AF Yeah.
- AM As well it might be this and it might be that. And =
- AF =Yeah =
- AM = and we probably think this and you know.
- AF And the Meara article was did you read that?
- AM I- that was the =
- AF = The testing.
- AM Yeah well I- I- started it and then this after spending an hour on the other one. And I started reading that and then in the end just the conclusion.
- AF Yes- yes- I- I- sort of went through sort of um I went through the complete thing and I didn't spend a lot of time on that. I forgot actually by the time I came in in the morning that I hadn't read the Channell. (heh) I had to go // through that feverishly.  
// Oh yeah. Yeah.
- AM Um. (0.5) And the Meara thing. When I read through it that was actually very difficult to sort of // come to much conclusion // about it cos um you know the- the- way
- AM // Yeah. // Yeah.
- AF they'd set the test up. It's almost like bound to make the right outcome they wanted.
- AM I mean what what was what were they trying to find out. I mean they said in the end all they said was yes that in a in a three consonant w-word group three syllable word word group two syllable word with three consonants.
- AF Yes.
- AM They the third consonant is the least remembered or something when you when you're when you only get it orally.
- AF I think you're trying to establish a pattern of errors and what the real point is (2) um (2) ((unintelligible)) you get the first // consonant.
- AF // Mm. But then there was pretty low no no um predictability of them remembering any of the other consonants.
- AM Right. So it all heads it all (0.5) sometimes sort of depends =

- AF = Depends on the person. I suppose so yeah. (1.5) But um (3) it's difficult to tell isn't it. I mean it all to do depends on the point of view of the research which we're not really // adequate to judge.
- AM // No. Yeah. Yeah. Um but it- it I couldn't quite see the connection - it was so hard to do that.
- AF Well I couldn't figure it out either. It's pointless being shown different parts of the research programme.
- AM Yeah yeah yeah. (2) I think we'd better go up. I'll turn this off.

### FEBRUARY 3 DIALOGUE B

- CM Project going. How's your project going.
- BM ((unintelligible : whispered)) I tried to write the introduction over the weekend. ((unintelligible : whispered)).
- CM Yeah I always write those last.
- NF It took me a whole afternoon to write a few sentences. And then I didn't like it. (heh heh)
- AF Oh it's awful when you start considering what you're writing. I just sit down and write it. (heh heh)
- NF Claro. Because I // always find that I reread it and think this is
- AF // Leave it to somebody else to look at.
- NF How do you spell competences. // (heh heh)
- AF // (heh heh heh heh heh heh) Are you are you:: typing or word processing it yourself.
- NF Yeah. (0.5) No I mean I'm writing. I need to write first by hand. (0.5) But I think I'm going to put it on a computer in the end. I've got more or less the idea.
- AF Aha.  
(1)
- NF It is a lot you know three thousand words. I'm filling in a thing here. What er er asterisco. How can you say?
- AF Oh yeah asterisks.(heh)  
(1)
- BM Sorry. We have an interlanguage.
- NF I look at BM and I say (heh heh heh // heh) Asterisco se dice! (heh heh heh)
- CM // (heh) No. Yeah. Asteriscos no? I know that.  
(2)
- BM Yeah. I wrote my introduction and I thought that sounds really good. I thought but (0.5) I'll be here for ever if I discuss what I've just // said I'm going to discuss.  
// (heh heh heh heh)
- NF // (heh heh heh heh)
- BM I therefore propose to discuss and I thought but do I want to. (heh) Oh wrong introduction.
- AF Can't you sort of say later on em these subjects will be revised briefly.
- BM (heh heh)
- NF Oh I do those. // I did that.
- CM // And then you do and then you do a search for briefly and change to (0.5) change to extensively or something if you actually do discuss it in depth.
- AF Ah::
- BM Mhm. Could do that yeah. (2) But I- I- fo- follow the I follow the- the line of thought of (1) the last person I've read.
- NF Yeah.

- BM And that was in my introduction but what that's Fasold cos I'm doing diglossia that's Fasold. But what I think the trick is just to repeat what Fasold was saying.
- CM Well.
- NF That's what I'm that's what I'm worried about. It's just my my paper is on language and linguistics is just what everybody says.
- CM Yeah.
- NF According to Newmeyer we have this. According to Lyons this. (2) I'm sure I'm sure it would be much better to get rid of it.
- (1)
- BM Mm. Can you draw links? I always find it to draw to- to compare and contrast what the two what two or three people say.
- NF Yeah?
- BM And sort of (0.5) mix them together and then come out with a point yourself. That's I always find difficult to do that.

### FEBRUARY 3 DIALOGUE C

- CM Call it PhD. Piled higher and deeper.
- NF // (Mm hm hm hm)
- BM // Yeah my uncle's come my uncle my uncle came up with a whole series of American ac- ac- acronyms for various courses. Can't remember all that. There was piled up in shit. Piled up in a medium level in shit. // Well that's
- CM // Medium level in shit. What's that.
- MSc?
- BM Something like that you know. He's so =
- CM = Medium level in shit and crap.
- BM (heh heh heh)
- (4)
- CM It's true though. The more you study the more you realise that there are no answers.
- BM Mm.
- NF Yeah.
- CM Like when you just do your first degree you think. Oh. I have answers for all these problems. Then you start realising they know they mean but they're just theorising on the questions.
- BM And they they em they dismiss (0.5) they dismiss things that'll ruin their argument. Like in the syntax.
- CM In the syntax.
- BM And they get em snobby. But it is!
- NF You know you know what em like yeah er the audio lingual . When you say why do you ((clears throat)) should should learners make mistakes or not. They used to say no. Let them not happen and cos they happen they you correct them the the learner can be discouraged.
- CM Yeah.
- NF And if you if you don't correct them in time you you repeat them. So they just avoid them completely and utterly. They cut it out those pseudo problems. // (heh heh)
- CM // Pseudo problems
- (heh heh)
- NF And irrelevant.
- BM But hi- hi- historically speaking what's really funny is that people change their that-that schools of thought // so quickly. Just five years and =

- CM // Yeah. And I think it's especially true in linguistics though.
- BM Oh well that's cos it's new all that rubbish.
- CM Yeah.
- NF (heh heh heh)
- (1)
- CM But the more the more I mean what did I read yesterday. Somebody said the stronger you care what's that? You know people who feel strongly about studying linguistics have absolutely no respect for the language anyway.
- NF // (heh heh)
- BM // (heh heh // (heh heh heh heh)
- CM // (heh heh heh) There's another one you can use.
- BM (heh heh heh heh)
- (4)
- BM Have you ever read Chomsky on on when he writes political stuff.
- NF No.
- CM No but I want // to.
- NF // But I'd I'd like to =
- BM = He was he was in the news all last year did you see him?
- CM Did he give // a lecture?
- BM // Several pages you'd read every few months especially at the Gulf War.
- NF Was it on Sunday or every day // like
- BM // S'it was due last year it was in the =
- CM = He gave a lecture here.
- NF Yeah.
- CM And everyone thought he was going to speak on linguistics and he spoke on the Gulf War or something.
- (0.5)
- MM And and you had to pay fifteen pounds.
- CM Fifteen pounds to hear Chomsky?
- MM Yeah.
- CM I'll wait for the movie thanks.
- NF (heh heh)
- BM He's he's like he's like a dog when // he when he gets he's published and stronger
- MM // He's probably is
- BM he just won't let go. He's got his teeth into the backside // of something. ((growls))
- CM // I could go to the British
- Open // for sixteen pounds.
- NF // I thought it was expensive.
- CM Go and watch Ballesteros play golf for sixteen pounds. Why would I hear Chomsky for fifteen? Anyway.
- NF Are you keen on golf CM?
- CM I love golf yeah. (1.5) And and Ballesteros is my favourite golfer too.
- NF Yeah. Not surprised. You know who's very good in Spain?
- CM Jose Maria Olazabal.
- NF Olazabal.
- CM Olazabal I can't say that.
- NF Olazabal and er Pi- pine- no it's gone.
- CM My wife is absolutely in love with Olazabal.
- NF (heh heh)
- BM What because he's a good player or because // he's a good

- CM // Good good player and good-looking.  
 Yeah. Kind of suave looking and Spanish. (1) And I like I like Bellesteros he's very angry. (1) Like don't cross him cos he'll curse and swear. But he's still at the same time he's a very classy player. He coughed once when another player was- was er cleaning his ball and it throw him off it threw him off. And he felt so bad he gave him a hole. He was a match he was a match player.
- BM A gentleman then.
- CM Yeah like the guy was // the guy was twenty feet off the hole and he said oh pick it  
 BM // (heh heh heh)  
 CM up right and he gave him the hole. You said he's a gentleman.  
 BM Oh you like that don't you. // You can see his eyes.  
 CM // Yeah. Yeah. He's mean but he's a gentleman.  
 BM // (heh heh)  
 NF // (heh heh)  
 CM No he's concerned about the game. Concerned that it - it's a gentleman's game.  
 BM Yeah. He's a good sport.  
 CM Yeah. He's a good sport. But don't like like in Japan I watched him playing in Japan. He just very very tense and dramatic player. Very colourful. (3) And he had a slump for about six years and he's just in the last year he's come back. It's like now there's three in a row and he's in his thirties so he's pretty young. (4) So.
- BM Do you play golf?  
 CM Yes.  
 BM Play golf in Scotland.  
 CM I haven't had time. My wife won't let me. I'm afraid I haven't played. I just looked  
 // and  
 BM // She won't let you cos it's expensive or because you get obsessed // with it.  
 CM // No it's not that  
 expensive by our standards. Oh my wife =  
 BM = You said your wife won't let you.  
 CM Yeah it takes too much time er it's not that expensive though. Like // the Braides  
 BM // Partly it's  
 // the  
 CM // You can play at the Braides for four pounds.  
 BM Mm.  
 CM In Canada we did yeah.  
 BM You- you- you- can't walk anywhere in Scotland without tripping over a golf course.  
 CM Yes they're everywhere. And they're not expensive. Like if you go somewhere like er well St. Andrews I think is thirty pounds but that's quite a lot for a ((unintelligible))  
 (0.5) I paid I paid sixty five dollars in Canada for a (reserve post) which is thirty somewhat thirty five pounds. You could go and see Chomsky twice.  
 (0.5)  
 BM (heh heh)  
 CM I'd rather play golf.  
 BM You'd rather play golf. ((laughing)).

### FEBRUARY 3 DIALOGUE D

- BM When I was in Malta (1) I remember one or two years in the Mediterranean that you were advised not to swim in the water.  
 NF Yes yes. It's so bad. // You

- BM // I- I- I- went // in and this  
 CM // We- we visited Greece and the water was  
 crystal clear. Not bad. Could be clear and dirty.
- NF I // yeah  
 BM // Could be could be could be clear and dirty. // It's sometimes dirty and muddy.  
 NF // Yes sometimes it depends on on  
 the =  
 CM = currents.  
 NF Yeah. Oh and lately like one day it's completely clear and the next morning it's but I  
 mean that's means that it- it- it is really really dirty.  
 CM Some places are really dirty. It's seeping over the sand.  
 BM And you've got these kids playing in the water. I mean it looks clean. Then you go in  
 and you come out and you're sort of coloured.  
 NF Yeah. But I mean you know Punta Andria. Andria. I think so.  
 BM They got they got a sewage pipe pipe // coming out one end of one end of the beach  
 NF // Ah yeah.  
 BM Untreated sewage.  
 CM What!  
 BM // Yeah. Untreated sewage. And it's a holiday resort. // Well close enough.  
 NF // Si- si- si. // It's one of the no it is it is it is  
 BM. It's one of the tourist attractions.  
 BM But it's not an international one is it. // It's it's it's internal tourists.  
 NF // No it isn't.  
 CM I'll stick to the pool.  
 NF But Malaga is not so bad. Actually (0.5) // maybe  
 BM // Ah that's right.  
 CM Do you- go and take a picture there and then go back to the pool.  
 NF Yeah. (heh)  
 BM That's smart.  
 NF A- a- and then like er =  
 CM = Is the Atlantic side that bad?  
 NF // No it's good. Punta Pies.  
 BM // No. No. Punta Pies is the Atlantic. It's just the the tide drags everything up and  
 down the beach.  
 CM Yeah.  
 BM You know. Depends on the tide mind you.  
 CM // Is there a tide is there a tide in the Mediterranean?  
 NF // We've been. (1) No.  
 BM It gets cleaned every (0.5) hundred years I think.  
 NF (heh heh heh heh)  
 CM Cos it's just that tiny little straight of Gibraltar.  
 NF Yes I guess like five five inches.  
 BM Mm.  
 (2)  
 CM Um five // inches  
 NF // That was // when I was  
 CM // About a quarter of an inch a year on your map.  
 NF When I was in er when was it in Thailand which is in the Atlantic. We used to go  
 ((unintelligible)) but not near the beach. To be honest.  
 (2)

- BM But when I got back when I first saw the tide I just couldn't believe it. (10 I never saw a tide until I was about fourteen.  
(0.5)
- CM What! You lived here?
- BM No I lived in um Malta. Grew up in it.
- CM Oh.
- BM So I was sort of practically. In Malta when the tide they had some sort of tidal movement. Not- it would go out maybe (0.5) maybe a foot (0.5) That meant that would be sea level. That was it. Cos you could walk out a long long way like (0.5)  
// that was along way maybe fifty yards. In England //
- CM // Yeah // Ah back here you can walk about two miles.
- BM Exactly. When I saw the Thames Estuary. (0.5) I said where's the bloody water.
- NF (heh heh)
- CM Oh it'll be back in an hour.
- BM I can't get it into my head even though I'd done geography.  
(2)
- CM Yeah.
- NF Was Japan dirty?
- CM Yeah. But they they're dirty too but you you'd think they would be the opposite. But all the places are dirty just now.
- BM There's a lot of pressure isn't there. Lot of people.
- CM Well. They don't go to the beach though. They hate sunbathing. And the water's kind of dirty. The water's not clear. Like California. But they have some pretty decent surfing and em pretty warm the water's warm inside.
- NF Mm.
- CM It's like bath tub water.
- BM Mm.
- NF Mm.
- CM So but in the winter it's awfully cold. (4) But they they're paranoid about their their islands er dissolving into the Ocean so they've done all these cement they're called er (1.5) like the // er
- BM // What like
- CM No- no. they're huge like the size of this room. One is the size of this room. And they've got thousands of these things stuck out there with the islands. So you might get a stretch of about half a mile of nice sandy beaches and then there's this huge what you call it breaking the surf. Pretty ugly. (2.5) If you don't look that it's OK  
(4) ((DM enters))
- BM How are you doing DM?
- DM Not bad. And you?
- BM Not bad.
- DM Good. Did you have a good weekend?
- BM Bad in some senses. I didn't get much work done.  
(0.5)
- DM Oh well.

**FEBRUARY 3 DIALOGUE E**

- AF Are you doing discourse for your core project?  
 BM No but maybe I should. (0.5) Maybe that would explain what it is about. I'm doing my option on discourse.  
 NF How do you decide // what you want to  
 AF // I wonder why you really bother.  
 BM Yes I know. It's you know one of those options that I think have I done the right thing. (2) It's now reading week in two weeks' time?  
 DM Yeah that's right.  
 BM Don't think I can change now. (1) Ah!  
 CM // (heh heh) Probably not.  
 BM // (heh heh heh) Oh what a problem.  
 CM And in the class. That's sounds very American actually this book. (1)  
 BM Er. I don't know.  
 CM Um. (3) Um we got we got a class. SLA class next week and the paper's due in next Friday.  
 NF Yes that's true. That's true. Well we got well we got // I got Psycho and second language  
 CM // Just a week // to go.  
 BM // Oh God right  
 yeah.  
 CM So that's the end of that. (0.5) Definitely staying resident in Edinburgh till then. (3.5)  
 BM How's it how's your going. I haven't given you your thing back. Do you still want it back?  
 DM Yeah.  
 BM Oh God. I'll do it.  
 DM Have you done it.  
 BM No.(1.5) I was going to give it consideration and everything and now look at it.  
 DM Now you now you won't bother right.  
 BM ((Snores)) What stuff are you reading for it then. (4) // Did did XX phone you.  
 DM // There's there's not an awful lot.  
 BM Did he direct you to any books or anything about your or have you =  
 DM = No his book.  
 BM His book right. // (heh heh) His book right.  
 DM // (heh heh heh) (3) There are a few things in ELTJ. (2.5) about it. (0.5) ((sniffs)) which are you know. There's not a lot though. (0.5) It's quite nice.  
 BM Did you see em X about that MSc thing.  
 DM That's right. I'll go up and see if I can see it.

**FEBRUARY 10**

- DM Have a good weekend? Do anything? =  
 AF = Do anything. (1.5) I don't think so actually. (5) I did nothing as far as I can remember. (2.5)  
 DM No we didn't get up to very much either. (1)

- AF Well I certainly didn't go out in the evening.  
(2)
- DM Friday or Saturday.
- AF No.
- DM Really!
- AF I mostly don't you know.
- DM Yeah. (1.5) I mostly do.  
(2.5)
- AF Yes but you don't have to find a baby-sitter.
- DM Mm. Mm.
- AF And you've got somebody there to go out with straight away. You don't have to sort of phone and make arrangements. And things. And find out that =
- DM = and find someone yeah. =
- AF = your friend hasn't got a baby-sitter either even if you have.
- DM Right. Right.  
(10)
- AF Also. I had quite a bad cold last week and (3) I didn't feel much like going out  
(1)
- DM Feel better now?
- AF Mm. Yes the worst was actually in the middle of the week when I was planning to work very hard. Cos em I'd got it over with when I was out without the opportunity to succumb as it were. So (heh heh) (8) I suppose we were out and about on Saturday afternoon. Actually I was up at the City Cafe.
- DM Mm?
- AF Heaping plates of chips into Julian. They do very good chips there actually.
- DM Where's that?
- AF The City Cafe on (Jeffrey) Street. (2.5) Just above Cowgate. You know when we go down to Wilkie House.
- DM Aha.
- AF Well the street we go down the City Cafe is in that. It's a nice place. (3) And it's like the only drinking place in Edinburgh where you can take children.
- DM And get chips.
- AF Just so.
- DM Perfect.
- AF Well the chips about the cheapest thing on the menu. (heh heh) (2) And I made the mistake of asking if he could fit in another plate and he finished those off.
- DM Good.
- AF Yup. (3) He was looking very peaky as if he didn't =
- DM = Growing man
- AF I think so yeah. (4) About time to measure him.
- DM How old is he?
- AF Eight and a bit. (4) I measure him every six months. Been doing that since a couple of years ago.
- DM Mhm?  
(1)
- AF It's just because he was growing at such a phenomenal rate. I thought I've got to chart this. I can't believe my eyes. // (heh heh)
- DM // (heh) (2) You got a record of it.  
(1)
- AF I think it's actually slowed down slightly now. (5) Makes up for his feet.

- (1)  
 DM Is there any set pattern to growing. I don't know.  
 AF I don't think so no. They tend to grow a bit less during the winter. I know why he's slowed down actually. He did grow a whole lot in the autumn.  
 (2)  
 DM Did he? Was // very sudden.  
 AF // Yeah. Yeah. Two or three weeks of- of sunshine. (1) As I say in the autumn and- and I think he grows to about four feet then.  
 DM Does he now.  
 AF Mm.  
 (2)  
 DM Takes light to be growing I suppose doesn't it.  
 AF Yeah. (8) Well I mean he needs eleven or twelve hours' sleep at night and that must be something to do with it.  
 (2)  
 DM Not necessarily. I'm the one that needs all the sleep and I don't need it to grow.  
 AF Yes well I get sort of seven or eight hours a night and it's not enough.  
 (2)  
 DM I need at least eight.  
 AF I need about ten. (heh)  
 DM Oh come one.  
 AF No I waste a lot of time in the evening.  
 (2)  
 DM I'm guilty of that as well.  
 (2)  
 AF Instead of flopping around relaxing. Wasting time. I should just go to bed and sleep. (7) You got anything planned for the summer or are you just going to stay here and write the whole time.  
 (3)  
 DM Um. (0.5) We've got a lot of people coming.  
 AF Aha.  
 (0.5)  
 DM From Canada.  
 AF Yeah.  
 DM At various points so.  
 AF Yes.  
 DM That's going to take a lot of time up I would think.  
 AF // Yes. Quite awkward isn't it.  
 DM // So we're not planning anything. Er it is depending on how things go. I haven't decided what I'll write about yet.  
 AF Mm.  
 DM Been trying to think of something that might stretch to twenty thousand words.  
 (2)  
 AF And that you might be able to find endurance for.  
 DM And is not excruciatingly boring.  
 AF ((Blows nose)) Mm.  
 DM You know. Half way through.  
 AF ((Blows nose)) Well you might have to just face that and cope with it. ((sniffs))  
 DM Mm.  
 (2)

- AF Do you actually have a spare bedroom in your flat.  
DM We have em a couch.  
AF Mm.  
DM In the living room.  
AF Mhm.  
DM So long as we don't have too many people to deal with we're OK.  
AF Even so it must be quite small.  
DM It is yeah but it's only for a week or // so it's OK.  
AF // Mm.  
DM Michelle's parents are coming.  
AF Aha.  
DM Some other friends. There's a lot of people actually .  
AF Mhm. (2) It must be actually very awkward. I should've thought a bed and breakfast would be quite handy.  
DM Yes that's true  
AF I mean there's quite a lot of places. I- think quite a lot of places around here actually.  
DM There are =  
AF = There are a lot along Leith aren't there?  
DM Yeah about six or seven.  
AF Mm. And they're probably not terribly expensive because they're down in Leith.  
DM Forty quid.  
AF Mm. Which is expensive.  
DM I stayed in a bed and breakfast when I came to visit. Can't remember exactly what it was. But it wasn't cheap. For two of you.  
AF Yeah it's not cheap.

## PERIOD 3 : APRIL 23 - MAY 12

## APRIL 23

## APRIL 23 DIALOGUE A

- BF The environment had changed and in some respects was more favourable.  
(1)
- DM But.
- BF But yeah.
- DM But it was yeah. I mean it's a good (1) as far as you can see it's- it's all relative isn't it. I mean as far as I know eh in Indonesian terms where I was it was extremely it was extremely painful.
- BF Yeah.
- DM But there were these other constraints which (4) and it as I said before it does come across I think very negatively. We we were actually more successful than they'd lead than they'd lead us to believe.
- BF Yeah.
- DM It was taken up I mean the innovation was taken up to an extent. A few things like ((unintelligible)) you know when they ask about ten things. And she considered she was this er really doing well. (1.5) You know we got you know three or four members of staff definitely involved in it doing things with it.  
(1.5)
- BF Maybe in that respect that adjusted the programme (2) which would be that list  
(1)
- DM Because when we left it it was =
- BF = Yeah and they didn't like (2) they really when people raised questions about it. (0.5) weren't confident about it (0.5) genuine- genuinely weren't confident about it (usually I mean to support their lies). They saw that as a criticism of their project. They thought it'd gone quite well for a couple of terms well actually it had gone very well for a couple of terms. (2) And there were little (hitches) that kind of made something else perhaps become much larger. (0.5) They'd kind of brushed over it. So they never considered preparation or adapting it.
- DM Never. (1) That's a classic isn't // it.
- BF // Yeah. (1) And they really saw it as a personal  
// attack on their little project.
- DM // Yeah. Yeah. Right.  
(18)((unintelligible))
- DM Hello. Have you got another class?
- MM Er no actually. I've come for Silvia to give me my thesis. (1) And you? How's the er project.
- DM Just reading each others' now at the moment.
- MM Finished it huh?
- DM No:: mine's not finished it's almost couple of =
- MM = Which one is it.
- DM The management of change.  
(5)
- BF We're sort of

- (5)  
MM X?  
DM Yeah.  
(8)  
BF What- what we said the strategies were in the programme (3) they weren't normal they're weren't ((unintelligible)) therefore I suppose they were rationalised.  
DM But this yeah (0.5) yeah (0.5) yeah. Well I know. They don't really separate out as well as- as they might those those four things. Certainly the ((unintelligible)) seems to be definitely different from the others. But then the other three.  
BF Yeah.  
DM Coalesce a bit I couldn't separate them out very well.  
BF Yeah.  
(21)  
DM You don't go in for all these sub-headings (0.5) one one =  
BF = In the re-draft // well I  
DM // Oh you do yeah (0.5) I know you don't like them.  
BF I don't but I I have sorted out quite a // bit  
DM // Yeah.  
BF More than that the last project. (1) Because I should think that XX and the lads over there want that // anyway.  
DM // Yeah.  
(20)  
BF ((unintelligible))  
DM Yeah. I'm not even sure about that if that's true or not now. (1) S'if you don't give any (3) you get anywhere usually.  
BF (heh heh heh heh heh) (8) They tried to get some kind of official endorsement didn't they. (2) Administration and the British Council and  
// they  
DM // Yeah. Yes. Trying to give it some (1) yeah yeah credibility.  
(3 minutes)((unintelligible))  
DM Is that the conclusion.  
BF Yeah.  
DM Don't worry. The conclusion isn't it's not (1) it's not (2) I couldn't get anything like that.  
BF OK.  
DM It's::  
(4)  
BF Well I can't really =  
DM = I // can't  
BF // say anything =  
DM = No I've read this and I this (1) basically we seem to've (1) yeah we've looked at the literature and approached the thing very differently // but the  
BF // I think I  
DM actual practical bit in terms of what we included in my theory (3) there's nothing (1) there's nothing startling that I can see missing from this (2) and it's very readable. (1)  
BF Well // that's  
DM // And this I you // know  
BF // Apart from the changed section em this section =  
DM = Yeah =  
BF = which is a theory section // more than anything else

- DM // Yeah that's it.
- BF But you - writes quite I mean reads quite fluently =
- DM = good.  
(4)
- BF Well I'll go home then now (1) and sleep it off.
- DM Yes you get rid of your hangover.  
(5)
- BF I got a // cold.
- DM // Got any plans for the weekend?  
(4)
- BF Well we've had a German guy here for a week. Then David came yesterday. He's now arrived. Dave finished his work on Friday. (2) And (1) and then you know he can catch up on his sleep cos he still won't be going till later. Taking three hours off to lecture.  
(4)
- DM When do you =
- BF = He's absolutely =
- DM = knackered.
- BF Cos we've been going out with these people as well. He's just been up too late.
- DM Yeah right.
- BF And he's not really up to it you know. He just (heh heh) (4) I don't know. What about you two?
- DM Haven't made plans yet. We haven't any money really. I'd definitely like to go out once one day. But I-I haven't really thought where or when or. (12) Well you know. Are you going to be in tomorrow.
- BF Yeah I tell you what (1) em I was just thinking actually =  
((AF enters))
- DM = Hello! (0.5) Long time no see.
- AF Mm. It seems ages doesn't it.
- DM Hibernating?
- AF Something like that. (2) You've been away on holiday haven't you?
- DM Yes. Just for four days. We went to Arran.
- AF Oh I thought you were going to go somewhere abroad. // You were talking about going to Spain.
- DM // Oh no. It all fell apart  
in the end. =
- AF = Oh dear. =
- DM = We couldn't get transport (2) Couldn't get a ticket. (1) Cos it was the wrong time of - because of Easter.
- AF Yeah.
- DM The prices had all gone up.
- AF Yeah. I know. They do. (2) So you went to Arran. A bit of a come down isn't it!  
((laughing))
- DM It was nice actually. Have you been to Arran?
- AF No I've not. (1) Like to go.
- DM Did a lot of climbing.
- AF // (heh)
- DM // I went with Francesca (0.5) and David.
- AF Uhuh?

- DM Francesca's room mate. (2) And Alice's- a friend of Alice's from London (1). There were six of us. Yeah we did a lot of hill walking. (0.5) We got back (1) er (2) Michelle and I got home she looked at her knees. (0.5) They were like this. Swollen up like this. Cos we did this enormous eight hour stretch.
- AF Uhm.
- DM Up this big bloody mountain. // And back down the other side.
- AF // Yes. Yeah.
- DM Obviously she overdid it.  
(1)
- AF But she managed it all right at the time?
- DM She managed it all right at the time. She was is er no she wasn't in pain at the time. No no she wasn't in pain at the time. But after it's =
- AF = Not that you'd notice =
- DM = she walked.  
(7)
- AF If you don't do it regular then she couldn't take it as a steady job could she.
- DM Yeah. Right. Yeah.  
((unintelligible))

#### APRIL 23 DIALOGUE B

- BF I told you my other half's (0.5) thinking of going for a PhD?  
(2)
- DM Oh you might as well do one as well then.
- BF Get out.  
(1)
- DM No?
- BF I don't want to do one.
- DM No I didn't think you did. I didn't think you did but (1) thought it would be a =
- BF = Imagine doing another two years of this?
- DM I'd hate it. No I'd ki- no I'd hate it. Absolutely hate it.
- BF But we've just heard that (0.5) as well that er (0.5) that he applied for a job in the Sudan and they've taken up references. (0.5) Find out this week (2.5) so::  
(2)
- DM Have you applied for anything?  
(1)
- BF No. Not for the moment.
- DM Oh you're waiting for Dave // aren't you.
- BF // Yeah. Yeah.  
(4)
- DM Oh we've got three weeks now (2). When are they going to tell us whether it is or not  
=
- BF = After the (1) portfolio yeah.
- DM Have you told him we need to know soon?  
(2)
- AM Er yeah. Em. (2) Er. // I asked- I asked for the end of term.
- BF // Why don't you go and see him.
- AM And he said- said- said that in- in effect yeah. (0.5) But I'll go- I'll go and see him.
- DM Yes sure. No that'll be brilliant yeah.
- AM But I mean I mean I asked him and he said possibly even more. An

- // extra week.  
 DM // O:h.  
 BF Ah. Oh you dosser. You're an absolute dosser.  
 DM (heh heh heh) Brilliant=  
 MM = Absolutely great =  
 AF Oh I've got no money. I've got to go to the bank.  
 DM Same here.  
 MM Absolutely (3) brill' as they say.  
 DM Brill' brill' yeah.  
 MM I mean we have- we'll have a maximum of twenty-one say twenty-five days eh? put twenty-four days. // Maximum of  
 DM // What options are you taking BF?  
 BF Lit. Stylistics. Tesp (1) Teap. Did you apply for work in IALS? No.  
 DM I did in the end yeah.  
 BF You did. (2) Have you heard?  
 DM Yeah. I mean he said something like well you did as well didn't you.  
 BF Sent in a form for blocks // t-  
 DM // I never got the form. I haven't- I have to see him actually. (0.5) He sent me a letter back saying Yes OK Fine and I'll let you know and (0.5) fill in on the enclosed form =  
 BF = and it wasn't there =  
 DM = and he'd forgotten to put it in.. (0.5) I don't think it matters to be honest so but I'll just make sure so it's you know.  
 (8)  
 BF No money? What do you mean you've got no money. (2) You've a working wife.  
 DM That's why I have no money. Oh I see yeah. Well we've been (0.5) spending too much. (heh heh heh heh // heh heh heh heh)  
 BF // Oh. (0.5) Dave gets paid tomorrow though for this holiday work.  
 DM Ah // right.  
 BF // Thank Christ =  
 DM = That'll be nice yeah.  
 BF Be a relief.

#### APRIL 23 DIALOGUE C

- DM It's em (1) It's em turned out all right.  
 (2)  
 AM Well is it in now.  
 DM No- no. It's there.  
 AM Ah right. Did Michelle have a look at it?  
 DM No. She's had a look at it.  
 BF Very good too I'd like to add.  
 DM BF was having a look at it. So now I have to re-write it completely.  
 BF Just write on there =  
 DM = I'm now going to tear it all up and // you know  
 BF // Just- just write on there look BF BF's seen this. It's good enough for her it's good enough for Fergey. (1) Fergey. I called him Fergey. (heh)  
 DM Fergey? Fergey?

- BF (heh heh) (1) A royal.  
(2)
- MM Not a royal now.  
(2)
- BF Um?
- MM Not a royal any more.  
(2)
- BF Was she ever? Was she ever really I mean.  
DM She wasn't very real was she?  
BF I was going to say you have to come round.  
DM That's be nice.  
BF We wanted to meet ((unintelligible))  
DM That's right. We never did get round to doing that did we.  
BF Actually we're having a house get-together tomorrow night.  
(2)
- DM How terrible.  
BF Well (1) I don't know if it'll be that uncivilised actually. (2) The problem is we usually spend a fortune (3) on beer.  
DM On beer right.  
BF The oil and beer.  
DM Something wrong isn't there somewhere.  
BF See you then.  
DM Yeah see you BF.

### APRIL 30

#### APRIL 30 DIALOGUE A

- BF I was just talking to XX this morning. ((unintelligible))  
CM No.  
MM (heh heh)  
BF Very good.  
CM Oh. OK =  
BF = And er (1) and I was saying that Dave's thinking to do a PhD so I'll be looking around the Edinburgh area sometime.  
MM Will you?  
BF Yeah. If- if he does the PhD. And she was saying (1) why don't I apply for an IALS grant and just teach there part time.  
CM Yeah.  
(1)  
BF I hadn't even considered it.  
(4)  
CM So what are em how many of them are there do you know?  
BF I don't know. (0.5) Don't know. Em. I think (1) three or two I'm not sure.  
CM Yeah there were two last time.  
NF Is there anybody else applying?  
CM Hope not. // (heh heh)  
BF // (heh)  
NF You work for the scholarship- scholarship.  
CM Well you have to work for it. You have to work four hundred eighty hours.

- NF Ah.
- CM They get tuition for the salary.
- BF But it's six-seven grand something like that.
- CM Seven thousand yeah.
- BF Is it.  
(1)
- CM The only way to reach a standard.  
(2)
- BF Well I haven't haven't er haven't even the thought had never entered my head . I don't know maybe.  
(2)
- CM As YY said - I said I said I'm just going to get my reference to IALS and he said well that'll all change when you start looking for jobs you know.  
(3)
- NF Mm. (heh) No way.  
(4)
- BF If I could find something I was interested in for two years say part time. The MLitt
- NF Ah the MLitt
- BF But the only thing is =
- CM = Well well I think most people think of it as sort of the stepping stone  
// to the PhD.
- NF // Yeah. But it does seem daft doing that. Does it make a difference to a  
I think a PhD =
- CM = Yeah. I agree. The MLitt is a research degree. That's the only difference.
- NF Yeah but in terms of =
- CM = but in terms of money it's not much yeah. Not really. You still end // up
- BF // But the  
way I look at it if I've got to be here =
- CM = Yeah =
- BF = I've got to find an income somehow. It's as good as anything.
- NF Mm.  
(3)
- BF Well you see we're on the reason that we're thinking about this at the moment is that  
Dave has now been made warden of our house (0.5) so we're getting free  
accommodation.
- CM Oh good deal.
- NF Oh.
- BF Which is a very good deal. We'll never be in that position again. Probably.
- NF How is it?
- BF He's been made into the warden of our house. We've got a brilliant university house.
- NF Ah and he's the warden.
- BF Yep. The girl who was doing it has dropped out of university. ((unintelligible)). It  
there's a we've got a- a big room and it's got it's own bathroom which is like one suite  
with a door through to the bathroom and then there's a little room that belongs to us  
but ((unintelligible)) but we use the kitchen facilities downstairs and the laundry  
facilities but the heating's free.
- MM That's good.

## APRIL 30 DIALOGUE B

- BM Last night I was trying to I had some sort of about page four I had I'd written a whole page with normal paragraphs and then I realised I'd indented the whole thing in and but also at the same time I wanted on the left hand margin on the left hand margin I wanted em a number. (0.5) and then some information between the number and the text which was indented =
- CM = It has to do It's called =
- BM = It's called a bloody (0.5) disaster. (0.5) But it's a I had I went through and I em of course indented every line and cycled and cycled the thing.  
(2)
- CM You don't feel at all inhibited about what you're saying there do you?
- BM No. (heh heh)
- CM I do.  
(4)
- BM So do I have just to do like that (0.5) indent every line. Because what I'm doing is I'm writing information by the side of the lines. // Cos if I indent
- CM // Yeah.
- BM the whole block I can't then get into the margin. (0.5) I can't get to the left of it.
- CM Oh you can't.  
(1)
- BM No.
- CM Er if you want to indent just the first line not indent just the first line of every paragraph. Can you do it that way?
- BM No. No I couldn't do it that way. (0.5) Cos when it's you know have you ever seen a those sort of a lesson plan.
- CM Aha =
- BM = where you have most of the body of the information here (0.5) in the middle of the page or towards // the right
- CM // Yeah. No I know exactly what you mean // there's a there's a typing setting for it but I don't know what it is.
- BM // Yeah. But then I want to be able to er add information in that =
- CM = On the left =
- BM = On the left =
- CM = With a little heading here or something.
- BM Yeah but you see as I go down I add things and sometimes putting // the
- CM // So you're doing that manually.
- BM So I was going =
- CM = Oh you want a table basically. (2) With lines. On one side of the table you have teacher's interaction and on the other side you have a description // of it
- BM // I want a table that has.
- CM You want a table. Can't get those on Works. You'd have to use Word for that.
- BM Restricted.
- CM Yeah.
- BM So I can't basic- but I can't get Word on mine.
- CM No you can't.
- BM So I'd have to do it em in the // columns.

CM // You need a  
(2)

BM I am discovering the restrictions.

CM table like this see. If you had a table like this

BM Without lines.

CM without lines. No problem without lines. Microsoft Word does it in a minute.

BM Cos yeah. So in fact there's no way I can go in fact cos the way I'm doing it at the moment you know if I as something there that obviously moves that across so I have to come back and move it back.

CM Yeah. Can't do it. See if it- if it- if it knows it's a table. Push tab and it goes to the next column =

BM = Yeah. =

CM = and just keeps writing.  
(0.5)

BM What if I what if I set the tabs. What if I set the tabs like this. Tab one. Tab two. Tab three.

CM Um. Way of doing it. (1) Except when you if you're writing here =

BM = it'll // move it.

CM // it won't automatically wrap at the tab and keep going past the tab =

BM = Yeah =

CM = You have to you have to manually return (1) em // but

BM // What go back up and then go  
down back here. // So for example if I had France and Switzerland are brilliant

CM // Yeah.

BM countries and I wanted that in that column.

CM Yeah.

BM I'd have to write that first (1) come back up =

CM = Wouldn't work =

BM = tab to here.

CM Wouldn't work cos when you start typing here // it just

BM // Yeah. Yeah (1) I'm buggered  
aren't it.

CM Well em I'm not sure that Works doesn't have a table does it?

BM Well. // I don't know.

CM // Look it up under insert table or something like that. See look at this. You just you- you pick this and it asks you how many- what like you want a two by twenty table or a two by two table you type it in (0.5) and Apple Mac puts it in and formats it any way you want. (0.5) You can use double lines single lines thick lines shaded lines =

BM = ((tuts)) Yeah. This is Word yeah. No this is yeah. // Microsoft Word.

CM // Yeah.

BM That's different from Word Perfect? Yeah.

CM Yeah Very different because you - you can't run that on your computer. (1) Of course you can't.  
(1)

BM I-I would have to - I would have to =

CM = You'd have to buy a better computer.

BM I'd have to buy - I could add - what if I bought a second hand em you can separate hardwares can't you.

CM Wouldn't work.

- BM Wouldn't work why // not.  
 CM // You- you don't have the processor to do it.  
 BM But- but why don't I?  
 CM Cos (0.5) in technical terms you own an // eighty-eight.  
 BM // Say. You shouldn't be here.  
 FF I got the job.  
 BM How come she got back so early. (0.5) That was yesterday.  
 CM In technical (1) terms you own a what's called an eighty-eight six processor and you need an eighty= three eighty-six processor which is two models newer and better than yours.  
 BM Ah right.  
 CM And it just won't run it.  
 BM Right. // Of I- if I was trying to add processors on then I'd I'd be thinking of  
 CM // It'll - No just buy a- a new computer.  
 BM buying a bigger computer. I could use use the portable // for  
 CM // To run this you need to spend about er eleven hundred pounds. (3) Then you could do it.  
 (2)  
 BM Jesus Christ. Eh?  
 CM Yup. (2) That's- that's life . That's cheap actually compared to a- what it used to cost to do that. (0.5) Well this is this technology is only three years old two years old.  
 BM Mm.  
 CM You couldn't do this two years- two years ago on an IBM.  
 BM There was a great big spread in one of the papers about this is Windows isn't it =  
 CM = Yeah =  
 BM = Yeah Microsoft Windows =  
 CM = Yeah.  
 BM Yeah.  
 CM This is this is what I use I mean I just have- I don't have this version // but  
 BM // Have you got this on the the drive at the::  
 CM No // no you can't do that.  
 BM // No. Why not.  
 CM Because she'd find out. (heh)  
 BM Why cos it's // big.  
 CM // Cos it takes about six megs of hard drive. She's going to notice a drop of six megs of hard drive in your =  
 BM = Mm =  
 CM = in your er =  
 BM = Six megs.  
 CM Yeah. Fifteen megs per full installation. (3) Er minimum five megs. Full installation fifteen megabytes. On a hard disk. You consider that one floppy you have is er (0.5) is three sixty K?  
 BM Uhm?  
 CM That's like thirty floppies. (0.5) More than thirty floppies.  
 (1)  
 BM You'd never be able to operate it would you.  
 CM You wouldn't. It- it only runs up just simply will not work.  
 BM Well anyway. I it- it Works- Works is OK for what I do.  
 CM Yeah. // See now.

- BM // You reckon there's a table on it.
- CM As far as my memory serves there isn't. But I've never tried it.(1) Then it's near impossible to do tables without having a tabling feature.
- BM Can- can- can you do- you know the spread sheet.  
(1)
- CM Yeah.
- BM There's a spread sheet option.
- CM Yeah the spread sheet's simple but it won't put lines between anything. I actually =
- BM = Could you- could you do- could you do spread sheet copy spread sheet format //onto
- CM // Er you could yes just a couple of pages. But you ((unintelligible))
- BM mean I've done it now.
- CM You could do it in a s-spread sheet make the column as wide as you want it and as thick as you want it. And it would wrap around and then go to the next part. Go to the second column and do what you want. Couldn't put lines between and formatting might be skewed a bit if you tweaked it you could you could do it.
- BM Or- or insert lines.
- CM Well you said you didn't need lines.
- BM No I don't but you could insert them though.
- CM Vertical lines it couldn't do I don't think
- BM Yeah.  
(2)
- CM And- and you couldn't have a (spell check) because there's no (spell check) on this on this spread sheet.
- BM Basically I'm- I'm not into that.  
(1.5)
- CM You're limited by that.  
(0.5)
- BM Well what other programmes have they got in- in the Hume Tower?
- CM Vu-writer. I'm not don't know it very much . I think Word Five I know they have it there would do tables. (2) I'm not sure you can see it on the screen. But it will do tables.  
(1)
- BM How easy would it be for me to take documents that I've got on from the Works.
- CM See in my Word it converts automatically. But that Works I don't know. Never tried it. You could ask what's-her-face.
- BM She said it was possible.  
(1.5)
- CM I- I- I- mean I can- I can convert you Works to my Word and then to Word Five. I can do that (0.5) If you didn't have to make laws I could copy it easily.
- BM Yeah but it would be like =
- CM = You'd lose a few things. You'd lose some= you'd lose some er if you had any kind of word-spacing or er or indents you'd lose them all.  
(1.5)
- BM I don't think I'll change over to Word.
- CM No-no the trick is find a format that you like and stick with it.
- BM Mm.  
(2.5)
- CM But em // if you took your- if you decided in the next project- this is for your
- BM // But I-

- CM next project right?  
 BM OK. Right.  
 (1)  
 CM Take it em (1) for get your computer for the project and go to use the Macs. They've got the Word the Word Five Word Four and three point something whatever they have over there and do tables. I'm ninety percent sure. Very easy. You can see it all on the screen everything.  
 BM And they take two and a half disks.  
 CM They do- what you need a- you can't- it's not com-compatible with all the systems. So you'd have to do it all over there. (0.5) // So write it up how you want.  
 BM // Yeah. (0.5) Yeah but that would be daft because I'm cos it's to be handed in.  
 CM Yeah. (1) Could buy a Mac.  
 (2)  
 BM So a // Mac's  
 CM // Eight hundred pounds in Mac would get you that oh plus the software. A thousand there too.  
 BM Eight hundred pounds that's three month's rent.  
 (0.5)  
 CM For your next computer though don't buy an IBM. Buy a Mac. (0.5) They practically do the same now.  
 BM But they're not compatible are they.  
 CM No but a Mac is much more user friendly and you- you wouldn't these problems you wouldn't be having and you wouldn't even think of any of that. ((unintelligible : conversations mix)). Yeah. Your- your prices here are twice as much as in North America. Hardware. Software Everything (0.5). The educational price on this Word is a hundred fifty pounds. That's a hundred thirty dollars which is // you know exactly more less than than half.  
 BM // Half. Less  
 than half yeah.

## MAY 7

- DM Doesn't it take longer if you come back later.  
 CM Yeah. (2) You can count your MSc towards your- your next degree. (2) If only you stay here you can count what you're doing towards the next one.  
 DM Aha.  
 CM If you leave you got to start all over.  
 DM What with the MSc again.  
 CM No. The-  
 NF (heh heh heh heh heh heh heh // heh heh ah)  
 CM // Hey the MSc's a one year degree right.  
 DM Right.  
 CM So you got it you got it finished. (1) MLitt is a two-year degree. Right. It's better doing two years on top of it.  
 DM Mm.  
 (2)  
 CM MSc counts as a year towards your two-year MLitt so in theory you can finish your MLitt in one year.  
 DM Ah right. I see.

- CM And PhD's a three year degree. (2) Your MLitt counts for a year. Your M.- your MSc counts for one year your MLitt counts for a year. Transfer to PhD. And do your PhD in one more year.
- DM One more year?
- CM After your (1) MLitt year. // So that's two more years after your MSc
- DM // Hell. (0.5) Does anybody manage to do that?
- CM I don't think so. (1) But the beauty of that system is that your last your last year (1) if you take an extra year (0.5) anything more than a minimum you don't pay for tuition. You pay a- a nominal fee like eighty pounds a year or something.
- (2)
- DM So you have to pay for two more years now. From now. // You
- CM // All you have to pay for maximum is two more years.
- DM You've done one year.
- CM Yeah. =
- DM = And then the first year of a PhD.
- CM // Yes.
- NF // Mujib is doing that and em he'll be able to finish in two years' time.
- CM Who is?
- NF Mujib Rahman. And he did it a Master's last year and er he can go back to Pakistan and travel for six months.
- CM Mm.
- NF So he can travel there and come back and do a- a (1.5) draw conclusions or make a =
- CM = Yeah =
- NF = and go back next September so =
- CM = The problem is it's two years when you're not making three years when you're not making any money. (0.5) So (0.5) it's a lot of loss.
- DM There's a lot lost yeah.(1.5) You have to live like a student as well // for three years.
- NF // (heh heh heh)
- CM Yeah. (1) Which is not as fun as living like a worker for two years.
- DM No.
- CM I mean I like to have a car. I'd like have (1) you know really nice stereo systems sitting back in Canada doing nothing. In order to have all this stuff. (3) Can't justify spending the money though when you (0.5) student
- DM No I think // you don't
- CM // Might make it easier. For the rest of your life you know yeah.
- (4)
- DM I suppose once it's done it's done isn't it.
- (4)
- CM Never have to go back. You right (4). I'm not doing any more schooling even if I leave this year. (1) Not doing any more schooling. It's either now (2) or never for me.
- DM Yeah. I've- I've said that but I've- I've changed. I've actually changed my mind that in the sense that I'm not going to cut that option off in ten fifteen years' time. I may very well want to do some more schooling =
- CM = Yeah. Well my mind would have to change =
- DM = Yeah.
- CM But =
- DM = But as- as I feel at the moment I'm the same as you. Finish.

- CM Yeah. Because (0.5) for me you- you can get this (0.5) you get in the habit of always doing what you're doing now for some future reason. (0.5) Instead of doing what you do as because it's what you do. Like now- like in Japan I was we were saving up money so we could go to school. (0.5) Now we're studying so that we can go somewhere else. (1.5) Well if you stop now your MSc and you think well some day I want to do a PhD. For the next ten years you're thinking of saving up so that you can have a PhD. (0.5) Always thinking of the future events em I don't like doing that.  
(1)
- DM Oh I wouldn't look at it // like that.
- CM // You don't- you don't live your life for now.
- DM Yeah I wouldn't look at it like that anyway I mean I wouldn't plan to do a PhD in fifteen years' time. (2) But that in // fifteen years' time.
- CM // You could say but like what could happen you could say (1) look I've finished my MSc (1) and I'll work for a few years and make enough money and come back and do the rest. That's what I don't want to do.
- DM Oh no- no I wouldn't no. No. (1.5) No if you want to do it badly enough. You're doing the right thing. // Do it now yeah.
- CM // Yeah.
- DM Don't don't wait no it's pointless. (1) But I don't I don't want to do it at all. (0.5) Just at the moment. (19) Will you go home for a holiday.  
(1)
- CM Em. Going home next week. (1) For ten days.
- DM Really? Next week? (1) Are you going to miss the last week // of
- CM // Miss the l- last week of classes. Come back // just before
- DM // Why- why did you ch- oh you chose it.
- CM I didn't have a choice. Em. (1.5) Nuni's brother's getting married and so (2) we're supposed to go.
- DM Right.
- CM I wasn't going to go back but then the in-laws decided to take my wife.
- DM The last week. It's no big deal. You can miss that anyway.
- CM I only have two classes. So-
- DM Yeah. Er it's no big deal. But the time you get to the last week you'll have done most of what you need to- you'll know what you need to know for the portfolio. If you're answering questions anyway so (3) shouldn't be a problem.  
(2)
- NF We are going to have a party next week or something.  
(1)
- CM I'm not going to be here.
- NF No. Because nobody is going to see each other after the portfolio.  
(05)
- CM They're not? Where are they going?
- NF // Not together.
- CM // Got to be around somewhere.
- NF At least twenty-five people leave together.
- CM Mm.
- NF But after that ((unintelligible)) hitching up to Glasgow.
- CM Yeah that's a good idea.
- NF Yeah. I was thinking we could perhaps do that.
- DM It's be difficult to get people together again.

- NF ((unintelligible))
- CM Yeah that's a good idea. (2) We'll just have to get on to that then.
- DM We'll leave that to you CM. You arrange that.  
(2)
- CM I already got the- I already got the er.
- NF Yeah thank you.
- CM Actually he got the exams back - not the exams- the er last project moved back a week- ahead a week- back a week. (1.5) Didn't you?
- DM Not // me.
- CM // Didn't you go and talk to- to XX?
- DM Would've been AM I think.  
(1)
- CM Well I thought- I thought that the first time that he said he'd move to the Monday. Then when- when he found out when the examiner was coming. He went and moved it again.  
(1) ((MM enters))
- DM Though I think you were the moving force. Hello MM.
- MM Hello there. What are you doing.
- CM Well it was your idea.
- DM Sitting here.
- CM // Well my job as class rep.
- MM // Are you meeting X this afternoon.
- DM No. Are you meeting him.
- MM Think so.
- DM Oh good cos in that case you could pass on the message that I can't. I'd em like to yeah obviously but I've- I've got a class. I forgot.  
((unintelligible : Another MM enters))
- CM MM!
- MM Yes?
- CM Turn around.
- NF O:h.
- CM Oh sweet cut.
- DM Wow.
- NF What's that you've changed.
- MM I want to look different.
- CM You have nice hair though. Always have. Always will.  
(5)
- MM We er should have a- another battle of squash.
- DM Yes. Yes.
- MM I was enjoying that.
- DM I injured myself actually in that game.
- MM Oh you did. And you kept mum about it.
- DM I kept mum about it. yeah. I could've had all these excuses for losing but I thought no no I won't do // that.
- MM // I'll keep that for =
- DM = Well do you want to play next week?
- MM Yeah I'll book a court. I'm going to go there after the =
- DM = Don't book it (1) Thursday at night. Thursdays and Tuesdays. We have this Educational Technology class from four to six.
- MM So Thursday and Tuesday. I wrote that right. Not Thursday.

- DM And I'll get round to ((unintelligible))  
 MM What are you going to do?  
 DM I haven't asked.  
 (1)  
 CM Can I ask you to get the notes for me for the last few classes. (2) For // the  
 DM // Sure. I-  
 CM // You're going to be - you're going to be  
 DM // I'm going to - I'm going to miss one. I'm going to miss one I think yeah.  
 CM OK. Well just the one you go to // just  
 DM // The one I go to I'll yeah the last week.  
 NF I'm going to both.  
 CM Oh are you going to both the last week? OK. When then I'll ask you to get both of them.  
 DM Yeah it's easier.  
 CM Yeah.  
 DM Just one person to get both.  
 (2)  
 CM I'll be back in the last part hopefully. I come back on that day.  
 NF Your brother in law is getting married?  
 CM Yeah. My wife's brother.  
 DM There's a class on Monday?  
 CM Yeah. Apparently.  
 DM Week six.  
 CM Yeah. (0.5) With one week for Educational Technology.  
 (1)  
 DM May not bother with that.  
 NF (heh heh heh)  
 CM I'm doing that for the my project anyway so.  
 DM Oh you need to do it yeah but (1) see what it's like. Interesting.  
 CM Computers though should be interesting.

## MAY 12

### MAY 12 DIALOGUE A

- BF I went to see XX.  
 CM Oh yeah.  
 BF Talked to (0.5) him about it. I decided that I'm not- I'm really not that interested in it. And (0.5) the amount of effort you have to put in.  
 (1)  
 CM It's a lot of work =  
 BF = writing the application even!  
 CM Well yeah your CV and proposal.  
 (0.5)  
 BF Yeah but =  
 DM = A::h!  
 CM Proposal. My proposal was only two three that's three or four pages single spaced. (1) Like (0.5) like I didn't even know what he wanted. I just brought it in and said this is what I thought and he looked at it and said this is that was all you need. You can't be more specific than that.

- BF Yeah.
- CM Then the CV. Right?
- BF Yeah. But the things that they wrote there I'm not really interested very interested in so that's // their specific areas.
- CM // No ESP and CALL and what else did they say?
- BF I don't mind ESP but em the resource centre CALL. Are you doing CALL.
- CM Yeah. Yeah. (3) I could you could mi- easily mix ESP and CALL. Easily do that.
- BF Yeah.
- CM There's probably more application to computers in ESP than there is in anything else.
- DM Is there. (heh heh heh)
- BF I just can't be // bothered. I don't really want to carry on studying so.
- DM // (heh heh heh) (1) Are you having second thoughts about your future then? Thinking about =
- BF = No. =
- CM = Well you'd make me feel // better but at the same time
- BF // Lots of (2) Well // spoke to YY about applying for that MLitt
- CM // Yeah would've been nice to have someone around that I know.
- (2)
- DM What one. The scholarship thing?
- BF Yeah.
- DM Right.
- BF So I thought about it for about (1) don't know three days. Then I thought I don't want to do it.
- DM Yeah. It's a real shame to go for it if you're not interested isn't it really.
- BF Yeah. And especially when like well I don't really want to.
- DM Yeah that's // right.
- CM // That- that shouldn't be a factor in your decision though.
- BF No I // know.
- CM // Not at all.
- BF It isn't really. // But sort of sort of
- CM // Yeah like if that's any part of your decision don't even (0.5) like don't do that.
- BF No-no but it sort of (0.5) brings home the truth about whether I want to do it. I mean // I can't
- CM // Oh you mean like how much do you want to do it.
- BF Well yeah like if I compare myself to you you're dead certain and everything. That you want to do it.
- (1)
- CM That's my problem.
- BF Whereas I (1) you know I think I just cannot be bothered to get an // application in
- CM // But you could apply and if you get it in fact it could be part of your decision making process too.
- BF Well no (0.5) I'm =
- CM = Like you're m- are- are you making the decision one step too- too early or not.
- (1)
- BF No. (heh)
- DM I think if // you do the danger of doing what you're suggesting is that you-

BF // I'm just  
 DM you- you- you do that =  
 CM = You might fall into it =  
 DM = Or you get it =  
 CM = Yeah =  
 DM = and you think well all // right. I might as well do it yeah.  
 BF // You may as well do it.  
 CM Yeah then you // begin thinking  
 BF // You didn't really want to do it // in the first place  
 DM // That's right yeah.  
 CM // Yeah. It is true though.  
 DM // What about Dave? Is he going to be ((sniffs))  
 BF Well he was going to apply for a PhD. That's why all this came // up.  
 DM // That's right  
 yeah.  
 BF And then anyway I decided before (0.5) last week that I wasn't going to do it whether he.  
 (0.5)  
 DM You'd work. Yeah.  
 BF got the PhD or not.  
 DM Right.  
 BF Anyway this week he should have had his application last Friday and I said to him yesterday well did you get your application and he said I can't be- I don't really want to do // it.  
 DM // Aye do // it's  
 BF // I mean so it sort of panned out anyway without even discussing it. But.  
 (1.5)  
 CM Today's the deadline for that in isn't it anyway.  
 BF I think so yeah.  
 DM Is it?  
 CM May the twelfth yeah.  
 (0.5)  
 DM Well.  
 CM Cos they want to tell you by the thirtieth but they have to interview you too.  
 BF Yeah. ZZ said an interview with him and XY.  
 (0.5)  
 CM You've had it?  
 BF No ZZ said they give an interview // with  
 CM // with him and XY. XX and XY. (1) I'm going to be away for starting tomorrow for ten days.  
 BF Mm.  
 CM But I told them. We'll have to work it out.  
 (3)  
 DM I think we should try and go up now.  
 BF Yes. Where are you off to for ten days.  
 CM Canada. Got to go to a wedding

## MAY 12 DIALOGUE B

- DM You've got a class over there haven't you.  
 AF No I haven't actually.  
 DM No?  
 AF No. I'm' I'm going partly to meet X.  
 DM Yeah.  
 AF Um. I'm supposed to go up and see XX so.  
 DM // Is that is he  
 AF I've got a couple of totally uninformed sort of basically stupid ideas for a project.  
 DM What.  
 NF Hello? Please can I get change?  
 DM Em (1) What how much do you want.  
 AF I'm not sure that I have actually.  
 NF Er. Fifty p.  
 (1.5)  
 AF I think I gave it all away. (3) Well no- no I can give you forty-five.  
 NF All right.  
 DM That's how you make profits in this world.  
 NF // (heh heh)  
 AF // (heh heh heh heh)  
 DM I can give you I can give you thirty.  
 AF Oh we soak off the students actually.  
 NF (heh heh) That's not true no.  
 AF I'll give you the other five another time.  
 DM Well what are these yeah what are these ideas then?  
 (1.5)  
 AF Well the thing I'm most interested in is pidgins and Creoles but I don't know that it's practical for a project. (2) Um.  
 DM You might get a trip somewhere.  
 AF (heh heh)  
 DM Where are you going to find pidgins and Creoles.  
 AF Well I don't know.  
 (2)  
 DM There's a lot been written on it. I mean seriously we're into // that  
 AF // I've read I've read  
 some of it. I think I'd probably be better doing this from Belize or somewhere,  
 DM Do you know a pidgin or a Creole.  
 AF No. You do though.  
 DM Mm. Well I did. I mean I've forgotten most of it. But I yeah. I had =  
 AF = I'm just really interested in the whole sort of business of // language and formation  
 DM // Yes. It is very  
 interesting.  
 NF I'd better go to my class.  
 (2)  
 AF You did this last week didn't you. // (heh)  
 NF // Yeah. I really like the teacher very much.  
 AF (heh heh)  
 DM It's very relaxing. (1) And the other one.

- AF Oh the other possibility I suppose is language attitudes. (3) I thought I might survey the parents of the kids in the Gaelic Unit and see why they'd sent them there.  
(2)
- DM Then find what's right what's good.
- AF Shouldn't've brought them. Yeah I know. I'm not very good at thinking up ideas. Especially in Linguistics. There's such a fuzzy field isn't it.
- DM It's very amorphous er.
- AF It // is.
- DM // If you fancy doing anything // you can
- AF // The guidelines for the project basically say do what you like!
- DM Yeah.  
(2)
- AF They say you can take any any subject from the option course or anything else you want to do. // (heh heh heh heh heh)
- DM // Yeah. Do whatever you want to do.  
(6)
- AF I don't know. (3) I can't really do something that requires a hell of a lot of research.  
(2)
- DM No.
- AF I mean eventually the way you use time time doing the actual project is up to you. (1)  
But I think =
- DM = Yeah but this is for your dissertation or (0.5) are you talking about a project?
- AF Yeah.
- DM You're talking about a project.
- AF I'm talking about a project. I don't think I'll do the dissertation this year.
- DM Oh no. You've got till next year. All right. It's a project. (1) You'll have a lot to do next year if you don't do // another one this year.
- AF // I know I know.. That's why I want to.
- DM It's in your interest isn't it to do // more than one.
- AF // Yeah. Yeah. (1) That was the idea.  
(1.5) ((MM enters))
- DM Are you wanting here?
- MM Sort of. Are you waiting for a lecture or something? Do you want to go for coffee?
- DM Well no thank you. You AF?
- AF I can't no. I'm meeting X.
- MM Oh it's OK. I'll be all right.
- DM No- no I was- I was going to move anyway. Shit. I can't sit here and er be chatting to AF all day.
- AF (heh heh)
- DM I'm afraid.
- AF Oh well.
- DM When are (2) you meeting what time is X coming.
- AF Well she should be coming out of class now.  
(3)
- MM There she is now.  
(2)
- AF Oh hell. That's what I meant. I just.
- DM Right. See you later.

## APPENDIX II : SELECTED CODED TRANSCRIPTION

### NOTE:

There are 272 pages of coded transcription on an Excel spreadsheet; it would not be useful to reproduce them all here. In the following ten pages, the first 535 discourse units of the coded transcription are reproduced.

In the Excel spreadsheet, some of the longer discourse units spread across several sheets. These excerpts only contain the first two of the text sheets. The fact that this leaves some units incomplete is not considered to be important since the objective of reproducing the excerpts is to give an example of how the coding system works.

The coded transcription contains some code tags that were not actually used in the final analysis because on reflection they did not tie in enough with the central hypotheses or because they showed no changes over time. These code tags are:

XBU2	fillers "I mean" and "you know", etc.;
?T	tag questions
#	adjuncts:
	#^ continuatives,
	#- adversatives,
	#> temporal
	#< causal
F	modifier
H	post-head
K	complement
M	nominal
Q	determiner
R	peripheral
Y	pre-head
&	dependent

DU	K	F	T	SA	SPK	TEXT
1001	2	S	SD	21	MM	So #^ you were_11 in em_XLU1? ((0.5))
1002	2	S	SD	11	AM	In Sudan_21.
1003	2	S	D	22	MM	Sudan_21.
1004	2	S	D	11	AM	Mmm I've been_11 there_NDV2 for three years_XA2_&YQ_20 but #- um one_&YQ year_20 em promoted one year_XA2_&YQ_20 and #+ that_NDP2 included_X10 two years_XA
1005	2	S	D	21	MM	Was_11 that_NDP2 with the Council_XT2_21?
1006	2	S	D	11	AM	No-no em (1) that_NDP2's_11 for the Sudanese government_XT2_&YF_20.(0.5)
1007	2	S	SC	11	AM	And then #> er (0.5) I actually_# applied_X10 for a job_NA1_20_&YF in Gabitas_21 through Gabitas_21.
1008	2	S	SC	31	CM	Yeah #^ they_NEP2 they do_X13 a lot of private em secondary school_XA2_&YQ_&YF_20 don't they_?T
1009	2	S	D	11	AM	So #^ I was_11 with them_NEP2.
1010	2	S	D	11	AM	But_XLU2. ((2))
1011	2	S	D	23	BM	What did you say_X10?
1012	2	S	D	23	BM	Advertised_N10 through what?
1013	2	S	D	31	AM	Gabitas Thring_21 is_11 um an educational er appointments agency_NA2_&YF_20. (1)
1014	2	S	D	11	AM	Yeah #^, through them_NEP2 we'd intended_X10 to go to Argentina_21 er (4) but #- that_NDP2 fell_X10 through.
1015	2	S	SC	31	BM	I actually #^ did (2) have_10 a job_XA1_20_&HF set up in Argentina_21.
1016	2	S	SC	31	BM	same thing_NCJ2_22 happened_N103.
1017	2	S	D	31	BM	Fell_XLI_X10 through.
1018	2	S	D	31	BM	It_NEP2 was_11 inflation_NA2_20.
1019	2	S	D	31	BM	And then #> it_NEP2 came_X10 back on again.
1020	2	S	D	21	AM	Oh.
1021	2	S	D	31	BM	By that stage #>_NDJ2_20 I thought_X10 no way. (ha ha)
1022	2	S	D	31	BM	Cos #< of inflation_NA2_20.
1023	2	S	D	31	BM	You know_XBU2 they_NEP2 said_X10 it_NEP2 was_11 under control_20.
1024	2	S	D	31	BM	Well #-, I was looking_X10 at it_NEP2 later and #+ I thought_10 well_XLU1=
1025	2	S	D	22	CM	You fancy_X10 getting it_NEP2 clear.
1026	2	S	D	31	BM	Yeah I-I don't fancy_N10_ \$ this.
1027	1	S	SA	31	AM	Oh so #^ you know_XBU2 because #< my wife_20 had to change_N10 her name_NSJ2_20. (2)
1028	1	S	SA	31	AM	Because #< apparently # the Argentinian authorities_XT2_&YF_20 re-must have you must have_X10 the same name_NT1_&HF_XCJ1_20 on your passport_20 as your birth certifica
1029	1	S	D	31	AM	And #+ my_&YF wife_20 had changed_N10 her name_NSJ2_20 because #< her parents_NSJ2_20 had (0.5) divorced_X10 and em her mother_NSJ2_20 had married_N10 again. (0.5)
1030	1	S	D	31	AM	But #- she_NEP2'd always been known_X10 by one name_XA2_&YQ_20.
1031	1	S	D	31	AM	So #< we changed_N10 it_NEP2 back and in between that of course #^ em we'd been married_N10 at that stage_NDJ2_20.
1032	1	S	D	31	AM	So #< now_XDV she_NEP2 has_N10 three names_NA2_&YQ_20.
1033	1	S	D	21	BM	(heh heh heh heh)
1034	2	S	D	31	AM	And then #> of course #^ we didn't get_X10_ \$ the job_NT2_20. (13)
1035	2	S	SC	21	BM	So #^ how about yourself_X_40?
1036	2	S	SC	11	MM	Em I taught_10 in Japan_21 like_NCV1 CM_40 did_N103 a couple of years_XA2_&YQ_20 eh south coast_&YF_20 for years_20 and couple of months_XA2_&YQ_20 here_XDV an
1037	2	S	D	21	BM	Well #^ did you like_10 it_NEP2?
1038	2	S	D	32	MM	It_NEP2 was_11 interesting.
1039	2	S	D	33	MM	Three months_XA2_&YQ_20 is_11 enough though #-.
1040	2	S	D	21	CM	Were_11 you on a compound_XA2_20 or were_11 you_XLU1...?
1041	2	S	D	11	MM	Yeah mainly in a compound_NA2_20.
1042	2	S	D	11	MM	Teaching military telecommunications_XA2_&YF_20_N10. ((3))
1043	2	S	D	21	BM	That_NDP2 was_11 some time_&YF_20 ago was it?



















## APPENDIX III : CODING SYSTEM FOR KNOWLEDGE AND FUNCTION LABELS

**FIELD 1 : DIALOGUE** number and **DISCOURSE UNIT** number.

e.g.:	<b>01001</b>	dialogue one discourse unit one
	<b>01002</b>	dialogue one discourse unit two
	<b>01003</b>	dialogue one discourse unit three
	<b>02042</b>	dialogue two discourse unit forty-two
	<b>21121</b>	dialogue twenty-one discourse unit one hundred and twenty-one

**FIELD 2 : KNOWLEDGE AREA**

<b>01</b>	Knowledge area one	the world, including Edinburgh
<b>02</b>	Knowledge area two	language teaching, studying at any university (excluding Edinburgh University), using computers.
<b>03</b>	Knowledge area	Edinburgh University (EU), the Department of Applied Linguistics (DAL), and the Institute for Applied Language Studies (IALS)
<b>04</b>	Knowledge area	The 1991-1992 MSc (the present course)
<b>P</b>	Privileged or shared interpersonal knowledge (generally about interlocutor) thus: 1P 2P 3P 4P	

**List Of Topics In The Knowledge Areas:**

(Numbers identify dialogues)

**01 KNOWLEDGE AREA ONE : the world, including Edinburgh (excluding the university). Conversations that anybody living in Edinburgh should understand.**

**World And TV**

- 11 What happened in a TV serial.
- 18 What Chomsky says in the news.
- 19 What the sea pollution is like in the Mediterranean and Japan.
- 24 How people see 'Fergey' now.

**Edinburgh And Scottish Traditions**

- 4 What happens on Edinburgh buses.
- 8 How BF spent her Hogmanay in Edinburgh.
- 13 How the Scots celebrate Easter and Christmas.
- 21 Where DM's visitors could get a good Bed and Breakfast.

**Speakers' Homes And Habits**

- 3 How AM heard about the leak in his flat.
- 15 What CM's budgie does in the living-room.
- 21 How AF wastes time in the evening at home.

**Speakers' Families**

- 1 Why AM's wife has three names.
- 2 How CM's wife makes bags, boxes and blankets.

- 21 Why AF's social life is limited by her son and why he is growing so fast.
- 22 Why BF's husband is exhausted.
- 23 How DM's wife and BF's husband affect their financial situation.

#### **Speakers' Trips, Outings And Entertainments**

- 2 What happened in hypnotism shows.
- 11 Why AM did not go for a meal after the pub; where BF went after the meal.
- 14 Why DM did not climb a mountain in Pitlochry.
- 18 Why CM and his wife like certain golfers and why CM does not play golf in Scotland.
- 21 Where AF took her son for chips on Saturday.
- 22 Why DM ended up going on holiday to Arran and what happened to his wife's feet there.
- 27 Why CM has to go home for ten days, when DM and MM are going to play squash, and why it is difficult to arrange an end of term party.
- 28 Why CM has to go home for ten days.

#### **Meanings Of Words**

- 7 What "thingymajig" means.
- 9 What the origin of AM's name is.

### **02 KNOWLEDGE AREA TWO: language teaching, studying at any university (excluding Edinburgh University), using computers. Conversations that any language teacher or linguist living in Edinburgh should understand.**

#### **Language Teaching**

- 1 Where AM, BM, and CM have taught English before coming to Edinburgh.
- 5 What was wrong with BM's wife's interview at an Edinburgh language teaching school, and how AF feels about Edinburgh language schools.
- 22 Why DM and BF had difficulty introducing innovations in language schools abroad.

#### **Studying At University**

- 10 What the exam questions were like in CM and DM's undergraduate courses.
- 18 What the mnemonics for MSc and PhD are.

#### **Computers For Study**

- 6 How to buy a computer and get it out of the country avoiding VAT.
- 9 How CM uses the tabling feature on Microsoft Word.
- 26 How BM can solve his layout problem by changing software.

### **03 KNOWLEDGE AREA THREE: Edinburgh University (EU), the Department of Applied Linguistics (DAL), and the Institute for Applied Language Studies (IALS). Conversations that any language teacher or linguist living Edinburgh who has done an MSc in AL at DAL of EU (but not necessarily the 1991-1992 MSc) should understand.**

#### **EU**

- 4 Whether BF's house is convenient for the department and King's Buildings.
- 14 How BF beat the sandwich rush.
- 18 What Chomsky lectured on when he came to the university.
- 23 Whether BF's husband will do a PhD, and what BF and DM think BF's university house get-together will be like.
- 25 What the university house that BF's husband has just been made warden of is like.
- 26 What computer programmes David Hume Tower has.

28 Why BF's husband did not apply for the PhD.

#### **IALS/DAL Here And Now**

1 What buns AM and BM would like next (in IALS bun lunch).

3 Whether AM has time to go to the DAL common room and get a coffee.

14 Whether DM can bring BF a tea from the DAL coffee machine.

15 Why BM and DM are shutting out the sunshine, in DAL common room, and where the key to the DAL photocopier is.

26 Whether CM and BM are comfortable with the cassette recorder.

29 How much change AF and DM can give NF (for the DAL coffee machine).

#### **Doing A PhD In AL / Working For IALS**

23 Why BF will not do a PhD in AL, and what happened to DM's application for IALS summer teaching.

25 Whether BF could think of a subject for the IALS MLitt scholarship, and what it consists of.

27 How the MSc in AL year counts towards the PhD in AL, and whether it's better to do the PhD now or later.

28 Why BF is not interested in the IALS scholarship, whether she should apply, and what CM did about his proposal and interview for it.

#### **04 KNOWLEDGE AREA FOUR : The 1991-1992 MSc (the present course) .**

**Conversations that any language teacher or linguist living in Edinburgh who is doing the present MSc should understand.**

#### **Core And Option Courses**

8 What options AM is taking this term and why.

9 What options CM is taking this term and why.

13 Why understanding syntax is easier than it seemed in the core course.

12 What AM and CM think of the Phonetics teacher.

15 What AM and DM think about the Psycholinguistics courses, and what options BM and DM are doing.

20 What BM thinks about the Discourse option.

23 What options BF is taking.

#### **Lectures And Tutorials**

3 Who is in whose tutorial group, and what BM prepared for the tutorial.

4 How much BF and BM read for the tutorial, whether they completed the task, and why BF did not copy down the examples in the lecture.

7 How the tutorial task was divided up, and what it was exactly.

14 What AM has read for the tutorial.

15 Who went to the tutorial.

27 How many lectures CM is going to miss, whether DM could get him notes, and whether some lectures could be missed.

#### **Exam And Portfolio**

8 What AM and CM studied for the exam, and what marks they want.

10 What subjects CM and DM are studying for the exam, why, what CM was doing in the library, and how to study for the Linguistics question.

11 How much work BF and AM did after the exam.

12 What exam questions AM and CM did, how they answered them, and how AM and CM felt after the exam.

13 When and how long the portfolio is.

**Projects And Dissertation**

- 10 How CM is getting on with his Phonetics core project.  
 13 When the project deadlines are.  
 15 How far on CM and DM are with their projects, whether CM has filled in DM's project questionnaire, and what DM's tutor said about his project.  
 19 How much work BM did at the weekend.  
 20 How long they have until the project deadline, whether BM has filled in DM's questionnaire, and what DM is reading for his project.  
 21 What DM should write his dissertation on.  
 22 What BF and DM think of each other's projects.  
 23 Whether AM got the deadline/date moved.  
 24 What BF thinks of DM's project.  
 27 Who got the deadline/date moved.  
 29 What AF's ideas are for her project, and what the Language and Linguistics project guidelines are like.

**Books And Articles**

- 14 What certain books are like.  
 15 What CM and DM think about certain articles.  
 16 What AF and AM think about certain articles.  
 18 What reading shows about changing fashions in linguistics and teaching approaches.

**FIELD 3 : MACRO-FUNCTION AND HUMOUR**

<b>T</b>	the purely <i>transactional</i> , the instrumental; learning specifically how to do something, transmitting information needed for an immediate task.
<b>S</b>	the <i>interactional</i> , the expressive, the social exchange, testing normality of speaker's situation/feelings, and also the phatic.
<b>P</b>	Public humour not flouting maxims
<b>F</b>	Public flouting humour
<b>I</b>	Private flouting humour

F, I and P can be added to both T and S categories, as in TF and SI.

**FIELD 4 : TOPIC SHIFT**

*Shift to new main topic*

**SA** : Main topic shift to new K area

**SB** : Main topic shift in same K area

*Shift to new sub-topic*

**SC** : Sub-topic shift in same knowledge area, or a resumption of a previous main topic after an interruption/insert sequence.

*No shift*

**SD** : First recorded line of a dialogue.

**D** : Continuation of an established topic.

**FIELD 5 : SPEECH ACT**

<i>attitude towards</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Positive</i>	<i>Negative</i>
Self	11 I do/am	12 I do/am good	13 I do/am bad
Interlocutor/ Communication	21 You do. Here we are.	22 You are good I am with you	23 You are bad I'm not with you
Situation/ 3rd Party	31 It/he does	32 It/he does/is good	33 It/he does/is bad

**11 : NEUTRAL attitude towards SELF**

**Inform, Explain, Answer polarity/ information question, Narrate**

eg: And then er I actually applied for a job in Gabbitas.

I did the phonetics, syntax and er grammar.

Cos we all met up er in the town centre at ten o'clock.

**Express own intentions, plans, wants, needs and desires**

eg: It's the other mark I want.

I need to write first by hand.

But I think I'm going to put it on a computer in the end.

**12 : POSITIVE attitude towards SELF**

**Inform, Explain, Answer polarity/information question expressing satisfaction with self; evaluate self positively; show self in a positive light; reassure/console self**

eg: I like what I did very well actually.

It seems like I don't have to worry about that.

And er I think I'll be OK now.

**13 : NEGATIVE attitude towards SELF**

**Inform, Explain, Answer polarity/information question expressing dissatisfaction with self; evaluate self negatively; show self in a poor light; minimise praise of self; criticise self; excuse/justify self; apologise.**

eg: I have difficulty getting my brain going first thing in the morning.

Never get things done early.

I've got a couple of totally uninformed sort of basically stupid ideas for a project.

**21 : NEUTRAL attitude towards INTERLOCUTOR/COMMUNICATION**

**Greet and say goodbye - ask after health; refer to last or next contact;**

eg: Hi.

Long time no see.

See you later.

**Fill phatically - with a sociocentric sequence; checking and showing comprehension; catching interlocutor's attention and taking the turn; repeating himself; laughing at own joke; adding an afterthought that adds no new information and relinquishing the turn; Backchannelling (laugh) and acknowledging**

eg: You know.

Right?

But there you go.

Aha.

Does he?

**Ask polarity/information question**

eg: You study at home I suppose?

Where- where do you stay then BF?

What are you which ones are you concentrating on?

**Request (and command)**

eg: Could you get me a tuna and sweet corn one please?

So can I borrow it sometime?

Can I ask you to get the notes for me for the last few classes?

**22 : POSITIVE attitude towards INTERLOCUTOR/COMMUNICATION**

**Evaluate interlocutor positively; reassure; console; encourage; congratulate; praise; Sympathise; empathise with interlocutor's feelings about his situation/himself; establish normality of interlocutor's situation; thank**

eg: Don't worry.

You're doing the right thing.

Oh that's pretty impressive.

Um I mean we all have the same problem I think.

It must be actually very awkward.

**Agree with interlocutor; accept, admit, permit**

eg: Exactly yeah.

Ah that's it yeah.

Yeah I thought so too.

**Echo interlocutor's words; prompt him to continue; predict his drift; finish his sentence;**

eg: Then you know how much time yeah.

His book right.

You're beginning to realise what?

**Advise, warn, suggest interlocutor's action**

eg: Well you might have to just face that and cope with it.

It's in your interest isn't it to do more than one.

Don't do any reading for it though.

**Offer goods/action, promise/invite, suggest joint action**

eg: Do you want to see mine?

So do you want me to change it?

We er should have a-another battle of squash.

**23 : NEGATIVE attitude towards INTERLOCUTOR/COMMUNICATION**

**Disagree with interlocutor; mention opposite point of view/situation; challenge factual content/truth value; decline, refuse, deny, defend**

eg: Well I don't know actually.

That's not exactly the same thing.

Yeah I wouldn't look at it like that anyway.

**Challenge felicity conditions; interrupt for clarification; seek repetition**

eg: What did you say?

What do you mean by canvassing?

Er you mean the book?

**31 : NEUTRAL** attitude towards **SITUATION/THIRD PARTY****Inform, Explain, Answer polarity/information question, Narrate**

eg: And they were doing a profile of him.

Because I mean they had the same kind of divide didn't they?

Well at six thirty this morning downstairs comes up and rings the door bell.

**Ask polarity/information question**

eg: She must have a big sewing machine then?

Did he direct you to any books or anything about your er?

What about the Institute here?

**32 : POSITIVE** attitude towards **SITUATION/THIRD PARTY****Inform, Explain, Answer polarity/information question expressing satisfaction with situation/third party; evaluate situation/third party positively**

eg: And I've been pleased with the progress of essay type questions.

But a good teacher all the same.

Absolutely brill' as they say.

**33 : NEGATIVE** attitude towards **SITUATION/THIRD PARTY****Inform, Explain, Answer polarity/information questions expressing dissatisfaction with situation/third party; evaluate situation/third party negatively; express fear and apprehension of situation/third party**

eg: I thought she was a bit of a bore.

It's completely useless.

Kind of scary actually.

**FIELD 6 : SPEAKERS**

AM, BM, CM, DM	the four men selected for study in this research
AF, BF	the two women selected for study in this research
MM or FF	any native speaker of English, man or woman not studied
NM or NF	any non native speaker of English, man or woman not studied

Within the tagged text, any student not present or of the six studied, is referred to as X,Y or Z, and any member of staff is referred to as XX, YY and ZZ regardless of sex or nationality.

## APPENDIX IV : CODING SYSTEM FOR GRAMMATICAL AND LEXICAL TEXT TAGS

### FIELD 7 : TAGGED TEXT

#### GRAMMATICAL TAGS

##### Letters and numbers

<b>A</b>	indefinite article	<b>PAP</b>	indefinite pronoun
<b>C</b>	comparative	<b>S</b>	possessive
<b>D</b>	demonstrative	<b>T</b>	definite article
<b>E</b>	personal (3rd person)	<b>V</b>	adverb
<b>J</b>	adjective / determiner	<b>X</b>	non-anaphoric
<b>L</b>	ellipsis	<b>1</b>	super-explicit
<b>N</b>	anaphoric	<b>2</b>	explicit
<b>P</b>	pronoun	<b>3</b>	implicit

##### Letter combinations

<i>DEFINITE REFERENCE</i>	
<i>Demonstrative</i>	
	<i>- definite article</i>
<b>NT</b>	anaphoric definite article
<b>XT</b>	non-anaphoric definite article
	<i>- pronouns/adjectives/adverbs</i>
<b>NDP</b>	anaphoric demonstrative pronoun
<b>NDJ</b>	anaphoric demonstrative determiner
<b>NDV</b>	anaphoric demonstrative adverb
<b>XDP</b>	non-anaphoric demonstrative pronoun
<b>XDJ</b>	non-anaphoric demonstrative determiner
<b>XDV</b>	non-anaphoric demonstrative adverb
	<i>Personal - personal pronouns</i>
<b>NEP</b>	anaphoric 3rd.person pronoun
<b>XEP</b>	non-anaphoric 3rd.pers pronoun
	<i>- possessive adjectives</i>
<b>NSJ</b>	anaphoric 3rd.person possessive adjective
	<i>Comparative - adjectives/adverbs</i>
<b>NCV</b>	anaphoric comparative adverb
<b>NCJ</b>	anaphoric comparative adjective
<b>XCV</b>	non-anaphoric comparative adverb
<b>XCJ</b>	non-anaphoric comparative adjective
<i>ELLIPSIS</i>	
<b>NL</b>	anaphoric nominal ellipsis
<b>XL</b>	non-anaphoric nominal ellipsis
<i>INDEFINITE REFERENCE</i>	
	<i>- indefinite article</i>
<b>NA</b>	cohesive indefinite article
<b>XA</b>	non-cohesive indefinite article
	<i>- indefinite pronouns</i>
<b>NPAP</b>	anaphoric indefinite pronoun
<b>XPAP</b>	non-anaphoric indefinite pronoun

**Degrees of explicitness**

	<i>DEFINITE REFERENCE</i>			<i>ELLIPSIS</i>
	<i>Definite Article</i>	<i>Pronoun/ adverb</i>	<i>Adjective/ adverb</i>	
<i>ANAPHORIC</i>				
<i>Super-Explicit</i>	<b>NT1</b>	<b>NDJ1</b> <b>NEP1</b>	<b>NCJ/V1</b>	
<i>Explicit</i>	<b>NT2</b>	<b>NDP/V2</b> <b>NEP2</b>	<b>NDJ2</b> <b>NSJ2</b> <b>NCJ/V2</b>	<b>NL2</b>
<i>Implicit</i>	<b>NT3</b>	<b>NDP/V3</b> <b>NEP3</b>	<b>NDJ3</b> <b>NSJ3</b>	<b>NL3</b>
-----				
<i>NON-ANAPHORIC</i>				
<i>Super-Explicit</i>	<b>XT1</b>		<b>XDJ1</b>	
<i>Explicit</i>	<b>XT2</b>		<b>XDJ2</b> <b>XCJ/V2</b>	
<i>Implicit</i>	<b>XT3</b>	<b>XDP/V3</b> <b>XEP3</b>	<b>XDJ3</b>	<b>XL3</b>
-----				
	<i>INDEFINITE REFERENCE</i>			
	<i>Indefinite Article</i>	<i>Indefinite Pronoun</i>		
<i>ANAPHORIC</i>				
<i>Super-Explicit</i>	<b>NA1</b>			
<i>Explicit</i>	<b>NA2</b>			
<i>Implicit</i>	<b>NA3</b>	<b>NPAP3</b>		
-----				
<i>NON-ANAPHORIC</i>				
<i>Super-Explicit</i>	<b>XA1</b>			
<i>Explicit</i>	<b>XA2</b>			
<i>Implicit</i>	<b>XA3</b>	<b>XPAP3</b>		

- DEFINITE REFERENCE: DEMONSTRATIVE**

**DEFINITE ARTICLE (T)****NT1 - explicit anaphoric**

The referent is in the preceding text and is identified by means of a post-head dependent

- e.g.: 04017 AF And what do you get what - what bus do you get from there then?  
 04018 DM It's an eighty - s' an eighty nine. (1)  
 04019 DM It's **the number\_NT1 of the bus** I mean it // goes round down

**NT2 - semi-explicit anaphoric**

The referent is in the preceding text but there is no post-head dependent

- e.g.: 08092 BF It's the Royal Oak.  
 08093 BF Right and they have live music. (0.5)  
 08094 BF We got there and they were serving so everybody desperately ran to **the bar\_NT2** and got a drink.

**NT3 - implicit anaphoric**

It is cohesive with a non-anaphoric or another implicit anaphoric, or general noun in the preceding text. The noun with the definite article is general e.g.: "thing", "people", "place".

- e.g.: 14057 AM It's a good book.  
 14058 AM Yeah that's the stuff isn't it?  
 14059 AM That's **the stuff\_NT3** we- we read last week which we should've read this week. (0.5)

**XT1 - explicit non-anaphoric**

The referent is not in the preceding text but is identified by means of a post-head dependent

- e.g.: 16027 AF That- that seems to umm to bear some relation to the lexical syllabus doesn't it?  
 16028 AM Mm.  
 16029 AM I can't ((0.5))  
 16030 AF Fixing on words and so on.  
 16031 AM Yes.  
 16032 AF I think- I find a real loss actually of not having read **the Fay and Cutler article\_XT1** which seems to be underpinning this =

**XT2 - semi-explicit non-anaphoric**

The referent is either immediate or in the world outside or is intertextual. There is no post-head dependent.

- e.g.: 16059 AM And we probably think this and you know.  
 16060 AF And **the Meara article\_XT2** was did you read that?

**XT3 - implicit non-anaphoric**

The referent is either immediate or in the world outside or is intertextual, and the noun with the definite article is general e.g.: "thing", "people", "place",

- e.g.: 22082 DM I // can't  
 22083 DM No I've read this and I this (1) basically we seem to've (1)  
 22084 DM Yeah we've looked at the literature and approached **the thing\_XT3** very differently // but the actual practical bit in terms of what we included in my theory (3)

**DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS / DETERMINERS / ADVERBS (D)****NDJ1 - explicit anaphoric**

The referent is in the preceding text and is identified by means of a post-head dependent

- e.g.: 08096 BF And then we went to the Tron at midnight.  
 08097 AM Right.  
 08098 BF Which is **that square\_NDJ1** where they=  
 08099 AM Trample all over you.

If the referent is after the noun phrase in the same utterance.

- e.g.: 20016 CM **That\_NDP1's** sounds very American actually this book.

**NDP2, NDV2, NDJ2 - semi-explicit anaphoric**

The referent is in the preceding text but there is no post-head dependent

- e.g.: 25057 BF Well you see we're the only reason that we're thinking about this at the moment is that Dave has now been made warden of our house (0.5) so we're getting free accommodation.  
 25058 CM Oh good deal.  
 25059 NF Oh.  
 25060 BF Which is a very good deal.  
 25061 BF We'll never be in **that position\_NDJ2** again.

**NDP3, NDV3, NDJ3 - implicit anaphoric**

The pronoun/adverb is cohesive with a non-anaphoric, another implicit anaphoric a general noun or an indefinite pronoun, in the preceding text.

- e.g.: 03023 NM Er, this XDP3 is BM's I think.  
 03024 BM Oh that NDP3's mine sorry thank you.

The noun modified by the adjective is general e.g.: "thing" "people" "place"

- e.g.: 13016 CM You know when I first looked at it I thought what's this.  
 13017 CM // I'll never get this stuff NDJ3.

**XDJ1 - explicit non-anaphoric**

The referent is not in the preceding text but is identified by means of a post-head dependent

- e.g.: 19015 CM Some places are really dirty.  
 19016 CM It's seeping over the sand.  
 19017 BM And you've got these kids XDJ1 playing in the water.

**XDJ2 - semi-explicit non-anaphoric**

The noun modified is either immediate or in the world outside the text or is intertextual, but there is no post-head dependent.

- e.g.: 26073 BM// So for example if I had France and Switzerland are brilliant countries and I wanted that in that column XDJ2.

The referent is part of narrative immediacy technique

- e.g.: 02008 MM It's just that I met someone afterwards and they said that what was happening was things like em (1) like at one-one point they got these glasses XDJ2.

**XDP3/XDV3 /XDJ3 - implicit non-anaphoric**

The referent of the pronoun/adverb is immediate or in the world outside the text or is intertextual:

- e.g.: 26106 BM You shouldn't be here XDV3.  
 The noun modified by the adjective is general e.g.: "thing" "people" "place",  
 e.g.: 20046 DM There are a few things in ELTJ. (2.5) about it. (0.5)  
 20047 DM ((sniffs)) which are you know.  
 20048 DM There's not a lot though. (0.5)  
 20049 DM It's quite nice.  
 20050 BM Did you see em X about that MSc thing XDJ3?

- **DEFINITE REFERENCE : PERSONAL**

**PERSONAL PRONOUN (3rd person) (E)****NEP1 - explicit anaphoric**

The referent is in the preceding text and/or after in apposition in the same utterance

- e.g.: 18038 BM But hi- hi- historically speaking what's really funny is that people change their that- that schools of thought // so quickly.  
 18039 BM Just five years and =  
 18040 CM // Yeah.  
 18041 CM And I think it's especially true in Linguistics though-  
 18042 BM Oh well that's cos it NEP1's new all that rubbish.

**NEP2 - semi-explicit anaphoric**

If the referent is in the preceding text but there is no post-head dependent

- e.g.: 01030 AM But she'd always been known by one name.  
 01031 AM So we changed it NEP2 back and in between that of course em we'd been married at that stage.

**NEP3 - implicit anaphoric**

It is cohesive with a non-anaphoric or another implicit anaphoric

- e.g.: 04107 BF How did you get on with this\_XDP3 then? ((2))  
 04108 BM I did.  
 04109 BM I went through it\_NEP3. (0.5)

or with a general noun or an indefinite pronoun,

- e.g.: 27132 NF Because nobody\_XPAP3 is going to see each other after the portfolio. ((05))  
 27133 CM They\_NEP3're not?  
 27134 CM Where are they\_NEP3 going?

**XEP3 - implicit non-anaphoric**

The referent is neither in the preceding nor in the following text

- e.g.: 08050 CM Now XX's got me scared.  
 08051 AM Why?  
 08052 CM Well she said // Yes I'm afraid they\_XEP3 do mark hard.

**POSSESSIVE ADJECTIVES (3rd person) (S)****NSJ2 - semi-explicit anaphoric**

The possessor is in the preceding text, but there is no post-head dependent:

- e.g.: 22101 BF Dave finished his work\_NSJ2 on Friday. (2)

**NSJ3 - implicit anaphoric**

The possessor is in the preceding text, referred to with a non-anaphoric or another implicit anaphoric:

- e.g.: 18022 CM Then you start realising they\_XEP3 know what they mean but they're just theorising on the questions.  
 18023 BM And they they em they dismiss (0.5) they dismiss things that'll ruin their argument\_NSJ3.

Or the possessor is a general noun or an indefinite pronoun

- e.g.: 04124 BF Has anybody-XPAP3 done their syntax\_NSJ3? ((1))

- DEFINITE REFERENCE : COMPARATIVE**

**COMPARATIVE ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS (C)****NCJ1, NCV1 - explicit anaphoric**

The referent of the adjective/adverb is in the text; the thing compared is after the "than", "to", "as" etc.

- e.g.: 10032 DM No I-I think it's going to be very similar\_NCJ1 to last year's.

**NCJ2, NCV2 - semi-explicit anaphoric**

The referent is in the preceding text, but there is no "than", "to", "as", "that"

- e.g.: 06103 AM He's taking the car out the country and he can't leave the country without the car. (1)  
 06104 AM They'll probably let you.  
 06105 AM Just let just arrive late at night=  
 06106 AF That'd be a bit different\_NCJ2 because Greece is your home.

or it is not mentioned because it is an internal or mutual comparison:

- e.g.: 12091 AM Because (0.5) I mean they had the same kind of divide\_NCJ2 didn't they?

**XCJ2, XCV2 - semi-explicit non-anaphoric**

The referent is either immediate, or in the world outside the text or is intertextual. The adjective/adverb is in expressions meaning "as (adjective/adverb) as (non-anaphoric) that"  
 e.g.: 08026 AM Cos we haven't actually done it **that deeply\_XCV2** have we?

- **INDEFINITE REFERENCE**

**INDEFINITE NOUN PHRASE WITH NOUN(A)****NA1: Explicit cohesive indefinite noun phrase**

The noun is lexically cohesive with or collocates with something in the preceding text and is further modified with a post-head dependent.

- e.g.:
- |       |    |   |
|-------|----|---|
| 25065 | BF | We've got a brilliant university <u>house</u> .   |
| 25066 | NF | Ah and he's the warden.   |
| 25067 | BF | Yep.  |
| 25068 | BF | The girl who was doing it has dropped out of university.<br>((unintelligible))  |
| 25069 | BF | It there's a we've got a- a big <u>room</u> and it's got its own <u>bathroom</u><br>which is like one suite with a <b>door_NA1 through to the bathroom</b><br>and then there's a <b>little room_NA1 that belongs to us</b> but<br>((unintelligible)) but we use the kitchen facilities downstairs and the<br>laundry facilities but the heating's free. |

**NA2: Semi-explicit cohesive indefinite noun phrase**

The noun coheres lexically or collocates with something in the preceding text, but is bald: there is no post-head.

- e.g.:
- |       |    |  |
|-------|----|--|
| 19070 | BM | I never saw <u>a tide</u> until I was about fourteen. ((0.5))                    |
| 19071 | CM | What!  |
| 19072 | CM | You lived here?  |
| 19073 | BM | No I lived in um Malta.  |
| 19074 | BM | Grew up in it.   |
| 19075 | CM | Oh.  |
| 19076 | BM | So I was sort of practically   |
| 19077 | BM | In Malta when the <u>tide</u> there had <b>some sort of tidal movement_NA2</b> . |

This includes attributive equatives which consisted of a very big group:

- e.g.:
- |       |    |   |
|-------|----|---|
| 11022 | BF | And by this stage you know he's living in a-a derelict cottage. |
| 11023 | BF | <u>He's an alcoholic_NA2</u> .                                  |

**NA3: implicit cohesive indefinite noun phrase**

The noun that coheres lexically or collocates with something in the preceding text is a general noun

**XA1: explicit non-cohesive indefinite noun phrase**

The noun does not cohere lexically but introduces something new and is modified with a post-head dependent

- e.g.:
- |      |    |  |
|------|----|--|
| 4111 | BM | And I reached the stage where I'd no idea.   |
| 4112 | BF | Yeah. ((1))  |
| 4113 | BM | And also when I- when I was looking back I realised I actually hadn't<br>read the first part again which gave me a <b>real big clue_XA1 for one of the first</b> . |

**XA2: semi-explicit non-cohesive indefinite noun-phrase**

The noun does not cohere lexically but introduces something new but is not modified with a post-head dependent

e.g.: 27050 CM The problem is it's it's two years when you're not making three years when you're not making **any money\_XA2**. (0.5)

**XA3: implicit non-cohesive indefinite noun phrase**

The noun introduces something new by means of a general noun

e.g.: 07015 BM Did we have a **thing\_XA3** to pick up?

**INDEFINITE NOUN PHRASE WITH PRONOUN (XPAP)**

**NPAP3 - implicit anaphoric**

**XPAP3 - implicit non-anaphoric**

The indefiniteness can be either limited by a post-head dependent

e.g.: 22086 DM There's nothing (1) there's **nothing\_XPAP3** startling that I can see missing from this

Or not:

e.g.: 27132 NF Because **nobody\_XPAP3** is going to see each other after the portfolio.

• **ELLIPSIS**

**NOMINAL ELLIPSIS (L)**

**NL2 - semi-explicit anaphoric**

The presupposed item is in the preceding text, but there is no post-head dependent after the referring expression:

e.g.: 21087 AF Yes well I get sort of seven or eight hours a night and it's not enough.  
21088 DM I need at least **eight\_NL2**.

**NL3 - implicit anaphoric**

The presupposed item referred to is a non-anaphoric or a general noun

e.g.: 20038 BM ((Snores)) What stuff are you reading for it then? (4)  
20039 BM // Did did XX phone you?  
20040 DM // There's there's not **an awful lot\_NL3**.

**XL3 - implicit non-anaphoric**

The presupposed item is not in the preceding text

e.g.: 04131 DM I'm going away this weekend.  
04132 DM So had to do it.  
04133 BF Yah.  
04134 BF I've got to do it as // well.  
04135 DM // He made a mistake.  
04136 DM And I wanted to show one of you somebody actually.  
04137 DM I think he made a mistake yesterday when he was putting them up when the diagram was up I think he got **one\_XL3** wrong. ((0.5))  
04138 BF Oh I didn't copy them all down.

**CLAUSAL ELLIPSIS, VAGUE FILLERS AND HITCHES**

<b>XLI</b>	Incomplete sentence - initial ellipsis	e.g.: "Been there"
<b>XLU1</b>	Unfinished sentence, which interlocutor answers/completes	e.g.: "the.../Yeah"
<b>XLU2</b>	Unfinished sentence with hanging conjunction	e.g.: "so ..."
<b>XBU1</b>	Vague filler	e.g.: "or something"
<b>WOW</b>	Hitch	
<b>WOZ</b>	Hitch repair	

## LEXICAL TAGS

<i>NOUNS</i>		<i>VERBS</i>	
<i>Non-course</i>		<b>10</b>	all verb
<b>20</b>	Common	<b>11</b>	be
<b>21</b>	Proper	<b>12</b>	filler
<b>22</b>	General	<b>13</b>	non-course "do" verb
<i>Course</i>		<b>14</b>	course "do" verb
(30-32)Special Common			
<b>30</b>	technical		
<b>31</b>	unique		
<b>32</b>	limited range		
(40-41)Special Proper			
<b>40</b>	actual		
<b>41</b>	metonymical		
<b>50</b>	Special General		
<b>60</b>	Course-by-context		

## VERBS

**10 verb** (excluding general verb, be, fillers)

eg: "bought", "come\_on", "we're coming\_", "we're going to send\_", "we're hypnotised\_", "I can do\_", "I had to do\_", "I want\_to do", "I forgot\_to do", "keep\_thinking", "Stop\_panicking"

**11 be**

eg: "he's", "I'm"

**12 filler**

eg: "I mean", "You know", "I think", "I reckon", "I suppose", "I don't know"

**13 non-course general verb**

eg: "do", "make", "get", "happen", "have"(except when possession)

**14 course general verb**

eg: "do", "make", "get", "happen", "have"(except when possession)

## NOUNS

### • NON-COURSE NOUNS:

**20 COMMON NON-COURSE nouns**

eg: "budgie", "bus-stop", "years", "government" "job"

**21 PROPER NON-COURSE names**

countries and towns/cities. eg: "Japan", "Spain", "Scotland", "Edinburgh", "Manchester"  
streets and buildings etc. eg: "George Street", "Leith Walk", "Cowgate", "The Pleasance",  
"King's Buildings", "The Royal Oak"

famous people. eg: "Julie Roberts", "Melvyn Bragg", "Ballesteros"

MSc students' family members. eg: "Dave", "Julie", "Julian", "Michelle"

names of products. eg: "IBM", "Microsoft Word", "An Eighty-Eight"

world incidents. eg: "The First World War", "The Gulf War"

times of year, months and days of the week. eg: "Christmas", "Hogmanay", "March",  
"Monday"

**22 GENERAL NON-COURSE nouns**

eg: "thing", "stuff", "bloke", "people", "place", "business"

- **COURSE NOUNS:**

**SPECIAL COURSE NOUNS** intrinsically part of the course

**30-32 COMMON SPECIAL COURSE nouns****30 technical term**

linguistics and language teaching theory terminology. eg: "monolingual", "lexical syllabus", "interlanguage", "diglossia", "pidgins and creoles", "X-bar"

**31 unique special term**

intrinsic single course component. eg: "portfolio", "core project", "exam", "dissertation", "the examiner", "the (class) representative"

**32 limited range special term as in "[something understood] noun"**

intrinsic class of many possible course components

eg: "[syntax] book", "[SLA] class", "[tutorial] task", "[tutorial] group", "[Stylistics] option", "[First course] project"

**40-41 PROPER SPECIAL COURSE names****40 actual use**

MSc teaching staff. eg: "XX", "YY"

MSc students. eg: "X", "Y", "AM", "BF", "MM", "NF"

Linguists. eg: "Bloomfield", "Channell", "Chomsky", "Fasold", "Lyons"

Book and Journal titles. eg: "Observation in the Classroom", "Schools of Linguistics", "ELTJ"

Sciences and schools of thought. eg: "Linguistics", "Structuralism", "Descriptivism"

**41 metonymical use as in "proper noun [something understood]"**

MSc course names. eg: "Syntax [exam question]", "Sociolinguistics [tutorial question]", "Language and Linguistics [option]", "LPD [lecture]", "Semantics [book]", "Phonetics [exam preparation]"

Linguists. eg: "Brown and Miller [s book]", "Channell [s paper]", "Chomsky [s theories exam revision]", "Fasold [s theories]", "Saussure [s theories in course material]", "Tolwood [s article]"

**50 GENERAL SPECIAL COURSE nouns**

eg: "thing", "people", "what's-a-name", "what's-her-face."

**COURSE-BY-CONTEXT NOUNS** related to the course topic

**60 COMMON COURSE-BY-CONTEXT nouns as "noun [about/in/on/of/for/to something understood in the course, including time]"**

eg: "a long time [until the project deadline]", "the outcome [of the research test]", "work [for the exam]" "sides [of writing in a project]", "conclusions [about the tutorial task]", "the morning [before the exam]"

**INFORMAL LANGUAGE**

!	slang
!!	expletives/obscenity/blasphemy

**SLANG**

a come down	a load of	backside
brill	brush over	can't be bothered
come across	come up	crummy
daft	dead certain	dosser
down (a drink)	for goodness' sake	go on about
hog (the conversation)	keep mum about	kid
knackered	my other half	nip down
poop	put someone's back up	quid
rip to pieces	rubbish	scrabble around
skiver	slob	soak off
stick to	stick with	stuck out there
sweat (=worry)	turn up	wander off
what on earth	wimp	wimpy
willy		

**EXPLETIVES and OBSCENITIES**

a hell of a	bloody	bloody hell
buggered	Christ	crap
hell	nuts	piled higher and deeper
piss	screw them	shit
slag off		

## APPENDIX V : QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE SIX RECORDEES

(29 MAY 1992)

### PART ONE

Thank you very much for agreeing to give up some of your time to helping me. Imagine that you were in the AL common room, for whatever reason, on four occasions this year and overheard these four fragments of conversation. Please try to answer the questions.

First, kindly indicate which of these five categories you belong to:

- 1..... I am a university graduate presently resident in Edinburgh. I am not a language teacher, have not studied anything related to linguistics and know nothing about EU AL MSc courses.
- 2..... I am presently resident in Edinburgh, am a language teacher/linguist but know nothing about EU AL MSc courses.
- 3..... I am presently resident in Edinburgh, am a language teacher/linguist, have general information about EU AL MSc courses, but know nothing specifically about the 91-92 course.
- 4..... I am a 91-92 EU AL MSc student. I am not on the recordings.
- 5..... I am one of the 91-92 EU AL MSc students who is on the recordings.
- 6..... I am none of these.

NOTE: Please put any general comments you may have at the end of the questionnaire.

## DIALOGUE ONE

## TEXT

- MM So you were in em  
(0.5)
- AM In Sudan.
- MM Sudan.
- AM Mmm. I've been there for three years but um one year em promoted one year and that included two years.
- MM Was that with the Council?
- AM No-no. Em (1) That's for the Sudanese government.(0.5) And then er (0.5) I actually applied for a job in Gabbitas through Gabbitas.
- CM Yeah they they do a lot of private em secondary school don't they.
- AM So I was with them. But.  
(2)
- BM What did you say? Advertised through what.
- AM Gabbitas and Thring is um an educational er appointments agency. (1) Yeah, through them we'd intended to go to Argentina er (4) but that fell through.
- BM I actually did (2) have a job set up in Argentina. Same thing happened. Fell through. It was inflation. And then it came back on again.
- AM Oh.
- BM By that stage I thought no way. (ha ha) Cos of inflation. You know they said it was under control. Well, I was looking at it later and I thought well=  
=You fancy getting it clear.
- CM =Yeah I-I don't fancy this.
- AM Oh so you know because my wife had to change her name. (2) Because apparently the Argentinean authorities re-must have you must have the same name on your passport as your birth certificate. And my wife had changed her name because her parents had (0.5) divorced and em her mother had married again. (0.5) But she'd always been known by one name. So we changed it back and in between that of course em we'd been married at that stage so now she has three names.
- BM (Heh heh heh heh heh)
- AM and then of course we didn't get the job.  
(13)
- BM So how about yourself MM?
- MM Em I taught in Japan like CM did a couple of years eh south coast for years (0.5) and couple of months here and there Portugal, Italy, was in Saudi Arabia for three months but.
- BM Well did you like it.
- MM It was interesting. Three months is enough though.
- CM Were you on a compound or were you.
- MM Yeah. Mainly in a compound. Teaching military telecommunications.  
(3)
- BM That was some time ago was it?
- MM About two and a half - three years ago yeah.
- BM Ah right.  
(4)
- MM A lot of the Sudanese in Saudi. I mean a lot of the (0.5) a lot of the clerical work (0.5) a lot of the stuff like I mean say mid-management work are done by Palestinians.

- BM Yes=  
 MM =Egyptians Sudanese Somalis.  
 AM I think that was one of the problems with Kuwaitis. (2) Half their work force about a million people was made up of (0.5) foreign Arabs. I think the Sudanese quite a lot of Sudanese go to em Saudi Kuwait and places like that. They bring in a lot of foreign currency that way.  
 (3)  
 MM I think I might go and have another bun.  
 AM I thought I was going to get another one.  
 BM Could you get me a tuna and sweet corn one please.  
 AM Me as well.

## QUESTIONS

- 1 How long would you think these people have been friends?  
 ..... just met ..... 1-3 weeks ..... 1-2 months ..... 2-3 months  
 ..... 3-4 months ..... 4-5 months ..... 5-6 months ..... 1-3 years
- 2 What was it about the dialogue that suggested to you the length of acquaintance?  
 .....
- 3 What title would you give to this dialogue to show what the people are talking about, what they are doing, what the main topic is?  
 .....
- 4 Could you have joined in this dialogue, had you been invited? Why or why not?  
 .....
- 5 X asks AM, "Was that with the Council?" What is the Council?  
 .....
- 6 AM says, "And then of course we didn't get the job." Why would he say "of course"?  
 .....
- 7 AM asks, "So how about yourself, X?" What does AM want X to tell him about?  
 .....
- 8 After saying that it was interesting in Saudi Arabia, X says, "Three months is enough though." What do you feel he means by this?  
 .....
- 9 BM says, "I think the Sudanese quite a lot of Sudanese go to em Saudi, Kuwait and places like that." What would you understand by "places like that?"  
 .....

## DIALOGUE TWO

## TEXT

- DM No but yesterday we had to come in for ten didn't we.  
 BF Oh I see.  
 DM I forgot to change it.  
 BF OK.  
 DM That's why // I  
 AF // You mean you didn't get up earlier and make the most of the extra time?  
 (0.5)  
 DM No I-I thought no I actually woke up at about er quarter to eight and I could've got on the bus I could have made it and I thought oh bloody hell I'll stay in the house.  
 AF Mmm.  
 (1.5)  
 DM And I did. (1) But I know I didn't make the most of the extra time.  
 (2)  
 AF Do you - you have to get a bus at the foot of Leith Walk? (0.5) Walk along to there?  
 DM No. There's a bus stop er about two minutes walk away from the house.  
 AF Is there?  
 DM Mhm.  
 AF And what do you get what - what bus do you get from there then?  
 DM It's an eighty - s'an eighty nine. (1) It's the number of the bus I mean it // goes round down  
 AF // One of those  
 ones that goes away out of town into Midlothian.  
 (0.5)  
 DM Yeah. Where it goes after that I've no idea but  
 AF Sort of Bonnyrigg or somewhere like that.  
 DM Right. (0.5) I mean I've got on a couple of times I've got buses going the wrong way. That's a nightmare. These circular buses. //You get on them going the wrong way.  
 BF // I've done that  
 BM They change numbers don't they.  
 DM You can // really really  
 AF // Well we know at least they don't the - the one and the six are different numbers. They used to just be the one both // ways.  
 DM // Mmm?  
 (2)  
 AF Which um. (1) On the thirty five and the thirty four - well the thirty - the thirty five goes both ways. (0.5) It's the thirty four in the other direction. I think. (0.5) It's very confusing where - we live cos just near Julian's school the thirty four and the thirty five both go in both directions. If you get the wrong one it branches off. // (heh heh)  
 DM // Right.  
 // Mhm.  
 BF // Yeah.  
 (7)  
 BM I had a really bizarre conversation with a bus driver over that and em it was early in the morning and he had the particular kind of accent that I c- didn't quite catch everything he said. He didn't quite catch everything I said either. So it was working

- both ways. So we had this really confusing conversation. (0.5) I was on the wrong bus. But anyway I'd got on it.
- BF (heh heh) (1) We had a really neurotic bus driver this morning. Cos he (0.5) there must be something wrong with his hearing and everybody was getting on and saying forty please. He said well what kind of fare do you want? You know  
// (heh heh heh)
- DM // (heh heh heh)
- BM // (heh heh)
- BF I wish you'd speak up you know. (heh heh) Really annoyed with everybody.
- DM Demented bus driver.
- BF // (heh heh heh)
- AF // (heh heh heh) You get the occasional one. (2.5) The wild ones are on the on the green buses actually. They go at a hell of a rate. Don't stop for anything. If you got to  
// want to get somewhere
- BF // Limited stop buses are they?
- AF No just the no they're just em the the SMT buses // the green ones that go
- BF // Oh.
- AF into Saint Andrew's Square. The big ones and the little ones and the (0.5) I d- I don't know. I think they're on some sort of productivity bonus or something.
- BF (heh heh)
- DM What the more times they go round. // (heh heh)
- AF // Yeah something like that.
- BF Sponsored bus drivers. // (heh heh)
- DM // (heh heh heh)
- AF // (heh)
- BM They give change don't they.
- AF They do.
- BM They're sort of we give change!
- DM If you can get on the bus you get change then.
- BF Ah right. // That's good.
- DM // Yeah.
- AF If you don't mind breaking your leg as you try and get on. (heh heh) Really old buses too.  
(1)
- BF Exactly yeah.
- AF Where- where do you stay then BF.

## QUESTIONS

- How long would you think these people have been friends?  
..... just met ..... 1-3 weeks ..... 1-2 months ..... 2-3 months  
..... 3-4 months ..... 4-5 months ..... 5-6 months ..... 1-3 years
- What was it about the dialogue that suggested to you the length of acquaintance?  
.....
- What title would you give to this dialogue to show what the people are talking about, what they are doing, what the main topic is?  
.....
- Could you have joined in this dialogue, had you been invited? Why or why not?

- .....
- 5 When DM says, "I forgot to change it", what do you think he is referring to?
- .....
- 6 What do you think that AF and DM mean that DM could have done to "make the most of the extra time"?
- .....
- 7 What did AF mean to do by asking "You mean you didn't get up earlier and make the most of the extra time"?
- .....
- 8 AF says, "sort of Bonnyrigg or somewhere like that". Where is "somewhere like that", do you think?
- .....
- 9 AF says, "It's very confusing where we live". Who would "we" be?
- .....

## DIALOGUE THREE

## TEXT

- AM There's not a lot of things they can ask. Cos we haven't actually done it that deeply have we.
- CM I've spent the most time right now on all this all this load of er in Language and Linguistics.
- AM // Yes.
- CM // Cos I really want to answer that question. // Em.
- AM // Though though I haven't I haven't done any Chomsky. (1) Probably a bit late // now.
- CM // Chomsky doubles up in Psycholinguistics. There'll be a question on him in that.
- AM And I've I've haven't done anything about the Psycholinguistics. I haven't done Chomsky. Which is (0.5) probably very stupid but you // know.
- CM // Avoiding Chomsky in Linguistics is:: procrastination I think.
- AM We:ll. No em avoiding it in terms of em (1.5) in terms of er I mean obviously in relation to other things you've got to=
- CM =Yeah=
- AM = but not necessarily you know in depth. Cos (0.5) I mean things like Linguistics Research and that stuff in Language and Linguistics. It's quite interesting actually. I was really quite pleased. I mean it's (2) I don't know. I'll be glad when it's finished. (1)
- CM Yeah // it's
- AM // I'm not really into it. (4)
- CM Now XX's got me scared.
- AM Why.
- CM Well she said // Yes I'm afraid they do mark hard.
- AM // Oh yeah yeah thanks XX. Cheers. (3)
- CM I'd rather expect that than think they mark easy and then be disappointed.
- AM Yeah. (4.5)
- CM What's a good mark again?
- AM Eight. But it's eight out of nine.
- CM What's a decent mark. Six?
- AM Oh six or seven.
- CM Five's a bad mark right?
- AM I think we get five we're fine.
- CM It's the other mark I want.
- AM You don't want -. No I don't like living near the edge. (0.5) Not me (1)
- CM Pay five thousand pounds to scrape by.
- AM Yeah I haven't got money for that at all. (30) ((unintelligible : BF enters))
- AM Did you go to Manchester over Christmas?
- BF I did yeah. Just for a week. (0.5) A short visit.

- AM Came back here for Hogmanay?  
 BF Yeah.  
 AM Was it good?  
 BF It was good yeah. It was a bit crowded though. Cos we all met up er in the town centre at ten o'clock. (0.5) And when we got there. (0.5) they'd stopped serving. (1)  
 AM Ten o'clock?  
 BF About ten o'clock. All- all pubs had stopped serving. We- // we really!  
 AM // (heh heh)  
 BF We hadn't had anything to drink and sort of and we couldn't believe it. What this is Scottish New Year you know? (0.5) Anyway eventually after walking round the pubs for about an hour (0.5) we got to one that Dave and I usually go to. (0.5) It can be a bit rough but it // it has  
 AM // Which one is it.  
 BF It's the Royal Oak. Right and they have live music. (0.5) We got there and they were serving so everybody desperately ran to the bar and got a drink.  
 AM Yeah.  
 BF And then we went to the Tron at midnight.  
 AM Right.  
 BF Which is that square where they=  
 AM =Trample all over you. I got I got // I did  
 BF // Well they didn't actually. It was it was very good (0.5) er (0.5) humanly. I mean people were (0.5) I mean there was lots of you know sort of pushing and shovelling around but it wasn't (0.5) they weren't shoving you on the ground and // things like that which I mean I believe in Trafalgar Square it gets  
 AM // Yeah yeah yeah  
 BF // quite nasty  
 AM // I've- so I've heard yeah.  
 BF You know it was very good humoured. So we did that then we went to // er  
 AM // on to X's  
 party after that then?  
 BF We went to BM and Julie's.

## QUESTIONS

- 1 How long would you think these people have been friends?  
 ..... just met ..... 1-3 weeks ..... 1-2 months ..... 2-3 months  
 ..... 3-4 months ..... 4-5 months ..... 5-6 months ..... 1-3 years
- 2 What was it about the dialogue that suggested to you the length of acquaintance?  
 .....
- 3 What title would you give to this dialogue to show what the people are talking about, what they are doing, what the main topic is?  
 .....
- 4 Could you have joined in this dialogue, had you been invited? Why or why not?  
 .....
- 5 AM says, "There's not a lot of things they can ask." What are the "things" and who are "they" do you think? And where would they ask them?  
 .....

- 6 Do you imagine that the "done" in "Cos we haven't done it that deeply" means the same as the "done" in "Though I haven't done any Chomsky"? Explain.  
.....
- 7 What exactly would they be referring to when they said "language and linguistics"?  
.....
- 8 Why might it "Probably be a bit late now" to do Chomsky?  
.....
- 9 CM talks about something that X had said. Had AM been there when she said it? Explain.  
.....

## DIALOGUE FOUR

### TEXT

- AF Are you doing discourse for your core project?  
 BM No but maybe I should. (0.5) Maybe that would explain what it is about. I'm doing my option on discourse.  
 NF How do you decide // what you want to  
 AF // I wonder why you really bother.  
 BM Yes I know. It's you know one of those options that I think have I done the right thing. (2) It's now reading week in two weeks' time?  
 DM Yeah that's right.  
 BM Don't think I can change now. (1) Ah!  
 CM // (heh heh) Probably not.  
 BM // (heh heh heh) Oh what a problem.  
 CM And in the class. That's sounds very American actually this book. (1)  
 BM Er. I don't know.  
 CM Um. (3) Um we got we got a class. SLA class next week and the paper's due in next Friday.  
 NF Yes that's true. That's true. Well we got well we got // I got Psycho and second language  
 CM // Just a week // to go.  
 BM // Oh God right  
 yeah.  
 CM So that's the end of that. (0.5) Definitely staying resident in Edinburgh till then. (3.5)  
 BM How's it how's your going. I haven't given you your thing back. Do you still want it back?  
 DM Yeah.  
 BM Oh God. I'll do it.  
 DM Have you done it.  
 BM No.(1.5) I was going to give it consideration and everything and now look at it.  
 DM Now you now you won't bother right.  
 BM ((Snores)) What stuff are you reading for it then. (4) // Did did XX phone you.  
 DM // There's there's not an awful lot.  
 BM Did he direct you to any books or anything about your or have you =  
 DM = No his book.  
 BM His book right. // (heh heh) His book right.  
 DM // (heh heh heh) (3) There are a few things in ELTJ. (2.5) about it. (0.5) ((sniffs)) which are you know. There's not a lot though. (0.5) It's quite nice.  
 BM Did you see em X about that MSc thing.  
 DM That's right. I'll go up and see if I can see it.

### QUESTIONS

- 1 How long would you think these people have been friends?  
 ..... just met ..... 1-3 weeks ..... 1-2 months ..... 2-3 months

- ..... 3-4 months ..... 4-5 months ..... 5-6 months ..... 1-3 years
- 2 What was it about the dialogue that suggested to you the length of acquaintance?  
.....
- 3 What title would you give to this dialogue to show what the people are talking about, what they are doing, what the main topic is?  
.....
- 4 Could you have joined in this dialogue, had you been invited? Why or why not?  
.....
- 5 BM says, in answer to the question about doing discourse for his project, "No but maybe I should. Maybe that would explain what it is about." Is he serious? Explain.....
- 6 BM says, "Don't think I can change course now." Why can't he, do you think?  
.....
- 7 What would SLA stand for? .....
- 8 BM asks DM, "How's your going?" What might he be talking about?  
.....
- 9 BM says, "I haven't given you your thing back." Any suggestions what the "thing" might be? .....

GENERAL COMMENTS HERE:

**PART TWO**

Name: .....

Please add your address if you wouldn't mind:

.....  
 .....  
 .....

**I RELATIONSHIPS**

Look at the list of students' names and put a circle round those you spoke to for at least 10-15 minutes three times a week, and underline those you spoke to about 2-5 minutes about once a week. This refers to your average time in term one.

Aelwyn Davies	Alison Gorie	Amtul Hafeez
Catherine Rice	Christina Ros	Christopher Berry
Elizabeth White	Elni Rigas	Emilia Dafouz-Milne
Felix Fermosel	Fiona Ferry	Francesca Laura
Hamish McIlwraith	Hong Liang Wang	James Leader
John McKenzie	Luan Porter	Maica Chacopino
Manuela de Angelis	Marc Backer-Holst	Marc Goozee
Marilena Frilli	Nancy Boutsika	Norika Iwamoto
Philip Goertzen	Rowan Flett	Rubina Afzal
Saiga Imitiaz	Shaun Gates	Stefan Andresson
Tim Newman	Xiaolong Dai	Ying Hsueh Hu

Write the names of people that you think you will keep in touch with and see again:

.....  
 and the people that you think you might keep in touch with:

**II FUNCTION OF TALK**

Why do you talk?

- 1 to pass the time
- 2 because you enjoy the company
- 3 to see how you fare compared with others
- 4 to relieve your anxieties
- 5 to have a laugh
- 6 other reasons

with the people you circled: .....

with the people you underlined: .....

### III TOPICS

What do you talk about?

- 1 the world
- 2 Edinburgh
- 3 everyday life
- 4 linguistics
- 5 the course
- 6 the staff
- 7 other students
- 8 your personal life
- 9 your feelings
- 10 other

with the people you circled: .....

with the people you underlined: .....

### IV LANGUAGE

Which do you use?

- 1 informal language
- 2 slang and obscenities
- 3 emotional language
- 4 specialised AL terms and names

with the people you circled: .....

with the people you underlined: .....

### V CONVERSATION FLOW

Which three of the following characteristics do you like best in people? Those who

- 1 speak for a long time on one topic
- 2 switch from topic to topic
- 3 speak fast without pauses
- 4 speak slowly with pauses
- 5 sometimes speak along with you
- 6 speak only when you've finished your turn

### VI RECORDING

Did my recording affect your speech? If so, how?

.....

## APPENDIX VI : QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE IMPENETRABILITY TESTS

**(JULY 1994)**

Thank you very much for agreeing to give up some of your time to helping me. Imagine that you were in the AL common room, for whatever reason, on SIX occasions in the academic year 1991-92 and overheard these six small fragments of conversation. Please try to answer the questions.

First, I need you to tick whichever of these five categories that apply to you:

- 1..... I am a university graduate presently resident in Edinburgh.
- 2..... I am a language teacher/linguist.
- 3..... I have information about / experience of one or several EU AL MSc courses.
- 4..... I am a 91-92 EU AL MSc student.
- 5..... I know I am one of the six people who were recorded for this research.
- 6..... I am none of these

**DIALOGUE 1**

- MM So you were in em  
(0.5)
- AM In Sudan.
- MM Sudan.
- AM Mmm. I've been there for three years but um one year em promoted one year and that included two years.
- MM Was that with the Council?
- AM No-no. Em (1) That's for the Sudanese government.(0.5) And then er (0.5) I actually applied for a job in Gabbitas through Gabbitas.
- CM Yeah they they do a lot of private em secondary school don't they.
- AM So I was with them. But.  
(2)
- BM What did you say? Advertised through what.
- AM Gabbitas and Thring is um an educational er appointments agency. (1) Yeah, through them we'd intended to go to Argentina er (4) but that fell through.
- BM I actually did (2) have a job set up in Argentina. Same thing happened. Fell through. It was inflation. And then it came back on again.
- AM Oh.

**QUESTIONS**

- 1 What is the main topic of this dialogue; what are the people talking about?  
-
- 2.1 What is "the Council"?  
-
- 2.2 What do you imagine the "job" might have been in "And then er I actually applied for a job in Gabbitas through Gabbitas." ?  
-
- 2.3 Who exactly does "they" in "they do a lot of private em secondary school" refer to?  
-
- 2.4 What does "it" in "It was inflation" refer to?  
-
- 2.5 What does "it" in "And then it came back on again" refer to?  
-

**DIALOGUE 2**

- NM We were discussing er current research methods in Applied Linguistics.  
 BM Is that right.  
 NM It's a learned discussion.  
 NF I'm coming. I've just arrived. I'm coming.  
 (0.5)  
 NM Mhm? With us?  
 NF I think so.  
 NM // With us?  
 BM // No no you're in X's group I think.  
 NF Oh yes sorry. I keep thinking you're X.  
 NM Oh. (heh heh)  
 BM (heh heh heh heh) We all look the same!  
 (2)  
 NM Em well we yes OK.  
 BM Hang on. There's somebody else.  
 NM Er:: Y is not here.  
 BM Ah. Y doesn't come on // Oh he's  
 NM // No. I don't know. I mean he isn't here now.

**QUESTIONS**

- 1 What is the main topic of this dialogue; what are the people talking about?  
 -  
 2.1 What exactly might "current research methods in Applied Linguistics" refer to?  
 -  
 2.2 Who might Tom in "You're in Tom's group I think" be?  
 -  
 2.3 What do you think the "group" in "You're in Tom's group I think" might be?  
 -  
 2.4 Who might "somebody else" in "There's somebody else" mean?  
 -  
 2.5 What is the full implication of "now" in "I mean he isn't here now", do you think?  
 -

### DIALOGUE 3

- AM Did you go to Manchester over Christmas?  
 BF I did yeah. Just for a week. (0.5) A short visit.  
 AM Came back here for Hogmanay?  
 BF Yeah.  
 AM Was it good?  
 BF It was good yeah. It was a bit crowded though. Cos we all met up er in the town centre at ten o'clock. (0.5) And when we got there. (0.5) they'd stopped serving. (1)  
 AM Ten o'clock?  
 BF About ten o'clock. All- all pubs had stopped serving. We- // we really!  
 AM // (heh heh)  
 BF We hadn't had anything to drink and sort of and we couldn't believe it. What this is Scottish New Year you know? (0.5) Anyway eventually after walking round the pubs for about an hour (0.5) we got to one that Dave and I usually go to. (0.5) It can be a bit rough but it // it has  
 AM // Which one is it.  
 BF It's the Royal Oak.

### QUESTIONS

- 1 What is the main topic of this dialogue; what are the people talking about?  
 -  
 2.1 Who or what is implied by "Manchester", in "Did you go to Manchester over Christmas?", do you think?  
 -  
 2.2 Where do you think "here" in "Came back here for Hogmanay?" is?  
 -  
 2.3 Who might "they" in "And when we got there, they'd stopped serving" refer to?  
 -  
 2.4 What could "anything" in "We hadn't had anything to drink" mean?  
 -  
 2.5 What "pubs" in "after walking around the pubs for about an hour" might they be?  
 -

## DIALOGUE 4

- AM But things like this linguistics as well. You know I don't mind it.
- CM You still got enough time for that?  
(0.5)
- AM There's not a lot of things they can ask. Cos we haven't actually done it that deeply have we.
- CM I've spent the most time right now on all this all this load of er in Language and Linguistics.
- AM // Yes.
- CM // Cos I really want to answer that question. // Em.
- AM // Though though I haven't I haven't done any Chomsky. (1) Probably a bit late // now.
- CM // Chomsky doubles up in Psycholinguistics. There'll be a question on him in that.
- AM And I've I've haven't done anything about the Psycholinguistics. I haven't done Chomsky. Which is (0.5) probably very stupid but you // know.
- CM // Avoiding Chomsky in Linguistics is:: procrastination I think.
- AM We::ll. No em avoiding it in terms of em (1.5) in terms of er I mean obviously in relation to other things you've got to=
- CM =Yeah=
- AM = but not necessarily you know in depth.

## QUESTIONS

- 1 What is the main topic of this dialogue; what are the people talking about?  
-
- 2.1 What might the expression "Language and Linguistics" refer to?  
-
- 2.2 What are where might the "things" in "There's not a lot of things they can ask" be?  
-
- 2.3 How deeply do you think "that deeply" is in "we haven't actually done it that deeply"?  
-
- 2.4 Who or what could the expression "Chomsky" in "Chomsky doubles up in Psycholinguistics" be?  
-
- 2.5 What is the full implication of "now" in "Probably a bit late now", do you think?  
-

## DIALOGUE 5

- DM = Hello! (0.5) Long time no see.  
 AF Mm. It seems ages doesn't it.  
 DM Hibernating?  
 AF Something like that. (2) You've been away on holiday haven't you?  
 DM Yes. Just for four days. We went to Arran.  
 AF Oh I thought you were going to go somewhere abroad. // You were talking about going to Spain.  
 DM // Oh no. It all fell apart  
 in the end. =  
 AF = Oh dear. =  
 DM = We couldn't get transport (2) Couldn't get a ticket. (1) Cos it was the wrong time of - because of Easter.  
 AF Yeah.  
 DM The prices had all gone up.  
 AF Yeah. I know. They do. (2) So you went to Arran. A bit of a come down isn't it!  
 ((laughing))  
 DM It was nice actually.

## QUESTIONS

- 1 What is the main topic of this dialogue; what are the people talking about?  
 -  
 2.1 How long do you think a "long time" is in "Long time no see"?  
 -  
 2.2 Who do you think "we" in "We went to Arran." is?  
 -  
 2.3 How else might AF have expressed the "somewhere" of "I thought you were going to go somewhere abroad"?  
 -  
 2.4 What does the "it" of "It all fell apart in the end" probably refer to?  
 -  
 2.5 What "prices" is DM talking about in "The prices had all gone up."?  
 -

## DIALOGUE 6

- BF I told you my other half's (0.5) thinking of going for a PhD?  
(2)
- DM Oh you might as well do one as well then.
- BF Get out.  
(1)
- DM No?
- BF I don't want to do one.
- DM No I didn't think you did. I didn't think you did but (1) thought it would be a =  
BF = Imagine doing another two years of this?
- DM I'd hate it. No I'd ki- no I'd hate it. Absolutely hate it.
- BF But we've just heard that (0.5) as well that er (0.5) that he applied for a job in the Sudan and they've taken up references. (0.5) Find out this week (2.5) so::  
(2)
- DM Have you applied for anything?  
(1)
- BF No. Not for the moment.
- DM Oh you're waiting for Dave // aren't you.
- BF // Yeah. Yeah.

## QUESTIONS

- 1 What is the main topic of this dialogue; what are the people talking about?  
-
- 2.1 How could BF have done a PhD? DM says "Oh you might as well do one as well then."  
-
- 2.2 What do you think the "this" in "Imagine doing another two years of this?" refers to?  
-
- 2.3 What might the "job" in "he applied for a job in the Sudan" be?  
-
- 2.4 What might "anything" in "Have you applied for anything" mean?  
-
- 2.5 Who do you think Dave in "You're waiting for Dave aren't you?" is?  
-

## APPENDIX VII : KNOWLEDGE AREAS TABLE OF PERCENTAGES

Note:

In the next pages, the following types of abbreviation have been used:

#	to mean	number
DU		discourse unit
per or p		period
tot or all		total
ave		average
P		shared knowledge
dial		dialogue

The rest of the code is explained in Appendix III - Coding System For Knowledge And Function Labels.

APPENDIX VII : KNOWLEDGE AREAS TABLE OF PERCENTAGES																													
DIALOGUE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29
# DUs	56	123	83	141	128	112	97	118	48	115	155	226	179	91	221	97	61	148	126	52	148	180	77	42	70	240	237	118	118
#DUs per day	56	123	83	141	240		97	281			560			312		484					148	299			310		237	236	
DUs per per	740							1785														1082							
# P per per	5							111														77							
% P /DUs per per	1.0							6.2														7.1							
all P	193																												
<b>K1</b>																													
# DUs	7	123	11	88			15	48	21		151		89	17	13			86	117		126	87	15	17			51	3	
# DUs per day	7	123	11	88	0		15	69			240			30		203					126	119			0		51	3	
tot DUs	1085																												
% DU/all DUs	30.1																												
DUs per per	244							668.0														173.0							
%DUs/allDUsperper	33.0							37.4														16.0							
# P per per	2							43														18							
# P	69																												
% P/all P	35.8																												
%P/DU per per	0.8							6.4														10.4							
%all1P/allDUs	1.9																												
<b>K2</b>																													
# DUs	45				128	110			17									23				31				212		12	
#DUs per day	45	0	0	0	238		0	17			0		0		23						0	31			212		0	12	
tot DUs	578																												
% DUs/all Dus	16.0																												
DUs per per	283							40														255							
%Dus/allDUsperper	38.2							2.2														23.6							
# P per per	0							0														12							
# P tot	12																												
% P/allP	6.2																												
% P/DU per per	0.0							0.0														4.7							
%2P/all DUs	0.3																												
# K1+K2 DUperdial	52	123	11	88	128	110	15	48	38	0	151	0	89	17	13	0	0	109	117	0	126	118	15	17	0	212	51	15	0
% K1K2DUs/allDUs	92.9	100.0	13.3	62.4	100.0	98.2	15.5	40.7	79.2	0.0	97.4	0.0	49.7	18.7	5.9	0.0	0.0	73.6	92.9	0.0	85.1	65.6	19.5	40.5	0.0	88.3	21.5	12.7	0.0
# K1+K2DUsperday	52	123	11	88	238	0	15	86	0	0	240	0	0	30	0	226	0	0	0	0	126	150	0	0	212	0	51	15	0
% K1K2DUs/allpday	92.9	100.0	13.3	62.4	99.2		15.5	30.6			42.9			9.6		46.7					85.1	50.2			68.4		21.5	6.4	

DIALOGUE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29
<b>K3</b>																													
# DUs	4		4	16									24	15			11						33	10	70	12	114	99	21
#DUs per day	4	0	4	16	0		0	0			0		39		11						0	43			82		114	120	
tot DUs	433																												
%DUs/all DUs	12.0																												
DUs per per	24							50															359						
%DUs/allDuperper	3.2							2.8															33.2						
# P per per	0							2															23						
tot P	31																												
% P/all P	16.1																												
% P/DU per per	0.0							4.0															6.4						
%3P/all DUs	0.9																												
<b>K4</b>																													
# DUs			68	37		2	82	70	10	103	4	226	90	50	193	97	61	28	9	52	22	62	26	15		16	72	2	98
# DUs per day	0	0	68	37	2		82	183			320			243		247					22	103			16		72	100	
tot DUs	1495																												
%DUs/allDUs	41.4																												
DUs per per	189							1015															291						
%DUs/allDuperper	25.5							56.9															26.9						
# P per per	3							47															16						
tot P	81																												
% P/all P	42.0																												
% P/DU per per	1.6							4.6															5.5						
%4P/all DUs	2.2																												
K3+K4	38.2							65.0															74.3						
# K3+K4Duperdial	4	0	72	53	0	2	82	70	10	103	4	226	90	74	208	97	61	39	9	52	22	62	59	25	70	28	186	101	119
% K3+K4/allDUs	7.1	0.0	86.7	37.6	0.0	1.8	84.5	59.3	20.8	89.6	2.6	100.0	50.3	81.3	94.1	100.0	100.0	26.4	7.1	100.0	14.9	34.4	76.6	59.5	100.0	11.7	78.5	85.6	100.8
#K3K4 DUs per day	4	0	72	53	2	0	82	183	0	0	320	0	0	282	0	258	0	0	0	0	22	146	0	0	98	0	186	220	0
%K3K4DUs/allpday	7.1	0.0	86.7	37.6	0.8		84.5	65.1			57.1			90.4		53.3					14.9	48.8			31.6		78.5	93.2	
K1	88	1189	73	564	0	0	54	306	46	0	1042	0	423	55	56	0	0	529	850	0	934	420	62	60	0	0	245	7	0
K2+K3+K4	288	0	404	1110	1158	825	504	592	165	717	11	1552	752	477	1312	840	511	622	27	359	82	903	473	190	558	2114	1540	907	767

DIALOGUE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	
<b>P (=shared)</b>																														
%1P/K1DUs	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.3			0.0	14.6	0.0		15.2		0.0	29.4	0.0			0.0	0.9		4.8	9.2	20.0	5.9			17.6	0.0		
ave% 1P/K1DUs	6.3							7.2														10.5								
%2P/K2DUs	0.0				0.0	0.0			0.0									0.0				0.0				1.9		66.7		
ave% 2P/K2DUs	8.6							0.0														22.9								
3P per day	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0		0.0	0.0			0.0			7.0	0.0						0.0	9.0			6.0		7.0	2.0		
%3P/K3DUs	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	25.0	6.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	27.3	0.0	0.0	50.0	6.1	2.0	0.0
ave% 3P/K3DUs	0.0							10.6														12.2								
%4P/K4DUs	0.0	0.0	1.5	5.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	50.0	5.3	10.0	24.0	5.2	0.0	4.9	0.0	0.0	17.3	4.5	3.2	0.0	6.7	0.0	0.0	8.3	0.0	8.2	
ave% 4P/K4DUs	1.7							8.7														3.8								
%totP/totDUs	0.0	0.0	1.2	2.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	5.9	0.0	0.0	16.1	5.3	5.0	25.3	5.0	0.0	4.9	0.0	0.8	17.3	4.7	5.6	15.6	4.8	0.0	4.2	9.3	8.5	6.8	
ave totP/DUs	0.6							6.5														6.8								
ave3P+ave4P	1.7							19.2														16.0								
% 1P+2P/DUperday	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.3	0.0		0.0	9.3			9.6			16.7		0.4					4.8	8.0			1.9		33.3	0.0		
% 1P+2P/DUperday	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.3	0.0		0.0	9.3			9.6			16.7		0.4					4.8	8.0			1.9		39.2	0.0		
ave 1P+2P/DUperper																														
%1P2P/K1K2 per per	0.4							6.1														7.0								
%12P/K12	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	16.7	0.0		15.2		0.0	29.4	0.0			0.0	0.9		4.8	#REF!	6.5	5.9		1.9	17.6	53.3		
ave%12P/K12	0.3							7.4														#REF!								
% 3P+4P/DUperday	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0		0.0	0.0			7.2			10.3		0.0					4.5	8.2			6.1		7.0	4.5		
% 3P + 4P/DUperday	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0		0.0	0.0			7.2			10.3		0.0					4.5	8.2			6.1		7.0	4.5		
%3P4P/K3K4 per per	1.4							4.6														6.0								
%34P/K34	0.0		1.4	3.8		0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	50.0	5.3	10.0	24.3	5.3	0.0	4.9	0.0	0.0	17.3	4.5	3.2	15.3	4.0	0.0	21.4	7.0	2.0	6.7	
ave%34P/K34	1.0							8.7														7.5								
%1P2P/all DUs	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	6.8	0.0	0.0	14.8	0.0	0.0	5.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.8	0.0	4.1	4.4	3.9	2.4	0.0	1.7	3.8	6.8	0.0	
ave 1P2P/all DUs	0.2							2.3														2.9								
% 3P4P/all DUs	0.0	0.0	1.2	1.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.3	5.3	5.0	19.8	5.0	0.0	4.9	0.0	0.0	17.3	0.7	1.1	11.7	2.4	0.0	2.5	5.5	1.7	6.8	
ave 3P4P/all DUs	0.4							4.2														4.0								
K1234 DUperper	5.0							92.0														69.0								
K1234/DUs per per	0.7							5.2														6.4								
K123DUperday	56.0	123.0	15.0	104.0	238.0		15.0	86.0			240.0			69.0	237.0						126.0	193.0			294.0		165.0	135.0		
%K123/allDUs	100.0	100.0	18.1	73.8	99.2		15.5	30.6			42.9			22.1	49.0						85.1	64.5			94.8		69.6	57.2		
% K4/all DUperday	0.0	0.0	81.9	26.2	0.8		84.5	65.1			57.1			77.9	51.0						14.9	34.4			5.2		30.4	42.4		
1P/2P/3P per day	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.0	0.0		0.0	8.0			23.0			12.0	1.0						6.0	21.0			10.0		24.0	2.0		
% 123P/DUperday	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.9	0.0		0.0	9.3			9.6			17.4	0.4						4.8	10.9			3.4		14.5	1.5		
ave%123P/DUspper	0.3							8.3														7.6								
% 4P/DUs per day	0.0	0.0	1.5	5.4	0.0		0.0	0.0			7.2			9.1	4.9						4.5	2.9			0.0		8.3	8.0		
ave%4P/DUperper	1.1							5.1														4.8								

## APPENDIX VIII : EXTRA KNOWLEDGE AREA FIGURES

Figure 1 : Divide between K1, taken as non-course, and K2/K3/K4, taken as course knowledge

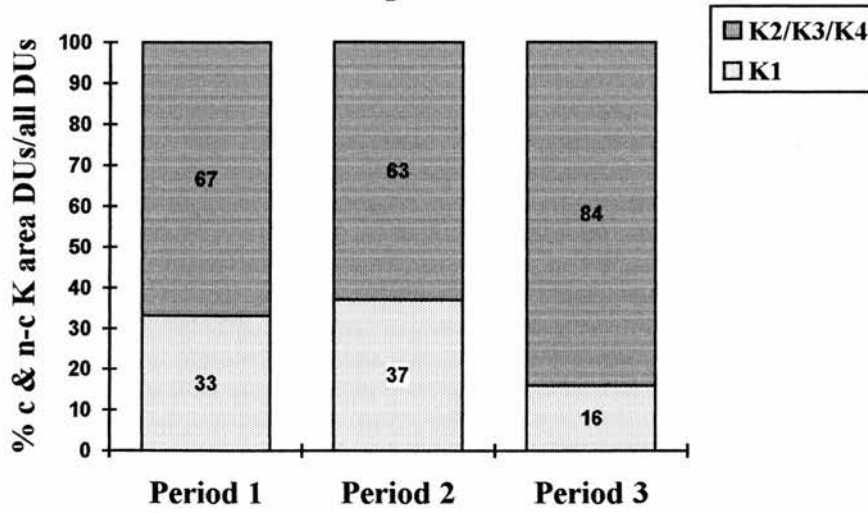
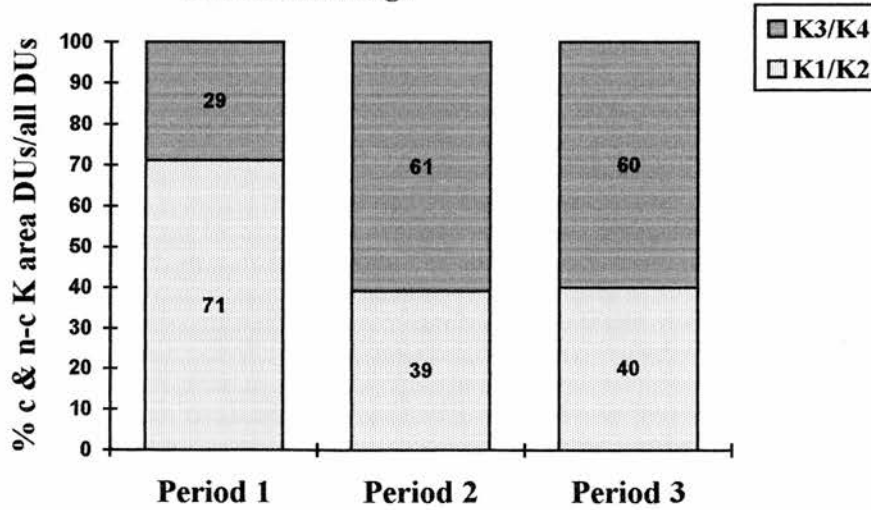


Figure 2 : Divide between K1/K2, taken as non-course, and K3/K4, taken as course knowledge



**APPENDIX IX : GRAMMAR TABLE OF PERCENTAGES**

Note:

In the next pages, the following types of abbreviation have been used:

X	means	non-anaphoric
non-coh		non-cohesive
def		definite
ref		reference
ave		average
wds		words
per or p		per

The rest of the code is explained in Appendix IV - Coding System For Grammatical And Lexical Tags.

**APPENDIX IX : GRAMMAR TABLE OF PERCENTAGES**

DIALOGUE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	
%K123Xdef.ref/K123	6.4	1.8	2.2	2.8	2.9	3.2	1.9	5.2	6.9	0.0	2.7		6.2	5.9	5.0			4.2	3.4		2.7	3.2	5.3	4.7	2.7	1.9	2.3	3.0	14.8	
ave K123X/K123	3.0							4.2														4.7								
%K123X/K123 def.ref.	36.9	11.9	66.7	27.7	22.9	24.1	14.3	41.0	25.8	0.0	18.8		35.1	50.0	45.5			25.9	27.6		30.5	23.2	33.3	35.7	32.6	19.4	33.3	34.2	48.1	
ave K123X/K123def.ref.	29.2							30.0														32.5								
%K123 N1X1/wdspday	0.6	0.4	0.0	0.2	0.2		0.0	1.1			0.6			0.4		0.3					0.4	0.4			0.8		0.6	0.4		
ave K123 N1X1/K123	0.2							0.5														0.6								
%K123 N2X2/K123	11.0	11.5	1.1	8.5	9.6		13.0	9.9			10.2			6.9		10.4					6.4	9.7			6.3		3.9	6.1		
ave K123 N2X2/K123	9.1							8.8														6.5								
%K123 N3X3/K123	0.9	1.8	2.2	0.3	2.0		0.0	2.1			1.6			2.1		0.9					0.8	2.2			1.5		1.2	3.0		
ave K123 N3X3/K123	1.2							1.5														2.0								
%K123XT/K123wds	6.4	1.1	1.1	2.7	2.0	1.8	1.9	4.3	3.5	0.0	2.1		5.0	3.7	2.0			3.5	2.6		1.9	1.6	2.9	1.9	1.6	0.7	1.3	1.6	2.3	
ave K123XT/K123wds	2.4							2.9														1.7								
%K123XT/123Xref	100.0	61.9	50.0	94.4	69.7	57.7	100.0	81.3	50.0		78.6		80.8	63.6	40.0			83.3	75.9		72.0	50.0	55.6	40.0	60.0	35.9	54.5	51.9	15.4	
ave K123XT/K123Xref	76.3							69.5														45.4								
%K123XT/123Ref	36.9	7.4	33.3	26.2	16.0	13.9	14.3	33.3	12.9	0.0	14.8		28.4	31.8	18.2			21.6	21.0		22.0	11.6	18.5	14.3	19.6	7.0	18.2	17.7	7.4	
ave K123XT/K123 def.ref.	21.1							20.4														14.3								
% K123XD/K123wds	0.0	0.3	1.1	0.0	0.6	0.7	0.0	0.3	0.9	0.0	0.3		1.2	2.1	3.0			0.3	0.8		0.4	1.0	1.8	1.9	0.7	0.9	1.1	0.9	1.0	
ave K123XD/K123wds	0.4							0.9														1.2								
%K123XD/K123Xref	0.0	14.3	50.0	0.0	21.2	23.1	0.0	6.3	12.5		10.7		19.2	36.4	60.0			6.7	24.1		16.0	31.8	33.3	40.0	26.7	46.2	45.5	29.6	69.2	
ave K123Xd/K123Xref	15.5							21.3														40.3								
%K123XD/K123Ref	0.0	1.7	33.3	0.0	4.9	5.6	0.0	2.6	3.2	0.0	2.0		6.8	18.2	27.3			1.7	6.7		4.9	7.4	11.1	14.3	8.7	9.0	15.2	10.1	33.3	
aveK123XD/K123def.ref.	6.5							7.3														13.6								
%K123XEP/K123wds	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.2	0.7	0.6	0.0	0.7	2.6	0.0	0.1		0.0	0.0	0.0			0.0	0.0		0.0	0.6	0.6	0.9	0.4	0.3	0.0	0.6	1.1	
ave K123XEP/K123wds	0.1							0.3														0.6								
%K123XEP/K123Xref	0.0	4.8	0.0	5.6	3.0	19.2	0.0	12.5	37.5		3.6		0.0	0.0	0.0			0.0	0.0		0.0	18.2	11.1	20.0	13.3	15.4	0.0	18.5	7.7	
ave K123XEP/K123Xref	4.7							6.0														13.0								
%K123XEP/K123Ref	0.0	0.6	0.0	1.5	0.7	4.6	0.0	5.1	9.7	0.0	0.7		0.0	0.0	0.0			0.0	0.0		0.0	4.2	3.7	7.1	4.3	3.0	0.0	6.3	3.7	
ave K123XEP/K123 def.ref.	1.1							1.6														4.1								
%K123XC/K123wds	0.0	0.3	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0		0.0	0.0	0.0			0.3	0.0		0.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.1
ave K123XC/K123	0.1							0.1														0.1								
%K123XC/Xref	0.0	19.1	0.0	0.0	6.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0		0.0		0.0	0.0	0.0			6.7	0.0		8.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.6	0.0	0.0	7.7
ave K123XC/K123Xref	3.6							1.6														1.3								
%K123XC/K123Ref	0.0	2.3	0.0	0.0	1.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0		0.0	0.0	0.0			1.7	0.0		2.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.5	0.0	0.0	3.7
aveK123XC/K123def.ref.	0.5							0.4														0.5								
%K123 def.ref./all ref.	69.9	86	25.0	67.7	75.4	78.8	70.0	79.6	93.9	50.0	83.2		78.7	66.7	68.8			73.0	79.0		68.3	76.6	65.9	63.6	71.9	75.0	63.9	80.6	90.0	
ave K123def.ref./all ref.	67.6							74.1														73.4								
% K123Xref/allref	45.2	12.8	58.3	29.2	26.7	28.5	30.0	44.9	27.3	16.7	26.8		39.4	57.6	43.8			28.9	31.6		39.2	33.9	41.5	40.9	37.5	19.4	35.5	36.7	53.3	
aveK123Xref/allref	32.9							35.6														37.3								
%K123XL/K123wds	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2		0.0	0.0	0.0			0.1	0.0		0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
ave K123XL/K123wds	0.0							0.0														0.0								
%K123 XL/L	0.0	0.0			0.0	0.0		0.0	0.0		33.3			0.0				33.3	0.0		16.7		0.0			0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
ave K123 XL/L	0.0							11.9														0.0								
%K123XL/K123Xref	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0		7.1		0.0	0.0	0.0			3.3	0.0		4.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
aveK123XL/K123Xref	0.0							1.6														0.0								
%K123XL/K123Ref	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.3		0.0	0.0	0.0			0.9	0.0		1.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
aveK123XL/K123def.ref	0.0							0.3														0.0								

DIALOGUE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29
%K4X/K4			4.4	1.4		0.0	4.0	3.9	7.4	3.2	9.1	3.9	3.2	6.7	3.9	4.4	3.7	2.5	3.7	5.9	4.9	3.2	3.6	5.6		4.2	6.1	9.1	3.2
ave K4X/K4	2.4							4.7														5.0							
% K4 N1X1/K4wds			0.0	0.1	0.0		0.0	0.2			0.3			0.3		0.3						0.0	0.2			0.0		0.3	0.4
ave K4 N1X1/K4wds	0.0							0.2														0.2							
K4 N2+X2 per day			17.0	15.0	0.0		14.0	55.0			121.0			95.0		108.0						5.0	44.0			11.0		29.0	30.0
% K4 N2X2/K4			4.4	1.5	0.0		2.8	2.9			5.2			5.9		5.0						6.1	3.9			11.5		8.0	4.3
ave K4 N2X2/K4	2.2							5.0														6.9							
K4 N3+X3 per day			9.0	16.0	0.0		10.0	23.0			53.0			59.0		73.0						2.0	31.0			7.0		19.0	12.0
% K4 N3X3/K4			2.3	1.5	0.0		2.0	1.2			2.3			3.7		3.4						2.4	2.7			7.3		5.3	1.7
ave K4 N3X3/K4	1.5							2.6														4.3							
%K4 def.ref/all ref.			89.2	79.1			68.2	79.4	100.0	64.0	75.0	86.5	79.5	84.9	87.7	87.6	78.9	82.1	25.0	84.6	50.0	85.2	75.0	100.0		75.0	86.2	100.0	65.7
ave K4 def.ref/all ref	78.8							76.1														83.9							
% K4 X.ref./all ref.			51.4	48.8		0.0	70.5	47.6	58.3	46.7	25.0	33.2	38.6	50.9	40.5	42.9	57.7	43.6	100.0	55.8	68.8	42.6	70.8	38.1		25.0	36.9	100.0	44.3
ave K4 Xref. / all ref.	42.7							50.7														51.1							
%K4XT/K4wds			2.6	0.6		0.0	2.2	2.4	6.3	2.1	9.1	2.3	2.1	4.7	1.6	2.3	1.6	1.6	3.7	2.5	2.4	1.9	1.6	1.4		3.1	2.8	0.0	1.5
ave K4XT/K4wds	1.3							3.2														1.8							
%K4XT/K4Xref			58.8	42.9			55.0	60.9	85.7	66.7	100.0	58.3	66.7	69.6	40.0	51.4	42.1	63.6		42.9	50.0	60.0	46.2	25.0		75.0	45.5	0.0	45.5
ave K4XT/K4Xref	52.2							61.4														42.4							
%K4XT/K4Ref			30.3	17.7			36.7	28.0	50.0	29.2	33.3	18.9	24.2	35.6	14.0	20.7	19.5	21.9		20.5	25.0	23.1	33.3	9.5		16.7	17.9	0.0	21.7
ave K4XT/K4 def.ref.	28.2							26.2														17.5							
% K4XD/K4wds			1.6	0.2		0.0	1.4	0.8	1.1	0.5	0.0	0.5	0.3	1.2	0.8	1.2	1.6	0.2	0.0	2.5	1.2	1.1	0.3	4.2		1.0	0.3	5.0	1.3
ave K4XD/K4wds	0.8							0.8														1.9							
% K4XD/K4Xref			35.3	14.3			35.0	21.7	14.3	14.3	0.0	13.3	8.3	17.4	20.0	27.0	42.1	9.1		42.9	25.0	35.0	7.7	75.0		25.0	4.5	100.0	40.9
ave K4XD/K4Xref	28.2							19.7														41.2							
% K4XD/K4Ref			18.2	5.9			23.3	10.0	8.3	6.3	0.0	4.3	3.0	8.9	7.0	10.9	19.5	3.1		20.5	12.5	13.5	5.6	28.6		5.6	1.8	100.0	19.6
ave K4XD/K4 def.ref.	15.8							8.8														24.9							
%K4XEP/K4wds			0.3	0.4		0.0	0.4	0.5	0.0	0.3	0.0	1.0	0.7	0.9	1.3	0.7	0.6	0.5	0.0	0.8	1.2	0.2	1.1	0.0		0.0	2.8	0.0	0.1
ave K4XEP/K4wds	0.3							0.6														0.6							
%K4XEP/K4Xref			5.9	28.6			10.0	13.0	0.0	9.5	0.0	25.0	20.8	13.0	32.0	16.2	16.0	18.2		14.3	25.0	5.0	30.8	0.0		0.0	45.5	0.0	4.5
ave K4XEP/K4Xref	14.8							15.6														12.3							
%K4XEP/K4Ref			3.0	11.8			0.7	6.0	0.0	4.2	0.0	8.1	7.6	6.7	11.2	6.5	7.3	6.3		6.8	12.5	1.9	22.2	0.0		0.0	17.9	0.0	2.2
ave K4XEP/K4 def.ref.	7.2							6.4														6.3							
%K4XC/K4wds			0.0	0.0		0.0	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.3	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.3	0.2	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.3	0.0		0.0	0.3	0.0	0.3
ave K4XC/K4wds	0.0							0.1														0.1							
%K4XC/K4Xref			0.0	0.0			0.0	4.4	0.0	9.5	0.0	3.3	0.0	0.0	8.0	5.4	0.0	9.1		0.0	0.0	0.0	7.7	0.0		0.0	4.5	0.0	9.1
ave K4XC/K4Xref	0.0							3.1														3.0							
%K4XC/K4Ref			0.0	0.0			0.0	2.0	0.0	4.2	0.0	1.1	0.0	0.0	2.8	2.2	0.0	3.1		0.0	0.0	0.0	5.6	0.0		0.0	1.8	0.0	4.3
ave K4XC/K4 def.ref.	0.0							1.2														1.7							
%K4XL/K4wds			0.0	0.4		0.0	0.2	0.0	4.2	0.2	0.0	0.7	0.9	0.0	0.2	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.8	0.0	0.6	0.3	0.0		0.0	4.2	0.0	0.3
ave K4XL/K4wds	0.2							0.5														0.8							
%K4 XL/L				50.0			0.0		0.0	0.0		0.0	14.3		0.0	0.0					0.0		100.0				0.0		0.0
ave K4 XL/L	25.0							2.0														25.0							
%K4XL/K4Xref			0.0	14.3			0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	4.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0		0.0	0.0	0.0	7.7	0.0		0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
ave K4XL/K4Xref	4.8							0.3														1.1							
%K4XL/K4Ref			0.0	5.9			0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0		0.0	0.0	0.0	5.6	0.0		0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
ave K4XL/K4 def.ref.	2.0							0.1														0.8							
K4 def.ref. (final)			33.0	34.0	0.0	0.0	30.0	50.0	12.0	48.0	3.0	185.0	66.0	45.0	143.0	92.0	41.0	32.0	1.0	44.0	8.0	52.0	18.0	21.0	0.0	18.0	56.0	1.0	46.0
%K4X/K4def.ref.			51.5	41.2			66.7	46.0	58.3	43.8	33.3	32.4	36.4	51.1	35.0	40.2	46.3	34.4		47.7	50.0	38.5	72.2	38.1		22.2	39.3	100.0	47.8
ave K4X/K4def.ref.	53.1							42.7														51.2							

DIALOGUE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	
%allXT/allwds	4.5	1.1	2.1	1.9	2.0	1.8	2.2	3.0	4.7	2.0	2.2	2.3	3.2	4.3	1.6	2.3	1.6	2.8	2.6	2.5	2.0	1.7	2.1	1.6	1.6	0.8	1.6	1.5	1.6	
ave allXT/allwds	2.2							2.6														1.6								
%allXT/allXref.	100.0	61.9	57.9	71.9	69.7	57.7	57.1	69.2	66.7	66.7	79.3	58.3	74.0	67.7	40.0	51.4	42.1	78.1	76.7	42.9	69.0	54.8	50.0	30.8	60.0	39.5	50.9	50.0	34.3	
ave allXT/allXref	68.0							63.0													48.8									
%allXT/allRef.	36.9	7.4	30.6	23.2	16.0	13.9	32.4	30.3	23.3	25.9	15.1	18.9	26.4	34.3	14.3	20.7	19.5	21.6	21.7	20.5	22.2	15.6	24.4	11.4	19.6	7.8	18.1	17.5	16.4	
ave allXT/all def.ref.	22.9							22.5															16.4							
%all XD/allwds	0.0	0.3	1.3	0.2	0.6	0.7	1.3	0.7	1.0	0.4	0.3	0.5	0.6	1.5	1.0	1.2	1.6	0.3	0.8	2.5	0.5	1.1	0.7	3.2	0.7	0.9	0.9	1.0	2.3	
ave allXD/allwds	0.6							0.9															1.4							
%allXD/allXref	0.0	14.3	36.8	6.3	21.2	23.1	33.3	15.4	13.3	14.3	10.3	13.3	14.0	23.5	23.6	27.0	42.1	7.3	23.3	42.9	17.2	33.3	18.2	61.5	26.7	44.2	29.1	32.1	51.4	
ave allXD/allXref	19.3							20.5															37.1							
%allXD/allRef	0.0	1.7	19.4	2.0	4.9	5.6	18.9	6.7	4.7	5.6	2.0	4.3	5.0	11.9	8.4	10.9	19.5	2.0	6.6	20.5	5.6	9.5	8.9	22.9	8.7	8.7	10.3	11.3	24.7	
ave allXD/all def.ref.	7.5							8.1															13.1							
% all XEP/allwds	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.4	0.1	0.6	0.4	0.6	1.4	0.3	0.1	1.0	0.4	0.6	1.2	0.7	0.6	0.2	0.0	0.8	0.1	0.4	0.9	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.6	0.5	0.3	
ave all XEP/allwds	0.3							0.6															0.5							
% allXEP/Xref	0.0	4.8	5.3	15.6	3.0	19.2	9.5	12.8	20.0	9.5	3.5	25.0	10.0	8.8	29.1	16.2	15.8	4.9	0.0	14.3	3.5	11.9	22.7	7.7	13.3	14.0	18.2	17.9	5.7	
ave all XEP/allXref.	8.2							12.4															13.9							
% allXEP/all Ref	0.0	0.6	2.8	5.1	0.7	4.6	5.4	5.6	7.0	3.7	0.7	8.1	3.6	4.5	10.4	6.5	7.3	1.4	0.0	6.8	1.1	3.4	11.1	2.9	4.3	2.7	6.5	6.3	2.7	
ave all XEP/all def.ref.	2.7							4.8															5.0							
%allXC/allwds	0.0	0.3	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.3	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.3	0.2	0.0	0.3	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.4
ave allXC/allwds	0.1							0.1															0.1							
% allXC/allXref	0.0	19.1	0.0	0.0	6.1	0.0	0.0	2.6	0.0	9.5	0.0	3.3	0.0	0.0	7.3	5.4	0.0	7.3	0.0	0.0	6.9	0.0	4.5	0.0	0.0	2.3	1.8	0.0	8.6	
ave allXC/allXref	3.6							3.0															2.2							
% allXC/allRef	0.0	2.3	0.0	0.0	1.4	0.0	0.0	1.1	0.0	3.7	0.0	1.1	0.0	0.0	2.6	2.2	0.0	2.0	0.0	0.0	2.2	0.0	2.2	0.0	0.0	0.5	0.6	0.0	4.1	
ave allXC/all def.ref.	0.5							1.1															0.9							
%allXL/allwds	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	
ave all XL/allwds	0.0							0.0															0.0							
all XL/allXref	0.0	0.0	0.0	6.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	6.9	0.0	2.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.4	0.0	0.0	3.4	0.0	4.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	
ave XL/allXref	0.9							1.1															0.6							
all XL/allRef	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.3	0.0	0.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.7	0.0	0.0	1.1	0.0	2.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	
ave XL/all def.ref.	0.3							0.3															0.3							
% all XL/L	0.0	0.0		50.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	33.3	0.0	14.3	0.0	0.0	0.0		33.3	0.0	0.0	16.7	0.0	50.0		0.0	0.0	0.0		0.0	
ave all XL/L	8.3							7.5															8.3							
% all L / all NP	1.6	3.4	0.0	4.2	2.2	2.9	3.5	1.3	13.5	2.6	4.0	7.8	5.6	2.2	2.2	1.2	0.0	1.8	2.0	8.6	7.3	2.9	5.0	0.0	2.3	2.8	11.6	0.0	6.3	
ave all L / all NP	2.5							4.3															3.9							
%all Xref./allref.	45.2	12.8	53.1	35.3	26.7	28.3	63.0	46.4	35.6	42.5	26.8	33.2	39.0	53.5	40.8	42.9	57.7	31.8	33.6	55.8	42.6	36.8	52.3	39.5	37.5	19.9	35.9	37.4	47.0	
ave allXref/allref	37.7							41.6															38.3							
all X def ref/ allref	25.8	10.3	38.8	23.0	17.3	18.8	38.9	34.8	33.3	24.1	15.9	28.0	28.3	39.5	30.7	35.2	36.5	20.7	21.9	40.4	21.3	22.7	33.8	30.2	23.4	14.7	25.0	28.3	35.0	
ave X def ref/ allref	24.7							29.3															26.7							
%def.ref. / all ref.	69.9	86.3	73.5	71.2	75.4	78.3	68.5	79.5	95.6	62.1	83.1	86.5	79.1	77.9	86.0	87.6	78.9	74.8	77.4	84.6	66.2	79.5	69.2	81.4	71.9	75.0	70.5	80.8	73.0	
ave def.ref. / all ref.	74.7							79.9															75.2							
% X def.ref. / all def.ref.	36.9	11.9	52.8	32.3	22.9	24.1	56.8	43.8	34.9	38.9	19.1	32.4	35.7	50.8	35.7	40.2	46.3	27.7	28.3	47.7	32.2	28.6	48.9	37.1	32.6	19.6	35.5	35.0	47.9	
ave X def.ref/all defref.	34.0							36.7															35.7							
%non-coh/all indef.ref.	69.8	48.6	18.1	73.8	84.2	69.0	33.4	37.3	3.0	66.3	26.2	39.2	67.3	30.4	58.6	22.7	30.1	96.2	73.1	19.8	136.0	114.5	35.5	13.2	38.4	101.9	96.0	31.8	34.3	
ave noncoh/ all indefref	56.8							58.3															58.2							
%K123noncoh/indefref.	64.3	17.9	55.6	32.3	38.3	44.8	66.7	60.0	50.0	33.3	66.7		55.0	72.7	40.0			37.2	46.4		57.9	69.0	57.1	50.0	50.0	19.4	39.3	47.4	100.0	
aveK123noncoh/indefref	45.7							51.9														54.0								
%K4 noncoh/indefref			50.0	77.8		0.0	78.6	53.5		51.9	0.0	37.9	47.1	50.0	80.0	61.5	100.0	85.7	100.0	100.0	87.5	66.7	66.7			33.3	22.2		37.5	
aveK4 noncoh/indefref	51.6							65.8															45.3							

## APPENDIX X : EXTRA GRAMMAR FIGURES

Figure 1 : Non-anaphoric reference out of all reference

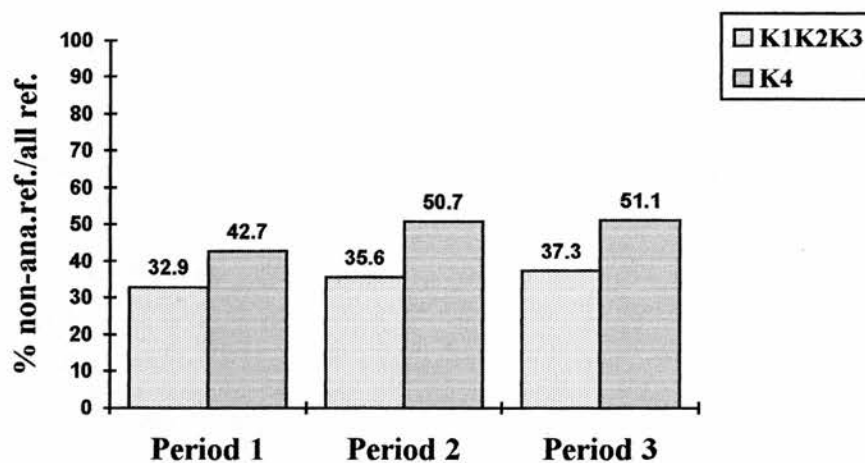
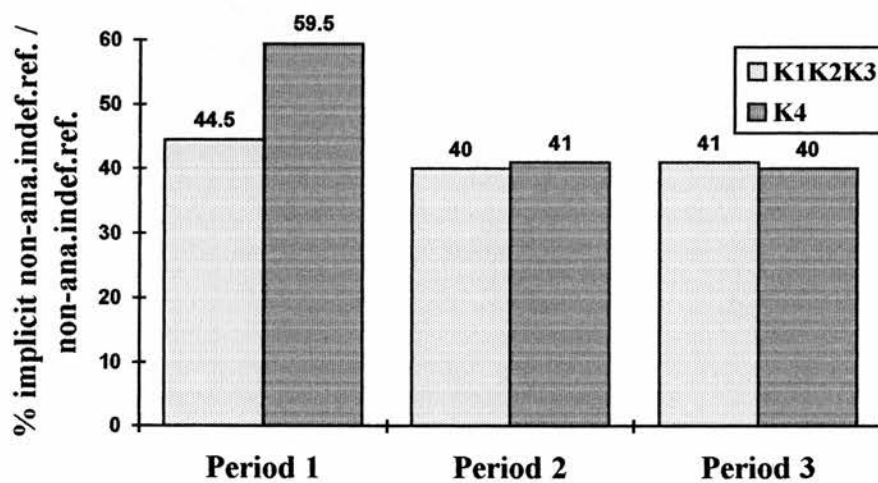


Figure 2 : Implicit reference out of all non-anaphoric indefinite reference



**APPENDIX XI : LEXIS TABLE OF PERCENTAGES**

Note:

In the next pages, the following types of abbreviation have been used:

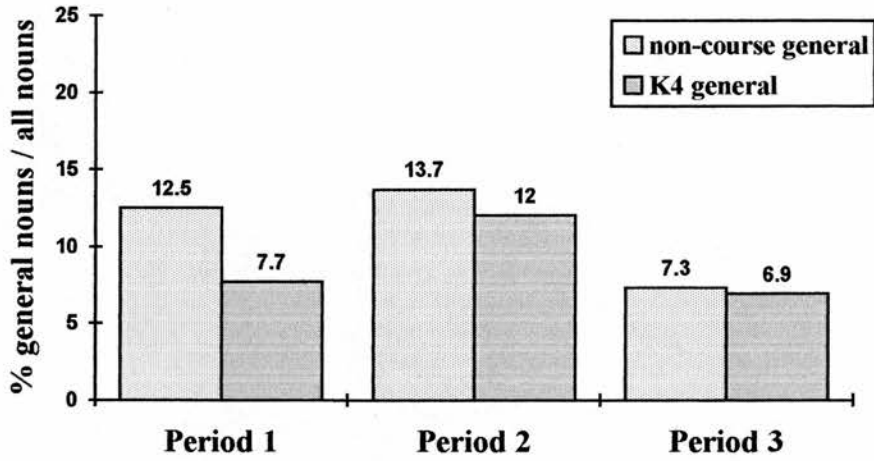
dial	means	dialogue
wds		words
ave		average
tot		total
nns		nouns
vbs		verbs
gen		general

The rest of the code is explained in Appendix IV - Coding System For Grammatical And Lexical Tags.

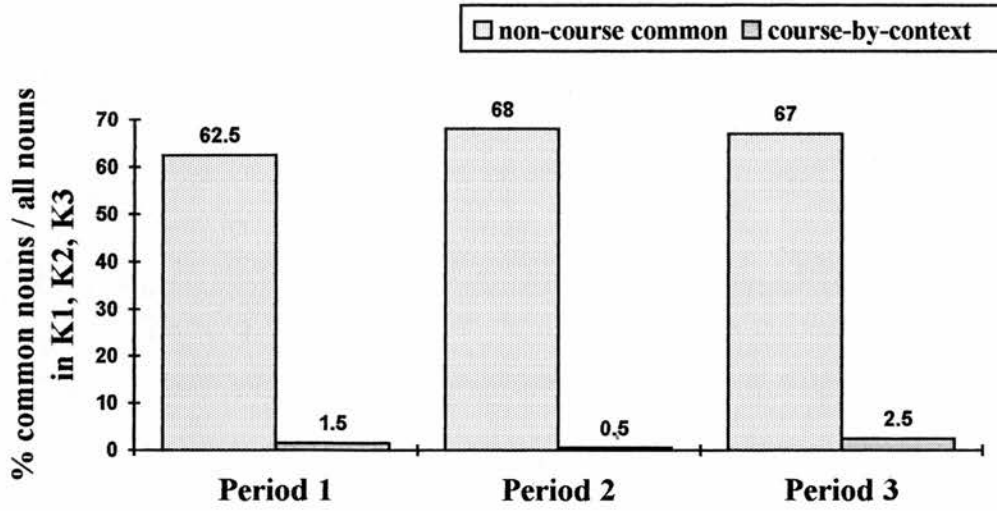




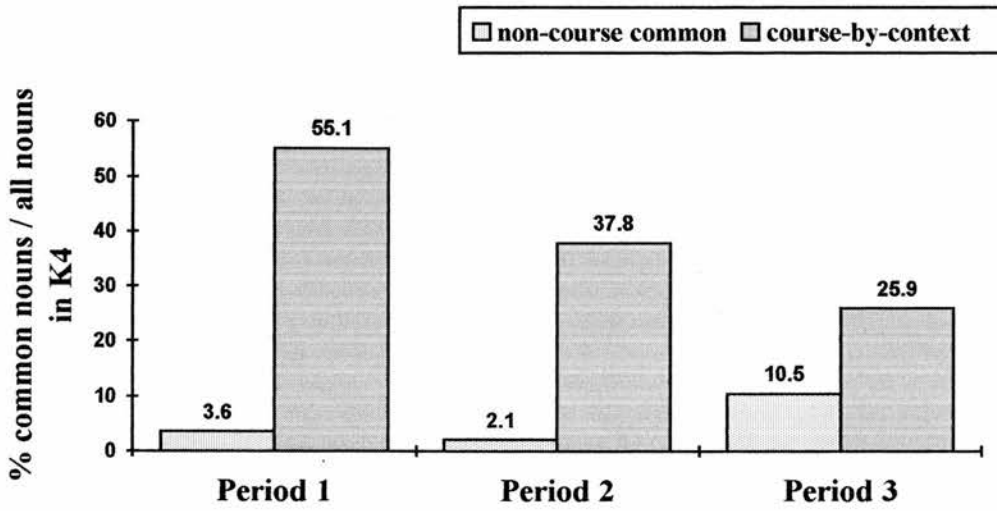
DIALOGUE	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29
<b>K2 continued</b>																													
% 10/vbs	53.1				54.3	64.1			26.7	16.7								44.4				44.4			71.4		57.1		
ave 10/vbs	57.2							29.3														57.7							
13/vbs	3.1				3.2	0.0			0.0	16.7								11.1				5.6			3.9		14.3		
ave 13/vbs	2.1							9.3														7.9							
<b>K3</b>																													
%verbs/words	15.2		38.9	16.2										14.3	13.6			16.9					29.6	17.0	10.4	23.9	8.7	9.1	13.6
aveK3vbs/wds	23.4							14.9														16.1							
%all K3vbs/wds	11.3																												
% 10/vbs	60.0		42.9	33.3										68.4	50.0			76.9					68.8	75.0	55.2	56.3	59.2	44.4	75.0
ave 10/vbs	45.4							65.1														62.0							
%13/vbs	0.0		0.0	0.0										0.0	0.0			0.0					6.3	0.0	3.5	12.5	18.5	11.1	0.0
ave 13/vbs	0.0							0.0														7.4							
<b>K1, K2 &amp; K3</b>																													
%K123 13/vbs	3.8	5.2	6.3	0.0	3.2	0.0	0.0	5.1	4.0	16.7	2.5		2.0	0.0	0.0			1.0	2.5		5.1	5.5	4.7	0.0	3.5	4.6	13.6	11.4	0.0
ave K123 13/vbs	2.6							3.9														5.4							
% gen vbs/nns / K123	7.4																												
% gen vbs / K123 vbsnns	2.5																												
% othervbs/K123 vbsnns	52.9																												
% gen nns/K123 vbsnns	4.9																												
% othernns/K123 vbsnns	39.7																												
<b>K4</b>																													
%verbs/words			11.7	3.7		20.0	9.7	7.8	6.3	9.3	18.2	9.5	5.7	7.6	12.6	8.8	13.9	6.2	11.1	10.3	15.9	5.4	4.4	9.8		14.6	14.4	18.2	11.9
aveK4vbs/wds	11.3							10.2														11.2							
% allK4vbs/wds	9.1																												
%10/vbs			33.3	57.9		50.0	57.1	37.0	50.0	43.6	0.0	51.7	62.8	53.9	43.1	50.0	71.8	66.7	33.3	46.0	76.9	55.9	81.3	64.3		50.0	63.5	50.0	38.3
ave 10/vbs	49.6							49.1														57.6							
% 13/14 / vbs			8.9	18.4		50.0	10.2	13.0	16.7	8.1	50.0	8.2	2.3	0.0	11.9	1.4	2.8	7.4	66.7	13.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0		14.3	9.6	0.0	17.3
ave 13/14 / vbs	21.9							14.4														5.9							
% K4 allXvbs/allvbs	36.3																												
%genvbs/K4vbsnns	5.1																												
% nongenvbs/K4vbsnns	51.9																												
% gennns/K4vbsnns	5.2																												
% nongen nns/K4 vbsnns	37.8																												
<b>all K areas</b>																													
%Verbs/words	10.0	11.4	11.5	10.0	11.0	12.7	10.4	9.5	14.7	9.5	11.4	9.5	7.9	9.4	12.9	8.8	13.9	11.2	9.6	10.3	10.9	9.5	11.0	11.6	10.4	9.8	10.8	9.9	12.1
ave%verbs/words	11.0							10.7														10.6							
%all vbs/allwds	10.5																												
%10/verbs	60.4	57.4	41.0	61.0	54.3	63.8	58.6	47.1	29.0	41.2	59.2	51.7	52.7	62.0	46.0	50.0	71.8	57.4	35.7	46.0	56.8	57.6	74.6	58.6	55.2	68.8	64.6	46.7	43.0
ave 10/verbs	56.6							50.5														58.6							
%13/14/verbs	3.8	5.1	8.2	5.9	3.2	1.0	8.6	9.4	9.7	8.8	3.3	8.2	2.2	0.0	10.8	1.4	2.8	2.3	4.8	13.5	4.5	4.0	3.4	0.0	3.5	5.3	12.5	11.1	15.1
ave%1314/verbs	5.1							5.8														6.9							
% all gen.vbs./all vbs.	3.8	5.2	8.2	5.9	3.2	1.0	8.6	9.4	6.5	8.8	3.3	8.2	2.2	0.0	10.8	1.4	2.8	2.3	4.8	13.5	4.5	4.0	3.4	0.0	3.5	5.3	12.5	11.1	15.1
ave all gen.vbs/allvbs	5.1							5.6														6.9							

**APPENDIX XII : EXTRA LEXIS FIGURES****Figure 1 : Density of general nouns out of all nouns**

**Figure 2 : Density of non-course common nouns & course-by-context nouns in non-course K areas**



**In K4**



## APPENDIX XIII : OTHER IMPLICIT FEATURES TABLE OF PERCENTAGES

Note:

In the next pages, the following types of abbreviation have been used:

ave	means	average
dus		discourse units
tot		total
LG		lexico-grammatical
Hwow		humour in hitches
Xwow		non-anaphoric reference in hitches
?wow		questions in hitches
impwow		implicit contextualisation cues in hitches

The rest of the code is explained in Appendices III and IV.









**APPENDIX XIV : FUNCTION TABLE OF PERCENTAGES**

Note:

In the next pages, the following types of abbreviation have been used:

T func	means	transactional function
ave		average
SA		speech act
dus		discourse units

The rest of the code is explained in Appendices III and IV.

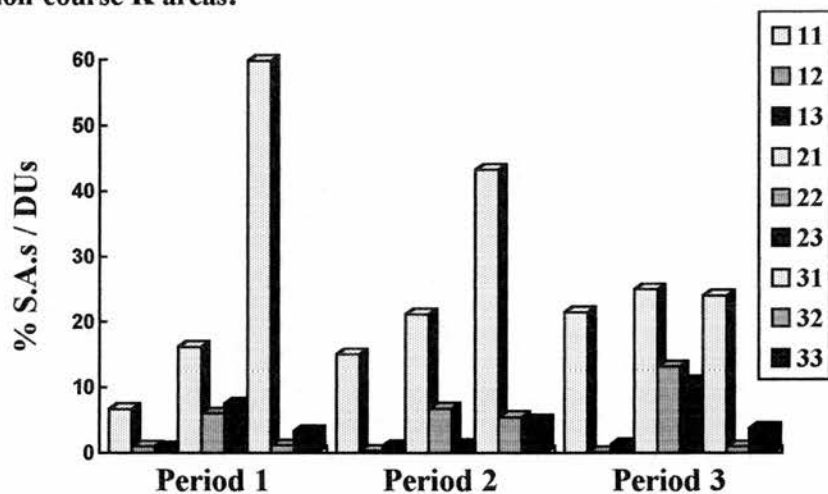
APPENDIX XIV : FUNCTION TABLE OF PERCENTAGES																															
dialogue	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29		
<b>MACRO-FUNCTION</b>																															
<b>K1</b>																															
T func																													10.0		
%Tfunc/DUs	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0			0.0	0.0	0.0		0.0		0.0	0.0	0.0			0.0	0.0		0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0				19.6	0.0		
aveTfunc/DU	0.0							0.0														3.9									
<b>K2</b>																															
T func						109.0																							212.0		
%Tfunc/DUs	0.0				0.0	99.1			0.0									0.0				0.0						100.0	0.0		
aveTfunc/DU	33.0							0.0														33.3									
<b>K3</b>																															
T func	2.0		8.0											6.0	3.0															16.0	
%Tfunc/DUS	50.0		100.0	0.0										25.0	20.0				0.0					0.0	0.0	0.0		0.0	0.0	76.2	
aveTfunc/DU	50.0							15.0														10.9									
<b>K123</b>																															
Tfunc	2.0	0.0	8.0	0.0	0.0	109.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	6.0	3.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	212.0	10.0	0.0	16.0
%Tfunc/DU	3.6	0.0	42.1	0.0	0.0	99.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	14.6	10.7			0.0	0.0		0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	94.6	6.1	0.0	76.2
aveTfunc/DU	20.7							2.8														22.1									
<b>K4</b>																															
Tfunc			40.0			2.0	66.0					11.0		4.0	13.0	2.0	10.0							10.0			15.0	17.0		11.0	
%Tfunc/DUs			58.8	0.0		100.0	80.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	4.9	0.0	8.0	6.7	2.1	16.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	38.5	0.0		93.8	23.6	0.0	11.2	
aveTfunc/DU	59.8							2.7														23.9									
<b>All K</b>																															
all T func	2.0	0.0	48.0	0.0	0.0	111.0	66.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	11.0	0.0	10.0	16.0	2.0	10.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	10.0	0.0	0.0	227.0	27.0	0.0	27.0	
%allTfunc/DU	3.6	0.0	55.2	0.0	0.0	99.1	68.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	4.9	0.0	11.0	7.2	2.1	16.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	13.5	0.0	0.0	94.6	11.4	0.0	22.7	
ave allTfunc/DU	32.3							3.0														17.8									
<b>SPEECH ACTS</b>																															
<b>K123</b>																															
%SA11/DU	30.4	0.0	6.7	1.9	0.0	8.2	0.0	37.5	5.3		12.6		0.0	19.5	14.3			10.0	11.1		24.6	24.6	31.3	14.8	20.0	21.0	23.0	27.2	9.5		
aveSA11/DU	6.7							15.0														21.4									
%SA12 / DU	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	6.7	0.0	0.0		0.0		0.0	2.4	0.0			0.0	0.0		0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.6	0.0	0.0		
aveSA12/DU	1.0							0.3													0.1										
%SA13/DU	1.8	4.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	5.3		0.0		0.0	2.4	0.0			1.7	0.0		0.0	0.0	0.0	3.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.8	4.8		
aveSA13/DU	0.8							1.0													1.3										
%SA 21/DU	14.3	9.8	33.3	23.1	10.2	9.1	13.3	20.8	21.1		26.5		5.6	24.4	32.1			17.5	19.7		23.0	26.3	29.2	11.1	21.4	24.6	18.8	25.4	42.9		
ave SA21/DU	16.1							21.2													25.0										
% SA22 / DU	3.6	1.6	13.3	1.9	5.5	2.7	13.3	0.0	2.6		1.3		3.4	19.5	14.3			3.3	8.5		7.9	9.3	4.2	14.8	11.4	12.5	16.4	17.5	19.0		
aveSA22/DU	6.0							6.8													13.1										
%SA23/DU	3.6	0.0	26.7	3.8	2.3	9.1	6.7	0.0	0.0		0.0		4.5	2.4	0.0			1.7	2.6		0.0	1.7	6.3	37.0	2.9	1.3	3.6	10.5	23.8		

dialogue	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29
<b>K123 continued</b>																													
aveSA23/DU	7.5							1.2														10.9							
% SA 31 / DU	44.6	82.1	40.0	51.0	70.3	70.9	60.0	25.0	50.0		53.0		83.1	22.0	21.4			50.8	50.4		33.3	36.4	16.7	11.1	40.0	38.4	32.7	16.7	0.0
ave SA31/DU	59.8							43.2														24.0							
% SA32/DU	1.8	0.0	0.0	2.9	3.1	0.0	0.0	8.3	13.2		1.3		1.1	4.9	3.6			8.3	4.3		4.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	4.3	0.4	2.4	0.0	0.0
ave SA32/DU	1.1							5.4														0.9							
%SA33/DU	1.8	5.7	0.0	6.7	8.6	0.0	0.0	8.3	0.0		4.6		1.1	2.4	14.3			5.0	4.3		4.0	1.7	12.5	7.4	0.0	1.8	3.0	3.5	0.0
ave SA33/DU	3.3							4.9														3.7							
% 12 / DUs	1.0																												
% 13 / DUs	3.3																												
% 22 / DUs	42.5																												
% 23 / DUs	19.2																												
% 32 / DUs	12.9																												
% 33 / DUs	21.0																												
%cues/DUs	1.3																												
% shared/DUs	4.3																												
<b>K4</b>																													
%SA11/DU			42.6	43.2		50.0	32.9	4.3	30.0	26.2	25.0	21.2	11.1	20.0	16.1	10.3	29.5	0.0	0.0	21.2	36.4	12.9	34.6	26.7		18.8	23.6	50.0	29.6
ave SA11/DU	42.2							17.9														28.0							
% SA12/DU			1.5	0.0		0.0	0.0	8.6	0.0	2.9	0.0	1.3	2.2	0.0	5.2	0.0	1.6	0.0	22.2	0.0	0.0	3.2	0.0	6.7		0.0	1.4	0.0	0.0
aveSA12/DU	0.4							3.1														1.6							
% SA13/DU			2.9	8.1		0.0	1.2	12.9	0.0	3.9	0.0	0.4	2.2	0.0	4.1	4.1	16.4	0.0	11.1	0.0	0.0	3.2	0.0	0.0		0.0	2.8	0.0	5.1
aveSA13/DU	3.1							3.9														1.6							
%SA21/DU			22.1	27.0		0.0	26.8	21.4	80.0	30.1	0.0	31.4	5.6	4.0	24.9	17.5	32.8	17.9	33.3	21.2	59.1	32.3	30.8	33.3		18.8	36.1	0.0	29.6
ave SA21/DU	19.0							27.1														25.8							
%SA22/DU			7.4	13.5		50.0	8.5	8.6	0.0	14.6	25.0	11.9	5.6	6.0	11.9	23.7	11.5	10.7	22.2	7.7	0.0	19.4	3.8	6.7		25.0	12.5	50.0	13.3
aveSA22/DU	19.9							11.4														18.7							
%SA23/DU			0.0	2.7		0.0	2.4	2.9	10.0	1.0	0.0	4.9	3.3	0.0	0.0	3.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	7.7	0.0		0.0	1.4	0.0	3.1
aveSA23/DU	1.3							1.8														1.7							
%SA31/DU			17.6	8.1		0.0	24.4	25.7	0.0	17.5	0.0	25.2	64.4	54.0	28.0	20.6	4.9	57.1	11.1	25.0	4.5	29.0	19.2	26.7		18.8	19.4	0.0	8.2
aveSA31/DU	12.5							24.2														17.3							
%SA32/DU			0.0	0.0		0.0	0.0	4.3	0.0	1.0	50.0	1.3	0.0	2.0	1.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.9	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0		6.3	2.8	0.0	3.1
aveSA32/DU	0.0							4.4														1.7							
%SA33/DU			0.0	0.0		0.0	3.7	11.4	0.0	2.9	0.0	1.3	8.9	14.0	8.3	19.6	3.3	21.4	0.0	19.2	4.5	0.0	15.4	0.0		6.3	0.0	0.0	7.1
ave SA33/DU	0.9							8.2														4.1							
% 12 / DUs	7.8																												
% 13 / DUs	13.4																												
% 22 / DUs	43.0																												
% 23 / DUs	7.3																												
% 32 / DUs	4.6																												
% 33 / DUs	23.7																												
%cues/DUs	16.1																												
%shared/DUs	4.6																												
<b>all K areas</b>																													
% 22/DU	3.6	1.6	8.4	5.0	5.5	3.6	9.3	5.1	2.1	14.6	1.9	11.9	4.5	12.1	12.2	23.7	11.5	4.7	9.5	7.7	6.8	12.8	4.1	11.9	11.4	13.3	15.2	18.1	14.3
ave22/DU	5.3							9.2														12.6							
% 13/DU	1.8	4.1	2.4	2.1	0.0	0.0	1.0	7.6	4.2	3.9	0.0	0.4	1.1	1.1	3.6	4.1	16.4	1.4	0.8	0.0	0.0	1.1	0.0	2.4	0.0	0.0	0.8	1.7	5.0

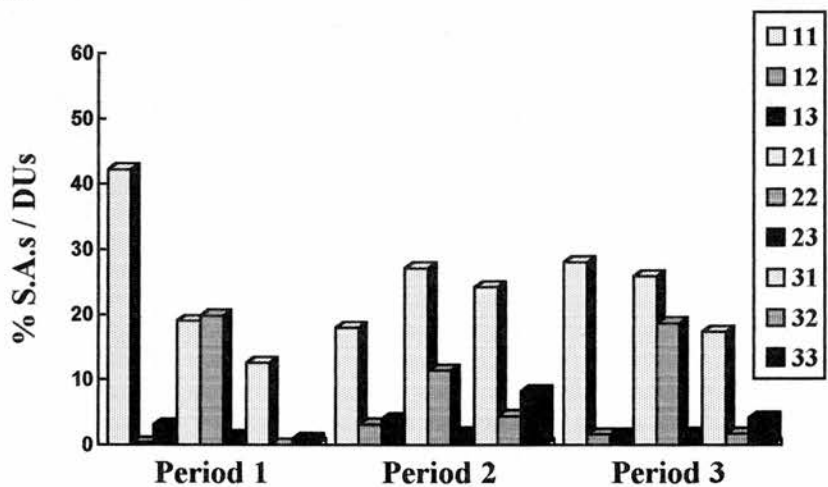
dialogue	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29
<b>all K areas cont'd</b>																													
ave13/DU	1.6							3.2														1.4							
%33/DU	1.8	5.7	0.0	5.0	8.6	0.0	3.1	10.2	0.0	2.9	4.5	1.3	5.0	8.8	9.0	19.6	3.3	8.1	4.0	19.2	4.1	1.1	13.5	4.8	0.0	2.1	2.1	3.4	5.9
ave 33/DU	3.4							7.1														4.1							
%212223/DU	21.4	11.4	37.3	32.6	18.0	21.4	37.1	28.0	37.5	50.5	27.7	48.2	14.0	26.4	38.0	44.3	44.3	23.6	32.5	28.8	35.1	42.2	40.5	54.8	35.7	38.8	42.2	53.4	52.9
ave212223/DU	25.6							34.2														45.1							
%111213/DU	32.1	4.1	39.8	14.9	0.0	8.9	29.9	30.5	14.6	34.0	12.9	23.0	7.8	22.0	24.0	14.4	47.5	9.5	12.7	21.2	26.4	22.8	32.4	23.8	20.0	20.8	24.9	29.3	31.1
ave111213/DU	18.5							21.5														25.6							
%313233/DU	48.2	87.8	21.7	46.8	82.0	69.6	33.0	41.5	50.0	27.2	58.7	27.9	79.3	51.6	37.6	40.2	8.2	66.9	55.6	46.2	36.5	35.0	31.1	21.4	44.3	40.0	33.3	19.8	15.1
ave313233/DU	55.6							44.8														30.0							
%SA112131/DU	89.3	91.9	81.9	76.6	80.5	87.5	82.5	64.4	83.3	84.5	90.3	77.9	84.9	72.5	68.8	48.5	67.2	77.7	78.6	67.3	83.8	82.8	79.7	54.8	81.4	82.1	75.9	69.0	64.7
ave112131/DU	84.3							75.0														73.8							
%SA122232/DU	5.4	1.6	9.6	7.1	8.6	3.6	10.3	16.1	12.5	19.4	4.5	14.6	6.1	16.5	18.1	23.7	13.1	11.5	15.1	9.6	10.1	13.9	4.1	14.3	15.7	14.2	18.6	18.1	16.8
ave122232/DU	6.6							13.6														14.4							
%SA132333/DU	7.1	9.8	7.2	10.6	10.9	8.9	7.2	19.5	6.3	7.8	4.5	6.6	10.1	11.0	12.7	26.8	19.7	10.8	7.1	19.2	4.1	3.3	20.3	31.0	2.9	3.3	5.9	15.5	17.6
ave132333/DU	8.8							11.9														12.5							
<b>SLANG AND EXPLETIVES</b>																													
<b>K123</b>																													
%K123 !/dus	0.0	0.8	6.7	0.0	1.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0		2.0		0.0	0.0	7.1			0.0	1.7		0.0	1.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.4	1.2	2.6	0.0
aveK123 !/dus	1.3							1.2														0.7							
%K123 !!/dus	0.0	0.8	0.0	1.9	2.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0		1.3		0.0	0.0	3.6			5.0	0.9		0.0	0.8	2.1	0.0	1.4	1.3	0.6	0.0	0.0
aveK123 !!/dus	0.7							1.2														0.8							
<b>K4</b>																													
% K4 ! / dus			1.5	2.7		0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	7.7	0.0		6.3	0.0	0.0	2.0
ave K4 ! / dus	1.0							0.1														2.3							
% K4 !! / dus			0.0	0.0		0.0	2.4	2.9	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.1	4.0	2.1	1.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	3.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0		0.0	0.0	0.0	3.1
ave K4 !! / dus	0.6							1.1														0.4							
<b>All K</b>																													
% !/1234dus	0.0	0.8	2.4	0.7	1.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.0	1.9	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.6	0.0	0.0	1.1	2.7	0.0	0.0	0.8	0.8	2.6	1.7
ave !/1234dus	0.8							0.5														1.2							
% !!/1234dus	0.0	0.8	0.0	1.4	2.3	0.0	2.1	1.7	0.0	0.0	1.3	0.0	0.6	2.2	2.3	1.0	0.0	4.1	0.8	3.8	0.0	0.6	1.4	0.0	1.4	1.3	0.4	0.0	2.5
ave !!/1234dus	0.9							1.3														0.9							
% !+ !! / 1234 dus	0.0	1.6	2.4	2.1	3.9	0.0	2.1	1.7	0.0	1.0	3.2	0.0	0.6	2.2	4.1	1.0	0.0	4.1	2.4	3.8	0.0	1.7	4.1	0.0	1.4	2.1	1.3	2.6	4.2
ave !+ !! / 1234 dus	1.7							1.7														2.2							

APPENDIX XV : EXTRA SPEECH ACT FIGURES

Figure 1 : Density of speech acts  
In non-course K areas:



In K4



## APPENDIX XVI : IMPENETRABILITY TEST SCORES

### Mean Scores On Topic Question In Each Dialogue

TOPIC QUESTION	GROUP	N	MEAN	STDEV
Dialogue 1	A	12	0.583	0.515
	B	17	0.9412	0.2425
	C	13	1.0000	0.0000
	ABC	42	0.8571	0.3542
Dialogue 2	A	12	0.250	0.452
	B	17	0.588	0.507
	C	13	1.0000	0.0000
	ABC	42	0.6190	0.4915
Dialogue 3	A	12	1.0000	0.0000
	B	17	1.0000	0.0000
	C	13	1.0000	0.0000
	ABC	42	1.0000	0.0000
Dialogue 4	A	12	0.750	0.452
	B	17	0.765	0.437
	C	13	1.0000	0.0000
	ABC	42	0.8333	0.3772
Dialogue 5	A	12	0.833	0.389
	B	17	0.9412	0.2425
	C	13	1.0000	0.0000
	ABC	42	0.9286	0.2607
Dialogue 6	A	12	1.0000	0.0000
	B	17	1.0000	0.0000
	C	13	1.0000	0.0000
	ABC	42	1.0000	0.0000

**Mean Scores On Cue Questions In Each Dialogue**

<b>CUE QUESTIONS</b>	<b>GROUP</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>MEAN</b>	<b>STDEV</b>
Dialogue 1	A	12	3.583	0.900
	B	17	4.294	0.772
	C	13	4.923	0.2774
	ABC	42	4.286	0.864
Dialogue 2	A	12	1.250	1.055
	B	17	1.882	1.054
	C	13	3.923	0.954
	ABC	42	2.333	1.493
Dialogue 3	A	12	4.000	0.853
	B	17	4.588	0.618
	C	13	4.923	0.2774
	ABC	42	4.524	0.707
Dialogue 4	A	12	3.500	1.168
	B	17	3.882	0.928
	C	13	4.769	0.439
	ABC	42	4.048	1.011
Dialogue 5	A	12	2.750	0.965
	B	17	3.529	0.624
	C	13	3.615	0.650
	ABC	42	3.333	0.816
Dialogue 6	A	12	3.417	0.793
	B	17	3.706	0.985
	C	13	4.308	0.630
	ABC	42	3.810	0.890

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