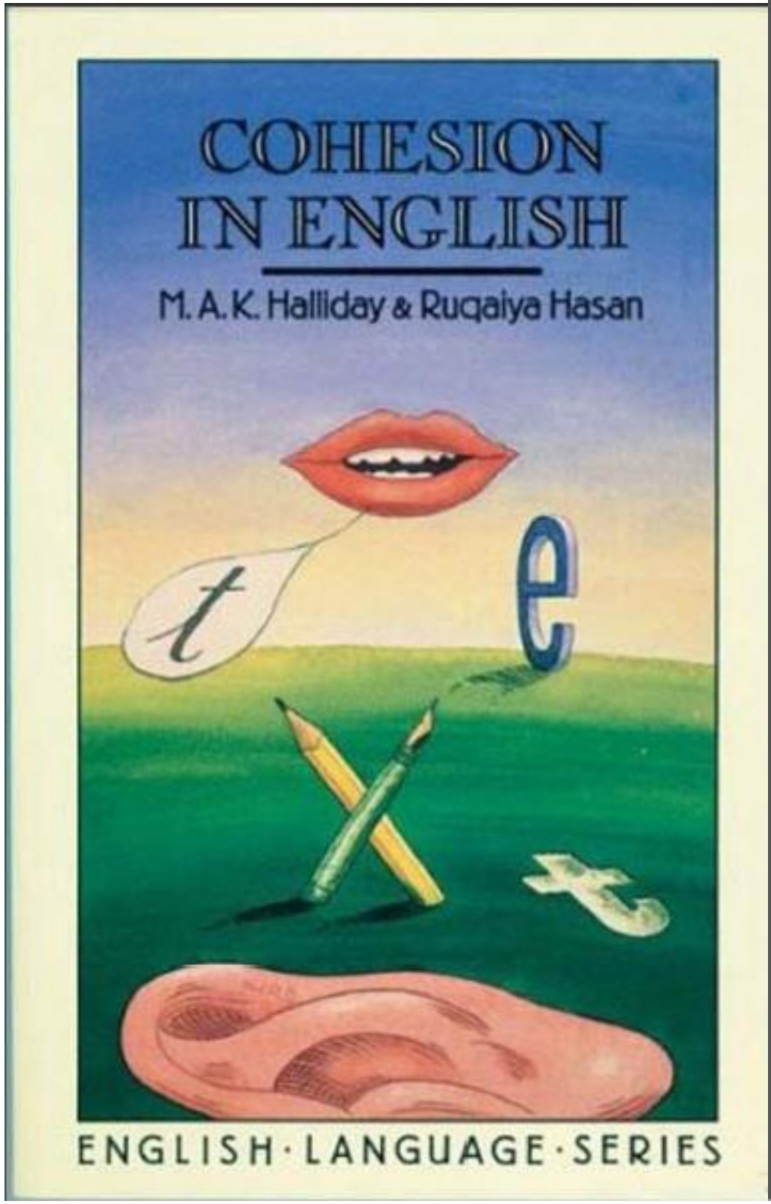

Cohesion in English

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Table 2: Personal reference

Semantic category	Existential	Possessive	
Grammatical function	Head		Modifier
Class	noun (pronoun)	determiner	
Person:			
speaker (only)	I me	mine	my
addressee(s), with/without other person(s)	you	yours	your
speaker and other person(s)	we us	ours	our
other person, male	he him	his	his
other person, female	she her	hers	her
other persons; objects	they them	theirs	their
object; passage of text	it	[its]	its
generalized person	one		one's

For categories of grammatical function and class, see below.

Table 3: Demonstrative reference

Semantic category	Selective		Non-selective
Grammatical function	Modifier/Head	Adjunct	Modifier
Class	determiner	adverb	determiner
Proximity:			
near	this these	here [now]	
far	that those	there then	
neutral			the

'phoric' – it simply has the property of reference. Any given INSTANCE of reference may be either one or the other, or it may even be both at once. We shall see in this chapter that there are tendencies for particular items or classes of items to be used exophorically or endophorically; but the reference relation is itself neutral: it merely means 'see elsewhere'. On the other hand, as we have emphasized already, only endophoric reference is cohesive. Exophoric reference contributes to the CREATION of text, in that it links the language with the context of situation; but it does not contribute to the INTEGRATION of one passage with another so that the two together form part of the SAME text. Hence it does not contribute directly to cohesion as we have defined it.

For this reason we shall take only little account of exophoric reference, not attempting to describe it in detail but bringing it in where it relates to and contrasts with reference within the text. We shall treat 'endophoric' reference as the norm; not implying by this that it is the logically prior form of the reference relation, but merely that it is the form of it which plays a part in cohesion, and which therefore has priority in the context of the present study. At the same time, however, where we identify TYPES OF REFERENCE and REFERENCE ITEMS in the language, we do so on the criterion of reference potential without regard to the endophoric/exophoric distinction. A reference item is any one which has this potential, and a systematic account of the different types of reference and their place in the linguistic system has to be based on the generalized concept of reference and not on the particular concrete form that it takes when incorporated into the text.

2.2 Types of reference

There are three types of reference: personal, demonstrative, and comparative.

Personal reference is reference by means of function in the speech situation, through the category of PERSON (Table 2).

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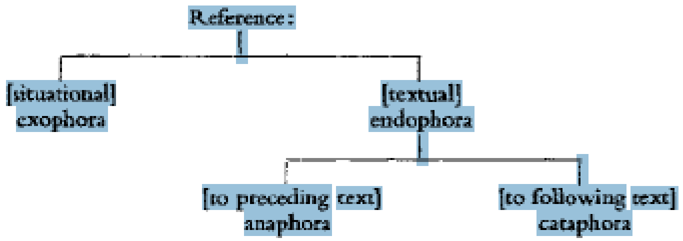
Comparative reference is indirect reference by means of IDENTITY or SIMILARITY (Table 4).

Grammatically, all reference items except the demonstrative adverbs, and some comparative adverbs, function within the nominal group (noun phrase). It will be necessary therefore to give a brief account of the struc-

We shall find it useful in the discussion to have a special term for situational reference. This we are referring to as EXOPHORA, or EXOPHORIC reference; and we could contrast it with ENDOPHORIC as a general name for reference within the text:



As a general rule, therefore, reference items may be exophoric or endophoric; and, if endophoric, they may be anaphoric or cataphoric (*cf* 1.9 above). This scheme will allow us to recognize certain distinctions within the class of reference items, according to their different uses and 'phoric' tendencies.

Exophora is not simply a synonym for referential meaning. Lexical items like *John* or *tree* or *run* have referential meaning in that they are names for some thing: object, class of objects, process and the like. An exophoric item, however, is one which does not name anything; it signals that reference must be made to the context of situation. Both exophoric and endophoric reference embody an instruction to retrieve from elsewhere the information necessary for interpreting the passage in question; and taken in isolation a reference item is simply neutral in this respect – if we hear a fragment of conversation such as

[2:3] That must have cost a lot of money.

we have no means of knowing whether the *that* is anaphoric or exophoric. The previous speaker might have said, 'I've just been on holiday in Tahiti', or the participants might be looking at their host's collection of antique silver; and if both these conditions hold good, the interpretation will remain doubtful. Ambiguous situations of this kind do in fact quite often arise.

What is essential to every instance of reference whether endophoric (textual) or exophoric (situational) is that there is a presupposition that must be satisfied; the thing referred to has to be identifiable somehow.

Gridley: You could see them coming on him, before your very eyes. About that size. [*Indicates.*] No bigger. [*Shows them.*]*

Cohesive ties, especially those with the immediately preceding text, are only one source for the information that the reader or listener requires. Both situational and more remote textual information are necessary components. But it is surprising how much can often be recovered simply from the presuppositions carried by the cohesive elements. The ongoing continuity of discourse is a primary factor in its intelligibility.

This illustrates the meaning of cohesion as a whole. It provides, for the text, which is a semantic unit, the sort of continuity which is achieved in units at the grammatical level – the sentence, the clause and so on – by grammatical structure. Like everything else in the semantic system, cohesive relations are realized through the lexicogrammar, by the selection of structures, and of lexical items in structural roles. Our intention in this book has been to survey the lexicogrammatical resources in question, and show their place in the linguistic system. But the cohesive relations themselves are relations in meaning, and the continuity which they bring about is a semantic continuity. This is what makes it possible for cohesive patterns to play the part they do in the processing of text by a listener or a reader, not merely signalling the presence and extent of text but actually enabling him to interpret it and determining how he does so.

7.3 The meaning of different kinds of cohesion

We have discussed cohesion under the five headings of reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction and lexical cohesion. The classification is based on linguistic form; these are the categories of cohesion that can be recognized in the lexicogrammatical system. In terms of the resources which are brought into play, they are all lexicogrammatical phenomena of one kind or another.

Reference, substitution and ellipsis are clearly grammatical, in that they involve closed systems: simple options of presence or absence, and systems such as those of person, number, proximity and degree of comparison. Lexical cohesion is, as the name implies, lexical; it involves a kind of choice that is open-ended, the selection of a lexical item that is in some way related to one occurring previously. Conjunction is on the borderline of the grammatical and the lexical; the set of conjunctive elements can probably be interpreted grammatically in terms of systems, but such

* J. B. Priestley, *Bees on the Boat Deck* (*The Plays of J. B. Priestley*, Vol 2), Heinemann.

Head will normally be found only in contexts of presupposition. To give a slightly more complex example:

[4:4] 'And how many hours a day did you do lessons?' said Alice, in a hurry to change the subject.
'Ten hours the first day,' said the Mock Turtle: 'nine the next, and so on.'

The nominal group *nine* is presupposing, meaning *nine hours*, and so is *the next*, meaning *the next day*. The two clauses *nine the next* and *ten hours the first day* are also both presupposing, representing *we did lessons ten hours the first day*, etc. In all these examples the clauses and the nominal groups display structures that clearly show them to be presupposing.

Where there is ellipsis, there is a presupposition, in the structure, that something is to be supplied, or 'understood'. This is not quite the same thing as saying that we can tell from the structure of an item whether it is elliptical or not. For practical purposes we often can; but it is not in fact the structure which makes it elliptical. An item is elliptical if its structure does not express all the features that have gone into its make-up – all the meaningful choices that are embodied in it.

In other words, we can take as a general guide the notion that ellipsis occurs when something that is structurally necessary is left unsaid; there is a sense of incompleteness associated with it. But it is useful to recognize that this is an over-simplification, and that the essential characteristic of ellipsis is that something which is present in the selection of underlying ('systemic') options is omitted in the structure – whether or not the resulting structure is in itself 'incomplete'.

Like substitution, ellipsis is a relation within the text, and in the great majority of instances the presupposed item is present in the preceding text. That is to say, ellipsis is normally an anaphoric relation. Occasionally the presupposition in an elliptical structure may be exophoric – we noted in Chapter 3 that this could also happen with substitution. If a housewife on seeing the milkman approach calls out *Two please!* she is using exophoric ellipsis; it is the context of situation that provides the information needed to interpret this. But exophoric ellipsis has no place in cohesion, so we shall not explore it any further here.

Let us summarize here the general features of reference, substitution and ellipsis, harking back to what was said in the final paragraph of Chapter 3. All three are forms of presupposition, devices for identifying something by referring it to something that is already there – known to, or at least recoverable by, the hearer. Since this 'something' that is presupposed

The principle distinguishing reference from substitution is reasonably clear. Substitution is a relation between linguistic items, such as words or phrases; whereas reference is a relation between meanings. In terms of the linguistic system, reference is a relation on the semantic level, whereas substitution is a relation on the lexicogrammatical level, the level of grammar and vocabulary, or linguistic 'form'. Ellipsis, as we have already remarked, is in this respect simply a kind of substitution; it can be defined as substitution by zero. So we have:

Type of cohesive relation:	Linguistic level:
Reference	Semantic
Substitution (including Ellipsis)	Grammatical

The meaning of the reference item *he* is 'some person (male), other than the speaker or addressee, who can be identified by recourse to the environment'. The cohesion lies in the semantic identity; and the fact that in a given instance the relevant environment may be the preceding text, in which, say, *John Smith* has occurred, is incidental. Anaphoric reference, as we have seen, is merely a special case of reference in general, and the text is merely a special case of the environment; the reference may just as well be exophoric, where the relevant environment is the situation. Anaphoric and exophoric reference are both derived from the general underlying notion of recoverability of meanings from the environment.

Substitution, on the other hand, is a relation within the text. A substitute is a sort of counter which is used in place of the repetition of a particular item. For example, in

[3:1] a. My axe is too blunt. I must get a sharper one.
b. You think Joan already knows? – I think everybody does.

one and *does* are both substitutes: *one* substitutes for *axe*, and *does* for *knows*. And whereas in reference there is no implication that the presupposed item could itself have figured in the text, and in many instances we know it could not have done, this is implied in the case of substitution. Thus, in [3:1 a and b] it would be entirely possible to 'replace' *one* by *axe* and *does* by *knows*.

It follows that, as a general rule, the substitute item has the same structural function as that for which it substitutes. In the above example,

Chapter 3

Substitution

3.1 Substitution and ellipsis

In this and the next chapter we shall be discussing another type of cohesive relation, which takes two different forms: substitution, and ellipsis. These can be thought of in simplest terms as processes within the text: substitution as the replacement of one item by another, and ellipsis as the omission of an item. Essentially the two are the same process; ellipsis can be interpreted as that form of substitution in which the item is replaced by nothing. But the mechanisms involved in the two are rather different, and also, at least in the case of ellipsis, fairly complex; so we shall devote a chapter to each.

3.1.1 Substitution and reference

The distinction between substitution and reference is that substitution is a relation in the wording rather than in the meaning. It has been emphasized already that the classification of cohesive relations into different types should not be seen as implying a rigid division into watertight compartments. There are many instances of cohesive forms which lie on the borderline between two types and could be interpreted as one or the other. The situation is a familiar one in many fields, and when one is attempting to explain phenomena as complex as those of human language it would be surprising to find things otherwise; this is particularly so when we are concerned with phenomena which are both semantic and grammatical, since it frequently happens that semantic criteria suggest one interpretation while grammatical criteria suggest another, and the description has to account for both, facing both ways at once. The analysis that is adopted here is based on certain general principles, to which particular instances can be more or less unambiguously referred.

'phoric' – it simply has the property of reference. Any given INSTANCE of reference may be either one or the other, or it may even be both at once. We shall see in this chapter that there are tendencies for particular items or classes of items to be used exophorically or endophorically; but the reference relation is itself neutral: it merely means 'see elsewhere'. On the other hand, as we have emphasized already, only endophoric reference is cohesive. Exophoric reference contributes to the CREATION of text, in that it links the language with the context of situation; but it does not contribute to the INTEGRATION of one passage with another so that the two together form part of the SAME text. Hence it does not contribute directly to cohesion as we have defined it.

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Grammatically, all reference items except the demonstrative adverbs, and some comparative adverbs, function within the nominal group (noun phrase). It will be necessary therefore to give a brief account of the struc-

Chapter 2

Reference

2.1 Endophoric and exophoric reference

There are certain items in every language which have the property of reference, in the specific sense in which we are using the term here; that is to say, instead of being interpreted semantically in their own right, they make reference to something else for their interpretation. In English these items are personals, demonstratives and comparatives.

We start with an example of each:

[2:1] a. Three blind mice, three blind mice.
See how they run! See how they run!
b. Doctor Foster went to Gloucester in a shower of rain.
He stepped in a puddle right up to his middle and never went there again.
c. There were two wrens upon a tree.
Another came, and there were three.

In (a), *they* refers to *three blind mice*; in (b) *there* refers to *Gloucester*; in (c) *another* refers to *wrens*.

These items are directives indicating that information is to be retrieved from elsewhere. So much they have in common with all cohesive elements. What characterizes this particular type of cohesion, that which we are calling REFERENCE, is the specific nature of the information that is signalled for retrieval. In the case of reference the information to be retrieved is the referential meaning, the identity of the particular thing or class of things that is being referred to; and the cohesion lies in the continuity of reference, whereby the same thing enters into the discourse a second time. In *See how they run!*, *they* means not merely 'three blind mice' but 'the same three blind mice that we have just been talking about'. This is sometimes expressed by the formula that all reference items 'conan interpretation would be fairly complex, and some conjunctive expressions involve lexical selection as well, *eg: moment* in *from that moment on*.

This tells us about what form cohesion takes, what resources of the linguistic system are drawn on in the expression of cohesive relations. But it does not tell us about those relations themselves. If we ask what is the NATURE of cohesive relations, as distinct from what form of EXPRESSION they take, we get a different answer – one still in terms of the linguistic system, but giving a different kind of explanation. We are now asking about the nature of cohesion considered as a set of relations in language; whereabouts in the linguistic system are these relations located? In other words, what do the different kinds of cohesion mean?

If we look at cohesion from this point of view, we shall be able to recognize three kinds. These are the three different kinds of relation in language, other than the relation of structure, that link one part of a text with another. In the most general terms they are (1) relatedness of form, (2) relatedness of reference, (3) semantic connection.

The way these correspond to the various types of cohesion is as follows:

Nature of cohesive relation:	Type of cohesion:
Relatedness of form	Substitution and ellipsis; lexical collocation
Relatedness of reference	Reference; lexical reiteration
Semantic connection	Conjunction

7.3.1 *General principles behind the different types*

We have referred to aspects of this general picture at various places in the discussion. It has been pointed out that reference, while it is expressed by grammatical means, is actually a semantic relation, a relation between meanings of particular instances rather than between words or other items of linguistic form. Substitution and ellipsis, on the other hand, are formal relations between elements at the lexicogrammatical level.

It has also been shown that various consequences follow from this distinction. In substitution and ellipsis it is always possible to 'restore' the presupposed item (replacing the substitution counter, or filling out the empty structural slot); in reference, typically, it is not. On the other hand a substitute has to preserve the grammatical function of the presupposed item; whereas there is no such restriction on reference, which is independent of this sort of formal constraint. Lexical cohesion has some-

kinds of ties which it displays. In [1:1] there is just one tie, of the particular kind which we shall be calling REFERENCE (Chapter 2). In [1:3], there are actually two ties, of which one is of the 'reference' kind, and consists in the anaphoric relation of *the* to *six cooking apples*, while the other is of a different kind and consists in the REPETITION of the word *apples*, a repetition which would still have a cohesive effect even if the two were not referring to the same apples. This latter type of cohesion is discussed in Chapter 6.

The concept of a tie makes it possible to analyse a text in terms of its cohesive properties, and give a systematic account of its patterns of texture. Some specimen analyses are given in Chapter 8. Various types of question can be investigated in this way, for example concerning the difference between speech and writing, the relationship between cohesion and the organization of written texts into sentences and paragraphs, and the possible differences among different genres and different authors in the numbers and kinds of tie they typically employ.

The different kinds of cohesive tie provide the main chapter divisions of the book. They are: reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction, and lexical cohesion. A preliminary definition of these categories is given later in the Introduction (*1.2.4*); each of these concepts is then discussed more fully in the chapter in question.

1.1.4 *Cohesion*

The concept of cohesion is a semantic one; it refers to relations of meaning that exist within the text, and that define it as a text.

Cohesion occurs where the INTERPRETATION of some element in the discourse is dependent on that of another. The one PRESUPPOSES the other, in the sense that it cannot be effectively decoded except by recourse to it. When this happens, a relation of cohesion is set up, and the two elements, the presupposing and the presupposed, are thereby at least potentially integrated into a text.

This is another way of approaching the notion of a tie. To return to example [1:1], the word *them* presupposes for its interpretation something other than itself. This requirement is met by the *six cooking apples* in the preceding sentence. The presupposition, and the fact that it is resolved, provide cohesion between the two sentences, and in so doing create text.

As another example, consider the old piece of schoolboy humour:

[1:5] Time flies.
– You can't; they fly too quickly.

Table 4: Comparative reference

Grammatical function	Modifier: Deictic/Epithet (see below)	Submodifier/Adjunct
Class	adjective	adverb
General comparison:		
identity	same identical equal	identically
general similarity	similar additional	similarly likewise so such
difference (*ie* non-identity or similarity)	other different else	differently otherwise
Particular comparison:	better, more etc [comparative adjectives and quantifiers]	so more less equally

ture of the nominal group, in order to explain the grammar of reference in more explicit terms.*

The logical structure of the nominal group is one of modification; it consists of a HEAD, with optional MODIFIER. The modifying elements include some which precede the head and some which follow it; the distinction in the relative position of modifying elements is semantically

* The analysis of the nominal group follows that of Halliday; versions of it have appeared in various unpublished sources, *eg: English System Networks* (1964). For its use in textual studies see Ruqaiya Hasan, 'A linguistic study of contrasting features in the style of two contemporary English prose writers', University of Edinburgh Ph.D thesis, 1964; also G. J. Turner and B. A. Mohan, *A Linguistic Description and Computer Program for Children's Speech*, London, Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1970. For a related interpretation see J. McH. Sinclair, *A Course in Spoken English: Grammar*, London, Oxford U.P., 1972. A detailed account of the present version will appear in M. A. K. Halliday, *Meaning of Modern English*, London, Oxford U.P. (forthcoming).

We retain the term NOMINAL GROUP in preference to the more usual NOUN PHRASE, partly because it has been used throughout Halliday's writings and related publications, having originally been taken over by Halliday (1956) from W. S. Allen (1951), but more because, although noun phrase and nominal group are more or less equivalent, Halliday's VERBAL GROUP is very different from the verb phrase, so that the term verbal group has to be retained in any case, and, by the same token, nominal group belongs in a somewhat different conceptual framework from noun phrase.

Discourse Analysis

Second Edition

Barbara Johnstone

Discourse Analysis

SECOND EDITION

Barbara Johnstone

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a poem, and there is a paper about the epitaph of the spiritual master of a sect of Muslims and one about whether the pronoun *I* should appear in formal writing. One paper is about the connection between personal pronouns and the human experience of selfhood, one is about political debate, one is about using case studies as a way of studying sociolinguistic variation. The papers make points such as these: media coverage of the murder trial was racist; the Japanese word *jinkaku*, used in Japan's new post-World War II constitution as an equivalent for the English expression *individual dignity*, both represented and shaped a particularly Japanese way of thinking and talking about the public person; female US college students describing seminars used metaphors of sharing whereas male students used metaphors of competing; poems by Gerard Manley Hopkins operate on numerous levels at once; a Bektashi Muslim community in the United States manages to maintain a sense of cultural continuity despite massive cultural and geographical changes and in several radically different languages; students need a voice with which to write in academia.

It might appear that the only thing all these projects have in common is that, in one way or another, they all involve studying language and its effects. Is discourse analysis, then, simply the study of language and its effects? It has been described that way. It has been suggested, for example, that "the name for the field 'discourse analysis' . . . says nothing more or other than the term 'linguistics': the study of language" (Tannen, 1989: 6). In a way, this is exactly correct: discourse analysis is the study of language, in the everyday sense in which most people use the term. What most people mean when they say "language" is talk, communication, discourse. (In formal language study, both descriptive and prescriptive, the term "language" is often used differently, to refer to structures or rules that are thought to underlie talk.) Even if discourse analysis is, basically, "the study of language," however, it is useful to try to specify what makes discourse analysis different from other approaches to language study. One way to do this is by asking ourselves what we can learn by thinking about what "discourse" is, and about what "analysis" is.

"Discourse"

To discourse analysts, "discourse" usually means actual instances of communicative action in the medium of language, although some define the term more broadly as "meaningful symbolic behavior" in any mode (Blommaert, 2005: 2). "Discourse" in this sense is usually a mass noun. Discourse analysts typically speak of *discourse* rather than *discourses*, the way we speak of other things for which we often use mass nouns, such as *music* ("some music" or "three pieces of music" rather than "three musics") or *information* ("the flow of information," "a great deal of information," rather than

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More information

1 What is discourse analysis?

'I only said "if"!' poor Alice pleaded in a piteous tone.

The two Queens looked at each other, and the Red Queen remarked, with a little shudder, 'She *says* she only said "if"—'

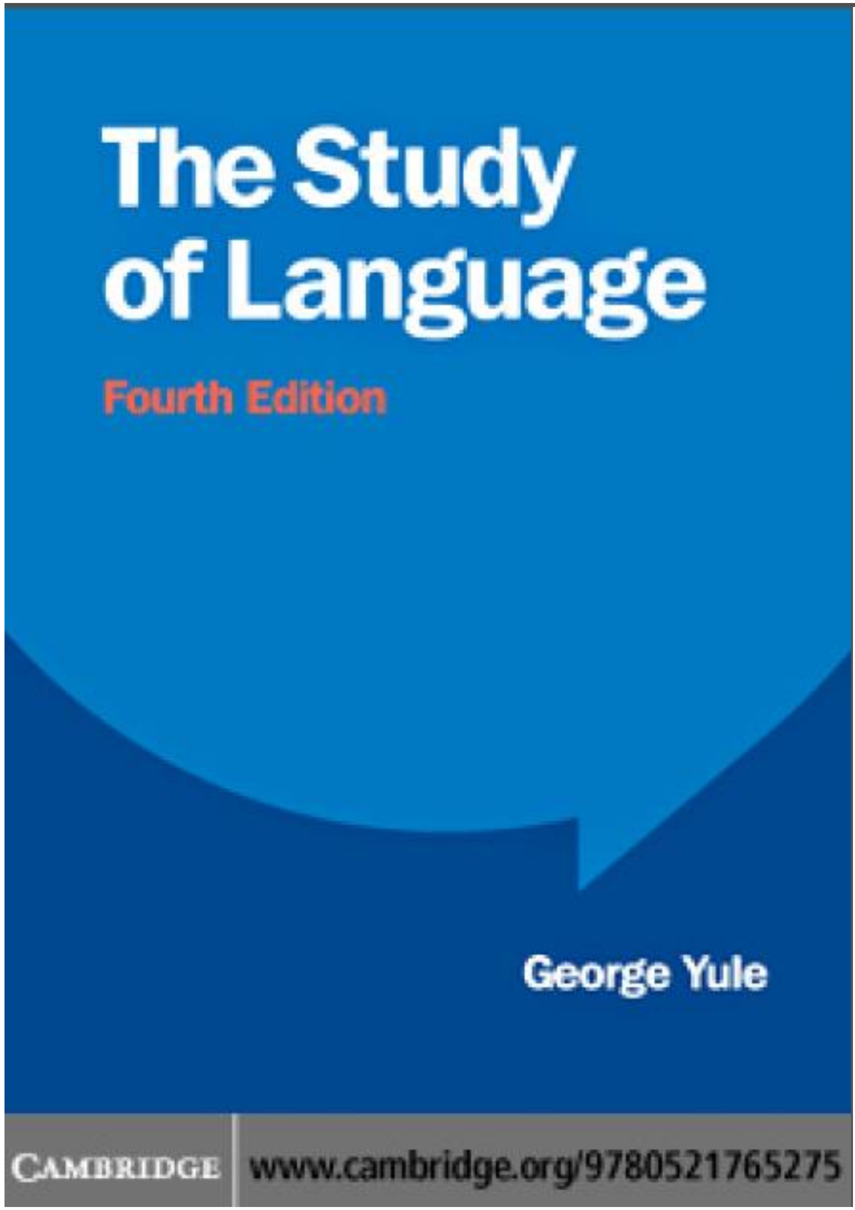
'But she said a great deal more than that!' the White Queen moaned, wringing her hands. 'Oh, ever so much more than that!'

Lewis Carroll: *Through the Looking Glass*

1.1 A brief historical overview

Discourse analysis is concerned with the study of the relationship between language and the contexts in which it is used. It grew out of work in different disciplines in the 1960s and early 1970s, including linguistics, semiotics, psychology, anthropology and sociology. Discourse analysts study language in use: written texts of all kinds, and spoken data, from conversation to highly institutionalised forms of talk.

At a time when linguistics was largely concerned with the analysis of single sentences, Zellig Harris published a paper with the title 'Discourse analysis' (Harris 1952). Harris was interested in the distribution of linguistic elements in extended texts, and the links between the text and its social situation, though his paper is a far cry from the discourse analysis we are used to nowadays. Also important in the early years was the emergence of semiotics and the French structuralist approach to the study of narrative. In the 1960s, Dell Hymes provided a sociological perspective with the study of speech in its social setting (e.g. Hymes 1964). The linguistic philosophers such as Austin (1962), Searle (1969) and Grice (1975) were also influential in the study of language as social action, reflected in speech-act theory and the formulation of conversational maxims, alongside the emergence of



The Study of Language

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9 Semantics

The words *Fire Department* make it sound like they're the ones who are starting fires, doesn't it? It should be called the "Extinguishing Department." We don't call the police the "Crime Department." Also, the "Bomb Squad" sounds like a terrorist gang. The same is true of *wrinkle cream*. Doesn't it sound like it causes wrinkles? And why would a doctor prescribe pain pills? I already *have* pain! I need relief pills!

Carlin (1997)

Semantics is the study of the meaning of words, phrases and sentences. In semantic analysis, there is always an attempt to focus on what the words conventionally mean, rather than on what an individual speaker (like George Carlin) might want them to mean on a particular occasion. This approach is concerned with objective or general meaning and avoids trying to account for subjective or local meaning. Doing semantics is attempting to spell out what it is we all know when we behave as if we share knowledge of the meaning of a word, a phrase, or a sentence in a language.

Geoffrey Leech

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2. Seven Types of Meaning

Some people would like semantics to pursue the study of meaning in a wide sense of 'all that is communicated by language'; others (among them many modern writers within the framework of general linguistics) limit it in practice to the study of logical or conceptual meaning in the sense discussed in Chapter 1. Semantics in the former, wider sense can lead us once again into the void from which Bloomfield retreated with understandable misgivings – the description of all that may be the object of human knowledge or belief. On the other hand, we can, by carefully distinguishing types of meaning, show how they all fit into the total composite effect of linguistic communication, and show how methods of study appropriate to one type may not be appropriate to another.

On this basis, I shall break down 'meaning' in its widest sense into seven different ingredients, giving primary importance to logical meaning or (as I shall prefer to call it) CONCEPTUAL MEANING, the type of meaning I was discussing earlier in connection with 'semantic competence'. The six other types I shall consider are connotative meaning, social meaning, affective meaning, reflected meaning, collocative meanning, and thematic meaning.

Conceptual Meaning

CONCEPTUAL MEANING (sometimes called 'denotative' or 'cognitive' meaning) is widely assumed to be the central factor in linguistic communication, and I think it can be shown to be integral to the essential functioning of language in a way that other types of meaning are not (which is not to say that conceptual meaning is the most important element of every act of linguistic communication). My chief reason for assigning priority to conceptual meaning is that it has a complex and sophisticated organization of a kind which may be compared with, and cross-related to, similar organization on the syntactic and phonological levels of language. In particular, I would like to point to two structural principles that seem to lie at the basis of all linguistic patterning: the principle of CONTRASTIVENESS and the principle of STRUCTURE. Contrastive features underlie the classification of sounds in phonology, language without referring to it. A 'language' which communicated by other means than by conceptual meaning (e.g. a 'language' which communicated solely by means of expletive words like *Oh! Ah! Oho! Alas!* and *Tally ho!*) would not be a language at all in the sense in which we apply that term to the tongues of men.

Connotative Meaning

More of what is distinctive about conceptual meaning will appear when we contrast it with CONNOTATIVE MEANING. Connotative meaning is the communicative value an expression has by virtue of what it *refers to*, over and above its purely conceptual content. To a large extent, the notion of 'reference' overlaps with conceptual meaning. If the word *woman* is defined conceptually by three features (+HUMAN, −MALE, +ADULT), then the three properties 'human', 'adult', and 'female' must provide a criterion of the correct use of that word. These contrastive features, translated into 'real world' terms, become attributes of the referent (that which the word refers to). But there is a multitude of additional, non-criterial properties that we have learnt to expect a referent of *woman* to possess. They include not only physical characteristics ('biped', 'having a womb'), but also psychological and social properties ('gregarious', 'subject to maternal instinct'), and may extend to features which are merely *typical* rather than *invariable* concomitants of womanhood ('capable of speech', 'experienced in cookery', 'skirt-or-dress-wearing'). Still further, connotative meaning can embrace the 'putative properties' of the referent, due to the viewpoint adopted by an individual, or a group of people or a whole society. So in the past woman has been burdened with such attributes ('frail', 'prone to tears', 'cowardly', 'emotional', 'irrational', 'inconstant') as the dominant male has been pleased to impose on her, as well as with more becoming qualities such as 'gentle', 'compassionate', 'sensitive', 'hard-working'. Obviously, connotations are apt to vary from age to age and from society to society. A hundred years ago, 'non-trouser-wearing' must have seemed a thoroughly definitive connotation of the word *woman* and its translation equivalents in European languages, just as in many non-western societies today womankind is associated with attributes foreign to our own way of thinking. It is equally obvious that connotations will vary, to some extent, from individual to individual within the same speech community: to an English-speaking misogynist *woman* will have many uncomplimentary associations not present in the minds of speakers of a more feminist persuasion.

It will be clear that in talking about connotation, I am in fact talking

Social and Affective Meaning

We turn now to two aspects of communication which have to do with the situation in which an utterance takes place. SOCIAL MEANING is that which a piece of language conveys about the social circumstances of its use. In part, we 'decode' the social meaning of a text through our recognition of different dimensions and levels of style within the same language. We recognize some words or pronunciations as being dialectal, i.e. as telling us something of the geographical or social origin of the speaker; other features of language tell us something of the social relationship between the speaker and hearer: we have a scale of 'status' usage, for example, descending from formal and literary English at one end to colloquial, familiar, and eventually slang English at the other.

One account (Crystal and Davy, *Investigating English Style*) has recognized, among others, the following dimensions of socio-stylistic variation (I have added examples of the categories of usage one would distinguish on each dimension):

Variation according to:

DIALECT (The language of a geographical region or of a social class)
TIME (The language of the eighteenth century, etc.)
PROVINCE (Language of law, of science, of advertising, etc.)
STATUS (Polite, colloquial, slang, etc., language)
MODALITY (Language of memoranda, lectures, jokes, etc.)
SINGULARITY (The style of Dickens, of Hemingway, etc.)

Although not exhaustive, this list indicates something of the range of style differentiation possible within a single language. It is not surprising, perhaps, that we rarely find words which have both the same conceptual meaning and the same stylistic meaning. This observation has frequently led people to declare that 'true synonyms do not exist'. If we understand synonymy as complete equivalence of communicative effect, it is indeed hard to find an example that will disprove this statement. But there is much convenience in restricting the term 'synonymy' to equivalence of conceptual meaning, so that we may then contrast conceptual synonyms with respect to their varying stylistic overtones:

steed (poetic)	domicile (very formal, official)
horse (general)	residence (formal)
nag (slang)	abode (poetic)
gee-gee (baby language)	home (general)

Factors such as intonation and voice-timbre – what we often refer to as 'tone of voice' – are also important here. The impression of politeness in (3) can be reversed by a tone of biting sarcasm; sentence (4) can be turned into a playful remark between intimates if delivered with the intonation of a mild request.

Affective meaning is largely a parasitic category in the sense that to express our emotions we rely upon the mediation of other categories of meaning – conceptual, connotative, or stylistic. Emotional expression through style comes about, for instance, when we adopt an impolite tone to express displeasure (as in (4) above), or when we adopt a casual tone to express friendliness. On the other hand, there are elements of language (chiefly interjections, like *Aha!* and *Yippee!*) whose chief function is to express emotion. When we use these, we communicate feelings and attitudes without the mediation of any other kind of semantic function.

Reflected and Collocative Meaning

Two further, though less important types of meaning involve an interconnection on the lexical level of language.

First, REFLECTED MEANING is the meaning which arises in cases of multiple conceptual meaning, when one sense of a word forms part of our response to another sense. On hearing, in a church service, the synonymous expressions *The Comforter* and *The Holy Ghost*, both referring to the Third Person of the Trinity, I find my reactions to these terms conditioned by the everyday non-religious meanings of *comfort* and *ghost*. *The Comforter* sounds warm and 'comforting' (although in the religious context, it means 'the strengthener or supporter'), while *The Holy Ghost* sounds awesome.

One sense of a word seems to 'rub off' on another sense in this way only when it has a dominant suggestive power either through relative frequency and familiarity (as in the case of *The Holy Ghost*) or through the strength of its associations. Only in poetry, which invites a heightened sensitivity to language in all respects, do we find reflected meaning operating in less obviously favourable circumstances:

> Are limbs, so *dear*-achieved, are sides,
> Full-nerved – still warm – too hard to stir?

In these lines from *Futility*, a poem on a dead soldier, Wilfred Owen overtly uses the word *dear* in the sense 'expensive(ly)', but also alludes, one feels in the context of the poem, to the sense 'beloved'.

The case where reflected meaning intrudes through the sheer strength of emotive suggestion is most strikingly illustrated by words which have

Associative Meaning: a Summary Term

Reflected meaning and collocative meaning, affective meaning and social meaning: all these have more in common with connotative meaning than with conceptual meaning; they all have the same open-ended, variable character, and lend themselves to analysis in terms of scales or ranges, rather than in discrete either-this-or-that terms. They can all be brought together under the heading of ASSOCIATIVE MEANING, and to explain communication on these levels, we need employ nothing more sophisticated than an elementary 'associationist' theory of mental connections based upon contiguities of experience. We contrast them all with conceptual meaning, because conceptual meaning seems to require the postulation of intricate mental structures which are specific to language and to the human species.

Associative meaning contains so many imponderable factors that it can be studied systematically only by approximative statistical techniques. In effect, Osgood, Suci and Tannenbaum proposed a method for a partial analysis of associative meaning when they published their ambitiously titled book *The Measurement of Meaning* in 1957. Osgood and his co-authors devised a technique (involving a statistical measurement device, the Semantic Differential) for plotting meaning in terms of a multi-dimensional semantic space, using as data speakers' judgements recorded in terms of seven-point scales. The scales are labelled by contrasting adjective pairs, such as *happy–sad*, *hard–soft*, *slow–fast*, so that a person may, for example, record his impression of the word *bagpipe* on a form in the following way:

	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	
good			×					bad
hard		×						soft
passive							×	active

etc.

Statistically, the investigators found that particular significance seemed to lie in three major dimensions, those of evaluation (*good–bad*), potency (*hard–soft*), and activity (*active–passive*). It is clear, even from this very brief sketch, that the method can provide no more than a *partial* and *approximate* account of associative meaning: *partial* because it entails a selection from indefinitely many possible scales, which in any case would only provide for associative meaning in so far as it is explicable in scalar terms; *approximate* because of the statistical sampling, and because a seven-point scale constitutes a cutting-up of a continuous scale into seven segments within which no differentiation is made – a process similar in its crudity to that of cutting up the spectrum into seven primary colours. This is not to disparage the Semantic Differential technique as a means of quantifying associative meaning: the lesson to be learned is, in fact, that it is only by such relatively insensitive tools as this that associative meaning can be systematically studied: it does not lend itself to determinate analyses involving yes–no choices and structures of uniquely segmentable elements.

Another important observation about the Semantic Differential is that it has been found useful in psychological fields such as personality studies, 'attitude measurement', and psychotherapy, where differences in the reactions of individuals are under scrutiny, rather than the common core of reactions that they share. This upholds what I said earlier in particular reference to connotative meaning: that whereas conceptual meaning is substantially part of the 'common system' of language shared by members of a speech community, associative meaning is less stable, and varies with the individual's experience.

Thematic Meaning

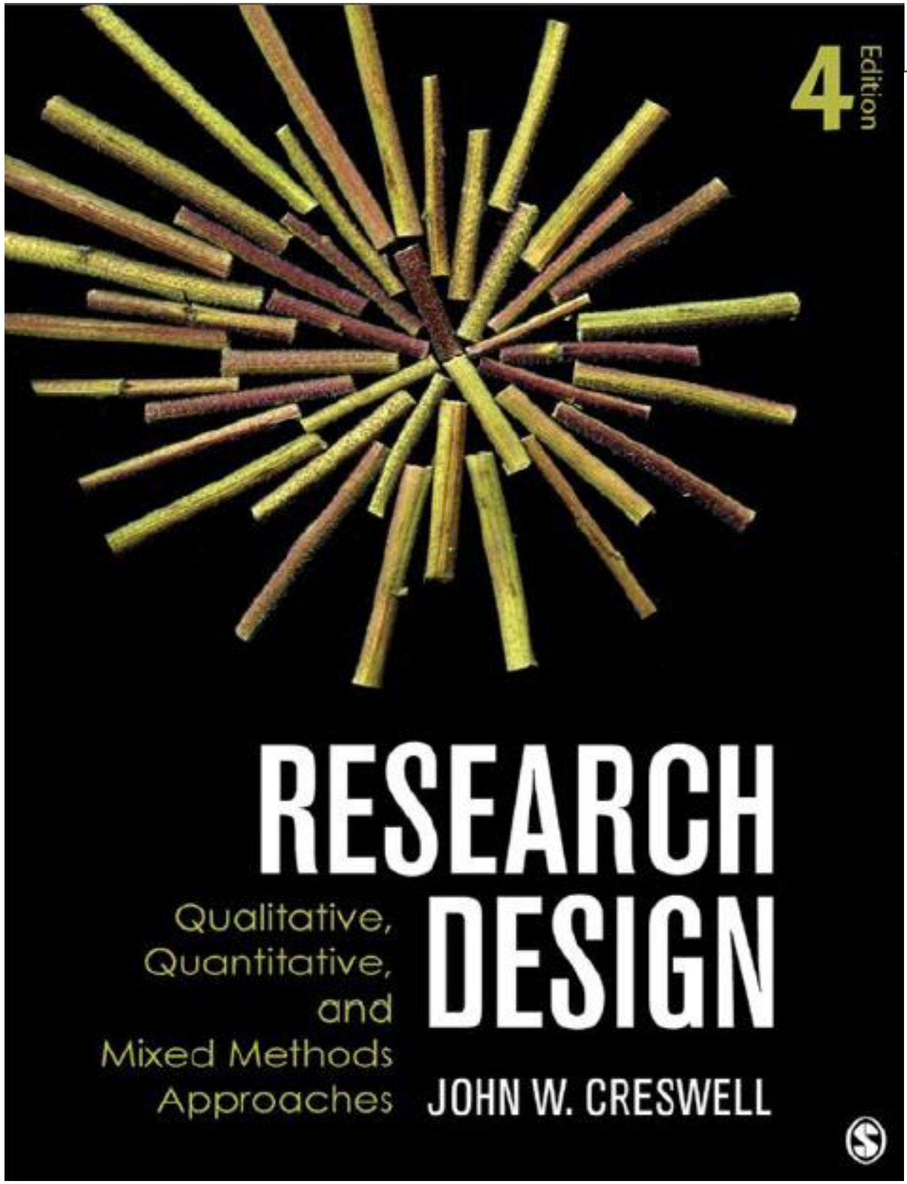
The final category of meaning I shall attempt to distinguish is THEMATIC MEANING, or what is communicated by the way in which a speaker or writer organizes the message, in terms of ordering, focus, and emphasis. It is often felt, for example, that an active sentence such as (1) has a different meaning from its passive equivalent (2), although in conceptual content they seem to be the same:

(1) Mrs Bessie Smith donated the first prize.
(2) The first prize was donated by Mrs Bessie Smith.

Certainly these have different communicative values in that they suggest different contexts: the active sentence seems to answer an implicit question 'What did Mrs Bessie Smith donate?', while the passive sentence seems to answer an implicit question 'Who was the first prize donated by?' or (more simply) 'Who donated the first prize?'. That is, (1), in contrast to (2), suggests that we know who Mrs Bessie Smith is (perhaps through a previous mention). The same truth conditions, however, apply to each: it would be impossible to find a situation of which (1) was an accurate report while (2) was not, or vice versa.

Thematic meaning is mainly a matter of choice between alternative grammatical construction, as in:

(3) A man is waiting in the hall.
(4) There's a man waiting in the hall.



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Qualitative Methods

Qualitative methods demonstrate a different approach to scholarly inquiry than methods of quantitative research. Although the processes are similar, qualitative methods rely on text and image data, have unique steps in data analysis, and draw on diverse designs. Writing a methods section for a proposal for qualitative research partly requires educating readers as to the intent of qualitative research, mentioning specific designs, carefully reflecting on the role the researcher plays in the study, drawing from an ever-expanding list of types of data sources, using specific protocols for recording data, analyzing the information through multiple steps of analysis, and mentioning approaches for documenting the accuracy—or validity—of the data collected. This chapter addresses these important components of writing a good qualitative methods section into a proposal. Table 9.1 presents a checklist for reviewing the qualitative methods section of your proposal to determine whether you have addressed important topics.

Table 9.1 A Checklist of Questions for Designing a Qualitative Procedure

____________	Are the basic characteristics of qualitative studies mentioned?
____________	Is the specific type of qualitative design to be used in the study mentioned? Is the history of, a definition of, and applications for the design mentioned?
____________	Does the reader gain an understanding of the researcher's role in the study (past historical, social, cultural experiences, personal connections to sites and people, steps in gaining entry, and sensitive ethical issues) and how they may shape interpretations made in the study?
____________	Is the purposeful sampling strategy for sites and individuals identified?
____________	Are the specific forms of data collection mentioned and a rationale given for their use?
____________	Are the procedures for recording information during the data collection detailed (such as protocols)?
____________	Are the data analysis steps identified?
____________	Is there evidence that the researcher has organized the data for analysis?
____________	Has the researcher reviewed the data generally to obtain a sense of the information?
____________	Has the researcher coded the data?
____________	Have the codes been developed to form a description and/or to identify themes?
____________	Are the themes interrelated to show a higher level of analysis and abstraction?
____________	Are the ways that the data will be represented mentioned—such as in tables, graphs, and figures?
____________	Have the bases for interpreting the analysis been specified (personal experiences, the literature, questions, action agenda)?
____________	Has the researcher mentioned the outcome of the study (developed a theory, provided a complex picture of themes)?
____________	Have multiple strategies been cited for validating the findings?

Data Collection Procedures

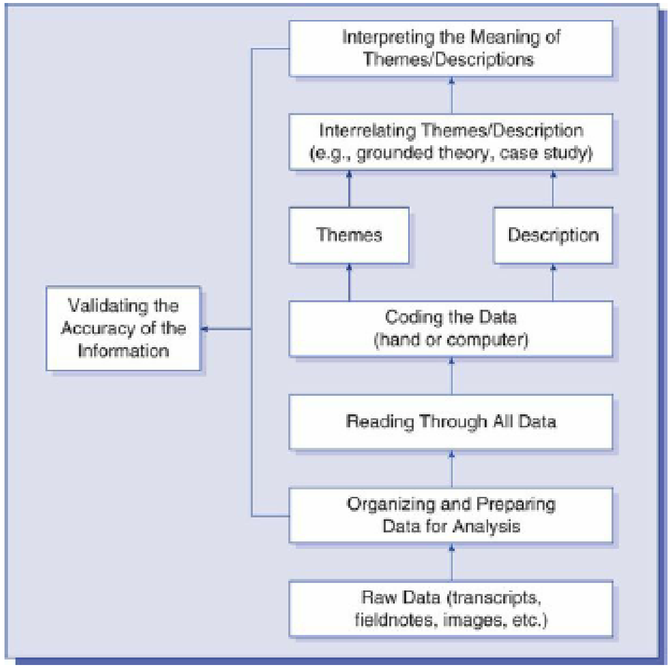
Comments about the role of the researcher set the stage for discussion of issues involved in collecting data. The data collection steps include setting the boundaries for the study, collecting information through unstructured or semi structured observations and interviews, documents, and visual materials, as well as establishing the protocol for recording information.

• Identify the *purposefully selected* sites or individuals for the proposed study. The idea behind qualitative research is to **purposefully select** participants or sites (or documents or visual material) that will best help the researcher understand the problem and the research question. This does not necessarily suggest random sampling or selection of a large number of participants and sites, as typically found in quantitative research. A discussion about participants and site might include four aspects identified by Miles and Huberman (1994): (a) the setting (i.e., where the research will take place), (b) the actors (i.e., who will be observed or interviewed), (c) the events (i.e., what the actors will be observed or interviewed doing), and (d) the process (i.e., the evolving nature of events undertaken by the actors within the setting).

• A related topic would be the number of sites and participants to be involved in your study. Aside from the small number that characterizes qualitative research, how many sites and participants should you have? First of all, there is no specific answer to this question; although I have taken the position (Creswell, 2013) that sample size depends on the qualitative design being used (e.g., ethnography, case study). From my review of many qualitative research studies I have found narrative research to include one or two individuals; phenomenology to typically range from three to ten; grounded theory, twenty to thirty; ethnography to examine one single culture-sharing group with numerous artifacts, interviews, and observations; and case studies to include about four to five cases. This is certainly one approach to the sample size issue. Another approach is equally viable. The idea of **saturation** comes from grounded theory. Charmaz (2006) said that you stop collecting data when the categories (or themes) are saturated: when gathering fresh data no longer sparks new insights or reveals new properties.

• Indicate the type or types of data to be collected. In many qualitative studies, inquirers collect multiple forms of data and spend a considerable time in the natural setting gathering information. The collection procedures in qualitative research involve four basic types and their strengths and limitations, as shown in Table 9.2.

- A **qualitative observation** is when the researcher takes field notes on the behavior and activities of individuals at the research site. In these field notes, the researcher records, in an unstructured or semistructured way (using some prior questions that the inquirer wants to know), activities at the research site. Qualitative observers may also engage in roles varying from a nonparticipant to a complete participant. Typically these observations are open-ended in that the researchers ask general questions of the participants allowing the participants to freely provide their views.
- In **qualitative interviews**, the researcher conducts face-to-face interviews with participants, telephone interviews, or engages in focus group interviews with six to eight interviewees in each group. These interviews involve unstructured and generally open-ended questions that are



Step 1. Organize and prepare the data for analysis. This involves transcribing interviews, optically scanning material, typing up field notes, cataloguing all of the visual material, and sorting and arranging the data into different types depending on the sources of information.

Step 2. Read or look at all the data. This first step provides a general sense of the information and an opportunity to reflect on its overall meaning. What general ideas are participants saying? What is the tone of the ideas? What is the impression of the overall depth, credibility, and use of the information? Sometimes qualitative researchers write notes in margins of transcripts or observational field notes, or start recording general thoughts about the data at this stage. For visual data, a sketchbook of ideas can begin to take shape.

Step 3. Start coding all of the data. Coding is the process of organizing the data by bracketing chunks (or text or image segments) and writing a word representing a category in the margins (Rossman & Rallis, 2012). It involves taking text data or pictures gathered during data collection, segmenting sentences (or paragraphs) or images into categories, and labeling those categories with a term, often a term based in the actual language of the participant (called an *in vivo* term). As shown in Table 9.4, Tesch (1990) provided the eight steps typically used in forming codes.

brief definition of it, a full definition of it, information about when to use the code and when not to use it, and an example of a quote illustrating the code. This codebook can evolve and change during a study based on close analysis of the data when the researcher is not starting from an emerging code perspective. For researchers who have a distinct theory they want to test in their projects, I would recommend that a preliminary codebook be developed for coding the data and permit the codebook to develop and change based on the information learned during the data analysis.

Step 4. Use the coding process to generate a description of the setting or people as well as categories or themes for analysis. *Description* involves a detailed rendering of information about people, places, or events in a setting. Researchers can generate codes for this description. This analysis is useful in designing detailed descriptions for case studies, ethnographies, and narrative research projects. Use the coding as well for generating a small number of *themes* or categories—perhaps five to seven themes for a research study. These themes are the ones that appear as major findings in qualitative studies and are often used as headings in the findings sections (or in the findings section of a dissertation or thesis) of studies. They should display multiple perspectives from individuals and be supported by diverse quotations and specific evidence.

Beyond identifying the themes during the coding process, qualitative researchers can do much with themes to build additional layers of complex analysis. For example, researchers interconnect themes into a story line (as in narratives) or develop them into a theoretical model (as in grounded theory). Themes are analyzed for each individual case and across different cases (as in case studies) or shaped into a general description (as in phenomenology). Sophisticated qualitative studies go beyond description and theme identification and form complex theme connections.

Step 5. Advance how the description and themes will be *represented* in the qualitative narrative. The most popular approach is to use a narrative passage to convey the findings of the analysis. This might be a discussion that mentions a chronology of events, the detailed discussion of several themes (complete with subthemes, specific illustrations, multiple perspectives from individuals, and quotations) or a discussion with interconnecting themes. Many qualitative researchers also use visuals, figures, or tables as adjuncts to the discussions. They present a process model (as in grounded theory), advance a drawing of the specific research site (as in ethnography), or convey descriptive information about each participant in a table (as in case studies and ethnographies).

Step 6. A final step in data analysis involves making an interpretation in qualitative research of the findings or results. Asking, "What were the lessons learned?" captures the essence of this idea (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). These lessons could be the researcher's personal interpretation, couched in the understanding that the inquirer brings to the study from a personal culture, history, and experiences. It could also be a meaning derived from a comparison of the findings with information gleaned from the literature or theories. In this way, authors suggest that the findings confirm past information or diverge from it. It can also suggest new questions that need to be asked—questions raised by the data and analysis that the inquirer had not foreseen earlier in the study. Ethnographers can end a study, Wolcott (1994) said, by stating further questions. The questioning approach is also used in transformative approaches to qualitative research. Moreover, when qualitative researchers use a theoretical lens, they can form interpretations that call for action agendas for reform and change. Researchers might describe how the narrative outcome will be compared with theories and the general literature on the topic. In many qualitative articles, researchers also discuss the literature at

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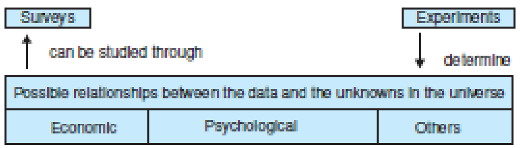
Methods of Data Collection

The task of data collection begins after a research problem has been defined and research design/ plan chalked out. While deciding about the method of data collection to be used for the study, the researcher should keep in mind two types of data viz., primary and secondary. The *primary data* are those which are collected afresh and for the first time, and thus happen to be original in character. The *secondary data*, on the other hand, are those which have already been collected by someone else and which have already been passed through the statistical process. The researcher would have to decide which sort of data he would be using (thus collecting) for his study and accordingly he will have to select one or the other method of data collection. The methods of collecting primary and secondary data differ since primary data are to be originally collected, while in case of secondary data the nature of data collection work is merely that of compilation. We describe the different methods of data collection, with the pros and cons of each method.

COLLECTION OF PRIMARY DATA

We collect primary data during the course of doing experiments in an experimental research but in case we do research of the descriptive type and perform surveys, whether sample surveys or census surveys, then we can obtain primary data either through observation or through direct communication with respondents in one form or another or through personal interviews.* This, in other words, means

* An experiment refers to an investigation in which a factor or variable under test is isolated and its effect(s) measured. In an experiment the investigator measures the effects of an experiment which he conducts intentionally. Survey refers to the method of securing information concerning a phenomena under study from all or a selected number of respondents of the concerned universe. In a survey, the investigator examines those phenomena which exist in the universe independent of his action. The difference between an experiment and a survey can be depicted as under:



COLLECTION OF SECONDARY DATA

Secondary data means data that are already available i.e., they refer to the data which have already been collected and analysed by someone else. When the researcher utilises secondary data, then he has to look into various sources from where he can obtain them. In this case he is certainly not confronted with the problems that are usually associated with the collection of original data. Secondary data may either be published data or unpublished data. Usually published data are available in: (a) various publications of the central, state are local governments; (b) various publications of foreign governments or of international bodies and their subsidiary organisations; (c) technical and trade journals; (d) books, magazines and newspapers; (e) reports and publications of various associations connected with business and industry, banks, stock exchanges, etc.; (f) reports prepared by research scholars, universities, economists, etc. in different fields; and (g) public records and statistics, historical documents, and other sources of published information. The sources of unpublished data are many; they may be found in diaries, letters, unpublished biographies and autobiographies and also may be available with scholars and research workers, trade associations, labour bureaus and other public/ private individuals and organisations.

Researcher must be very careful in using secondary data. He must make a minute scrutiny because it is just possible that the secondary data may be unsuitable or may be inadequate in the context of the problem which the researcher wants to study. In this connection Dr. A.L. Bowley very aptly observes that it is never safe to take published statistics at their face value without knowing their meaning and limitations and it is always necessary to criticise arguments that can be based on them.

By way of caution, the researcher, before using secondary data, must see that they possess following characteristics:

1. Reliability of data: The reliability can be tested by finding out such things about the said data: (a) Who collected the data? (b) What were the sources of data? (c) Were they collected by using proper methods (d) At what time were they collected?(e) Was there any bias of the compiler? (t) What level of accuracy was desired? Was it achieved ?

2. Suitability of data: The data that are suitable for one enquiry may not necessarily be found suitable in another enquiry. Hence, if the available data are found to be unsuitable, they should not be used by the researcher. In this context, the researcher must very carefully scrutinise the definition of various terms and units of collection used at the time of collecting the data from the primary source originally. Similarly, the object, scope and nature of the original enquiry must also be studied. If the researcher finds differences in these, the data will remain unsuitable for the present enquiry and should not be used.

3. Adequacy of data: If the level of accuracy achieved in data is found inadequate for the purpose of the present enquiry, they will be considered as inadequate and should not be used by the researcher. The data will also be considered inadequate, if they are related to an area which may be either narrower or wider than the area of the present enquiry.

From all this we can say that it is very risky to use the already available data. The already available data should be used by the researcher only when he finds them reliable, suitable and adequate. But he should not blindly discard the use of such data if they are readily available from authentic sources and are also suitable and adequate for in that case it will not be economical to

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the interviewer in a structured interview follows a rigid procedure laid down, asking questions in a form and order prescribed. As against it, the *unstructured interviews* are characterised by a flexibility of approach to questioning. Unstructured interviews do not follow a system of pre-determined questions and standardised techniques of recording information. In a non-structured interview, the interviewer is allowed much greater freedom to ask, in case of need, supplementary questions or at times he may omit certain questions if the situation so requires. He may even change the sequence of questions. He has relatively greater freedom while recording the responses to include some aspects and exclude others. But this sort of flexibility results in lack of comparability of one interview with another and the analysis of unstructured responses becomes much more difficult and time-consuming than that of the structured responses obtained in case of structured interviews. Unstructured interviews also demand deep knowledge and greater skill on the part of the interviewer. Unstructured interview, however, happens to be the central technique of collecting information in case of exploratory or formulative research studies. But in case of descriptive studies, we quite often use the technique of structured interview because of its being more economical, providing a safe basis for generalisation and requiring relatively lesser skill on the part of the interviewer.

We may as well talk about focussed interview, clinical interview and the non-directive interview. *Focussed interview* is meant to focus attention on the given experience of the respondent and its effects. Under it the interviewer has the freedom to decide the manner and sequence in which the questions would be asked and has also the freedom to explore reasons and motives. The main task of the interviewer in case of a focussed interview is to confine the respondent to a discussion of issues with which he seeks conversance. Such interviews are used generally in the development of hypotheses and constitute a major type of unstructured interviews. The *clinical interview* is concerned with broad underlying feelings or motivations or with the course of individual's life experience. The method of eliciting information under it is generally left to the interviewer's discretion. In case of *non-directive interview*, the interviewer's function is simply to encourage the respondent to talk about the given topic with a bare minimum of direct questioning. The interviewer often acts as a catalyst to a comprehensive expression of the respondents' feelings and beliefs and of the frame of reference within which such feelings and beliefs take on personal significance.

Despite the variations in interview-techniques, the major advantages and weaknesses of personal interviews can be enumerated in a general way. The chief merits of the interview method are as follows:

(i) More information and that too in greater depth can be obtained.

(ii) Interviewer by his own skill can overcome the resistance, if any, of the respondents; the interview method can be made to yield an almost perfect sample of the general population.

(iii) There is greater flexibility under this method as the opportunity to restructure questions is always there, specially in case of unstructured interviews.

(iv) Observation method can as well be applied to recording verbal answers to various questions.

(v) Personal information can as well be obtained easily under this method.

(vi) Samples can be controlled more effectively as there arises no difficulty of the missing returns; non-response generally remains very low.

(vii) The interviewer can usually control which person(s) will answer the questions. This is not possible in mailed questionnaire approach. If so desired, group discussions may also be held.

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Discourse

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language, have weight, and should not be ridiculed or dismissed out of hand, as has become rather fashionable in some language teaching circles. There are types of language use which demand the ability to formulate grammatical, correctly bounded sentences, and being able to exploit the formal sentence grammar is one of the most important elements in being able to communicate in a language. Yet if we *are* going to approach language as isolated artificially constructed sentences, even if only occasionally and for limited purposes, we do need to make a case for this, and not just do it because that is the tradition: in the mother tongue classroom, for the foreign language learner, or in linguistics. We should also recognize that there is more to producing and understanding meaningful language—to communicating—than knowing how to make or recognize correct sentences. A person who could do only that, and did so without any other considerations, would be, as the sociolinguist Dell Hymes (1971 [1972:277]) has said, 'likely to be institutionalised' for saying all kinds of inappropriate, irrelevant, and uninteresting things. Being a communicator, having what Hymes calls *communicative competence*, involves much more.

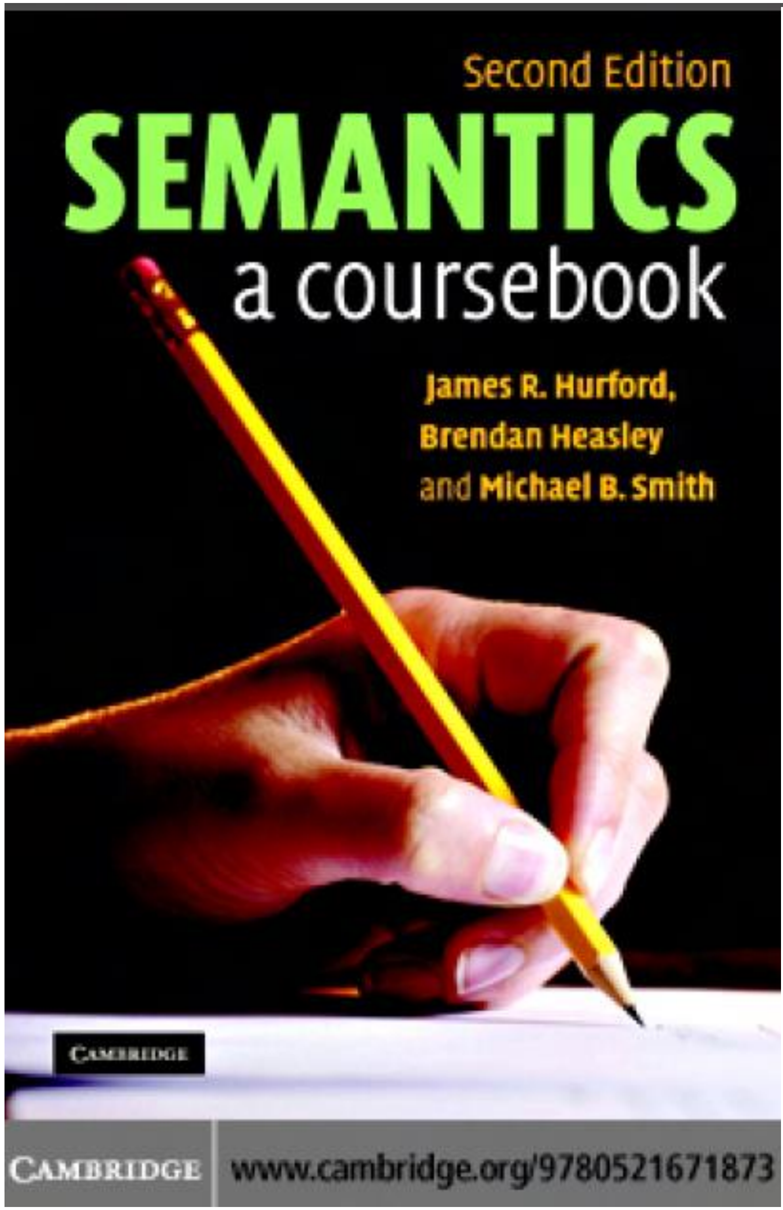
▶ TASK 2

Some of the following are invented examples, for language teaching or grammatical analysis, and some are pieces of language which were actually used to communicate. Is there any way of telling which is which? Can you think of situations where these pieces of language might actually have been used?

1 John considers the analyst a lunatic.
2 Which of you people is the fish?
3 Please don't throw me on the floor!
4 Cross since 1846.
5 I wish someone had told me he was vegetarian: I could have made an omelette.
6 Chicken and vegetable ... hot ... medium hot ... er rice ... pilao rice, er two poppadums and a ... what's a bhindi bhaji?

1.3 Discourse and the sentence

We have, then, two different kinds of language as potential objects for study: one abstracted in order to teach a language or literacy, or to study how the rules of language work, and another which has been used to communicate something and is felt to be coherent (and may, or may not, happen to correspond to a correct sentence or a series of correct sentences). This latter kind of language—language in use, for communication—is called *discourse*; and the search for what gives discourse coherence is *discourse analysis*. It is important to notice that the distinction between these two kinds of language (the artificially constructed and the communi-



Semantics
A Coursebook

SECOND EDITION

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1 Basic ideas in semantics

UNIT 1 ABOUT SEMANTICS

Definition SEMANTICS is the study of MEANING in LANGUAGE.

Comment The rest of this book can be regarded as an example of how one goes about investigating and understanding semantics. It may seem to you that meaning is so vague, insubstantial, and elusive that it is impossible to come to any clear, concrete, or tangible conclusions about it. We hope to convince you that by careful thought about the language you speak and the way it is used, definite conclusions CAN be arrived at concerning meaning. In the first exercise below, we ask you to start to get yourself into the habit of careful thinking about your language and the way you use it, concentrating, naturally, on instances of such words as *mean*, *means*, and *meaning*.

Practice Reproduced below is a well-known passage from Lewis Carroll's *Through the Looking Glass*. Pick out all the instances of the word *mean* (or *means*, or *meant*), noting which lines they occur in. (Some line numbers are given in the margin for convenience.) After the passage there are some questions for you to answer.

'. . . that shows that there are three hundred and sixty-four days when you might get un-birthday presents.'

'Certainly,' said Alice.

'And only one for birthday presents, you know. There's glory for you!'

'I don't know what you mean by "glory," ' Alice said.

Humpty Dumpty smiled contemptuously. 'Of course you don't – till I tell you. I meant "there's a nice knockdown argument for you." '

'But "glory" doesn't mean 'a nice knockdown argument,' Alice objected.

'When I use a word,' Humpty Dumpty said in rather a scornful tone, 'it means just what I choose it to mean – neither more nor less.'

'The question is,' said Alice, 'whether you can make words mean so many different things.'

'The question is,' said Humpty Dumpty, 'which is to be master – that's all.'

CAMBRIDGE TEXTBOOKS IN LINGUISTICS

DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

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1

Introduction: linguistic forms and functions

1.1 The functions of language

The analysis of **discourse** is, necessarily, the analysis of language in use. As such, it cannot be restricted to the description of linguistic forms independent of the purposes or functions which those forms are designed to serve in human affairs. While some linguists may concentrate on determining the formal properties of a language, the discourse analyst is committed to an investigation of what that language is used for. While the formal approach has a long tradition, manifested in innumerable volumes of grammar, the functional approach is less well documented. Attempts to provide even a general set of labels for the principal functions of language have resulted in vague, and often confusing, terminology. We will adopt only two terms to describe the major functions of language and emphasise that this division is an analytic convenience. It would be unlikely that, on any occasion, a natural language utterance would be used to fulfil only one function, to the total exclusion of the other. That function which language serves in the expression of 'content' we will describe as **transactional**, and that function involved in expressing social relations and personal attitudes we will describe as **interactional**. Our distinction, 'transactional / interactional', stands in general correspondence to the functional dichotomies – 'representative / expressive', found in Bühler (1934), 'referential / emotive' (Jakobson, 1960), 'ideational / interpersonal' (Halliday, 1970b) and 'descriptive / social-expressive' (Lyons, 1977).

1.1.1 *The transactional view*

Linguists and linguistic philosophers tend to adopt a limited approach to the functions of language in society. While they

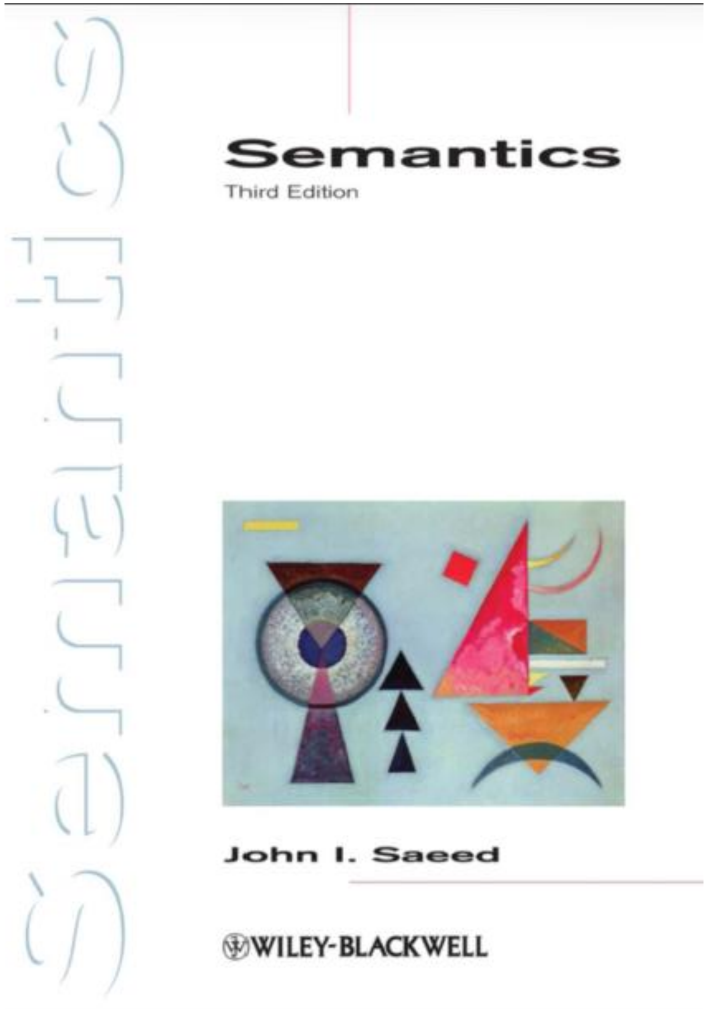
In the following example, we must assume that 'it' is an 'act of vandalism' which should be reported:

(19) STOP BUS VANDALS
by reporting *it* at once
to the driver or conductor
(sign displayed in Edinburgh buses)

Any adequate model of discourse description must be able to accommodate the various connections which do exist in texts (17), (18) and (19). The 'cohesion' model does not. It is, however, only fair to point out that Halliday & Hasan are not concerned to produce a description which accounts for how texts are understood. They are, rather, concerned to examine the linguistic resources available to the speaker / writer to mark cohesive relationships. Their examination of these linguistic resources is rich, interesting and insightful. It is important, however, that the discourse analyst should be clear just what it is that Halliday & Hasan are doing and should not assume that the account of textual relations produced as a *post hoc* analysis of the structure of a completed text should necessarily be revealing about how a processor working 'on-line' as the discourse unfolds experiences that discourse.

6.2 Discourse reference

The traditional semantic view of reference is one in which the relationship of reference is taken to hold between expressions in a text and entities in the world, and that of co-reference between expressions in different parts of a text. We shall present an alternative account of the co-reference relation, paying particular attention to pronouns, in section 6.3. In the traditional approach, the term 'reference' is used, together with 'sense', to discuss lexical meaning. The meaning of a lexical item, such as *chicken*, is partially determined by its sense, that is, the component properties of 'animate', 'feathered', etc., and also determined by its reference, that is, the set of objects in the world to which the expression can be correctly applied. Lyons (1977: ch. 7) provides a detailed account of the background and issues involved in this distinction and suggests that the term 'reference' is better replaced by the term 'denotation' in considerations of lexical meaning. We shall follow his practice and say that, in discussions of



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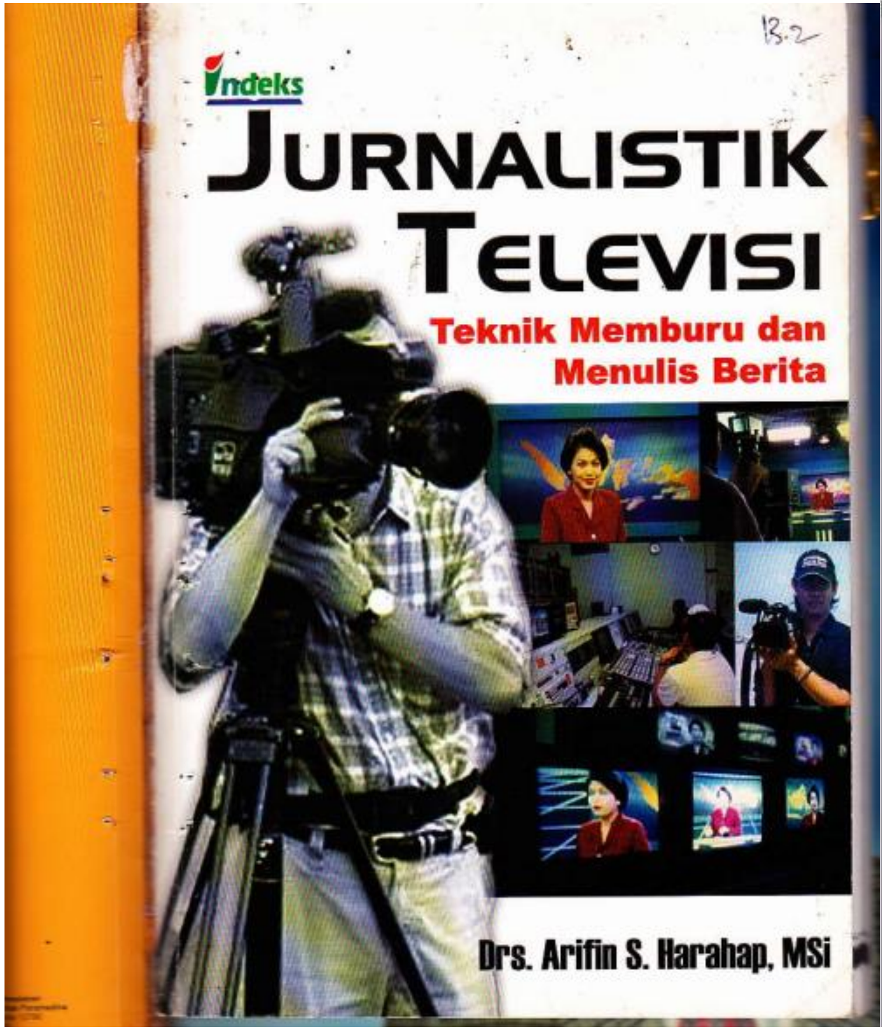
chapter 1

Semantics in Linguistics

1.1 Introduction

Semantics is the study of meaning communicated through language. This book is an introduction to the theory and practice of semantics in modern linguistics. Although this is not an introduction to any single theory, we begin with a basic assumption: that a person's linguistic abilities are based on knowledge that they have. It is this knowledge that we are seeking to investigate. One of the insights of modern linguistics is that speakers of a language have different types of linguistic knowledge, including how to pronounce words, how to construct sentences, and about the meaning of individual words and sentences. To reflect this, linguistic description has different **levels of analysis**. So **phonology** is the study of what sounds a language has and how these sounds combine to form words; **syntax** is the study of how words can be combined into sentences; and **semantics** is the study of the meanings of words and sentences.

The division into levels of analysis seems to make sense intuitively: if you are learning a foreign language you might learn a word from a book, know what it means, but not know how to pronounce it. Or you might hear a word, pronounce it perfectly, but not know what it means. Then again, you might know the pronunciation and meaning of, say, a noun, but not know



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setiap kejadian yang hangat menarik dan berguna untuk disiarkan? Sebagai contoh, Anda terjatuh dan mengalami luka-luka. Ini sebuah kejadian. Apakah kejadian ini menarik dan berguna bagi pemirsa jika disiarkan? Tentu tidak! Kejadian ini hanya menarik perhatian dan berguna bagi keluarga, rekan atau pacar anda. Jadi, batasan berita dalam KBBI belumlah sempurna.

Charles Dana (1996) dalam buku "Broadcast Journalism Techniques of Radio and TV News" mengemukakan, *"When a dog bites a man, that is not news, but when a man bites a dog, that is news"*. Artinya, ketika anjing mengigit manusia itu bukanlah berita, tetapi ketika manusia mengigit anjing, itu baru berita. Kalau definisi berita ini dicerna secara mentah-mentah, maka kita akan keliru mengartikan sebuah berita. Bagaimana tidak? Bagaimana kalau yang digigit anjing itu orang terkenal. Misalnya, seorang presiden. Tentu itu adalah berita yang layak disiarkan. Dalam definisi ini Charles Dana mungkin memberikan batasan berita secara filosofis, bahwa segala sesuatu yang di luar kebiasaan atau sesuatu yang unik adalah berita. Untuk apa manusia menggigit anjing? Perilaku ini tentu sesuatu yang aneh bagi orang normal.

Freda Morris dalam buku yang sama mengemukakan, *"News is immediate, the important, the things that have impact on our lives"*. Artinya, berita adalah sesuatu yang baru, penting yang dapat memberikan dampak dalam kehidupan manusia. Dari definisi ini, ada tiga unsur pada sebuah berita yakni baru, penting dan berguna bagi manusia. Definisi berita ini semakin memperluas khasanah kita tentang berita. Berita tidak hanya sekadar mengandung sesuatu yang aneh, tetapi juga baru, penting dan berguna bagi pemirsa. Sudah memadaikah unsur-unsur berita tersebut? Tentu belum.

Eric C. Hepwood (1996) mengemukakan, berita adalah laporan pertama dari kejadian yang penting sehingga dapat menarik perhatian umum. Definisi ini mengungkapkan tiga unsur berita yakni aktual, penting dan menarik. Persoalannya adalah, apakah berita hanya bersumber pada sebuah kejadian? Bagaimana dengan pernyataan manusia mengenai masalah-masalah aktual?

AN ANALYSIS OF GRAMMATICAL COHESION FOUND IN NARRATIVE TEXT WRITTEN BY THE THIRD SEMESTER OF ENGLISH DEPARTMENT AT UNISMUH MAKASSAR

(A Quantitative Descriptive Research)

A THESIS

Submitted to the Faculty of Teachers Training and Education Muhammadiyah University of Makassar in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirement for the Degree of Education in English Department

EMILIA SIANTI

10535632215

ENGLISH EDUCATION DEPARTMENT

FACULTY OF TEACHER TRAINING AND EDUCATION

MUHAMMADIYAH UNIVERSITY OF MAKASSAR

2019

ABSTRACT

Emilia Sianti, 2019. "*An Analysis of The Grammatical Cohesion Found In Narrative Text Written by The Third Semester Students of English Department at UNISMUH Makassar*", under the thesis of English Education Department the Faculty of Teacher Training and Education, Unismuh Makassar (supervised by Bahrun Amin and Wildhan Burhanuddin).

The objective of this research was to identify students' ability to write narrative text at the third semester Students of English Department at Unismuh Makassar and to identify the types of grammatical cohesion found in narrative text written by the Third Semester Students of English Department at Unismuh Makassar.

The method of this research was descriptive quantitative research, specially to identified students' ability and discourse analysis grammatical cohesion with the Haliday and Hasan theory. The sample of this research was selected by simple purposive sampling technique and total sample of this research consist of 20 students from class BG3C at the third semester of Unismuh Makassar.

The findings of this research, the first was the students' ability to write narrative text the researcher found the mean score of orientation is 93, complication is 94.8, and resolution is 89.55. The second, the researcher found the types grammatical cohesion are references, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction with 807 total frequency. 557 or 69.02% were the used of reference. Then, 221 or 27.4 % were the used of conjunction. The next, 28 or 3,5 % were the used of substitution, and the last 1 or 0,12 % were the used of ellipsis.

From this research, it can be conclude that students are more familiar with the use of reference and conjunction although they are able to use other type of grammatical cohesion as well.

Keywords: Grammatical Cohesion, Haliday and Hasan theory, Students' Ability, Narrative Text.

THE GRAMMATICAL COHESION ANALYSIS OF NEWS TEXTS ON THE RUSSIA-UKRAINE WAR

THESIS

By:

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Key Terms: Discourse analysis, cohesion, grammatical cohesion, the Russia-Ukraine war, The Jakarta Post

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Grammatical cohesion is research that analyzes how each word, phrase, or sentence is connected in a text. The researcher conducted this study to identify the types of grammatical cohesion and know how these types work in news texts. Researchers chose to use a qualitative descriptive approach in conducting this research. The data source in this study is an online news text published on Wednesday, 19 October 2022, by The Jakarta Post entitled "Russia Bombs Cities Across Ukraine at Rush Hour in Apparent Revenge Strikes." To examine the news text, researchers used the theory of grammatical cohesion developed by Cutting (2002). After conducting the analysis, the researcher found thirty-five (35) forms of grammatical cohesion out of the thirty-three (33) datums found in news texts. Of the total findings, thirty-two (32) are reference forms, and the remaining three (3) are ellipsis types. On the other hand, substitution is not found in the war news text. The type of reference most often used is the endophora in the form of anaphora (13), followed by exophora (10), associative endophora (7), and endophora in the form of cataphora (2). From these findings, each type of grammatical cohesion has its role in the news text. The reference type works as a tool to refer to a reference point in the text. Meanwhile, the ellipsis type works as a tool to remove words or phrases that are deemed unnecessary. Even so, both types of grammatical cohesion function to avoid word repetition.

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Cohesive Devices in Written Discourse: A Discourse Analysis of a Student's Essay Writing

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Abstract

Discourse is essential in communicating thoughts and ideas. People around the world communicate their ideas through stretches of language. In order to understand any discourse, it must achieve cohesion. The purpose of this paper is to define and describe the cohesive devices based on the work of Halliday and Hasan (1976). It also aims to emphasize the necessity of using these devices by analyzing a Michigan English Language Assessment Battery (MELAB) sample examination of a student's essay writing. The student's writing shows clear evidence of cohesion and demonstrates the use of grammatical and lexical devices. It is noticed that the most grammatical devices used are reference and conjunction. On the contrary, there is little evidence of using lexical devices. Although the essay is somewhat cohesive, some areas still need improvement.

Keywords: cohesive devices, grammatical and lexical devices, cohesion, student's writing

1. Introduction

English is considered the first language for the majority of the population in several countries and the second language for others. Hence, English is becoming the language of communication globally. Communication allows language users to interact with each other and in turn understand what others are trying to convey. In other words, language could be understood differently depending on the situation and context in which the discourse occurs. Discourse, then, is any spoken or written language which includes verbal and nonverbal elements that are meaningful.

An English native speaker can easily identify whether a set of sentences are unrelated or form a unified whole. The unity between these sentences is achieved through the use of cohesive devices. This paper aims to define and describe these cohesive devices based on Halliday and Hasan's (1976) work. It also aims to emphasize the necessity of using cohesive devices in written discourse by analyzing a Michigan English Language Assessment Battery (MELAB) sample examination of a student's essay writing.

2. The Concept of Cohesion

2.1 Text and Texture

In linguistics, any spoken or written discourse that forms a unified whole is referred to as a text. A text is not a grammatical unit, but rather a semantic unit of language, i.e. a unit of meaning, not of form. Texture is what provides the text with unity and distinguishes it from a non-text. Therefore, it is the cohesive relation that exists between units of a text.

2.2 Cohesion

Cohesion is the semantic relation between one element and another in a text (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). A text is cohesive when the elements are tied together and considered meaningful to the reader. Cohesion occurs when the interpretation of one item depends on the other, i.e. one item presupposes the other (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). For instance in the following text:

Amy went to the party. She sat with Sara.

The interpretation of the item *she* depends on the lexical item *Amy*. Therefore, the text is considered cohesive because we cannot understand the meaning of *she* unless *Amy* exists in the text.

Cohesive Devices in Written Discourse: A Discourse Analysis of a Student's Essay Writing

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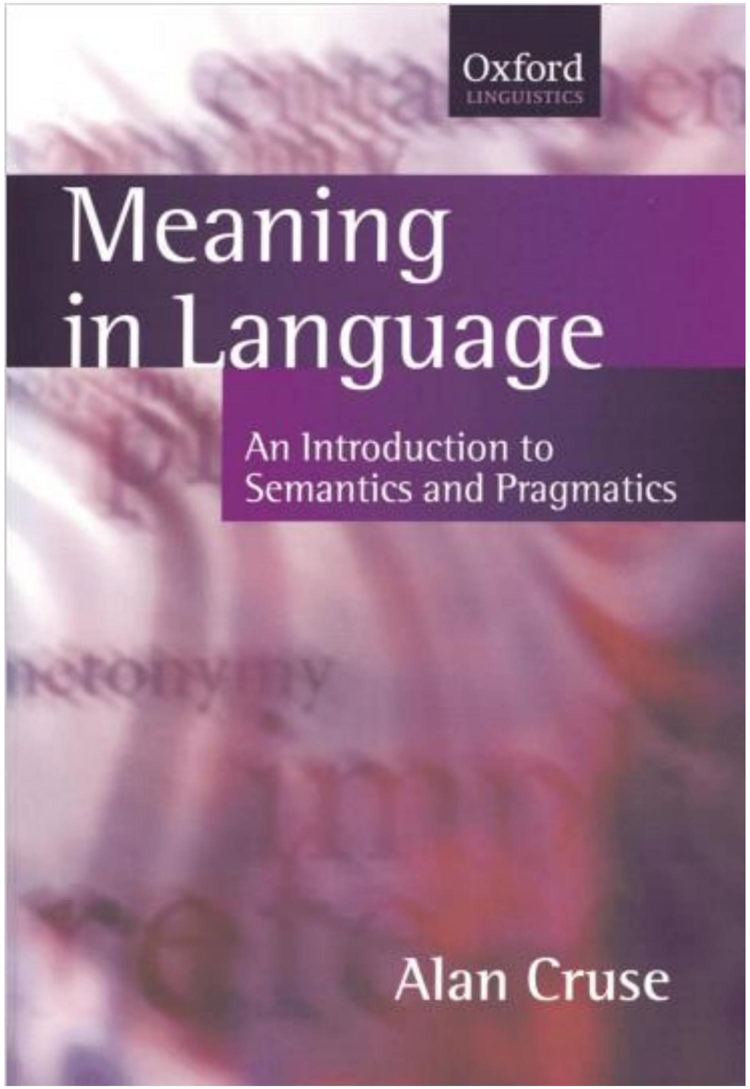

OXFORD TEXTBOOKS IN LINGUISTICS

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Meaning in Language

An Introduction to Semantics and Pragmatics

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1.6.2.5 Systematicity and structure; possibility of formalization

All semanticians are to some extent looking for regularities and system in the way meanings behave, as this leads to maximally economical descriptions. The most dedicated to this aspect of semantics are those who attempt to model the semantic behaviour of natural language expressions by means of a strict logical or quasi-mathematical formalism. This route will not be followed in this book.

1.6.2.6 New meanings from old

A striking feature of linguistic expressions is their semantic flexibility: beyond their normal contextual variability, they can be bent to semantic ends far removed from their conventional value, witness *She swallowed it hook, line and sinker* or *You'll find her in the telephone book*. The study of such extensions of meaning is an important task for semantics.

1.6.2.7 Role(s) of context

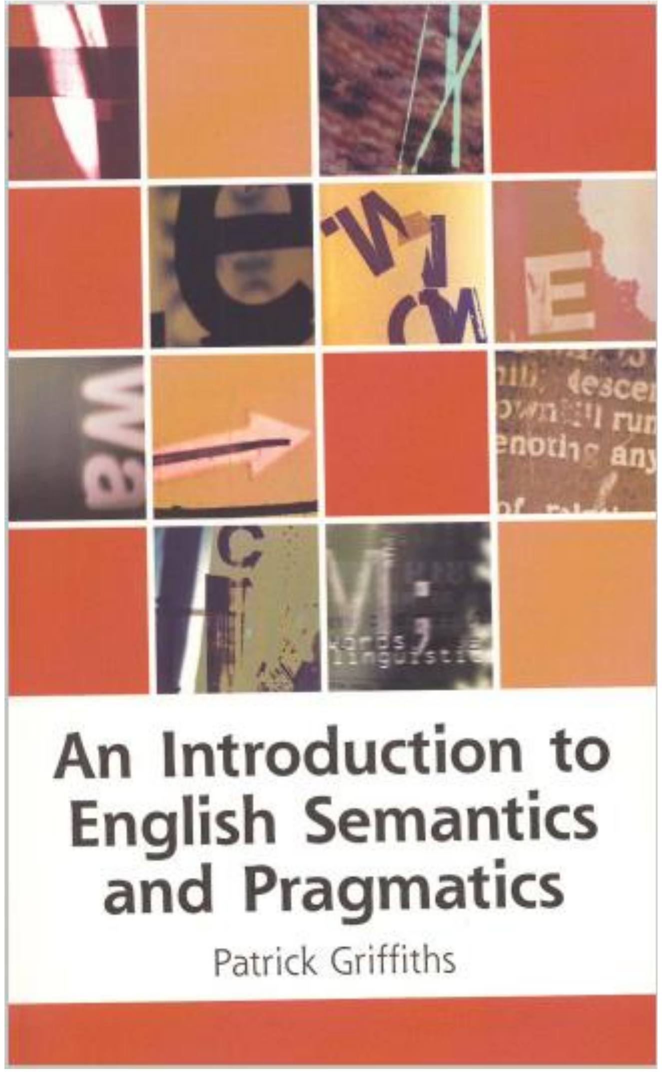
It is usually assumed that linguistic expressions can be assigned some sort of context-independent semantic value, although there is much disagreement regarding exactly what this is. There is also general agreement that context is of vital importance in arriving at the meaning of an utterance. The role of context ranges from disambiguating ambiguous expressions as in *We just got to the bank in time*, through identification of referents (who is *he*, where is *there*, in time for what, in *He didn't get there in time*), to working out 'between the lines' messages like B's ignorance of the whereabouts of the corkscrew in:

(5) A: Where's the corkscrew?
B: It's either in the top drawer in the kitchen, or it's fallen behind the piano.

1.6.3 The approach adopted in this book

We are not yet in a position to rule out any approaches which yield insights, even if some such approaches appear at first sight incompatible. This book therefore takes an ecumenical position on many issues. In so far as there is a theoretical bias, it is towards the cognitive semantic position. This means, in particular, that the meaning of a linguistic expression is taken to arise from the fact that the latter gives access to a particular conceptual content. This may be of indeterminate extent: no distinction is made between linguistic meaning and encyclopaedic knowledge.

Since this book is not intended to propound a body of theory, but to acquaint non-specialists with the range of semantic phenomena in language, there is a bias towards descriptive coverage at the expense of theoretical rigour.



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1 Studying meaning

Overview

This is a book about how English enables people who know the language to convey meanings. Semantics and pragmatics are the two main branches of the linguistic study of meaning. Both are named in the title of the book and they are going to be introduced here. **Semantics** is the study of the "toolkit" for meaning: knowledge encoded in the vocabulary of the language and in its patterns for building more elaborate meanings, up to the level of sentence meanings. **Pragmatics** is concerned with the use of these tools in meaningful communication. Pragmatics is about the interaction of semantic knowledge with our knowledge of the world, taking into account contexts of use.

> *Bold print for explanations of terms*
> In the index at the back of the book, bold printed page numbers indicate places where technical terms, such as **semantics** and **pragmatics** in the paragraph above, are explained. The point is to signal such explanations and to make it fairly easy to find them later, should you want to.

Example (1.1) is going to be used in an initial illustration of the difference between semantics and pragmatics, and to introduce some more terms needed for describing and discussing meanings.

(1.1) Hold out your arm. That's it.

Language is for communicating about the world outside of language. English language expressions like *arm* and *your arm* and *hold out* are linked to things, activities and so on. A general-purpose technical term that will appear fairly often in the book is **denote**. It labels the connections between meaningful items of language and aspects of the world – real or imagined – that language users talk and write about. *Hold out your arm*

SEMANTICS

Volume 2

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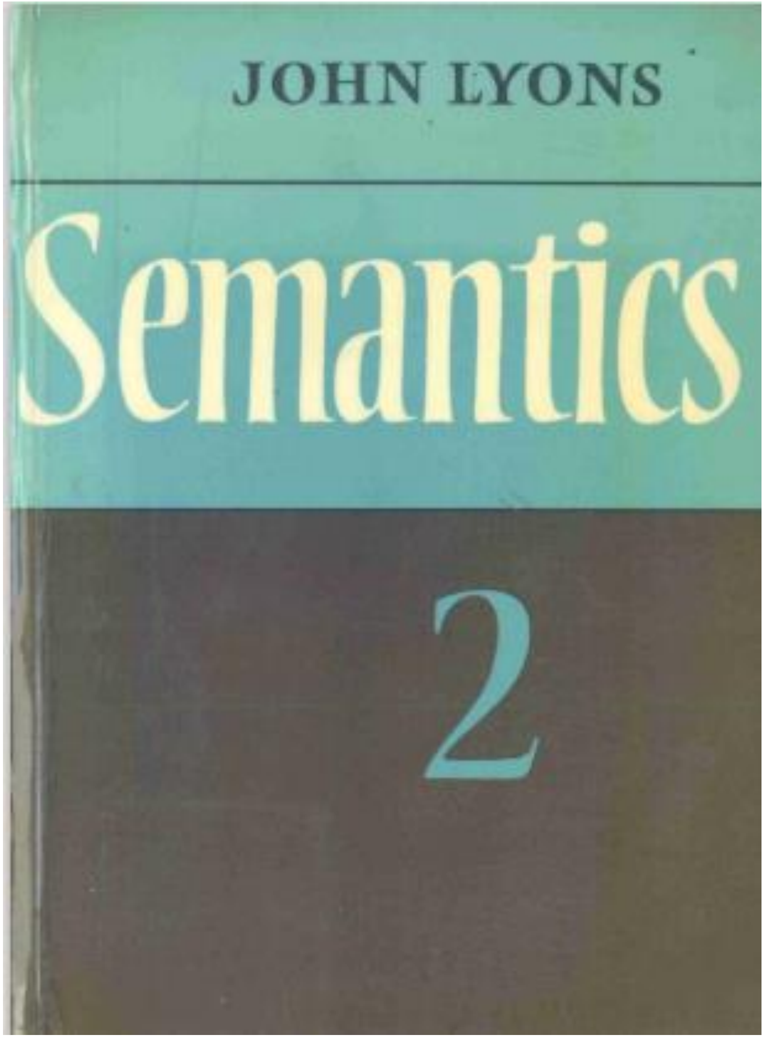

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many of these phenomena should be accounted for as part of the structure of system-sentences. Here we are concerned to emphasize that the grammatical and semantic coherence of text-sentences and text-fragments within a text is but one aspect of the global problem of contextual appropriateness; and that it cannot be handled without taking into account situational factors and the non-linguistic features of utterances and their co-text.

If linguistic semantics is taken to be that branch of semiotics which deals with the way in which meaning (of all kinds) is conveyed by language, it must be accepted that a comprehensive theory of linguistic semantics will need to be based upon, or include, a theory of contextual appropriateness. It is arguable, however, that, at the present time at least, the construction of such a comprehensive theory of linguistic semantics is too ambitious a task. There are various ways in which we can set about constructing a partial theory of linguistic semantics, or a set of partial theories, each of which will abstract from, or take for granted, facts which other theories try to systematize and explain. One such partial theory, which might be appropriately described as a theory of microlinguistic semantics, would be restricted to the analysis of the meaning of maximally decontextualized system-sentences. It would be concerned with the sense and reference of linguistic expressions, with the range of semiotic functions (or speech-acts: cf. 16.1) that can be performed by the utterance of particular sets of sentences, with the implications and presuppositions which hold between the propositions expressed by sentences (assuming that the sentences are uttered under certain standard conditions) and with the validation of these propositions in terms of truth-conditions holding in some actual or possible world. It would not be concerned, except incidentally and minimally, with socio-culturally determined variation, with textual coherence or with the other aspects of contextualization mentioned in this section.

Much of the recent work in the formal analysis of meaning in language falls within the scope of microlinguistic semantics as we have just defined this field. Provided that it is appreciated that the distinction of microlinguistics from sociolinguistics or stylistics is a purely methodological distinction, based upon the linguist's regularization, standardization and decontextualization of utterances, there is much advantage to be gained from the deliberate neglect in microlinguistic semantics of contextual appropriateness. Within the restricted framework of microlinguistic semantics, we can give a satisfactory account of the sense of most lexemes in the vocabularies of languages and, no less important,

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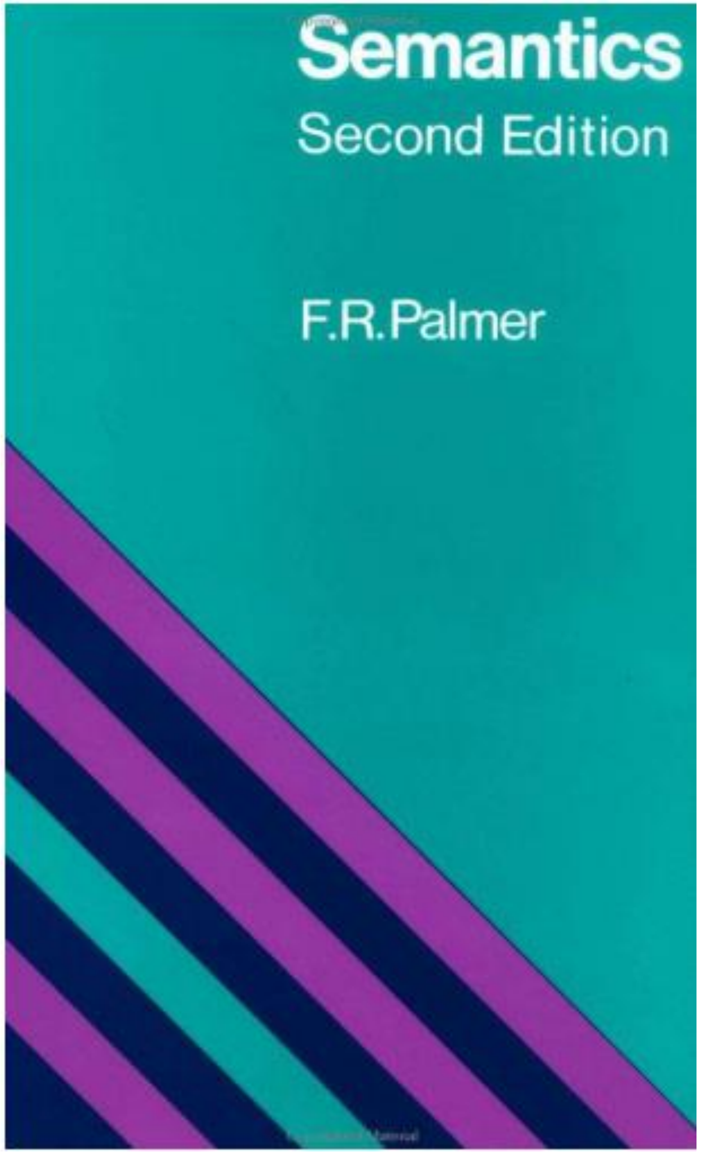

I

INTRODUCTION

SEMANTICS is the technical term used to refer to the study of meaning. Unfortunately, 'meaning' covers a variety of aspects of language, and there is no very general agreement either about what meaning is or about the way in which it should be described. I shall try to indicate both what topics are included in semantics and some of the ways in which they have been, or can be, handled. But because of the nature of the subject and the variety of views about it, I cannot hope to do more, in this little book, than to provide an introductory survey.

1.1 *The terms* semantics *and* meaning

The term *semantics* is a recent addition to the English language. (For a detailed account of its history see Read 1948.) Although there is one occurrence of *semantick* in the phrase *semantick philosophy* to mean 'divination' in the seventeenth century, *semantics* does not occur until it was introduced in a paper read to the American Philological Association in 1894 entitled 'Reflected meanings: a point in semantics'. The French term *sémantique* had been coined from the Greek in the previous year by M. Bréal. In both cases the term was not used simply to refer to meaning, but to its development – with what we shall later call 'historical semantics'. In 1900, however, there appeared Bréal's book *Semantics: studies in the science of meaning*; the French original had appeared three years earlier. This is a superb little book, now sadly neglected but well worth reading. It is one of the earliest books on linguistics as we understand it today, in that, first, it treated semantics as the 'science' of meaning, and secondly, that it was not primarily concerned with the historical change of meaning (see 1.4).

Introducing English Semantics

Charles W. Kreidler

"For Jim and Cynthia, Julie and Mike"

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names of people and places, as well as what we might think of as ordinary words. The productive vocabulary grows rapidly in early childhood, and for most people changes somewhat throughout life.

And what knowledge does one have that makes one capable of using the vocabulary, productively and receptively? We have to know how to combine the vocabulary items into utterances that will carry meanings for others and we have to grasp the meanings of complex utterances that others produce. With this goes the knowledge of how to pronounce words and utterances and how to recognize the pronunciation of words and utterances produced by others. So, for every word that speakers know, for production or recognition, they must know the pronunciation, how it fits into various utterances, and what it means.

Because we acquire our native language so early in life, our knowledge is mostly implicit. The linguist's task is to explicate this implicit knowledge. To describe a language the linguist writes a grammar. As Chomsky and Halle (1968:1) put it, we use the term **grammar** to mean two things: the implicit knowledge that a speaker has and the explicit description and explanation of it by the linguist.

Whether we think of the grammar of a language as the knowledge that every speaker of the language has, or the explicit description made by a linguist, or both, the grammar must contain three parts. One part, of course, is semantics, the knowledge (from the point of view of the individual who speaks and hears others speaking), or the description (from a linguist's point of view), of meaningful units like words and meaningful combinations of words like sentences. This whole book is about semantics; here it is more appropriate to consider the other parts of a grammar.

Phonology is the knowledge, or the description, of how speech sounds are organized in a particular language—there are units called phonemes which combine in various possible ways (but not all possible ways) to express meaningful units such as words. These phonemes contrast with one another to make different units of meaning. Sometimes two words sound the same but have different meanings (homonyms), and sometimes sequences of words with the same pronunciation have different interpretations (ambiguity). We discuss homonyms in Chapter 3 and ambiguity in Chapters 3, 7 and 8. One part of phonology is prosody, the melodies with which utterances are spoken; different melodies can make differences of meaning. There is a section on prosody in Chapter 2.

Introduction to Qualitative Research Methods:

A practice-oriented introduction for students of psychology and education

Arthur Cropley
University of Hamburg

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surprising. Indeed, in qualitative analyses it is almost always necessary to tease out relevant ideas contained in sources such as interview transcripts, participant-observation protocols, field notes, documents, websites, video tapes, or photographs. As Saldana (2009, p. 3) succinctly put it, qualitative analysis usually involves finding elements in a flow of information that identify a "salient, essence-capturing, and/or evocative attribute" of language-based or visual data. I refer to such words, short phrases or images as "content units", although they are often labelled simply "codes." This process of "teasing out" by identifying "salient" or "evocative" content units raises the issue already referred on p. 16 of ensuring and demonstrating that there really is a difference between qualitative research and fiction. Qualitative analysis must be at pains to avoid becoming a matter of flights of the literary fantasy of the person analysing the narratives: Achieving this is the task of *coding* of narratives. It is possible to distinguish between "substantive" coding, which has the purpose of identifying specific direct references to the object of study, and "theoretical" or "higher order" coding, which involves finding content units that refer to abstract and general ideas that form discipline-based concepts such as, in the case of psychology, "motivation," "coping strategies," "self-image," and the like.

Clarifying and summarizing: In narratives, what the respondent wants to say may be relatively obscure or hidden. The first step in qualitative coding thus involves identifying fragments of information (such as statements in a narrative) that contain an understandable idea. At its simplest, this is necessary because "raw" narratives often contain a great deal of material that cannot be used in a particular study, especially when the text is an interview protocol. Material may be (a) meaningless or unintelligible (an obvious example is expressions in an interview such as "Ah," "You know," or "Mmmm?"), (b) repetitious (repetition may indicate the strength of a participant's views or the importance of an issue for that person, so that it may well be important, but it does not introduce new themes), or (c) irrelevant ("irrelevant" in the present context means that a piece of information does not refer to the specific object of study; irrelevant content need not be trivial – it may be very important to the respondent and fascinating to the interviewer, but simply not informative in the specific context).

Mayring (1983) outlined a number of specific steps in this first stage of qualitative coding, of which two are of particular study at this point: (a) *summarizing* and (b) *clarifying*. Summarizing involves identifying relevant material in a narrative. Clarifying requires making the respondent's intended meaning unambiguously clear. For example, respondents often use slang or special terms that have a particular meaning to them personally or to specialists such