UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

THE ROLE OF DISCOURSE MARKERS IN LECTURE DELIVERY: AN ANALYSIS OF COMMUNICATION SKILLS LESSONS IN KUMASI TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY.

ROSEMARY GIFTY ADDO - DANQUAH

2020

UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

THE ROLE OF DISCOURSE MARKERS IN LECTURE DELIVERY: AN ANALYSIS OF COMMUNICATION SKILLS LESSONS IN KUMASI TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY

ROSEMARY GIFTY ADDO-DANQUAH

(200007646)

A thesis in the Department of Applied Linguistics, Faculty of Foreign Languages Education and Communication, submitted to the School of Graduate Studies, in partial fulfilment

of the requirements for the award of the degree of
Master of Philosophy
(Teaching English as a Second Language)
in the University of Education, Winneba

JULY, 2020

DECLARATION

Student's Declaration

I, Rosemary Gifty Addo - Danquah, declare that this thesis, with the exception of the quotations and references contained in published works, which have all been identified and duly acknowledged, is entirely my own original work and it has not been submitted either in part or in whole for another degree elsewhere.

Signature …….

Date ……...

Supervisor's Declaration

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of this work was supervised in accordance with the guidelines for supervision of thesis as laid down by the University of Education, Winneba.

Name: DR. CHARLOTTE FOFO LOMOTEY

Signature: ……

Date: ……

DEDICATION

To my adorable children Oparebea, Ofori, Atweribea and Ampofo who provide me with motherly feelings.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

It is the Lord; He does what seems right in His eyes. I am beholden to my Supervisor Dr. Charlotte Fofo Lomotey, Head of Department of Department of Applied Linguistics, University of Education, Winneba for conscientiously going through the work and pointing out various weaknesses. Her constructive criticisms and suggestions on the organization and content of the work contributed immensely to the successful completion of the thesis.

I am as well indebted to my lecturers Dr. Kwaku Ofori and Dr. Rebecca Akpanglo Nartey for their helpful critique of the work. In particular, their comments and prompting provided illuminating insights into other functions of discourse markers, which proved to be a useful guide to the analysis and discussion. Indeed, I found it rewarding to have worked with such academics who were personable, accommodating and unassuming, but firm.

I also register my sincere gratitude to all lecturers of Kumasi Technical University for their immense help in allowing me to record their lecture as my source of data. I am also grateful to Mrs. Faustina A. Partey for reading through and editing my work for me.

Finally, I am thankful to my husband Lord-Ofori Addo-Danquah. To my children Oparebea, Ofori, Atweribea and Ampofo, I say may the Almighty God bless you for bearing with me to be away from home for long periods of time. May our Creator grant you wisdom and knowledge to soar higher and may he give you wings like the eagle to fly higher and higher than what mummy has achieved.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

ABSTRACT

This thesis explored the types and functions of discourse markers used in the lecture delivery of lecturers of Kumasi Technical University. Data were recorded from 10 Communication Skills lecturers and subjected to transcription and textual analysis. The analysis was based on Chaudron and Richards' (1986) classification and function of discourse markers which was supported by Flowerdew and Richards (1985) that grouped discourse markers into three major types with different functions. The analysis revealed that discourse markers used in the various lectures fall under the micro, macro and micro-macro markers as supported by Chaudron and Richards (1986). In addition to these, two other markers not reported in the literature; micro-micro and macro-macro markers, were identified. The results suggest that macro markers were prevalent in all the lectures recorded as compared to the use of micro and micro-macro markers. This can be attributed to the fact that they make the text more meaningful than micro markers, in line with Chaudron and Richards' argument that macro markers contribute to successful recall of lectures than micro markers. Also, these markers performed more of structural functions among the other functions like referential and interpersonal functions. This can be attributed to the fact that lecture is a delivery of texts. The findings also indicate that these markers function as topic opening, closing, discourse organizing, referrals, sharing knowledge and reformulating. Based on the results, it is argued that it is important for lecturers to employ relevant discourse markers in order for their students to understand their lessons.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the study

In recent years there has been an increasing interest in the study of discourse markers in speech. It comes as no surprise, therefore, that discourse markers have been studied from various perspectives, including speech contexts such as teaching. Some of these studies are discourse markers in writing (Fox Tree, 2015) in interviews (Fuller, 2003), pedagogic settings (Fung & Carter, 2007), second language lecture comprehension (Flowerdew & Tauroza, 1995) academic report writing (Shandama & Yakubu, 2013) and the university lecture genre (Fortuno, 2006). These studies do not only engender discussion about discourse markers, but they also provide insight into the use and effects of these markers within the academic world. As Flowerdew and Touroza (1995) point out, the study of discourse markers affords us the opportunity to investigate the role of these markers in second language lecture comprehension which aims to determine whether the presence of discourse markers aids English as Second Language students' comprehension. Studies have shown a difference between markers in conversational lectures and those used in the scripted text.

Studies in discourse markers (e.g. Fox & Schrock, 2002; Fuller, 2003; Miracle, 1991) show that discourse markers have long been the central concern in pragmatics, referring to components in a discourse which express a procedural meaning and help lead communicators to convey intention. In Ghana, during a lecture, students, in conjunction with lecturers, interact on various angles to bring out the comprehensibility of the lesson taught. The use of these markers enhances students' understanding of the lecture. Students are bound not to comprehend the lecture if discourse markers are used inappropriately (Walsh, 2006). This is due to the fact that in an interaction, the role of speakers, and the relationship of interlocutors

affect the use and the distribution of discourse markers. The primary aim of this study is to explore how the types of discourse markers and their functions in lecture delivery help students to make meaning of the lecture. Discourse markers are important tools that can be utilized to keep the students brazed with the development and flow of a lecture as a means of signaling to the listener the relationship between the current and preceding discourse. This forms a good base for the lecturer to determine the deficiency of students in the classroom.

1.2 Statement of the problem

Discourse markers, when used in lectures, produce a cohesive text. The use of these markers in lectures has positive effect on lecture delivery. According to Tehrani & Dastjerdi, (2012), lectures play an important role in improving comprehension and enhancing communication competence in the English language. Discourse markers therefore serve as useful interactional maneuvers to structure and organize speech (Fung & Carter, 2007). The proper use of discourse markers also demonstrates a higher level of fluency as well as the ability to produce and comprehend authentic language. This is because the markers are important characteristics of both formal & informal native speaker language (Brown & Levinson, 1987). The study of discourse markers is therefore an interesting activity for the linguist but understudied among many language learners.

Although discourse markers have been extensively studied focusing on various speech contexts such as interview (Fuller, 2003) telling stories (Fox Tree, 2006) and social interaction (Bolden, 2006) and there is also research into spoken contexts which include telephone talk (Bolden, 2006) social interviews (Shiffrin, 1987) and conversation (Fuller, 2003) not much has been done on the use of discourse markers with regard to lecture discourse. Research on the functions of discourse markers consists mainly of semantic-pragmatic research.

Fraser, Erman, Schiffrin and Schourup are researchers who concentrate on syntactic-pragmatic research. They focused on the pragmatic functions of discourse markers based on the semantic characteristics of discourse to discuss the pragmatic function embodied in the discourse. From these, they agreed that discourse indicators play a complex and important role in the coherence of discourse. In relation to this, Chaudron and Richards (1986), Flowerdew and Tauroza (1995), Perez and Marcia (2002), and William (1992) investigated lecture delivery and the extent to which discourse markers affect comprehension and also to check whether students notice the presence or absence of discourse markers in lectures. Available literature indicates that studies have focused on discourse markers in foreign universities while there is lack of study on how these markers are used in second language context. Apart from Apraku (2017), not much is known about the use of discourse markers in lecture delivery in Ghanaian Universities.

It is now well established that there is a growing body of literature on discourse markers worldwide (e.g. Chaudron & Richards, 1986; Flowerdew & Touroza, 1995; Fung & Carter, 2007). Taken together, these studies provide helpful insights into how lecturers use discourse markers in academic lectures. So far, however, in the Ghanaian context, no vigorous intellectual investigation in Technical Universities has been undertaken. As a result, not much is known about the usage of these makers and the ones preferred by lecturers during lectures. What is more, little or no attention has been paid to the types, functions, and roles of discourse markers in lectures in Technical Universities. This

seeming intellectual quiet on the use of discourse markers in Technical Universities feeds into the perception of other lecturers and language instructors that Communication Skills lecturers here are not in the known of these markers.

In so far as the types and functions of discourse markers in Communication Skills lectures in Kumasi Technical University is concerned, the study will serve as a starting point to demonstrate the patterning of the ways discourse markers are used in academic lectures by non-native speaker lecturers, while at the same time fulfilling interpersonal and pragmatic functions, and helping to create a more inviting atmosphere for active participation. That is, in communication, lecturers and learners share the expectation that learners are aided in their interpretation of the message by lecturers' use of discourse markers are answered. As indicated in the background to the study, studies in discourse markers express a procedural meaning and help lead communicators to communicate intention (Fox & Schrock, 2002: Fuller, 2003) Due to this, Yang (2011) believes that so far little attention has been paid to the use and functions of discourse markers as one essential interactional factor in classroom teacher-student conversation. He further argues that it is important to look at the previous works on discourse markers and particularly their relations to pedagogical purposes in classroom context

With such a research, there will be records available to show the types and functions of discourse markers that Ghanaian Technical Universities lecturers use in their delivery. It will also serve as a replica of what has been done elsewhere in the world. The research findings will then serve as a basis to argue on the importance or otherwise of the use of discourse markers in lecture delivery. The knowledge gained will guide University syllabus designers to structure the content of the syllabi to encompass its use so as to aid

in the comprehension of lectures delivered by lecturers in the Technical Universities. This assertion as propounded by Chaudron & Richards (1986) and Flowerdew (1994) with the argument that lecture research can indicate to teachers and course designers what linguistics and discoursal features learners need to be familiar with in order to understand a lecture. Data

were collected from 10 lecturers from Kumasi Technical University, Kumasi. The data were then transcribed and all types of discourse markers as well as their functions were identified and discussed.

1.3 Motivation for the study

My prime motivation for studying discourse markers was informed by my intellectual curiosity about how instructors use these markers to make their lectures more meaningful and understandable in class. Studying some of these discourse markers such as *so*, *right*, *well*, *ok*, *now*, and *like*, as indicated by Flowerdew (2003), I was convinced that students grasp the understanding of lectures better when discourse markers were included than when they were omitted. This intellectual curiosity provides the impetus for the study of discourse markers used during lectures. The second factor that fueled my passion for the study is the desire to make a modest contribution to the literature on discourse markers in the classroom lecture. As far as classroom lecture in Technical Universities is concerned, not much intellectual study has gone on in this field. The present study will, therefore, help expand the frontiers of intellectual studies in discourse markers in Technical Universities, no matter how these markers are viewed and used in the classrooms. A third and final motivation for the study is personal development. My career as a language teacher obliges me to sharpen my argumentation and advocacy skills. It is widely expected of a language teacher to win the support of the students he teaches. Embarking on the study, therefore, offers me the opportunity to learn how different discourse markers are employed when teaching communication skills and the functions the markers perform in these lessons to bring out the utmost results.

1.4 Research objectives

The objectives of this study are to:

1. Identify the types of discourse markers used in lectures in Kumasi Technical University;
2. Examine the functions that these markers perform in lecture delivery and interpretation.

1.5 Research questions

The specific research questions that the study addresses are the following:

1. What are the types of discourse markers used in lectures in Kumasi Technical University?
2. What functions do these markers perform in lecture delivery?

1.6 Significance of the study

The study is significant for many reasons. First, as earlier noted, relatively little is known about discourse markers and the role and functions discourse markers play in communication lectures in Technical Universities. The study provides a basis for analysis of classroom lectures and builds a dossier on the discourse markers used during lectures. Second, most studies on discourse markers involve speeches, interviews, and non-Ghanaian ESL/EFL classrooms and Ghanaian Traditional Universities. The present study, plays a pioneering role in Technical Universities in Ghana. The study therefore affords the general public the opportunity to assess the utterances used by Communication Skills lecturers in achieving a well-understood lecture or coherent lecture which is relevant to students. Again, the study serves as a source of reference for future research in discourse markers. In this sense, it contributes to the body of knowledge on this widely researched area of discourse. Additionally, the study creates awareness for students, lectures, and language users that their

utterances in lectures with the use of discourse markers do not only communicate meaning but also leads to discourse coherence and serves as a guide for the hearer to achieve the intended interpretation. Such knowledge helps improve their public discourse in their contribution to issues of social cohesion at large.

1.7 Delimitations of the study

The study is set within the Ghanaian University lecturer genre by reason of the need to contribute to the under researched area of discourse markers in lecturer delivery. Technical universities formerly Polytechnics having been in existence for a long time before the transition, deserves better in terms of intellectual attention to their lecture delivery. The study must, therefore, be seen as a modest attempt to place Technical Universities among the community of universities whose lectures have attracted the attention of the research community. Again, among the numerous technical universities in Ghana, Kumasi Technical University is selected for the study because to date, no intellectual research on discourse markers has been conducted in this institution or any other Technical University of that matter. This unique position offers an opportunity for an investigation on how discourse markers help in lecture comprehension delivery.

Furthermore, among all the lecturers from the various faculties and departments in the School, only lecturers from the Liberal Studies Department have been chosen for the study. A compelling reason for focusing on Communication Skills lecturers and lectures against the other lectures is that in so far as discourse markers are concerned, these lecturers are more conversant with these markers than other lecturers. It also affords me the opportunity to explore the discourse markers used by colleague Communication Skills lecturers to achieve their desired intent during lecture delivery.

Regarding the types and functions of discourse markers used in lecture delivery, the study focuses on unscripted version of lectures. These are chosen over scripted lectures because unscripted lectures are arguable a true reflection of a person's conversational style in comparison with the scripted version. It is per the conversational style of lecture presentation that a lecturer gets enough room to manipulate language with its hesitations, false starts, full pauses, phonological contractions and assimilations (Dudley-Evans, 1994). The study also limits itself to only discourse markers found in these lectures for the reason that it was during these lectures that the data were recorded. Even though discourse markers are utilized outside the classroom, the focus was only in the classroom since the aim was to indicate the impact the markers have on lecture delivery.

1.8 Organization of the thesis

The rest of the thesis is organized as follows: Chapter 2 focuses on the literature review where the conceptual frameworks are discussed. It examines empirical studies on discourse markers to demonstrate the intellectual studies that surround and support the research, and establish the gap in the literature that the research seeks to fill. Chapter 3 discusses the research methodology including the data selection mode of analysis and the ethical consideration. Chapter 4 is devoted to the discussion of findings. Specifically, the Chapter addresses the research questions which considers the types of discourse markers used in lecture discourse at Kumasi Technical University as well as the functions of discourse markers in the lecture. The findings showed that the lecturers used the three main types discourse markers suggested by Chaudron and Richards (1986) to perform various functions in their lecture delivery. In addition to these, two other markers were discovered. These are micro-micro and macro-macro markers. Here, micro, macro, micro-macro micro-micro, and macro-macro markers were used to perform functions including topic shifting, topic opening,

organizing, summarizing, marking shared knowledge, referring, and reformulating. The final chapter, Chapter 5 presents a summary of the findings of the study, implications of the findings, and recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

The variety of roles discourse markers (DMs) perform in a discourse can be seen through the many terminologies used to refer to these features. There is no general agreement on how these linguistic components should be named. In this chapter I would review the literature on terms scholars like Goffman (1981) and Dudley Evans and Johns (1981) identified. I will also discuss how syntax as a form of spoken text is portrayed in lectures. Next, organization of lecturers will be examined and some structural patterns will be discussed (Cook, 1975). Finally, by examining previous research on signaling devices and coherence (e.g. Chaudron & Richards, 1986, Schiffrin, 1987), I aim to present a thorough review of the role DMs play in lectures. Various researchers have studied discourse markers thoroughly and have come out with different terminologies: *discourse markers* (Schiffrin, 1987) (the term used for this study), *discourse particles* (Abraham, 1991; Kroon, 1995; Schourup, 1985), *pragmatic marker* (Aijmer, 2002; Brinton, 1996; Fraser, 1996), *discourse connectives* (Blakemore, 1989), *pragmatic expressions* (Erman, 1987), *cue phrases* (Knott, 1996), *pragmatic particles* (Ostman, 1982), and *discourse operators* (Redeker, 1991). Other terms which are rarely used include *discourse signaling devices* (Polanyi & Scha, 1983), *indicating devices* (Dascal & Katriel, 1977), *phatic connectives* (Bazzanella, 1990), *pragmatic connectives* (Van Dijk, 1979), *pragmatic operators* (Ariel, 1998) and *semantic conjuncts* (Quirk et al, 1985).

Discourse markers (DMs) are lexical lingos that indicate a semantic relationship of expansion, disparity, interpretation, or temporality which holds between adjacent discourse segments. Discourse, on the other hand, refers to sections of language higher than a sentence

that functions together in order to express a specified impression or data. They are used to show the relationship between ideas in a given context as writers use them to link ideas in a discourse. In his study, Gerard (2000) concluded that discourse markers are words such as *however*, *although*, and *nevertheless*, more often called linking words, linking phrases or sentence connectors. They may be described as *the glue* that binds pieces of writing together to hold the various parts of the text. The text would not seem logically constructed and the connections between the various sentences and paragraphs would not be obvious if there are insufficient discourse markers in a written text.

Discourse markers, however, guide the reader to predict the direction of the discourse flow rather than linking the various text elements, especially in spoken discourse. In Barnabas and Adamu (2012), Brown and Levinson (1987) agree that discourse markers are important characteristics of both formal and informal native speaker language. As such, their proper use also demonstrates a higher level of fluency as well as the ability to produce and comprehend authentic language. Likewise, Litman (1996 as cited in Barnabas & Adamu 2012) claims that discourse markers are linguistic devices available for a writer to structure a discourse. These markers are grammatical or functioning words; unlike content words, they do not express meaning on their own nor alter the meaning of a sentence but only perform grammatical functions by linking ideas in a piece of writing. Most discourse markers signal the listener and the reader of consistency in a text or the relationship between the previous and subsequent text. The study of discourse markers is an interesting activity for the linguist: on one hand, this category of items tends to defy all attempts to account for its members in terms of parts of speech or individual formal properties (rather than functional properties) and on the other hand, their functional description is not unproblematic, although new difficulties are revealed as it progresses.

2.1 The genre of lecture

According to Flowerdew (1994), lecture is the center of academic activity with a wide range of instructional material such as videos or tasks such as writing assignments among others for teachers. The claim by Flowerdew is apt in that it highlights the importance of investigating what really constitutes a lecture in order to design appropriate materials to strengthen its very foundation. It can be argued that the intention to deliver a lecture is for students to understand it. In this vein, students will do everything they can to get the meaning of what they receive through the delivery. Based on this fact, Fortuno (2006) argues that reading and listening comprehension implies interactive discourse functions such as requesting, repetition, negative meanings, or using repair strategies. She believes that whenever lecturers or students pose questions, turn-taking should be regarded (cf. Flowerdew, 1994). Unlike in earlier times when lecturers went solely through a teaching approach to ensure that there was limited contact between lecturer and students, lecturers have now softened their approach and become more involved. In addition to being interactive, lecturers also use traditional teaching and interaction methods to deliver their content. It is not surprising that this means of knowledge dissemination has created a bond between lecturers and students, leading to better understanding of lectures. The collaboration between students and lecturers is also conducive to the lecture environment.

One of the activities embraced in tertiary institutions worldwide is lecturing without homogeneity in the lecture class. The lecture class is evolving (Waggoner, 1984) so that conventional learning methods co-exist with new interactive methods; the effect of greater egalitarianism is experienced by both lecturers and students than in the past. Teachers are therefore perceived at a closer distance by students and play the role of a learning process aid, mentor, or facilitator that suits their viewpoint better. Nonetheless, teachers allow and

encourage students to communicate with each other and to participate more than in previous times, what may be understood as an attempt to narrow distances and avoid formalisms. A substantial part of the research on academic dialogue reflects on the lecture (Benson, 1989; John, 1981, Richards, 1983) and more precisely, on the process of understanding the lecture. What is crucial for a university's progress is the understanding of the best way for students to internalize and interpret lecture material, which is why work on spoken academic language focuses on various aspects of lectures (Chaudron & Richards, 1986; Flowerdew, 1994; Jones, 1999; Kerens, 2001; Thompson, 1994). A study of different approaches within the lecture category is addressed in this section to demonstrate the different features used in lecture; phonological and lexico-grammatic features, and to provide valuable information to lecturers in order to organize their lectures properly.

2.1.1 Academic listening: Understanding lectures

Some approaches to teaching, such as tutorials, seminars, and practical sessions are gaining momentum in the European Higher Education Area (EHEA). The lecture is "a staple for a wide range of tertiary classes and it is likely to remain so due to the increase in the number of students" (Exley & Dennick, 2009, p. 10). It is therefore increasingly necessary to contribute to a better understanding of how lectures are interpreted and how to execute them effectively, both in the L1 and L2 contexts. The use of vocabulary in lectures is dynamic; there are significant differences between listening to academic discourse and listening to general events. Miller (2002) points out that academic discourse presents a special disciplinary orientation which is delivered to an audience in particular ways. As such, the underlying rhetorical structures are different from other conversational contexts. The complexity of the lectures does not only affect the language; there are also many facets to the situation itself. The listener must integrate information from various channels (auditory,

visual and perhaps kinetic). This is the main difference between the process of understanding the lecture and the process of understanding other oral genres.

Therefore, knowledge of the factors affecting L2 academic listening comprehension could provide benefits (Hyland, 2009, p. 97). These factors have been at the centre of attention in numerous research studies, among which *Academic listening* by Flowerdew (1994) is still said to be the most comprehensive. The main argument underlying the whole book is that knowledge of how lectures are comprehended in L2 can be applied to (1) teaching students to understand lectures in a second language, and (2) assisting lecturers to facilitate comprehension. In other words, as Mendelssohn (1998) reflects, "the demand for more academic support for non-native speakers covers two aspects: the need to help students improve themselves, and the need to teach lecturers when they have classes with a large number of international students" (p. 92).

If this is applied in English as a medium of instruction (EMI) environments where the lecturer is a non-native speaker of English, the use of this knowledge to help and teach lecturers communicates differently than would be the case for native speakers. Subsequently, the question arises as to what knowledge of lecture comprehension derived from these studies is useful for the linguistic education of teachers in the context of the EMI. Answers could be given by analysis of the factors affecting reading comprehension. Any good teaching practice should consider these factors, but they may present distinctive connotations in the context of L2. Some of these things are closely related to personal style (such as speed of delivery). Others, depending on their style, are trainable. Some of these factors are formal and others are cultural. Research on L2 academic listening performance has emerged from the growing practice of specific language courses for students of content in L2 (Chaudron & Richards, 1986). The findings of this research include potential input for teaching materials, curriculum

design and teacher training. In other words, the overview of some of the aspects revealed by the research provided in this section seeks to consider those that could be transferred to assist lecturers in the delivery of more comprehensible classes.

2.1.2 Formal elements in the lecture

The use of certain semantic symbols is a key feature of the vocabulary in lectures. These markers are lexical phrases that help to indicate the most important content and to indicate movements in argumentation of non-essential information. Such discourse indicators are one of the most studied formal components in both L2 and L1 lectures. The state of the art shows heterogeneity in the concept and taxonomy of DM (Bellés-Fortuño, 2008). Discussion on these is beyond the scope of the present study, as it seeks to maintain an applied and didactic orientation. Chaudron and Richards (1986) provide one of the first and most widely used categorizations that distinguish micro markers from macro markers. Although their classification will be discussed, their study opens up a series of investigations on the role of markers in the understanding of lectures. As obtained from the analysis, the study will rely on the categorization of Chaudron and Richards; micro, macro-markers and micro-macro markers to show how lectures were structured.

The term discourse marker (or DM) is used throughout this study. This choice is explained by a phase model (Young, 1994) that defines the macrostructure of a lecture that is independent of discipline or other situational factors. It is a model that allows the lecture to be approached as a genre. The phases are strands of debate which recur discontinuously throughout a single linguistic occurrence and, taken together, form the event. “Thus, such lines recur and intersperse with others, culminating in the interweaving of threads as the discussion progresses” (p. 165). Firstly, the model has a didactic purpose since the aim of a detailed description of the lecture is to make them more comprehensible to students.

Secondly, this phase model goes beyond traditional linear models, such as *introduction*, *middle*, *end*, which cannot seize the complexity of the lecture as a discursive act. Young's model is not linear, but recurring, where he also identifies certain linguistic features that are distinctive in each of the phases. The discourse markers constitute a group of these elements which, for example, signal or delimit the phase. He endorses the relevance of recognizing these linguistic features for both lecturers and L2 students: "an acquaintance with the correct schematic patterning of lectures will greatly assist students" (p. 173). This in effect indicates that lexical phrases are one of the important components in lectures which must be taken note of.

2.1.3 Discourse markers and listening comprehension

Listening is a dynamic ability that includes physical and mental functions in tandem with the retrieval of contextual information. A brief overview of the mental elements involved in communication will raise awareness of the effects of listening in L2 contexts. This section refers to both the sources of knowledge that enable listening comprehension and the mechanisms of listening comprehension. First, Anderson and Lynch's model of listening comprehension (Anderson & Lynch, 1988, p. 13) recognizes three main sources of knowledge:

- schematic knowledge (background knowledge and schemata)
- contextual knowledge (situation and context)
- systemic knowledge (knowledge of the language system at the phonological, lexico-semantic, morpho-syntactic and discursive levels).

A discourse marker is an element of the language system, and therefore its knowledge can potentially enhance understanding. In doing so, they signal the different phases of the lecture

(Young, 1994). This applies to schematic knowledge where students are expected to have lecture schemata in their L1, and this knowledge could be used to understand lectures in L2. Other theoretical models provide data on the processes involved in listening. Two main types can be identified: top-down and bottom-up processes. In the first form, the listener constructs a conceptual framework for interpretation using meaning and prior knowledge stored within long-term memory (topic, genre, culture, schema knowledge). On the other hand, bottom-up approaches include the creation of meanings by constructing from the smallest units of meaning (phoneme-level) to increasingly larger ones, up to discourse-level components. Both mechanisms do not exclude each other, but communicate based on the intent of listening and the capacity of the listener (Vandergrift, 2004). Considering the unit of interpretation formed, DMs can be said to support the bottom-up comprehension processes.

To sum up, the models for micro-skills must be considered. In this sense, Richard's (1983) highly cited paper provides a detailed list of conversation skills and educational lectures of which others have emulated (Mendelssohn, 1998). Richards' (1983) taxonomy requires the ability to recognize the role of DMs in signaling the structure of the lecture. Top-down processes are promoted in this case, and knowledge of DMs is therefore likely to support both understanding processes. Perhaps, this is one of the reasons for their inclusion among the skills needed for the ability to understand.

2.1.4 Discourse markers in lecture comprehension

The importance of DMs in lecture comprehension is sustained by their permanence as a focus of interest for many researchers. In a pioneering investigation by Chaudron and Richards (1986), it was concluded that macro-markers signal major transitions and put emphasis on spoken academic lectures, helping to bring them together successfully. Since then, other authors have approached the issue by combining different parameters, such as the

indicator or the assessment process. Most of the research focuses on the supporting impact of DMs, in particular, macro-markers and meta-discourse in situations where the participant is not a native speaker of the language of instruction.

The methodology used in these studies was similar. First, the experimental group obtained a lecture with DMs while the control group provided the same lecture without DMs (Chaudron & Richards, 1986; Eslami & Eslami-Rasekh, 2007; Flowerdew & Tauroza, 1995; Jung, 2003; Morell, 2004). Second, students' understanding was checked by means of questions, tests or notes. In the same vein, Tehrani and Dastjerdi (2012) demonstrate that cohesion and coherence in the written compositions of students who received a lecture with DMs were higher than those who did not receive the lecture with any DMs. Some other research included an interventional step; several students received explicit instructions on DMs. From this, the results showed that these students did better than those who had no knowledge of DMs since they had not been previously taught (Smit, 2006). Smit's intervention program centred on educating the student participants on when and how lecturers utilize DMs to verbally indicate the different movements in the course of the lecture. DMs therefore serve a dual purpose as indicators of the structure of the discourse and as possible aids in training listeners to a better understanding. Consensus on the role of DMs as a facilitator of communication therefore seems to be common.

In summary, the supporting functions of DM in signaling lecture phases (Young, 1994) is implied in the results of most of these reports. As a result, the pedagogical ramifications arising from them include the instruction of these components to learners and the suggestion for lecturers to include them in their discourses. Accordingly, Mendelssohn (1998) offers eight suggestions for lecturers, all based on the studies and experiences compiled in Flowerdew (1994). The third recommendation he gave states that "instruct

lecturers to add many more accessible DMs that illustrate the overall structure of the lecture" (p. 93). Eslami & Eslami-Rasekh (2007) also emphasize the teachability of these elements. The material design and methodology for teaching these elements are based on the findings of academic listening comprehension studies as discussed in this section. Benefits have been extended to lecturers and students. Nevertheless, as EMI is growing, content lecturers are expected to use these markers to the benefit and to the benefit of their students.

2.1.5 Phonological features

The professor or presenter must be well-versed and acquainted with the content presented during seminars in the lecture room. With this in mind, Biber (1988), extrapolates that native and non-native students must recognize unit boundaries with regard to phonological features in lectures, irregular pauses, false beginnings, hesitations, stress, and patterns of intonation. Such characteristics are especially difficult to identify among non-native speakers who may not have been subjected to lectures. In oral academic discourse, lectures may become a barrier for non-native speakers who have learned English in a much more formal written format and are not used to speaking. According to Brown (1990) these features present particular challenges to non-native speakers who have learned English in idealized, perhaps written form and have thus not been exposed to the characteristics of rapid colloquial speech.

Phonological features are short and phonologically reduced; they form a separate tone group (Jucker & Ziv, 1998, p. 3). Fraser (1990) agrees with the above points made by explaining that these tone units can be taken into account in a study based on written data. He further explains that a tone unit boundary may be signaled by punctuation and a discourse marker may thus be set apart from a following utterance by punctuation marks. Discourse markers which are said to be phonologically reduced to form a separate tone group are

primarily significant for the identification of discourse markers in studies based on spoken data and also applicable in the analysis of English text (Jucker, 2002, p. 212). Tone units also a phonological feature can be taken into account in a study based on written data. This is due to the fact that a tone unit boundary may be signaled by punctuation and a discourse marker may thus be set apart from a following utterance by the use of punctuation marks.

Carter and McCarthy (2006, p 39) claim that prosodic information helps to distinguish between discourse markers and other parts of speech or clauses. According to them, discourse markers often occupy their own intonation phrases and are accompanied by brief pauses. They further explain that the relationship between tonality and discourse markers is not always straightforward, since chances for a discourse marker to be separated from the rest of the clause in lecture by an intonation phrase mostly depend on the position of the marker in the discourse (i.e. initial, medial or final in an utterance or a turn) as well as its discourse function (i.e. organizing or monitoring discourse).

Discourse markers when treated as separate intonation phrases, contain the nuclear syllable where a particular pitch movement or tone is realized (Komar, 2007). The pitch height of a discourse is very important and its realization depends on the position and function of the marker which is mainly involved in the organization of discourse in terms of opening and closing topics, expressing relationship of sequence between parts of discourse, focusing attention, diverting, shifting and resuming a topic, as well as those that enable the speakers to manage the discourse in lectures. It can therefore be said that in a variety of tones, the choice depends on the function as well as the meaning of the marker.

2.1.6 Lexico-grammatical features

According to Biber (1988), spoken text has its own lexico-grammatical features which require the application of particular sets of knowledge on the part of listeners. Listeners are

therefore presupposed to have the "ability to distinguish what is relevant to the main purpose and what is less relevant" (Flowerdew, 1994, p. 11). In view of this, Flowerdew follows the theories of relevance of Grice (1975) and Sperber and Wilson (1986) and comes out with the view that in lectures, listening comprehension implies functions of interactive discourse such as asking for repetition, negating meaning or using repair strategies. Discourse markers can therefore be used for the functions mentioned. Flowerdew (1994) further explains that in lecture delivery, whenever lecturers allow questions from the audience or ask questions themselves, turn-taking conventions are considered. In relation to turn taking, the meaning of discourse markers varies with their position in the utterance, more precisely utterance initial, and utterance final (Degand, 2014).

These positions tend to favour specific meanings, thus attracting specific linguistic expressions (Beeching & Detges, 2014). Degand (2014) further states that utterance-final DMs in this position serve mainly to express intersubjective meanings. Traugot (2010) further explains that intersubjectivity is to be understood as the orientation towards the addressee's and addressor's face. With respect to utterance final DMs, this includes interpersonal uses where the speaker orients the utterance towards the addressee's attitude and expectations but also interactional uses involving conversation management. Furthermore, students are also thought to be able to predict what is relevant to the main audience since listening comprehension includes proactive interactive tools such as asking for clarity, rejecting significance, or using remedial strategies.

2.1.7 The use of skills and strategies

Some researchers have developed a set of micro skills that should be obligatory for teachers to study in a second language. The first of these was the one proposed and established by Munby in 1978, which became the starting point for any study of the needs

and design of courses. Building on Munby (1978), Richards (1983) developed a second taxonomy much more closely linked to academic listening. Throughout Richard's collection of 18 abilities, relevant expertise for the intent of this study was found; DMs were deemed a trustworthy reference to the phase of listening to the lecture. This taxonomy involves the following:

I. the capacity to recognize the topic of lectures and to observe the progress of the theme
II. the capacity to recognize the role of discourse markers as a sign of the structure of the lecture
III. the ability to recognize the intonation functions of the information structure of the signal (e.g. pitch, volume, pace key)

With regard to the role of techniques in L2 lecture listening comprehension, it can be assumed that if students follow appropriate listening and note-taking methods, they will be able to apply them to the various lectures they experience. Olsen and Huckin (1990) suggest that engineering students should be taught ample techniques to understand the discourse-level pragmatics of academic lectures. Nevertheless, an information-driven approach, a strategy that allows students to discern the most relevant information in a lecture, will be required for a lecture to deliver information to students. On the other hand, a type of lecture that builds a case based on a number of points will require a more context-sensitive point-driven method that helps students grasp the problem-solving lecture in the field of engineering, but also in other disciplines such as the Humanities and Social Sciences. To Benson (1994), the methods (linguistic, cognitive or social) are the uppermost, often visible and sometimes teachable layer of a learning society, which also includes a deeper and secret layer of unspeakable principles, perceptions and convictions. He also claims that listening skills and methods are a requisite but not a sufficient aspect of listening experience. Therefore, learners can never

disregard the process of reading comprehension. As Olsen and Huckin (1990, p. 33) point out, students may recognize all the terms of the lecture (including lexical communication and discourse markers) and yet fail to understand the main points or logical arguments of the lecturer. The use of strategies is therefore important to the interpretation of classes, both for instructors and learners.

2.1.8 Summary

This section discussed the genre of lecture, its characteristics, and the skills and strategies for ensuring listening comprehension in the classroom. It can be said that lecture research helps lecturers and curriculum designers know what to incorporate in the content of the course. On listening comprehension, it is clear that a lecture is meant to instruct, and this has been confirmed by Chaudron and Richards (1986) in their statement that the aim of lectures is to instruct. This is because it helps in presenting a coherent body of information that can be readily understood and remembered. Several distinct modes of lectures have been distinguished within research on the nature of academic discourse. Listening is not an exception as it is an act that complements lecture comprehension. It is worth considering Fortuno's (2006) statement that both native and non-native students must understand phonological unit borders, repetitive delays, hesitations, stress, and intonation patterns. This is because if students follow this advice, it will enable them to gain a better understanding of the lessons given, which will contribute to learning. On lexico-grammatical features, it is summed up in the words of Thornbury and Slade (2006) that topics are broached, commented on, developed, extended, replaced or retrieved and all these conversational fluxes is continuously shaped and negotiated by interactions. The lexico-grammatical features reveal the use of strategies such as linguistic repetition, and these play an important role in lecture comprehension.

2.2 Lecture discourse

Research into lecture discourse mainly informed what to teach and learn, providing information on the linguistic and discourse features of lectures. The following sections discuss those linguistic and discourse aspects of lectures that are important in lectures for both lecturers and learners.

2.2.1 Lecturing styles

A number of styles of lecturing have been identified through various studies. Morrison (1974, published in Jordon 1989) observes and separates lectures into two forms; formal and informal. The former refers to "close spoken prose," and the latter is defined as "high information content, but not necessarily in high formal register" (p. 153). Although somehow useful, the former classification is too simplistic due to the informal register used. Goffman (1981), Dudley-Evans and Johns (1981) and Dudley-Evans (1994) suggest more comprehensive classifications of lecture styles. These studies emphasize that the key to understanding lectures is an appreciation of lecturers' individual styles. Goffman (1981) discusses three modes of lecture: memorization, reading aloud and 'fresh talk' whereas Dudley-Evans and Johns (1981, p. 134) distinguish three styles:

I. The conversational styles, where lecturers give the lecture from notes and with a certain degree of contact with students in a fairly casual manner. This style is characterized by longer tone groups and key sequences from high to low. When the lecturer is in low key at the end of a key sentence, the speaker may significantly increase tempo and vowel reduction, and reduce intensity.

II. Reading style, here, lecturers read and deliver the lecture by reading the notes out. It is characterized by short tone groups, and narrowness of intonation range, in which falling tone predominates, although level tone may also occur.

III. The rhetorical style, where lecturers give a performance with jokes and digressions. It is characterized by the wide intonation range. Here, lecturers often exploit high key and a boosted high key. There are frequent asides and digressions marked by key and tempo-shift, sometimes also by voice quantity-shift. Parallelism may be established between classifications as proposed by Goffman (1981) and Dudley-Evans and Johns (1981), which are similar. That is, Goffman's memorization resembles conversational style and 'fresh talk' and could be compared to Dudley-Evans and John's rhetorical style.

There seems to be a general agreement on defining the informal conversational style as the prevailing way of lecture presentation not only to native, but also non-native audience (e.g. McDonough, 1978; DeCarrico & Nattinger, 1988) even though there is no written evidence about the frequency of use of lecture styles.

In another instance, Frederick (1986) addresses a *participatory lecture*, similar to a more collaborative lecture style that tends to predominate in United States universities rather than in European ones. This may create certain problems for non-native-speakers educated in a much more traditional style of lecturing, causing automatic or unstable listening comprehension. Therefore, students may face problems of a cultural nature, the role and status of university lectures, the difference of degree between lecturers and students, and pure lecture content problems. It is obvious that the social norms of a lecture vary according to cultures and depending on the position lecturers adopt, students may feel either comfortable or be at a loss.

2.2.2 The syntax of lectures

Lecture, as a form of spoken language, may be seen as distinguished by traditional

spoken syntactic features rather than written features (Halliday, 1983). On the contrary, Biber (1988) points out that there is no specific criterion of linguistic variability that separates spoken and written documents. Alternatively, the use of what he refers to as measurements, that is, the clustering of features working together to serve a basic function within the different spoken and written styles, including formal or informal, limited or extended, contextualized or decontextualized, and active or separated. Characteristic-wise, spoken text can sometimes be informal, restricted, contextualized and involved. However, different types of spoken texts may have different characteristics. In spite of this, lectures as organized and purely structured speech activities are thought to share many of the characteristics of written texts, however, this is not always so. Many processes in spoken expression promote the learner's interpretation. The use of linguistic repetition, as an example plays an important role. Some research considers the linguistic repetition to be relevant as a means of cohesion and global structuring of the discourse (e.g. Hymes, 1981; Van Dijk et al, 1972; Ventola, 1987). Analyses and effects of genre of lecture within the discourse of social sciences is a recent study on lectures by Gimenez (2000). In his study, he presents stated evidence of the importance of linguistic repetition in the genre of lecture for logical understanding.

2.2.3 Structural patterns of lectures

Although the structuring and organization of a lecture plays a vital role for the listening and comprehension process, not much research has been conducted in this aspect as compared to other genres (Swales, 1990). The main interest is considering those aspects of lecture structure that might be relevant in training non-native speakers. Thus, much of the research done in the 70s and 80s examined how the information organized in a lecture is signaled (e.g. Cook, 1975; Montgomery, 1977, Murphy & Candlin, 1979, Coulthard & Montgomery, 1981). Cook (1975) distinguishes the two structures within a lecture from each

other; the macro-structure and the micro-structure. The macro-structure of a lecture is made up of a number of expositions. An exposition consists of different classes of episodes, thus; an optimal episode of expectation, an obligatory focal episode, and an obligatory developmental episode, together with optional development episodes and obligatory closing episode. Within the micro-structure, episodes are described in terms of moves: just to illustrate this, a concluding move is a justificatory statement, a focal episode with a concluding function, or a summary statement. A summarizing move gives a summary of the immediately preceding discourse. Cook (1975) in an attempt describes the boundaries of these units but fails to give detailed information about their internal structure.

Young's (1994) recent work attempts to characterize the macro-structure of university lectures and to identify some of the more prominent micro-characteristics that contribute to this framework. Young departs from some studies on the macro-structure of spoken monologic discourse. For the creation of the analysis, it collects a corpus of seven two-hour university lectures in third and fourth year courses. Three lecturers were given to non-native speakers of English from the Western European University in areas such as soil, physics, sociology and economics. The other four courses were assigned to non-native speakers of English at North American universities. A single corpus set could provide a consistent macro-structure through disciplines and levels. Young defines the micro-structure of a lecture in terms of strands or phases, and identifies six phases separated into two groups: three meta-discourse strands which focus on the discourse itself and the other three which mark university lectures. The first three meta-discourse phases proposed by Young (1994, p. 166) are the following:

a. Discourse structuring phase: addressors indicate the direction that they will take in the lecture.

b. Conclusion: here, lecturers summarize points they have made throughout the discourse.

c. Evaluation: the lecturer reinforces each of the other strands by evaluating information about to be or already transmitted.

The two former meta-discoursal phases are more frequent than the latter. The phases which mark university lectures are (Young, 1994, p. 167):

a. Interaction: indicates an important feature of this registries variety.

b. Theory or content: used to reflect the lecturer's purpose, which is to transmit theoretic information.

c. Examples: it is in this phase that the speakers illustrate theoretical concepts through concrete examples familiar to students.

She concludes that when using phases rather than providing a general overview of the macro-structure of a lecture, a more precise scheme of university lectures is provided, in which a layout of a lecture is known as the beginning, middle and end arrangement. As Young (1994, p. 173) points out in reference to the lecture genre, "phrasal analysis seems to provide a realistic picture of the nature of this genre".

2.2.4 The role of discourse markers

In the context of lecture discourse literature, several scholars have concluded that understanding the role of discourse markers and the relationship between the different parts of the text is essential for the understanding of lectures (Coulthard & Montgomery, 1981; Chaudron & Richards, 1986). Several studies have examined features of discourse organization. In an early review, Chaudron (1983) studied the impact of topic signaling in experimental lectures on ESL learners' immediate recollection of subject signaling in experimental lectures on the immediate recall of subject knowledge by ESL learners. In a

later study, Chaudron and Richards (1986) studied the effects of functional communication systems on comprehension. To do this, four classes were given comparisons of four variations of the same lesson. The first edition did not contain any signaling tools, the second one included several, as Chaudron and Richards label them *micro-markers* (lower-order markers linking clauses and phrases). The third version included what they called *macro-makers* (higher-order marks, identifying significant transitions) and the last version, a combination of macro and micro-markers. Four different groups of participants were examined after listening: the key findings showed that macro markers were more conductive than micro markers to effectively remember the lecture" (Chaudron & Richards, 1986, p. 122).

Text studies (e.g. Kintsch &Yarbrough, 1982) found that participants are best able to answer gist and main idea questions with texts that include clear rhetorical cues (discourse markers) than for texts which, while having the same substance, do not include visible rhetorical cues. Kintsch and Yarhrough (1982) argue that a combination of clear rhetorical signals enhances the global perception and retrieval of knowledge. The rhetorical stimuli have been shown to trigger suitable rhetorical schemes and to provide a way of structuring the quality of incoming information. A lecture-oriented input study conducted by Dunkel and Davis (1994) looked at the disparity between reading information indicative of first language listeners and second language listeners with respect to the presence or absence of rhetorical signaling cues (discourse markers). Here, the discourse content was presented with two versions of the same lecture; one type included clear clues suggesting the rhetorical framework of the lecture (obvious form). Two classes of native speakers of English and two groups of non-native speakers of English listened to both the clear and the non-native form of the presentation.

Participants were checked after listening to the results which showed no statistical difference between language proficiency and the rhetorical cuing variables. that is, the existence of the rhetorical signaling cues (discourse markers) had slight impact on the proportional number of words written in the protocols. In addition, participants who listened to the non-obvious form reported more terms in their protocol than those who provided the obvious method comprising the signaling signals. Chaudron and Richards (1986) believe that the audience was learning from signals in speech interactions. This argument could not be proven in Dunkel and Davis' research as to whether the materials and methods used for their study (recall protocols) were shown to be effective in evaluating the perception and retention of knowledge. They noticed a flaw in their study; a lack of testing of topics prior to the background knowledge of the content of the lecture. With this, they proposed that further work on the relationship between the text type (content and structure) and the signaling system is required.

2.2.5 Summary

This section discussed the lecture discourse: lecturing styles where formal and informal forms are discussed. It was revealed that the key to understanding lectures is an appreciation of lecturers' individual styles. It was also realized that the lecturing styles that students appreciate depend on the culture of these students and this is in agreement with Frederick (1986). Frederick supports Dudley-Evans and Johns (1981) that the conversational style of lecture is more favourable than the other styles (reading and rhetorical). The syntax of lecture was also reviewed, structural patterns of lecture were then analyzed. It was realized that the organization of a lecture plays an important role in the comprehension process. In the university lecture, using phases rather than a general overview of a lecture is the best option. This is in agreement with Young (1994) who asserts that when using phases in the university

lecture, the layout of the beginning, middle and end arrangement is the best option. The role of discourse markers in lecture delivery were further discussed in this section and it was explained that students are best able to answer gist and main idea questions with texts that include discourse markers (e.g. Kintsch & Yarbrough, 1982).

2.3 Discourse markers

In linguistics, a discourse marker is a word or phrase that is relatively syntax-independent and does not change the meaning of the sentence, and has a somewhat empty meaning. Examples include the particles 'oh', 'well', 'now', 'then', 'you know', and 'I mean' and the connectives 'so', 'because', 'and', 'but', and 'or'. Although discourse markers are usually considered to be textual units that guide readers or listeners in their comprehension of a written or spoken text, they also act as interpersonal features. According to Chaudron and Richards (1986), discourse markers can be grouped into macro-markers, which are higher-order markers signaling major transitions and emphasis in the lectures, and micro-markers, which are lower-order markers of segmentation and inter sentential connections. The interpersonal features of discourse markers can be readily perceived in macro-markers that specify the lecturer's attitude (e.g., I believe, I think, I agree with), that elicit responses (e.g., what do you think about…?) and that accept responses (e.g., that's absolutely right).

Discourse markers are part of the collection of linguistic features that enhance and promote successful lecture comprehension. Thus from the 70s onwards, research on the lecture comprehension process, whether in L1 or L2, has pointed out the effectiveness of learning about discourse markers for the comprehension of connected discourse (Chaudron & Richards 1986; Cook, 1975; Kintsch & Yarbrough, 1982; Murphy & Candlin, 1979). Researchers may agree on the underlying concept of discourse markers but they use different names to refer to the same term. Thus, we find labels such as cue phrases (Knott & Dale,

1994), discourse connectives (Redeker, 1990), discourse signaling devices (Polanyi & Scha, 1983), and pragmatic connectives (Stubs, 1983).

There are different categories of discourse markers. Fraser (2004) states there are five separate and distinct categories that contribute primarily to DMs:

1. Coordinate Conjunctions*: and, but, or, so, yet…*

2. Subordinate Conjunctions*: after, although, as, as far as, as if, as long as, if, …*

3. Adverbials: *anyway, besides, consequently, furthermore, still, however, then…*

4. Prepositional Phrases: *above all, after all, as a consequence, in fact, in general….*

5. Prepositions: *despite, in spite of, instead of, rather than….*

Under the semantic point of view, Fraser (2004) proposes a marginal DMs classification as follows:

1. Contrastive Markers (CDMs): *but, alternatively, although, conversely, despite (this/that), in spite of (this/that), in contrast to…*

2. Elaborative Markers (EDMs): *and, above all, also, besides, by the same token, equally, for example, in particular….*

3. Implicative Markers (IDMs): *so, after all, all things considered, as a conclusion, as a consequence, hence, accordingly, then, therefore…*

4. Temporal Markers (TDMs): *then, after, as soon as, before, eventually, finally, first, meantime, meanwhile…*

It is widely acknowledged that unprepared spoken utterances and more commonly oral communications include a number of speech activities that do not directly contribute to the final message. Nonetheless, the level of conversation is very concerned with such events because they lead to the efficient execution of communication and the application of interpersonal knowledge. These objects may be classified as words (oh, huh, uh, um, etc.) and

they share some common contextual features and are also identified as discourse markers (Campbell, 2007; Schifrin, 1987; Ward, 2006) or filled pauses (Shriberg, 1994).

2.3.1 Terminology

In most researches, including this one, DMs are characterized as intra-sentential and supra-sentential linguistic units that serve a mostly non-proposal and connective role at the level of discourse. They signify changes in the evolving communication phase, index the connection of the speech to the previous context, and show an engaging interaction between the author, the audience, and the message. Discourse markers (DMs) have been labeled sentence connectives (Halliday & Hasan, 1976), discourse particles (Goldberg, 1980; Schourup, 1985), utterance particles (Luke, 1987, 1990), semantic conjuncts (Quirk et al, 1985), pragmatic expressions (Erman, 1987), discourse operators (Redeker, 1991), and continuatives (Romero Trillo, 1997). The multiplicity of terms concerning DMs represents broad research interests and analytical categories, as well as difficulties in accounting for them adequately in theoretical terms.

Schiffrin's (1987) study of DMs is based on the theory of discourse coherence. She describes DMs as sequentially related elements that connect the units of talk (Schiffrin, 1987, p. 31). They are sequentially based in that the speech units before and after the speech marker are representative of the kind of social and realistic context that the speaker expresses or infers. Schiffrin proposes that the markers in her study serve as contextual coordinates for utterances by locating them on one or more planes of talk (ideational structure, action structure, exchange structure, participation framework, and information state). She also maintains that coherence is constructed through relations between adjacent units in discourse by virtue of their semantic and syntactic properties and, most importantly, by virtue of their sequential position as initial or terminal units (Schiffrin, 1987, pp. 35-40).

Further influential research has been undertaken by Fraser (1990, 1996, 1999) who approaches DMs (labeled 'pragmatic markers' in Fraser 1996) from a grammatical-pragmatic perspective. Slightly different from Schiffrin's (1987) definition, which includes vocalisations such as *oh*, Fraser limits DMs to linguistic expressions which signal a relationship that the speaker intends between the utterance a DM introduces and the foregoing utterance. In these definitions, DMs have a core meaning, which is procedural, rather than conceptual. Based on the relevance theory, Blakemore (1992) claims that *discourse connectives* are used to indicate how the relevance of one discourse segment is dependent on another. That is, they "impose constraints on relevance by virtue of the inferential connections they express" (Blakemore, 1987, p. 141). Like Fraser, Blakemore suggests that discourse connectives do not contribute to a representational meaning, but have a mainly procedural or pragmatic meaning, which encodes instructions for processing propositional representations of the utterances.

While taking into account the indexical potential of DMs, more recent work by Aijmer (2002) emphasizes that as a result of grammaticalization, conventionalized core meanings for individual markers can be identified. Given the relative lack of semantic or propositional content in pragmatic markers, they generally fall outside the propositional component, though they derive diachronically from it' (Brinton, 1996, p. 38). In Aijmer's account, DMs are indexed to attitudes, to participants and to the text; therefore, they have discourse functions, both on the textual and then the interpersonal level (Aijmer, 2002) and must be described in terms of discourse contexts that extend beyond turn boundaries.

2.3.2 Defining discourse markers

The study of DMs has already attracted attention from scholars in this field. From different perspectives, DMs were widely discussed. Regardless of the wide study of DMs, the

name and definition of this phenomenon has not been agreed on. A discourse marker in linguistics is a word or phrase that is relatively syntax-independent and does not change the meaning of the sentence and has somewhat an empty meaning. Examples include words such as these, 'oh', 'well', 'now', 'then', 'you know', and 'I mean' and the connectives 'so', 'because', 'and', 'but' and 'or'. Ostman (1982) describes DMs as rational particles with prototypic, central and peripheral components. Levinson (1983) indicates that DMs are signs that indicate the connection between the utterance and the previous expression. Stubbs (1983) sees DMs as elements that define the connection between syntactic units and the sense of discourse.

Schiffrin (1987) received early insight when she suggested that DMs are sequentially dependent components that sustain the units of talk which help to make the conversation coherent. She also suggested that the DMs connect directly to the *talk units* before and after that. Such systems help to determine the DM alternative and the intended perception of the speakers and the inferences of the listeners. This analysis is based on the data of the native speaker corpus, which indicates that one role of the DMs is to organize interaction, which is described in five separate planes: information state, participation framework, ideational structure, action structure and exchange structure (Schiffrin, 1987, pp. 35-40). Redeker provides a definition of a DM (which she terms as discourse operator) slightly different from Schiffrin's; a discourse operator is, for example, a word or phrase, a conjunction, adverbial, comment clause and interjection which is expressed with the primary purpose of drawing the attention of the listener to a particular kind of connection between the forthcoming utterance and the immediate context of the discourse.

Fraser (1996, 1999) further advances the work of both Redeker (1991) and Schiffrin (1987) with some difference in emphasis. He suggested that DMs have a procedural meaning

and that they relate to the discourse segment of the previous segment. It suggests that Fraser is different from what he acknowledges to be a DM. For example, he advises that adverbs such as 'frankly' are not DMs because they are 'commentary markers' and do not indicate a two-way relationship between adjacent discourse segments (Fraser, 1999). He also proposes that "pause markers" such as 'well' and 'um' and interjections such as 'wow' are not DMs for the same reason. More recently, Aijmer (2002) provided a corpus-based study of a number of DMs (defined here as 'discourse particles'). Her work has found common ground with some of the analysis that has already been addressed.

For instance, it agrees with Fraser (1999) that DMs do not have a propositional logic (Aijmer, 2002). She also accepts that one part of the speech cannot be limited to DMs. Also, Aijmer proposes that DMs may be analysed on two macro-levels; "textual and interpersonal" (Aijmer, 2002, p. 13). The description was further established by Fung & Carter (2007), who examined spoken corpus to propose four macro levels: structural, referential, interpersonal, and cognitive, with each subdivided into a micro function. It is quite difficult to decide which linguistic item to consider as a DM. From the definitions, it could be concluded that DMs are those linguistic items that signal coherence relation, mark pauses, transitions, or any other aspect of communication. The functional definition of DMs is a useful model of analysis because it highlights both its textual and interpersonal use. This means DMs do not only help speech coherence but also perform, sometimes simultaneously other interpersonal roles, such as showing interest.

2.3.3 Characteristics of DMs

Throughout her *Pragmatics*, Levinson considers DMs as a class worthy of study on its own merits. There are many words and phrases in English, and there is no doubt that most of the languages reflect the relationship between an utterance and the previous expression.

Examples are utterance-initial usages of ‘but’, ‘therefore’, ‘in conclusion’, ‘to the contrary’, ‘still’, ‘however’, ‘anyway’, ‘well’, ‘besides’, ‘actually’, ‘all in all’, ‘so’, ‘after all’, and so on. It is generally admitted that these words have at least a component of meaning that resists truth-conditional treatment. It seems that, often in rather complex ways, they are showing how the sentence that contains them is a response to or a continuation of some aspect of the previous discourse (1983, pp. 87-88).

Although Levinson does not give a specific word, she identifies the main characteristics and functions of DMs. Zwicky (1985) also believes that the DMs must be isolated from other function words, often appearing at the beginning of sentences to continue the conversation, and that they are also prosodically independent, being both accented and prosodically separated from their surrounding context by pauses, intonation breaks or both. Usually, discourse markers have a common property, thus, they have a central meaning that is procedural rather than conceptual and their main function is defined locally and globally by the context. First of all, DMs are used as a link between the discourse section they are included in and some parts of a portion of the previous discourse. Secondly, DMs are grammatically optional and do not modify the standards of fact in utterances.

2.3.4 Summary

The section explored the various terminologies used for discourse markers and the definitions associated with these markers. These markers since the 70’s: Cook 1975, through the 90s: Redeker (1990), and to the 20s such as Fraser (2004), have been given different terms. The various categories of discourse markers as outlined by Fraser (2004) was also discussed. For example, Fraser proposed five distinct categories of DMs. Terminologies for discourse markers were then discussed. Some of these are discourse particles (Goldberg, 1980), discourse operators (Redeker, 1991), discourse markers (Schiffrin, 1987), among

others. The definition for DMs from different perspectives was also discussed. Schiffrin (1987) came out with a suggestion that DMs are sequentially dependent elements while Fraser (1991) considers them as having procedural meaning. Finally, the characteristics of DMs were also examined. Here, Levinson (1983) suggests that DMs are words or phrases, for instance, *actually, all in all, well, but, in conclusion*, among others. Zwicky (1985) also suggests that DMs are used as link between discourse sections and are grammatically optional.

2.4 Conceptual framework

This section discusses the various concepts underlying the study to provide a basis for the ensuing analysis as well as a context for interpreting the findings of the study. First I review the concept of the discourse markers as it was first defined by Chaudron and Richards (1986), then I examine their work focusing on their types and functions in lecture delivery. Similarly, work done by Flowerdew and Tauroza (1995) is also discussed.

In respect of DMs the aims of the present study are in two-fold:

1. To offer a broad description of DMs in lecture setting, using data from Chaudron and Richards (1986) which view discourse marker types;

2. Based on these types, bring out differences in the use of DMs in lecture delivery of students of Kumasi Technical University thereby discussing the functions of these markers as used in communication skills lectures.

2.4.1 Chaudron and Richards (1986)

Chaudron and Richards (1986) in their study investigated how different categories of discourse markers affect how well foreign students understand university lectures. Prior to this study, Chaudron (1983) studied the effects of topic signaling in experimental lectures on ESL learners' immediate recall of the topic information and it came out that recall was

significantly better for a repeated topic than for more complex signaling of the topic change. He also suggested that the speakers use of signals such as 'well', 'so' 'now' serve as filled pauses giving listeners more time to process individual segments of a piece of discourse. He further explained that such pauses provide further time for processing and assist in segmenting discourse into meaningful units for higher level processing. However, the exact functional effects of the different kinds of markers were not clarified. In view of this, Chaudron and Richards 1986 studied the effects of discourse markers on the comprehension of lectures where the framework for the present study was carved.

The study identified micro, macro and micro-macro versions of discourse markers. A comparison was made according to the hypothesized direction of effect between these three in the lecture version. Thus, the micro-macro version was tested against the macro, and the micro against the base line. This comparison was also made to determine which versions were different from others. The results showed that macro version were significantly superior to micro version well as the micro-macro version. The micro-macro version seems to produce better results than the micro version. A stylized representation of the categories of discourse markers is shown in Figure 2.4. It was revealed that macro markers, that is, the higher order discourse markers signaling major transitions and emphasis in the lectures, are more conducive to successful recall of the lecture than micro markers, that is, lower order markers of segmentation and inter sentential connections. The micro macro markers were also equaled to the macro markers in its usage. Macro marker, according to Chaudron and Richards, led to better recall of the text material than micro markers in light of the theory of information processing and top-down comprehension of discourse. They came out with the findings that learners are evidently aided in organizing the major ideas in the lecturer's signals of major segment and emphasis. These help them construct major portions of the lecture. The further

addition of micro markers to the macro markers achieves the same result as the macro version alone. Chaudron and Richards (1986, p. 116) noted that discourse markers have diverse functions. They facilitate comprehension of spoken text by acting as filled pauses, giving listeners more time to process the speech signal and making them more explicit. A lecture which uses more macro markers is likely to be easier to follow. These markers, micro, macro and micro-macro markers, have numerous functions which include topic closing, discourse organization and reformulating and can therefore be concluded that the study of discourse markers in highly important for both the language teacher and the curriculum developer and also for teachers and lecturers who teach content subjects to non-learners (Chaudron & Richards, 1986).

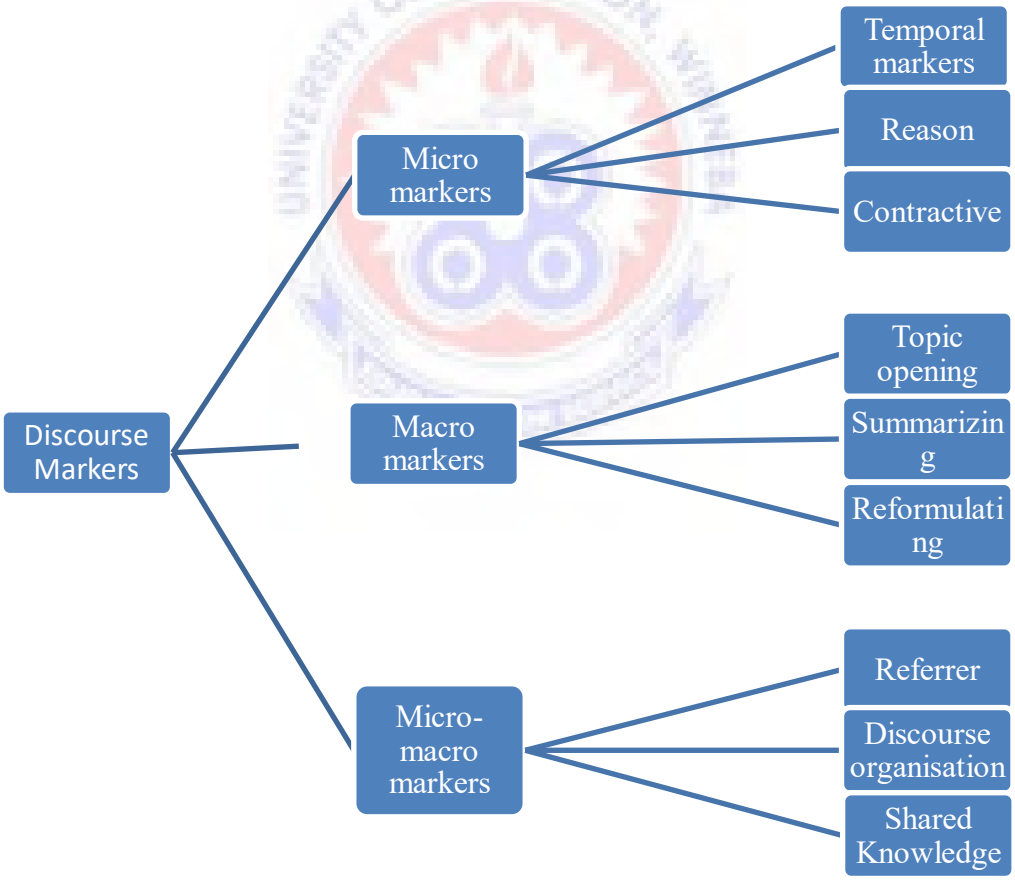

Figure 2.4. Categories of discourse markers (adopted from Chaudron & Richards, 1986)

2.4.2 Flowerdew and Tauroza (1995)

In relation to the points above, a number of authors established that there is a relationship between discourse markers and different parts of the text (e.g. Alonso et al, 2002; Asr & Demberg, 2013; Ben-Anath, 2005; Bestgen, 1998; Coulthard & Montgomery, 1981; Fischer, 2000; Fraser, 2006; Lenk, 1998; Redeker, 2000, 2006; Sanders & Noordman, 2000; van Dijk, 1979). From 1975, the function of connectives, which served as the topic continuation indicator, was tested by a study by Cook (1975). As a result, research into the effect of DMs on academic lectures has become a key aspect of second language acquisition with the pioneering experiment by Chaudron and Richards (1986) which has been discussed. Following this, many studies replicated the experiments of Chaudron and Richards, and research on this issue began to grow. Empirical studies concentrate on whether specific DM types promote comprehension of listening. Some of these experiments will go beyond the limits of the effects of DMs on lecture understanding. Others come to the same conclusion as Chaudron and Richards while other findings are conflicting and inconsistent. The conflicting findings attribute greatly to the lecturing styles – reading or conversational, scripted or unscripted - due to the methodological differences as to whether the study is based on experimental lectures or course-embedded lectures.

Flowerdew and Tauroza (1995) attribute this contradiction to controversial methodology and experimental procedural differences-the materials used do not accurately reflect the uses and positioning of discourse markers as they occur in natural L1 discourse. In their research, the authors attempted to test their hypothesis (that subjects better understand a lecture when discourse markers are included than when they are removed) by highlighting recent definitions of the role of discourse markers in the process of understanding, analyzing the discrepancies between naturally occurring lecture discourse, and examining the effects of

systematically manipulating naturally occurring discourse markers. The authors concluded that with all three measures, the subjects who viewed the original version of the lecture scored higher than those who viewed the deleted version.

In the teaching academic listening, another research by Flowerdew and Miller (1997) raised the question of authenticity. The results stress the distinction between genuine lectures from those written texts or planned lectures in micro-structuring. One of the discrepancies I have discussed is the use of discourse markers such as, *and*, *so*, and *but* in real lecture texts. This research also reflects the review of the facilitative impact of DMs on listening comprehension by Flowerdew and Tauroza (1995). Some studies will then begin to control the authentic or interactive material as a variable in the experiments. Thus, the conflict over scripted or unscripted or reading-style or conversational-style flares, and is considered an important element for the approval of the findings. There are, however, still a lot of studies beyond this understanding.

As Flowerdew and Tauroza (1995) point out, unwritten, conversational-style texts should be introduced as a more appropriate research approach in order to find out about the role of DMs in lectures. Scripted texts have a higher lexical density with more nuanced organization and subordination relationships, whereas conversational lectures have a higher proportion of sentence fragments that are arranged according to tone units, and use DMs to mark the beginning or end of tone classes. This may clarify some of the explanations for which previous studies have yielded mixed or even conflicting findings. The view is shared by Flowerdew and Tauroza (1995). As far as the topic of reading vs. conversational teaching styles is concerned, a central issue concerns the types of lectures and the interaction between lecturers and students. Flowerdew (1994) is probably the most comprehensive analysis of academic listening, but behavioural aspects among the abundant publications have not gained

much coverage. It goes without saying that there has recently been a growing interest in this topic. In spite of the monologic nature of academic lectures, more research has found that meta-discourse and proper interaction between lecturers and students contribute to the understanding of lectures.

2.4.3 Classification of discourse markers

As previously stated, it has been a difficult task defining discourse marker. Classifying them also creates inconsistencies because most researchers do not agree on an exclusive and special classification. Disagreements occur as to how the DM class should be described, whether the objects form a single grammatical group, what sort of meaning they represent, and the sense in which those units may be said to contribute to the elements of the discourse. Chaudron and Richards (1986) recommended a distinction between micro-markers (DMs of lower order) and macro-markers (DMs of higher order). According to Chaudron and Richards (1986), macro-markers act as fillers between sentences in the lecture. These fill in gaps, allowing audiences more time to process specific parts of a conversation, thereby providing more space for bottom-up processing. Macro-markers indicate a lecture's macro-structure by identifying and sequencing important information in the lecture. Such discourse signals the interpretation of top-downs. Under this dual category, the objective of Chaudron and Richard was to provide DMs with a broad taxonomy.

2.4.3.1 Micro markers

Chaudron and Richards (1986) provided a taxonomy focused on five abstract concepts for micro-markers: segmentation, temporality, causality, contrast and emphasis. Emphasis is understood as a semantic category, including DMs from segments of discourse such as *well* or *ok*. The contrast group reflects the opposing relationship between the discourse. Temporal and causal categories support DMs, whether temporal or causal links.

Relative emphasis can be expressed with DMs such as '*of course'*, '*you see'* or '*in fact'*, all of which fall within the semantic category of emphasis. Markers under segmentation include '*well'*, '*ok'*, '*now'*, '*and'*, '*right'*, and '*all right'*. Temporal markers include '*at the time'*, '*and'*, '*after this'*, '*for the moment'* '*eventually'*. Causal markers also include '*so'*, '*then'*, '*because'* while contrast markers include '*both'*, '*but'*, '*only'*, '*on the other hand'* and finally, markers for emphasis include '*of course'*, '*you can'*, '*you see'*, '*actually'*, '*obviously'*, '*unbelievably'*, '*as you know'*, '*in fact'*, and 'naturally'.

This taxonomy however, is exclusively based on semantic relations across the discourse avoiding the domains provided by the state-of-the art research on DMs (e.g. Blakemore, 1987; Fraser, 1990, 1991, 2004; Schiffin, 1987) and therefore clearly misinterpreting, the signposting role carried by DMs within interaction (Schiffrin 1987). Moreover, labeled categories are not morphologically and syntactically homogeneous. From this point of view, we might conclude that the intention is not to highlight as we create a contrast relationship through utterances.

2.4.3.2 Macro markers

As far as the definition of macro-markers goes, and in comparison to what they did for micro-markers, Chaudron and Richards (1986) did not distinguish each semantic group. On the opposite, for the production of their research, a list of the macro-markers included in the lecture was given. The list included the signals for the key transition points in the lecture. The macro-markers alluded to by Chaudron and Richards in their work include:

"what'm going to talk about today is something"

"what [had] happened [then/after that] was [that]"

"we'll see that"

"That / this is why"

“To begin with”

“The problem [here] was that”

“This that is why”

‘To begin with” among others.

Although Chaudron and Richard’s study dealt with university lecture formats as they do with this work and how DMs affect student lecture comprehension, the classification they propose is the outcome of an analysis of a small sample corpus, a single American history lecture in four different versions. From this, it can be argued that it is not important to consider it as a single model for the classification of DMs as a single document.

Previously, Murphy and Candlin (1979) had already developed a complete taxonomy for the classification of macro markers, based on the study of engineering lectures. Nevertheless, this macro-marker categorization is absent in the Chaudron and Richards classifications; the explanation could be that the macro-markers identified in Chaudron and Richards’ (1986) analysis did not clearly fit into either Murphy’s or Candlin’s. With respect to macro markers and contrary to Chaudron and Richards (1986) who did not label categories, Murphy and Candlin (1979) introduced the following divisions of macro markers; beginning with discourse elicitation, which involves words or phrases that produce knowledge. Attitudinal, where the speaker takes a position on the discourse content, informative, words used to emphasize important, component, used to express additional information, aside considered as an attempt to deviate from the ongoing discourse, meta statement, which includes all the words and expressions used to strengthen and validate points in the discourse and conclusion, including final remarks.

2.4.3.3 Micro-macro markers

Micro macro markers are markers that combine one micro marker and another macro marker. These markers function as micro-macro discourse markers. They usually perform a macro function when used in discourse. Fraser (2004), Thornbury & Slade (2006) and Schiffrin (2001) introduced the idea of discourse marker collocation. Some of these are *so you see, alright let's move on*, *ok let's move back* among others. They explain that discourse markers may be used in succession when they are combined and therefore there is no need for restrictions on the number of markers to be used at a time.

2.4.4 The functions of discourse markers

Research on the functions of discourse markers consists mainly of semantic-pragmatic research and cognitive-pragmatic research paradigms. Schourup, Erman, Schiffrin, and Fraser et al are studies which focus on semantic-pragmatic research approach. They focus on the semantic characteristics of discourse markers to discuss the pragmatic functions embodied in the markers. They agree that discourse indicators play a complex and important role in the coherence of discourse. This is to say that the use of discourse markers makes lectures more coherent and comprehensible. Jucker and Ziv (1998, p. 4) outline the four main functions and directions of discourse markers: (a) from the perspective of discourse, a discourse marker is an important means of discourse structure, including all the attachments that separate speech units into sequence, (b) from the point of view of modality, discourse marker is a means of pragmatic marker, (c) from the point of view of communication, discourse markers are a means of indicating and understanding interpersonal relationships between the two parties, and (d) from the perspective of cognition, discourse markers are a means of helping and guiding communicators to deal with discourse behaviour.

Based on Brinton's research, Müller (2005) believes that discourse markers have several functions, thus arousing discourse, marking the boundaries between discourse, predicting answers or reflections, and acting as filler for discourse or delay skills. Other functions are helping the speaker to stand firm, forming good interaction between the speaker and the listener, marking the anaphoric and back discourse, and marking the foreground or background information. From the point of view of meta-pragmatic approaches, Verschueren claims that the discourse marker is a linguistic tool that demonstrates the meta-pragmatic consciousness of the speaker, which is used to signify the coherence relation between the discourse and the other parts of the speech; or that it is a mindset or cognitive feature that indicates the substance of the content of the proposition of the speaker's dialogue (Verschueren, 2000). Yongping (2000) suggests that markers will cognitively play a leading role in the comprehension of discussions, allowing listeners to recognize dynamic strategic discourse interactions and thus limiting interpretation of discourse.

Discourse is a form of language use that encompasses the practical aspects of a communicative situation, according to van Dijk (1997). It means that people utilize language to communicate their feelings, beliefs and desires in social situations; in encounters with friends, in class or at a lecture. This also indicates that in these communicative events, respondents are not restricted to using the language they communicate. As Douglas (2001) points out, discourse analysis is the examination of the language used by members of the speech community, which involves examining both the language form and the language function. Language in this study is regarded as social interaction among adult students within a classroom culture. As mentioned earlier, the existence of discourse markers is a specific aspect of classroom engagement and language usage.

As found by Fraser (1999), the word has different meanings for different groups of scholars, and a number of brands often conduct experiments on DMs. Labov and Fanshel (1977, p. 156) made an early reference for DMs as a linguistic entity in discussing a question by Rhoda that began with ‘well’. Sadeghi and Yarandi (2014) propose that as a discourse marker, ’well’ refers to a subject that is already shared knowledge among the participants. When the first element of a discourse or theme is the marker ‘well’, this reference is necessarily a matter of common concern (Brown & Yule, 1989). Discourse markers are metalingual comments where the speaker speaks directly on how to interpret what he utters. It is obvious that the thematized metalingual statements are not aligned with the portrayal of the information that the receivers are constructing. They are only given directions on the form and framework of mental representation that they should create (Bright, 1992). Discourse markers or verbal hiccups such as ‘um’, ‘uh’, ‘like’, and ‘you know’, are characterized as a collection of linguistic items that function in the cognitive, social, expressive, and textual domains.

Fraser (1993) suggests that discourse markers are a kind of pragmatic commentary marker. He divides discourse markers into discourse theme markers, discourse activity markers, and message relationship markers. There is a list of markers for each form. Fraser (1998) describes the discourse marker as a vocabulary term that indicates the relationship between the two contrasts (John is fat but Mary is thin), implication (John is here, so we can start the party), or elaboration (John went home). Fraser (1999) further describes discourse markers as a group of lexical expressions derived primarily from conjunctures, adverbs and prepositional phrases. Bussman (2006) states that the use of expression signs makes it possible for speakers to develop their language skills, makes them feel more comfortable in their conversational skills, and enables them to plan their ideas before communicating

publicly. Markers such as ‘um’, ‘like’, ‘uh’, ‘you know’, ‘well’, and ‘by the way’, aid communicators in linguistic consistency and coherence. In fact, discourse markers can be substituted with the pauses of the conversation and replete them. Sidner (1985) points out that discourse indicators are necessary in order to understand the connection between the expected acts and the actual intentions of the speaker. In brief, although there are many analyses of discourse markers by Chinese and foreign students, the analysis of discourse markers by college students in English in the EFL/ESL classroom is still very scanty. It is therefore important to analyze the forms, quantities, contingent terms and their textual roles of discourse markers.

2.4.5 Summary

The review has revealed that discourse markers aid in organizing major ideas in lecture (Chaudron & Richards, 1986). These markers; micro, macro and micro-macro, perform various functions that include topic closing, discourse organizing, and reformulating. Research shows that a lecture usually lacks consistency without discourse markers and therefore leads to a misunderstanding of the text. Through the repeated use of DMs, one can achieve the purpose of continuing the discourse and promoting the smooth flow of words in lecturing. Flowerdew, in support of this assertion, points out that unwritten conversation style text is a more appropriate research approach in order to find out about the role of discourse markers. In this section, the conceptual framework, the categories of discourse markers with micro, macro, micro-macro markers as well as their functions have also been discussed.

2.5 Empirical studies

Over the last few decades, research on DMs has become a growth industry in linguistics, with dozens of articles occurring annually, and many approaches to this have been found over this time. The use of DMs illustrates one of the key aspects of the normal spoken

dialogue. In turn, speech therapists and language teachers can hardly afford to ignore its significance in communication. Numerous researchers have investigated the positive effects of the use of discourse signs in the lecture discourse (Chaudron & Richards, 1986; Flowerdew & Tauroza, 1995; Williams, 1992). The emergence of more global discourse markers and phrases signals a shift in the subject that appears to help recall in lectures (MacDonald et al, 2004). Flowerdew and Tauroza (1995) found that the presence or absence of lower-level dialogue indicators, terms used by speakers to describe the interaction between the conversation areas, such as, 'so', 'ok', 'well', and 'now', improves understanding (p. 449) Inspired by the research of Chaudron and Richards (1986), Perez and Macia (2002) performed an exploratory study to find the extent to which discourse markers affect comprehension as perceived and also to check whether students notice the presence or absence of discourse markers in a lecture. The results suggest that the degree of language proficiency of the students in English and the different types of discussion indicators present in lectures are two factors that influence the rate of listening comprehension.

Schiffrin (1987) describes how certain words and phrases indicate interpretation of expression by studying different types of discourse. She concluded that, depending on the situation of the speaker, each common marker in the collective lexicon has different functions. It also includes an operational description of discourse markers, providing evidence that discourse markers have functions such as fostering text coherence and cohesion. Similarly, Tamm (2011) argues that expressions by fluent speakers are often packed with shortened types such as contraction, elision, assimilation and reduction. These forms usually have a positive effect on speeding up one's speech rate because they often lead to the disappearance of the border between words, omission of end vowels and consonants and substitution of elements within words. Fluent speakers also produce phrases that appear

in elliptical forms. As a result, when the context is clear, subjects, articles, verbs and pronouns are frequently deleted. Fox and Schrock (1999) suggest that the existence of DMs, such as 'well' and 'I mean', is one of the most prominent features of spontaneous speaking. Kent (2009), further explains that the skillful use of discourse markers often indicates a higher level of fluency in both spoken and written English.

Also, Miracle (1991), from his work, investigated the discourse marker 'hao' (ok) in Taipei from recordings of radio and some authentic conversation records. He adopted Schifrin's (2007[1987]) discourse coherence as his framework and used Geis' model (1991) as discourse break down which describes social actions in three types of meaning; international act (I-act) literal act (L-act) and social act (S-act). Centred on his outcomes, Miracle concludes that 'hao' (ok) has the key aim of closure and transition in all of these aspects of discourse structure; the social structure, the turn structure, the idea structure, and information structure (Miracle, 1991, p. 121).

An article by Fox and Schrock (2002) titled '*Discourse Markers in Writing'* describes DMs such as 'you know' and 'I mean' by considering their meanings and roles in an impulsive writing. They compared the interpretation of discourse markers in online debates to propose functions of those markers identified in other settings. It was discovered that although DMs vary in frequency in spoken as opposed to written domains, they are used similarly across domains but with particular communicative functions that make them non-interchangeable. They also noted that discourse markers can be divided into whether they are attitudinal, tailored, temporally sensitive, or cohesive and their membership in a category is predictive of the likelihood that they will be used in speaking or writing. They concluded that these markers are used to indicate that seemingly irrelevant subsequent information is

actually of importance to discourse (Blakemore, 2002) and does not affect listeners' and readers' interpretation, thus, agreeing with the relevance theorist.

Similarly, Fuller (2003) uses 'like' as a discourse marker with the aim of specifying its functions including semantic, pragmatic, and socio-pragmatic meanings. The analysis examines the use of 'like' by both interviewers and interviewees and the effects of different speakers' roles on its use in these data. He argues that there is no evidence that the use of 'like' by one speaker provides a meaning for the use of like by the other speaker. Rather, the variance in the use of 'like' tends to be influenced largely by the quality of the speaker's own expression and whether she feels (based on her presumption of common ground) that this language ought to be eligible or centred. The use of 'like' is a response to the speakers' perceived need to express interpretation and emphasis. The basis of coherence is what Schiffrin (2007) used in the research. The study shows that the connection between the positions of speakers and the relationship of the interlocutors influences the use and transmission of certain DMs. She shows, with illustrations, that some indicators such as, well, oh and you know, apart from the like, show different trends of use based on different speech contexts.

Csilla (2010) explains the main philosophical issues related to DMS. It shows some problems in referring to and characterizing discourse symbols (through a study of the relevant literature) that some of their supposedly known properties are oversimplified or incorrect. It also aims to illustrate important practical elements of the concept of the category of discourse markers and to address the status of multi-word discourse markers. Csilla first explores the words used to describe DMS, contrasts them and proposes a way to eliminate terminological contradictions. He then discusses the related semantic-pragmatic and formal-syntactic properties of discourse symbols, reflects on the problems with these features and contrasts

them with the findings of the most recent research. From this, he presents a description of which features turned out to be defensible and less significant.

The question of multi-word DMs arises and is discussed with the goal of clarifying why many utilitarian academics see them as less relevant than one-word markers and how certain forms of these constructions can be delimited from one another. Proposal for a definition of discourse labeling objects with the same feature but different forms, are finally made. He sums up, focusing on the idea that discourse markers essentially execute textual roles, and that behaviour markers must be isolated as a distinct group of pragmatic markers. He argues that the classification of roles may be theoretical considering the method of the coherence theory (Lenk, 1998; Redeker, 1990; Schiffrin 1987) more suitable for the definition of discourse markers and disagrees with arguments that it is adequate to carry out and extend empirical research in the expectation that it will take us out of the terminological maze we meet today. Rather, he believes that functional descriptions, taxonomy, and further research should be built on a sound theoretical basis accepted by everybody.

Flowerdew and Tauroza (2003) measured the effect of the presence or absence of discourse markers such as 'so', 'right', 'well', 'ok' and 'now' by considering Schiffrin's interpretation on second language lecture comprehension. This research parallels the analysis of Chaudron and Richard (1986) and Dunkel and Davis (1994), which concentrated on two forms of markers: micro and macro markers, and shows that discourse markers do not enable L2 listeners to recognize and interact with English-medium lectures. Their findings clearly indicate that students understand the lecture better when discourse markers are included than when they are deleted which contradicts earlier research. This is to say that they agree to Schiffrin's assertion that discourse markers help in comprehending lecture discourse. This role leads them to the final approach to the interpretation of discourse markers that were

reviewed, referred to by Segal et al (1991) as the mental model-deictic shift view. According to this view, as listeners process a text, they infer according to a particular reference or mental mode. As subsequent texts are processed, the current mental model can either continue to apply or be discontinued.

Likewise, Castro (2009) investigated classroom interaction in the context of English as a foreign language with the teacher being a non-native speaker of the language. She used data from an EFL class to describe the occurrence and frequencies of DMs in classroom and also provided an account for its main functions as they were used by the teacher. The study focused on eleven discourse markers; 'oh', 'well', and (particles), 'but', 'so', 'because' (conjunctions) 'now', 'then' (time deictic) and 'you know', 'I mean' (lexicalized clauses). After analysis, it was found that DMs were used by both the teacher and the students with the main functions in classroom interaction as structural, pragmatic, and interactional purposes. Castro agrees with Muller (2005) and Schiffrin (2001) that discourse markers tell us not only about linguistic properties (semantic, pragmatic meanings and functions) and the organization of social interactions, but also about cognitive, expressive, social, and textual competence of its users. The study also showed that DMs were effectively used by the non-native teachers to organize their discourse in the classroom and to also fulfill interpersonal and pragmatic functions.

In relation to this, Tehrani and Dastjerdi (2012) investigated the effects of discourse markers in lectures on students' composition; thus, whether the use of discourse in lectures has positive effect on producing more cohesive texts or not. Because this research was conducted with advanced level learners, two groups were created and assigned different tasks: G I - Group 1 and G 2- Group 2. To be able to compare the comprehension of the participants from a text, discourse markers were used in the lecture of group 1 (G 1) and in

the other lecture for group 2 (G 2),but no discourse marker was used. The researcher finally identified and counted the cohesive devices used in G 1 and computed them. His findings indicated that G 1 used more cohesive devices in their writing and therefore produced more coherent text. It was concluded that the use of discourse markers facilitated their comprehension and had positive effect on producing more cohesive compositions. Although the framework for this work is not explicitly stated, it could be deduced from his use of coherence that Schifrin's Coherence Theory was adopted.

Similarly, Carter and Jones (2013) also report on a mixed methods classroom research carried out at a British University. The study investigated the effectiveness of two different explicit teaching frameworks. Illustration-Interaction-Induction (III) and Present-Practice and Produce (PPP) were used to teach the same discourse markers. The results showed that both frameworks had an impact on the output of the targets DMs, in that they increased the usage to a greater extent than no teaching at all. This substantiates the claims made for explicit teaching methodologies (Norris & Ortega, 2000, 2001), that they do have some impact on the language students acquire, which they may not always learn from the English-speaking environment. The use of PPP framework is considered more effective because it resulted in a greater ability of students to use DMs in the short term but was not sustained over time.

In spite of the monologic nature of academic lectures, more research has found that meta-discourse and proper interaction between lecturers and students contribute to the understanding of lectures. Thompson (2003) argued that L2 students face the task of interpreting in real time, a monologue that is both linguistically and cognitively demanding as they attend a lecture. She reported on a comparative study of text organization in six valid undergraduate lectures and 10 selected talks on English for academic purposes (EAP) materials written over the last 25 years. The research reflects on the role of text-structuring

meta-discourse and intonation in communicating the wider structure of academic discussions. She suggests that both meta-discourse and intonation are used by scholarly speakers to help the audience form a coherent *mental map* of the overall conversation and how its sections are interlinked.

In a similar study, Morell (2004) researched into collaborative lecture debate for university students in the EFL classroom. She explains and contrasts the textual and behavioural discursive dimensions (personal pronouns, discourse markers, questions and negotiation of meaning) of three non-interactive and three interactive lectures. Interactive lectures were shown to be distinguished by a higher amount of elicitation markers. The results of the comparative analysis are used to facilitate participation in originally non-interactive lectures. The results point out, however, that work on the interpersonal facets of language will shed light on the significance of engagement for better understanding and improvement in communication skills.

In addition to the consideration of the validity and structure of the lecture, a few studies aim to examine the degree of impact of DMs, namely, on the different levels of detail in the document. Jung (2003a) investigated the impact of voice signaling on L2 learners' hearing and understanding of high- and low-level knowledge in academic lectures. Jung (2003a) summarized the previous studies on the effects of voice signaling on second language listening understanding, focusing specifically on those of Chaudron and Richards, Dunkel and Davis, and Flowerdew and Tauroza. Jung points out that the current contested research results are attributed to methodological pitfalls. Therefore, in his analysis, he tried to explore the relationship between cues and L2 listening comprehension by undertaking a more comprehensive and sophisticated research design that included (a) the use of unwritten lectures; (b) the monitoring of the L2 listening skills of the learners, and (c) the control of the

context of the learners. He concluded that cues play a significant role in L2 listening comprehension, making it easier for L2 learners to grasp high- and low-level content, as well as the mixture of both.

They indicated a community of students listening to a keynote lecture did significantly better in remembering both high-level and low-level knowledge than the non-signaled group listening to a lecture without such cues. Various factors such as text composition, document styles, background knowledge of the learner, L2 listening skills of the learner, appraisal tasks, and text materials were used to explain the discrepancy between his findings and the previous findings. The drawback of the research, as he himself understood, is to explore and validate the impact of explicit instructions in the classroom on L2 learners. His other article, (2003b), in the same year, confirms his findings on the relationship between explicit markers and text comprehension. In a later article, Jung's (2006) results expanded previous research, documenting the supported functions of markers during listening comprehension. Through qualitative analysis, he explored more precisely how L2 learners misinterpret text when the signs are not present in the academic monologue. The results show that the absence of markers seems to make a significant contribution to the interpretation of the text by L2 learners. When these markers are missing, listeners have difficulty understanding the message and communication problems. This research also confirms his previous findings on the function of DMs in the comprehension of academic lectures.

In another study, Zhuang (2012) used the same approach as Jung (2003a), incorporating quantitative and qualitative research. Instead of using high- and low-level information, Zhuang used global and low-level information. In this, she tried to study the cognitive process of comprehension, analyzing the feedback of listeners on the tasks. While the degree of control was found in both experiments, Zhuang failed to control background

noise, contributing to contradictory findings among high-profile learners on their overview assignments. The result of the analysis corresponds with Jung's (2003a) that conjunctives facilitate EFL learners' listening comprehension in a lecture setting. He further confirmed that learners who listen to texts with conjunctives comprehend more information, both on a global level and on a local level, than those who are exposed to the texts without conjunctives. The significant difference between Jung and Zhuang's research is that Jung used spontaneous lectures that are more natural, while Zhuang used scripted lectures.

Since the introduction of the immersive form of lecture, further findings have moved from the general results of DMs to the effects of specific types of DMs in lecture comprehension. For instance, the goal of Eslami-Rasekh and Eslami-Rasekh (2007) was to gain insight into the impact of discourse markers on scholarly listening understanding of university students in an English foreign language environment. Two groups of students listened to two different versions of the lesson. The two variants varied by quantity and form of discourse markers. Specific attention was paid to two forms of DMs, namely, textual and interpersonal. The findings show that the more extensive use of frame markers facilitates the listening comprehension of EAP students. This pattern provides the listeners with repetition and reinforcement of the content. The results of this study lend further support to the idea that discourse markers have a positive impact on comprehension. However, this study is somewhat limited as only multiple choice tests of listening comprehension were used.

A research by Rido (2010) looked at the role of discourse markers as an interpersonal-interactive tool in a science lecture in a second-language environment in Malaysia. This work utilized a qualitative approach, although data were collected by non-participating evaluation and video recordings of two science lectures at the Faculty of Science and Technology in Malaysia. Rido defined different discourse markers and evaluated them according to the

Chaudron and Richards' categories: macro markers and micro markers. Throughout his research, Rido observed that macro markers such as 'that means', 'I mean', 'which means that', 'now', and 'so', 'anyway', signify the change of gestures and show the transfer from one subject or subtopic to another. In the meantime, micro markers, such as 'and', 'or' and 'because', indicate an existing or ideal partnership within sentences. His results are also aligned with some of the previous studies. Hence, it appears that the structuring of interactive discourse is used to direct audiences through on-going expression and has been shown to have a positive effect on lecture comprehension.

2.6 Conclusion

Empirical studies of discourse markers were conducted in this section. Different writers like Fuller (2003), Miracle (1991), Fox and Shrock (1999), Csilla (2010), and Morell (2004) were discussed. The results indicate that the use of discourse markers is very significant. They all agree that the use of discourse markers helps in comprehension. From the discussion, there is no gainsaying that discourse markers have long been a central concern in the field of pragmatics, relating to those components of discourse which convey structural sense and allow communicators to transmit purpose. Researchers have given different names to this linguistic phenomenon, such as discourse particles, discourse operators, discourse markers, pragmatic expressions, and cue words among others. Again, DMs are graded into conjunctions, phrases or clauses.

Using this concept, the value of DMs and their use in the ESL classroom can be clearly demonstrated to the students of Kumasi Technical University. Students also learn that DMs are important tools that a lecturer can use to hold them in contact with the creation and flow of information.

This also acts as a way of communicating to the audience the connection between the present and the previous discussion in order to provide a basis for the educator to assess the deficiency of students in the use of DMs. Understanding the strength and weakness of the learners would make it possible for the instructor to prepare to instruct efficiently. Students can be classified on the basis of their strengths and weaknesses. The purpose of probing DMs is also to discover their different types and to decide the core function of each marker from these uses. Such knowledge will not only contribute to our understanding of English, but will also have practical value for both students and teachers of English, especially in the development of natural sound dialogues and teaching.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

The study explores the discourse manifestations in the lecture discourse of lecturers and students of Kumasi Technical University. To explore the markers used in these lectures, various recordings of lecturers were selected for the study. This chapter discusses the methods adopted for this study. This includes the description of the research approach, selection of participants, data collection procedure, as well as transcription and the analysis of the data collected.

3.1 Research approach

The study employs a qualitative approach. This is because the object of the study is naturally occurring data: lecture discourse, where the informational contents of the data are categorized, described, and interpreted, to establish the 'what', the 'why' and the 'how' of the discourse markers used in these lectures. According to Lambert and Lambert (2012), a qualitative descriptive approach is data-driven where codes are generated from the data for a straight forward description of the phenomenon under study. Thus, the qualitative descriptive approach will enable me to discover themes or generalizations from evidence to organize the data to present a coherent and reliable picture of the role of discourse markers as used in the lecture of students of Kumasi Technical University.

Qualitative approach was considered a better option for the analysis of the lectures than the quantitative or mixed approach. This is because the qualitative research created an opportunity for me to adopt an inductive approach to extract themes and concepts to make generalizations from spoken data to present a clear picture of the discourse markers used in lectures at Kumasi Technical University. Again, the context of the recorded lectures allowed

for an interpretation to advance arguments regarding how and why certain markers were used. These cannot be realized through variables or statistical coefficients which are the hallmark of quantitative research design. As Neuman (2007, p. 195) puts it, "the qualitative researcher talks at turning humanity into cold numbers". Again, qualitative research has the ability to let the researcher build arguments from specific observations or examples to general concepts and proceed to derive principles or themes that link the concepts, thereby creating a string data-theory relationship (Neuman, 2007). However, in the analysis of the discourse markers, the qualitative analysis was supported by statistical interpretation in the overall relative frequency distribution of the various markers as used by different lecturers.

3.2 Research design

The research design employed for this research is Case Study since it is useful when trying to test theoretical models by using them in real world situations. According to Shuttleworth (2008), a case study is an in-depth study of a particular situation rather than a sweeping statistical survey. He explains that this design when used narrows down a very broad field of research into one easily researchable topic. It is in view of this that this study employed this design. This study narrows the study of discourse markers in lecture discourse in general to its studies in Kumasi Technical University and then to its use in the Communication Skills lecture in particular.

Although there are arguments against the use of case study, in that it is a narrow field and the results cannot be extrapolated to fit an entire question and they only show one narrow example, it is deemed a better option since it provides more realistic response than a purely statistical survey. A research for an analysis of discourse makers used in Communication Skills lectures might introduce new and unexpected results during its course and lead to research taking a new direction due to the flexibility in the use of case study design. A case

study cannot be generalized to fit a whole population and that is one of the basis for using only Communication Skills lecturers of Kumasi Technical University. Finally, one peripheral point is teachers have realized that when informing others of your results, case studies make more interesting topics than purely statistical surveys (Shuttleworth, 2008). In addition, case study also has a strong impact on the general public than statistical calculations.

3.3 Population

The population for the study was Communication Skills lecturers who belong to the Liberal Studies Department at Kumasi Technical University. These lecturers are referred to as servicing lecturers since they lecture in all the departments thereby servicing all faculties. The data for this study were collected from seven faculties: The faculties were Business school, Faculty of Applied Science and Technology, Faculty of Built and Natural Environment, Faculty of Creative Arts and Technology, Faculty of Engineering and Technology, Faculty of Health Science and Faculty of Entrepreneurship and Enterprise Development. Except for the Business School, where four departments were picked for the analysis due to its large population size, one department from each faculty was selected with one servicing lecturer each being recorded.

3.4 Sample and sampling technique

The lessons were recorded from ten Communication Skills lectures with participants of seven hundred and thirty students from Kumasi Technical University. Purposive sampling was used to select the lecturers for analysis because the focus of the analysis was on discourse markers used by these lecturers. Two criteria guided the purposive sampling: (1) the recordings should be lectures by lecturers of Kumasi Technical University (KsTU). (2) The lecture must be in English. Regarding the last criterion in the literature, particularly discourse markers in Ghana, I did not come across any study at the graduate level that had

used lectures produced in any indigenous language. Consequently, it stands to reason that it was the norm since students use English as the medium of instruction to consider only English-based lectures. The number of departments and participants (lecturers) from each department is presented in Table 3.4.

Table 343. Number of departments and participants (Lecturers) from each department

Faculty	**Department**	**Lecturers**	**Students**
School of Business	Marketing	1	66
	Procurement	1	106
	Sec. and Management	1	54
	Computerized Acct	1	88
Applied Science & Technology	HCIM	1	106
Built & Natural Environment	Estate Management	1	60
Creative Arts & Technology	Fashion	1	110
Engineering &Engineering	Chemical Engineering	1	28
Entrepreneurship & Enterprise Development	Entrepreneurship	1	30
Health Science	Medical Lab. Tech	1	82
Total	**10**	**10**	**730**

3.5 Instrument

Ten 2 hour lectures were recorded for each lecturer. Although the duration varied due to external factors (teachers being late or finishing early), most of the lectures spent the stipulated time as stated. Audio recordings were used. The recorder used for the collection of the data was a *Professional Digital Voice Recorder*. As the data collected was in an indoor setting, this type of recording equipment was selected accordingly. With the consent of the participants, this light portable audio-recorder of professional quality was tested before the recording session and used to record the participants. The quality of the recording was

verified at the end of the session in order to make sure that it was intelligible following Calsamiglia & Tuson' (1999) suggestions on how to deal with oral data for discourse analysis. Once the recording had been completed, a digital copy was made and kept for backup.

3.6 Data collection procedure

The researcher was present in the lecture for the recordings to be done after seeking permission from the lecturers involved. The lectures were recorded from different classes: Levels 100 and 200. The recorder used for the collection of the data was a *Professional Digital Voice Recorder*. Due to the movement of lecturers during lectures, thus pacing up and down in the course of delivery, the recorder was placed in their front pockets. In other instances, they held it as they moved.

3.7 Data analysis

For orthographic transcription, the recordings were played back. The purpose of the transcription was to allow the researcher to identify all discourse markers as well as their functions within the data. Parts of the recordings that were not very clear were marked *unclear* in the transcripts. Table 3.7.1 presents the number of discourse markers identified in each department within the University. After the recordings, they were manually transcribed using the strict verbatim (Philipp, 2014). It involves a word-for-word transcription, including markers like *uhm*, *oh*, *ah*, false starts and stutters. Also included were pauses. The data were then typed with assistance of national service personnel in the Liberal Studies Department. After the typing, I painstakingly read through all the typed texts to compare them with those written in longhand to correct any typographical errors. The typed texts served as the primary source of data for the context analysis. The manuscripts were then stored on different files for future use.

Table 3.7.1. Number of discourse markers from each department

Department	Lecturers	No. of Discourse Markers
Marketing	1	307
Procurement	1	399
Sec. & Management	1	126
Computerized Acct.	1	202
HCIM	1	344
Estate Management	1	128
Fashion	1	230
Chemical Engineering	1	430
Entrepreneurship	1	216
Medical Lab. Technology	1	109
Total	**10**	**2432**

3.8 Ethical consideration

The informed consent of lecturers was sought after explaining the nature and purpose of the study to these lecturers, which they consented. The lecturers were then assured of their privacy and anonymity. As a measure of confidentiality, they were also assured that their recorded lectures would not be divulged to anyone else and that it would be used only for this research. Issues of ethics in research are an obvious imperative for every researcher. This is because research cannot be conducted independently without other collaborators. It involves considerable co-operation and assistance of these collaborations that are from different departments and backgrounds. It is against this background that in the present study, the informed consent of lecturers was sought since a major ethical issue in any research is informed consent (Fouka & Mantzorou, 2011).

3.9 Conclusion

This Chapter has delineated the methodology chosen for the present study. The selection of the qualitative research design as the suitable methodological framework was informed by its potential to reveal the role and functions of discourse markers in lectures concerning the comprehension of the lecture by students. Consequently, the stages for data collection and treatment of data were described. The next chapter discusses the results obtained from the data analysis.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.0 Introduction

The previous chapter outlined the methodology adopted for the study and discussed the procedure for the collection of data and related issues such as ethical consideration. This chapter presents the results obtained from the analysis of discourse markers in the data. The analysis focuses mainly on the types of discourse markers identified in the data; micro markers, macro markers and micro-macro markers and the functions of these markers as proposed by Chaudron and Richards (1986). In doing so, this chapter discusses the findings of the first research question as stated in Chapter 1. The analysis revealed the types of discourse markers used and the functions these markers represent. In addition to Chaudron & Richards' (1986) identification of three versions of discourse markers, this thesis has also identified two other types of the types and functions of discourse markers. These are micro-micro markers and macro-macro markers. The analysis also revealed that the lecturers used discourse markers to perform three functions as outlined in Chapter 2. First, the markers were used to perform micro functions, performing the role of temporal links, showing consequence, and emphasis among others. Macro markers on the other hand, perform the role of topic shifting, topic opening, topic closing, indicating attitudes, marking shared knowledge, and reformulating. Finally, micro-macro functions play the role of discourse organization and topic opening among others.

4.1 Types of discourse markers

This section is discussed in relation to Research Question 1 which examines the types of discourse markers used in lectures in Kumasi Technical University. As already indicated,

the analysis showed that lecturers used micro, macro, micro-macro, micro-micro, and macro-macro markers. These are discussed in the following sections.

4.1.1 Micro markers

Chaudron and Richards (1986) distinguish between micro markers and macro-markers and describe micro markers as lower-order markers which act as fillers between sentences in the lecture, and fill in gaps that allow the audience more time to process specific parts of a conversation. Micro markers, as discussed, are considered as lower-order markers of segmentations and inter-sentential connection. These are used as linkages within sentences so that the relation of one clause to another clause or one sentence to another is easily comprehended. In support of this, Gerard (2000) describes discourse markers as words which are commonly referred to as 'linking words' and 'linking phrases' or 'sentence connectors'. This means that they make different parts of the text stick together, describing them as a clue that binds together pieces of writing. Shandama and Yakubu (2014) support this claim by explaining that DMs serve as a means of signaling to the reader the relationship between the current and preceding discourse and are therefore important tools that the writer can utilize to keep the reader brazed with the development of flow of information in a text. In relation to this, various micro markers were identified in the data. The types of micro markers identified in the data are *because*, *so*, *then*, *and*, *but*, and *actually*. The following examples show the use of the micro markers in sentences:

a. I have explained to you what goes into the personal details section of a C.V., it is very necessary to teach you ***because*** it goes for every C.V.

b. 'Shall will change to should', ***so*** these are the changes that occur so far as the tense is concerned.

c. English, you have learnt German, Spanish, and they are all special skills. ***Then***

with the optional section, you can talk about any association you are affiliated to.

d. Now with interview, one use of interview is that both the interviewer and the interviewee are able to send information. So both of us are able to send ***and*** receive information effectively

e. They correspond ***but*** let us look at the pronoun. The pronouns in direct speech. "I" and then "you"

f. Punctuations are relevant and have meaning. They ***actually*** help us to get the total meaning of a text.

4.1.2 Macro markers

Macro markers, on the other hand, are considered higher-order markers that indicate a lecturer's macro-structure by identifying and sequencing important information in the lecture (Chaudron & Richards, 1986). They therefore signal major transitions and emphasis in lectures, and they are also used to indicate a shift from one topic to the other. These markers are used to signal transition and move from one place of a lecture to another. In support of this claim, Pozo (2016) asserts that the presence of DMs in lecture discourse has a positive impact on lecture understanding and the lack of explicit signaling may hinder comprehension. These markers therefore provide the lecturers with a good repertoire of linguistic tools to structure their lectures and consequently facilitate comprehension for

students. In line with these assertions, the macro markers identified in the data include *okay, alright, good, I mean, now* and *yes* among others. The sentences below are used to illustrate the use of these markers.

a. Today we want to look at punctuation, ***Ok*** punctuation

b. ***Alright,*** if there are no questions, then we move on to our topic for today. ***Right***? the topic for today is meeting.

c. We have talked extensively about nouns, ***good***. Now assuming I come to class and say 'I met her in town today' what will your reaction be?

d. You don't just make the interviewee so sad by the end he/she leaves the interview room by giving negative comments. ***I mean*** let it end in a very appreciative way.

e. We have discussed enough of the summarized curriculum vitae. ***Now***, look here, you see that this C.V, what we have here is a detailed C.V.

f. Ok, whether it's the teachers or a teacher it is the subject. ***Yeah***, singular.

4.1.3 Micro-macro markers

The third group of discourse markers comprises those that combine micro and macro makers. The micro-macro markers are a combination of one or more micro marker(s) occurring with one macro marker performing micro-macro functions. The discourse markers identified as micro-macro markers were *so let's go back*, *alright let's go back,* so you see, *okay let's go on*, and *now let's move on. For instance:*

a. The third and the last change is the change in the words, yes, so the other words in the direct speech, the word "this", changes to 'that' 'these' become 'those' 'here' becomes 'there' 'now' becomes 'then' *So lets us go back* to our very first sentence.

b. ***Alright let's go back*** to six. We are now going to do the correction on the fragment.

c. ***So you see***, dated, brought, took, bought, they are all verbs and they are all in the past tense.

d. ***Okay, let's go on to*** the second clause. It's a subordinate to the first clause but is superordinate to the next clause.

e. **Now let's move on** to the types of the interview

4.1.4 Micro-micro markers

Micro-micro markers, unlike micro markers, appear in succession. They are a combination of two or more micro discourse markers performing micro functions just like micro markers in spite of their characteristics as coming in succession. Markers identified in the data are *so because* and *ok so.* As used in the examples below

a. If you use 'have' you are wrong. *So* ***because*** you have lecturer and his wife and children, you go and use 'have' aah you will be wrong.

b. Why (students speaks) ***ok so*** the correction, we see that here one is running into the other or fused to the other.

4.1.5 Macro-macro markers

Unlike macro markers which do not appear in succession, macro-macro markers always come up in succession. They are a combination of two or more macro discourse markers and perform macro functions in text, performing the function of summarizing. These macro-macro markers were the types identified and analysed in the data collected: *so for now as far as we know* and *ok so now.* Example

a. So for now, as far as we know, the earth moves round the sun.

b. Ok so now one thing you should know about subject verb agreement for most of the subjects and the verbs is only one 's' at a time.

4.1.6 Summary

The aim of this study was to examine through a close scrutiny of Chaudron and Richards analysis of DMs the types of DM identified in this thesis. In view of the observations made in the detailed critique of the analysis of the types, it could be concluded that the framework proposed by Chaudron and Richards (1986) which is supported by Flowerdew and Tauroza (1995) for the analysis of discourse markers using micro, micro and

micro macro markers received adequate support from this analysis. While it appeared that these three different markers abound in the analysis, two other types of markers; micro-micro markers and macro-macro markers were also discovered in the data and analyzed.

4.2 Functions of discourse markers

This section discusses discourse markers within the data collected based on Chaudron and Richards' conceptual framework and their functions. It answers the Research Question 2 which deals with the functions that these discourse markers perform in lecture delivery. The types of markers identified in the data performed various functions as expounded in the analysis, ranging from topic opening, topic closing, emphasizing, topic shifting, referring, reformulating among others. This is in agreement with Zhao's (2014) work which observes that DMs do not only help speakers organize information, or produce clear utterance, but also help the hearers towards optimal relevance and maintenance of discourse coherence. They can also be used to help the speaker organize information as a way of prompting the communicative situation.

4.2.1 Micro marker functions

Micro markers act as fillers between sentences in the lecture. The micro markers were used to perform different inter-sentential functions such as serving as temporal links, causal links, and contrastive relations and marking emphasis. These functions are presented in Table 4.2.1.

Table 4.2.1. Categories and functions of micro discourse markers

Markers	Category	Function
Because	Referential	Consequence
So	Referential	Consequence
Then	Referential	Temporal

And	Referential	Temporal
But	Referential	Contrast
Actually	Structural	Emphasis

4.2.1.1 Consequence/reason

A discourse marker is said to be used to show consequence if sentence 2 occurs as a result of sentence 1. Schiffrin (1987), on a markers ability to function as consequence, argues that such a marker must be a marker of subordinate idea units. This assertion is supported by McCarthy (1991) who claims that such a discourse marker has the meaning of *cause and effect* and *reason* because of its discourse. Some of the discourse markers that represent consequence are *so, because* and *therefore*. As a result of this, the discourse markers *because* and *so* were identified as functioning to show consequence in this study.

4.2.1.1.1 Because

The discourse markers *because* and *so* contribute to the coherence of discourse by signaling relations between discourse units. According to Schiffrin (1987), *because* is used when the speaker intends to indicate a relation of *cause and result*, while *so* is used to indicate a relation of premise and conclusion. In Extract 1, the lecturer used *because* as a marker of reason.

Extract 1

The first thing we are going to look at about the C.V is personal details. So aside 'erm' probably, writing C.V. boldly on top and may (pause) now we have different ways of writing it. Sometimes you will find the address, name, and mail aside, that, as I have said these details that I am going to look at or teach you would go into every

C.V. ***because*** it is very necessary. The first one is personal details as I have already mentioned.

In the extract, the lecturer was lecturing on how to write a personal details section of a curriculum vitae. She demonstrated to students the various ways of writing the personal details. The purpose of the use of the discourse marker ***because*** was to explain to students the reason for writing your personal details in every C.V. that is to indicate that it is very necessary and can therefore not be left out. The discourse marker ***because*** is also used by another lecturer to indicate reason in Extract 2:

Extract 2

Lecturer: Aha, so what should we do?

Student: So we change the ironing to iron

Lecturer: Then read it.

Student: Sarah d**oes** not cook nice meals nor does she iron well.

Lecturer: So that is the correction. Sarah does not cook nice meals nor does she iron well. The first one we have 'cook' in the present tense. Now we are saying that parallelism is saying let everything move in the same direction ***because*** if it is a verb in the present let it move in that direction.

In the extract, the lecturer is lecturing on how parallel structures are formed or behave. She gives students examples of sentences and helps them to correct those sentences. The purpose of the use of the marker ***because*** was to give a reason and to show how parallel structures are formed.

4.2.1.1.2 So

The discourse marker ***so*** is said to show consequence and give reason just like ***because***. McCarthy (1999) argues that ***so*** is a marker that indicates subordinate ideas just as

because. It depicts the cause and effect of a sentence. This is seen in Extract 3. In Extract 3 the lecturer used *so* to show reason

Extract 3

Lecturer: Do you remember the use of the simple present tense? It is used to express a permanent action. Do you remember that?

Students: Yes sir

Lecturer: And this is permanent. ***So*** whether the teacher taught us last week, last year or last two years, the idea is still permanent. ***So*** the earth moves around the sun. That means it always does. Do you get it? ***So*** these are the situation where the tense will not change in changing from direct to indirect speech.

The lecturer uses ***so*** to give reason to students as to why the tense form of a verb does not change when changing from direct to indirect with the reason being that the action talked about is permanent. Therefore, permanent action does not change its tense form when dealing with direct to indirect speech. Another extract on ***so*** to indicate consequence is Extract 4:

Extract 4

Lecturer: We have what we call the Summarized C.V. and then the detailed one too. The detailed one most at times involves the presentations, the publications, and other things, ***so*** most of the time what we often write is the summarized one due to the level we are in now. Is that okay?

Students: Yes Madam

In Extract 4, the lecturer uses the discourse marker ***so*** to explain to students why they write the summarized form of the C.V. more at their level and not the detailed one. The marker ***so*** is used to explain to students that sentence 2 occurred as a result of the sentence 1.

4.2.1.2 Temporal Linking (temporal markers)

Knott (1996) describes temporal discourse markers as triggers for discourse relations that express a temporal relation. According to Fung and Carter (2007), such a discourse marker like ***and*** when placed under the referential category, is used as a coordinating device to express addition. The use of discourse markers as temporal links, therefore, helps a speaker to organize text for effective delivery. Levelt (1989), in support of this, argues that discourse markers that indicate temporal links are performance additions that convey various communicative intentions without which effective communication in spontaneous talks may be impaired. It can be deduced from this argument that the use of discourse markers in performing the function of temporal links helps in effective structuring of text for effective delivery. The marker ***then*** has therefore been used as temporal markers in the extracts as follows:

4.2.1.2.1 Then

Temporal markers like *then* and ***and*** function on the ideational level of discourse structure. They indicate a temporal relationship between units of talk. According to Schiffrin (1987), ***then*** is used in discourse to indicate succession between prior and upcoming talk-a succession from one topic to another. The discourse marker in Extract 5 was used as a temporal marker by the lecturer.

Extract 5

I said we have personal details, remember we talked about the name, age, and the date, nationality, sex and all that. **Then** we came to education and on education, I made you aware that (pause), I told you that it is more of all the institutions you have attended including their dates, ***then*** you come to an academic qualification.

The lecturer in the extract was lecturing on writing good curriculum vitae. She had already explained to students what goes into the personal details section. She used ***then*** as a temporal marker to give further information and make an addition that after personal details, students need to write on the education they have and the academic qualification. The marker ***then*** has therefore been used to make an addition to an already existing point.

Extract 6 indicates another instance of using ***then*** as a temporal marker:

Extract 6

So it is very good and essential that you live a good footprint wherever you go. ***Then*** I made mention of special skills. Special skills can be a particular skill you are good at, like computing. You can operate a particular machine or something special. It could be the language you have learnt outside maybe English, you have learnt German, Spanish, and they are all special skills. ***Then*** with the optional section, you can talk about the association you are affiliated to.

The marker ***then*** is used in the extract by the lecturer to explain to the students what special skills and optional section in curriculum vitae is. She uses the temporal marker to explain further the point being made.

4.2.1.2.2 And

The marker ***and*** has been used as a temporal marker to indicate succession between prior and upcoming talk - a succession from one topic to another. The discourse marker ***and*** is used as a temporal marker to add more information related to the point already made. The manner in which the marker has been used in the text makes it a temporal marker since its use marked an addition of point to the already made point. In Extract 7and 8, ***and*** is used as a temporal marker.

Extract 7

One use of the interview is that both the interviewer ***and*** the interviewee can send information eligibly, so I give you the information, you receive it and you give me more information I want from you, then it goes on, so both of us can send ***and*** receive information effectively, that is one use of the interview.

The lecturer in Extract 7 used ***and*** as a temporal marker to denote addition in the text. She explains that apart from sending information, we also use the interview to receive information

Extract 8

Now the first word is dependent. If something is dependent, it means relying on something. Remember when we were learning clauses, we had a subordinate clause ***and*** then the main clause. The main clause is the same as the independent clause ***and*** the subordinate clause becomes the dependent clause.

The lecturer explained the difference between the main and subordinate clauses where he used the temporal marker ***and*** as a coordinating device to make his point. The discourse marker ***and*** is used temporarily to add more information to the point first made.

4.2.1.3 Contrastive

A discourse marker is said to be contrastive when it contradicts an existing assumption by providing a different option or better evidence for it. According to Chaudron and Richards (1986), discourse markers that fall under the contrast category like *but, only*, *both,* and *on the other hand*, show a contrastive relationship in discourse. Because of this, the discourse marker ***but*** is used in this data as a contrast marker to emphasize aspects of a lecture. The markers are discussed in the following sections.

4.2.1.3.1 But

According to Schiffrin (1987), the discourse marker ***but*** indicates adversative relations in discourse. It brings out a contrast between two ideas or topics and can be used to mark denial of the speaker's expectation of something. The discourse marker ***but*** is used in the Extract 9 as a contrast marker.

Extract 9

Lecturer: Now let's look at something here. (pause) "James is telling the teacher something." He is now reporting. He is now reporting. What will James tell the teacher in respect of this direct speech?

Student: He knew where she stays

Lecturer: You said that "you knew where she stays" Good. Now you remember we said that the tense changes: present to future in the past, past to perfect, future to future in the past. So that they correspond ***but*** let us look at the pronoun. The pronouns in direct speech. "I" and then "you"

In extract 9, the lecturer explained to students the changes that occur in tense when changing a direct speech to an indirect speech. After an extensive explanation of this, he used the discourse marker ***but*** to shift to the changes that can occur in the pronoun and not the verb. Another use of *but* is shown in Extract 10:

Extract 10

Lecturer: Yes, that one is better, you see the position of the conjunction, that made all the difference. The only place you can put the same conjunction is to put it in the middle, there (points to the board) that privatization is the key to national development since the government has realized … and that one will also work. ***But*** if

you put this anywhere apart from these two positions, the sense in it will be (pause) it will not be too well. I hope I make myself clear.

Students: Yes.

The discourse marker ***but*** has been used by the lecturer to draw students' attention to specific answers to the question asked in class. This way, he used it to draw their attention to the fact that apart from those answers, any other answer would not be meaningful.

4.2.1.4 Emphasis

A discourse marker is said to communicate emphasis if the speaker places extra ideas on a particular text with a marker which in turn draws the students' attention to the particular text for comprehension. According to Chaudron and Richards (1986), discourse markers categorized within emphasis like *actually*, places stress on a text to draw attention to its importance. The use of these markers draws the students' attention to the particular text for comprehension. In the data collected, the use of emphasis is depicted through the use of the discourse marker *actually* which is illustrated as follows:

4.2.1.4.1 Actually

In the delivery of lectures, lecturers use a different mechanism to make a point and one such mechanism is the use of emphasis. The lecturer incorporates an extra idea in a particular text with a marker by emphasizing and this in most times draw the students' attention to the particular text for comprehension. The following extracts indicate the use of ***actually*** for emphasis. The discourse marker **actually** was used in the data to emphasize aspects of lectures delivered.

Extract 11

Lecturer: So what are punctuations and why do you think we need to learn punctuation as a topic in Communication Skills? Do you think it is relevant?

Student: Yes

Lecturer: ***Actually*** when it comes to punctuation, as learners of English, we cannot do without punctuations because as you rightly said punctuations have meaning and whenever we write, we incorporate items for them to help us get a better understanding of the text because whenever we are speaking, I don't say period, coma but from the various tones and intonation I use in my speech you realize that when I dictate something for you to write, you can know where the punctuations are. Punctuations are symbols we use in written text. They are relevant and they have meaning. They ***actually*** help us to get the total meaning of a text.

In the extract, the lecture was about punctuations. The lecturer first explained to students what punctuation marks are as well as their uses. The marker ***actually*** was used to emphasize the point that as learners of English, they cannot do without punctuations because they have meaning and therefore help in getting the total meaning of a text. In Extract 12, the lecturer also used the discourse marker ***actually*** for emphasis.

Extract 12

The meeting comes in two forms: formal and informal meetings. Formal meetings often have rules and regulations spelt out clearly to be adhered to by the members present. ***Actually***, these rules are embodied in a constitution and each member is aware of it. The informal meeting is quite different.

In Extract 12, the lecturer used the discourse marker ***actually*** to emphasize the point she made to students. She first explained to students what meeting is and the forms of meeting that we have. Then she moves on to explain to students about formal meeting and its characteristics. The discourse marker ***actually*** is then used to emphasize the point given on formal meetings.

4.2.1.5 Summary

Micro markers, as discussed, are considered lower-order markers of segmentations and inter-sentential connection. This is used as linkages within sentences so that relation of one clause to another clause or one sentence to another is easily comprehended. This is in agreement with Yang (2011) who asserts that discourse markers mainly function as connectives as defined in systematic functional grammar, to connect preceding and following segments in meaning. This section, therefore, identified the micro markers *because*, *so*, *then*, *and*, *but*, and *actually* and used them to perform diverse functions such as consequence, temporal, contrast, and emphasis. These markers were further seen to be performing referential and structural functions.

4.2.2 Macro markers

As discussed in the introductory portion of this chapter, macro markers are used for different purposes which include topic shifting, organizing, opening, and closing lectures among others. Chaudron and Richards (1986) argue that in using macro markers, the speaker must focus on specific phrasing and placement of the expression. Table 4.2.2 presents the macro discourse markers found in the data. The section that follows discusses the use of macro markers in the data.

Table 4.2.2. Macro discourse markers

Marker	Function	Category
Okay	Topic opener	Structural
Alright	Topic opener	Structural
Okay	Topic shifter	Structural
Now	Topic shifter	Structural

So	Topic shifter	Structural
Good		
Topic shifter	Structural	
Let's look at	Topic shifter	Structural
Okay	Topic closer	Structural
Alright	Topic closer	Structural
Okay	Discourse Organiser	Structural
Now	Discourse Organiser	Structural
Yeah/yes	Discourse Organiser	Structural
Alright/right	Discourse Organiser	Structural
Good	Discourse Organiser	Structural
Let's say	Discourse Organiser	Structural
So	Summarizer	Structural
I mean	Reformulation	Cognitive
You see	Marking shared knowledge	Interpersonal

4.2.2.1 Topic opening

The importance of topic opening in a lecture delivery is demonstrated when lecturers use discourse markers to open the lecture in order to draw students' attention to the fact that it is time to concentrate for the commencement of the delivery. Fillipi and Wales (2003) argue that as a discourse marker, *okay* is a pragmatic marker that occurs at boundaries such as opening and closing, as well as phrase boundaries in the middle section of various types of talk. Fung and Carter (2007) support this assertion by arguing that discourse markers are also

useful in signaling the opening and closing of conversation in which the listener is oriented to the end of a discourse boundary and the beginning of the text. Markers such as *okay* and *alright* are used as topic openers in the data collected and will be discussed below.

4.2.2.1.1 Okay

One of the frequently used DMs is ***okay*** with its reduced form as ***ok*** and it is a diversely used marker in this study. House (2013) argues that *okay* is one of the most common, broadly acceptable and adaptable DM, specifically useful for English as a second language speaker. This is due to its ability to realize many interactional functions in different positions with the minimal linguistic and cognitive effort of the speaker. Othman (2010) illustrates the functions of ***okay*** in the lecture genre by describing its uses both with rising and falling intonations. ***Okay*** with a rising intonation marks progression and functions as a response elicitor, seek of assurance and a device for partitioning different points of information. The marker ***okay*** with the falling tone functions as an attention-getter, serving as a signpost for opening and closing topics. In Extract 13, ***okay*** has been used to open a topic.

Extract 13

Lecturer: Today we want to look at punctuation marks but we are not looking at punctuation in isolation. We want to study it with paragraph construction so that by the time we finish with our discussion on paragraph construction we might have covered punctuation. ***Okay*** punctuation

Student: (inaudible)

Lecturer: ***Okay*** what else? Or you want me to come close to you before you talk?

The lecturer in Extract 13 was starting a lecture and introducing the students to a new topic 'punctuation'. He explains to students that though they are going to study 'punctuation', they

would do it with paragraph construction to aid in understanding and learn that at the same time. He concludes his introductory paragraph by stressing on the topic to be studied for the day by introducing a new topic "punctuation" with the marker ***okay***.

4.2.2.1.2 Alright

Alright is used by the lecturer in the extract to emphasize the topic to be studied for the day. According to Fillipi and Wales (2003, p 450), the marker *alright* with terminal intonation after a string of discourse on a particular topic can mark an interruption in the activity at hand. Consequently, a speaker might say *alright* followed by an initiation of a new topic. Turner (1999) in agreement to this assertion explains that *alright* marks a shift in topic. ***Alright*** in Extract 14 has been used to open a topic.

Extract 14

Lecturer: What have we done so far? Let's get them clear for now, hmm, drop your table of content and let's talk about the topics. So far we've treated tenses, voice, sentence, faculty construction (students murmuring) what are you talking about?

Students: We have not done direct and indirect speech.

Lecturer: Then faulty constructions, you haven't done that one too?

Students: Yes

Lecturer: Ahh. ***Alright***, faulty construction for today. Let's go to faulty construction. Faulty construction still has to do with sentences but not …

The lecturer uses ***alright*** in the extract above to make students aware of the topic for discussion that day and to explain to them what to expect in that topic.

Similarly, another lecturer uses ***alright*** to introduce the topic for discussion that day to the students. This is seen in Extract 15:

Extract 15

Lecturer: Good morning class

Students: Good morning.

Lecturer: I hope you are all doing well. Last week we had a lecture and it was a very nice interaction. So I assume the topic is well understood or do you have further questions to ask.

Students: No

Lecturer: ***Alright,*** if there are no questions, then we move on to our topic for today. **Al*right***, the topic for today is 'Meeting'.

From the extract above the lecturer introduces the topic 'Meeting'. To do this, the lecturer first asks students if they have any questions concerning the topic treated the previous week after students responded in the negative. With the response from the students, he introduces the topic for discussion for the day which is 'Meeting'. The introduction is done by using the discourse marker ***alright***.

4.2.2.2 Topic shift

Topic shifting in classroom discourse occurs when a lecturer draws the attention of students to the new information that is about to be delivered. The topic can be shifted in the classroom depending on what the teacher aims to communicate to the students which normally creates an effective flow of information from teachers to students at different stages of the learning process if used appropriately (Yu, 2008). In support of this Fillipi and Wales (2003) are of the view that the marker ***alright*** with terminal intonation after a string of discourse on a particular topic can mark an interruption in the activity at hand. To add up, a speaker might say ***alright*** followed by the initiation of a new topic. Turner (1999) supports

this claim by arguing that ***alright*** marks a major shift in topic, whereas ***okay*** marks subtle shifts in focus within the same topic. In this same function, ***now*** was also used for topic shift.

4.2.2.2.1 Okay

Another lecturer uses ***okay*** to perform structural and interpersonal functions, which is a useful classroom management tool for all lecturers. Since structurally it is used in sentence position as a topic opener or a means of shifting the lecture mode, holding the students' attention and making transitions between activities more salient, many lecturers use it as depicted in Extract 16.

Extract 16

> 'We should read', 'shall' becomes 'should', so 'we should read our books every day'. So that is the first change when you are changing from direct to indirect speech.
>
> The second one, ***okay*** the second change from the direct to indirect speech is the change in pronoun. The pronoun may change but for the change in pronoun let us look at the following sentences. ***Okay*** change in pronouns.

The lecturer uses ***okay*** in Extract 16 to shift the lecture from one point to another, making transitions from the first way of changing of direct to indirect speech to the second change which is changing pronouns. ***Okay*** is therefore used to hold the attention of students to the second change, thus, pronoun and make it more salient.

4.2.2.2.2 Now

Ball (1986) points out '*now* is transitional'. He explains that *now* is frequently used in the opening of sentences from a new speaker, but the same speaker can use *now* to indicate an introduction of a new idea or stage with a topic. During lectures, lecturers often use ***now*** to depict a new topic or task. In Extract 16, after explaining some conditions in a contract, the lecturer uses the discourse marker *now* as a trigger to move to the next point indicating

another point or task for students. Extract 17 is used to illustrate the use of the marker *now* to shift the topic.

Extract 17

We have discussed enough on the summarized curriculum vitae. ***Now***, look here, you see that this C.V, what we have here is a detailed C.V. Aside from the personal details, educational qualifications, experiences, you see the person has professional activities details, awards and publications, and all these things.

Before the extract, the lecturer explained to students what summarized C.V. is. The lecturer shifts from one topic to another by building on the first idea thus shifting from "summarized C.V." to "detailed C.V."

4.2.2.2.3 So

The word *so* has a variety of non-discourse marker functions (Muller, 2005) which would not be part of the discussion in this study. ***So***, when not a discourse marker, can be used as an adverb of the degree to express purpose. The DM ***so*** for this study performs a referential function and diverse structural functions. As a structural marker, ***so*** is used to help the organization of discourse and specific moves, for instance, to open a topic or to indicate a topic shift. In Extract 18, ***so*** is used to shift the topic.

Extract 18

If the sentence has all the parts that we are looking for in a sentence for instance verb, subject, etc. but they do not express a complete thought, remember we cannot call it a sentence, ***so*** we can call them fragments, it is scattered, it does not make a complete thought, remember. ***So*** it says a sentence fragment is a group of words that does not express a complete thought, *so* we can't call it a sentence. We call it a group of words.

He used ***so*** to shift from the already discussed topic to the next topic to be discussed. ***So*** can also be used to indicate a return to the main thread of discourse after an interruption or digression from a topic. This usually occurs where the speaker returns to the topic after interrupting with the DM *right* and at the same time indicate to the listeners that the information which follows is important. In Extract 18, the discourse marker ***so*** has been used to introduce a sub-topic sentence fragment after discussing sentence as a whole.

Extract 19

> And let's move on to the subject-verb agreement, subject-verb agreement (pause) subject-verb agreement. Alright, ***so*** a subject-verb agreement is one of the very important topics in grammar, this is to say that, anytime you are writing or speaking you choose a subject, the subject must correspond with the verb. This matching process is what we call agreement.

The lecturer in the extract above digresses from the topic he is about to teach but moves back to it after announcing the topic they are about to study for the day. The DM ***so*** is placed after the marker ***alright*** to indicate how important subject-verb agreement is in grammar as they begin studying it.

4.2.2.2.4 Good

The discourse marker ***good***, has different syntactic functions, and can occur in different positions. Miracle (1991) explains that ***good*** does not only play a role in the development and closure of the requestive social actions. He elucidates that it serves to make assertions or mark a transition to a new topic or social activity. According to him, when used within a particular speaker's turn, functions as a marker of idea management of signaling completion of the prior topic and a transition of another topic. In the discourse of lecturers ***good*** mainly serves to make an assertion or mark a closure of a particular task. It also

organizes discourse by giving out a clear picture of the lecture and making it more comprehensible. In Extract 20, ***good*** as a discourse marker was used to mark a transition to a new topic.

Extract 20

The boys have; then has is singular; the man has; the vehicle has; the woman has; he has; it has but when you use 'I' it also matches with have: I have; I and you; we have. Subject-verb agreement, now let's look at intervening phrases, **good**, these are certain phrases which we need to watch very carefully when these phrases come immediately after singular subjects, use singular verbs…

In extract 20, the lecturer explains to students what subject-verb agreement means by using various illustrations. Then he used the discourse marker ***good*** to mark a transition to relate the topic to intervening phrases, thus, introducing and explaining the intervening phrase. Another extract used to explain the use of ***good*** as a topic shift.

Extract 21

Lecturer: We have talked extensively about nouns, ***good***. Now assuming I come to class and say 'I met her in town today' what will your reaction be?

Students: Madam, I will ask who is 'her'?

Lecturer: If I had mentioned who I was referring to, you wouldn't ask who the person was. ***Good,*** then let's now talk about pronouns.

Before extract 21, the lecturer was teaching students about nouns. She used the discourse marker ***good*** to end points on nouns and shift to pronouns.

4.2.2.2.5 Let's look at

The marker ***let's look at*** as a topic shifting mechanism is very important as it helps drive the attention of students to the new information that is about to be delivered in the

classroom. The marker is used to make students understand that the ongoing discussion has ended and therefore a new topic is starting therefore their attention is needed.

Extract 22

Which pronoun can you use to replace 'the girl and the brother' the same 'they' so they have similar problems. They are using *'they'* because they belong to different entities. Ghana and Nigeria are countries but they are different, the girl and the brother are all human beings, siblings but they are different. Alright, any questions? Ok, if there are no questions ***let's look at*** the compound subject from a different perspective, we have established the fact that compound subjects take plural verbs but it is not always true.

In Extract 22, the lecturer explained to students what compound subjects are the forms of the verb they accept. After a vivid explanation of that, he used the discourse marker ***let's look at*** to shift from this sub-topic to another which is a compound subject with the same referent. Though both are compound subjects all topics under the subject-verb agreement, the use of the discourse marker ***let's look at*** by the lecturer is to draw students attention that he has finished explaining compound subjects which can be replaced with *they* and is now shifting to the compound subject with the same referent.

In extract 23, the lecturer used the discourse marker ***let's look at*** to shift topic.

Extract 23

So what we have here is, you find out when I decide to use the verb, the verb, so when a sentence contains a series, it becomes easier to read and understand. If the elements in the series are of the same grammatical structure, the elements can be nouns, adverbs, adjectives or whatever, so when you decide to use the noun,

I should have nouns throughout; if I decide to use a verb, the particular thing I am talking about should run throughout. ***Let's look at*** an example. Ghana exports cocoa, minerals, and timber. Cocoa is a noun.

In Extract 23, the lecturer was lecturing on parallel construction. Before this extract, she first explained to students what parallel construction is and used verbs as her illustration. She then used the discourse marker ***let's look at*** to shift from using verbs to using nouns in her illustration. She, therefore, shifts to the sentence *Ghana exports cocoa, minerals, and timber* and explains to students why it is a parallel construction to make the students understand the topic better.

4.2.2.3 Topic closing

Discourse markers are used in different ways depending on their roles and relationships of the interlocutors. Furthermore, they are sometimes used by lecturers to close lectures (Fuller, 2003. p. 35). About this, Fung and Carter (2007, p. 422) suggest that ***so*** "functions to signal that the conversation has ended and prefaces a summary of the opinions that will be made as a conclusion". The markers used to close topics in the data analyzed are *ok* and *alright*.

4.2.2.3.1 Ok

As already stated, *okay* marks transition from one segment of talk to the other. It can also be used to close the topic. In the extract below, okay has been used to close the topic. Extract 24, therefore, illustrates the use of *okay* to close the topic.

Extract 24

The teacher wanted the girl to say okra, then the girl said ɔkra, you know. English does not have 'ɔ' in the spelling system, aha so certain ideas go together, 'discipline and order are what we are talking about', that means wherever there is order, there is

discipline, so, that is where compound subjects will take similar verbs. ***Okay,*** our time is up. We end here. Now assignment for you, present them tomorrow.

The lecturer in Extract 24 was bringing the lecture to closure and therefore draws the attention of the students that time was up and they needed to end the lecture after which he gives the students assignment

4.2.2.3.2 Alright

In topic closure *alright* can be used and extract 25 has been used to demonstrate this

Extract 25

We have coordinating conjunctions example and, but,

Example: And he responded swiftly to the action, but I admire him.

We have finished dealing with coordinating conjunctions. Now we are on inversions and we have many categories.

Example: had, where, etc. Had I known more I would have agreed to their proposal

One is subordinate. What shows that it is a subordinate?

No response.

Example: should I have this opportunity again I will…

So the initial clause is a subordinate and an inversion.

Alright, next week we will look at concord. So everybody should make sure you read on concord, if I ask you what is concord and the various categories of concord…

In the extract, the lecturer lectured on the topic coordinating conjunctions and inversions. After summing up the discussion for the day, he used the marker ***alright*** to indicate the end of the lecture and subsequently gives students a reading task to go home and research on concord before their next lecture.

4.2.2.4 Discourse organizer

In lecture delivery, a discourse is said to be organized when the topic is well developed. The discourse markers that are used as organizers function to cohere the delivery to make them more meaningful for comprehension. To this, Schegloff (2007) argues that in any topic development, discourse markers mark particular sequences to see how they relate to the suspected project, theme, or stance which are essential to interactional projects. It is said that the organization of every text is basically about the systematic sequencing of events. Fung and Carter (2007) in agreement with this assertion state discourse markers signal the sequence of talk and signpost to the listener the logical sequence of segments of talks. Examples of discourse markers used to organize text are *okay, now, alright, good, firstly, secondly* among others.

4.2.4.1 Okay

The interpersonal use of ***okay*** is portrayed in sentence-final position. *Okay* is used with rising intonation as a progression check or seek of assurance. It is used by lecturers who are not expecting an answer, but making sure they have the attention of student as indicated in Extract 26.

Extract 26

Lecturer: At least a paragraph should give you three sentences, at least, because we are saying that the sentences should be related. After all, in a paragraph, you realize that they are related in terms of what we call the controlling idea or the main idea. Any group of ideas that is in a paragraph should have one idea. What did I say?

Students: (Response)

Lecturer: ***ok*** whenever you say that these sentences belong to one paragraph, it means that when we put all these sentences together, we are going to get an idea.

So note that every paragraph has an idea and that idea is what we call the controlling idea. Please note that with the controlling idea, you cannot find it overtly to say that this is the controlling idea. You can only get the controlling idea if you can understand 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5. And so the controlling idea is captured in all the sentences.

The lecturer at this point was teaching students what a paragraph should entail, thus at least having three sentences being related to the controlling idea. To explain his point better, he used the discourse marker ***ok*** to make sure students understood the explanations given so far. Thus, whenever we say sentences belong to one paragraph, it means all these sentences have an idea.

4.2.2.4.2 Now

According to Schiffrin (1987 p. 241), ***now*** is a deictic element that "marks a speaker's progression through discourse time, by displaying attention to an upcoming idea, unit or orientation and/or participant framework". She explains that the marker ***now*** "occurs in discourse in which the speaker progresses through a cumulative series of subordinate units" (p. 241). In this sense, ***now*** is used by lecturers to mark the progression through discourse time. The extract below indicates ***now*** used to mark an orderly progression through a sequence of subordinate parts, and ***now*** marks one part of the sequence. In Extract 27, ***now*** is used as a discourse organizer

Extract 27

Yes, it is correct and because of that you put your full stop there and go away, meanwhile, it doesn't mean a thing. Now that it has given us a division, it takes the divisions one by one and tells us how to even correct them if we see them that way.

How to correct them. ***Now***, the first word, dependent. If something is dependent, it means, relying on something.

In the interaction before the use of ***now***, the lecturer had explained to the students what sentence fragment is about. He used ***now*** to mark progression on the same topic and points to add to the explanation for students to have a better understanding. ***Now*** used in lectures displays attention to an upcoming idea. According to Grosz and Sidner (1986), ***now*** marks an attention change, creates a new focus space of salient objects and topic. Another use of ***now*** to organize discourse is illustrated in Extract 28:

Extract 28

It's very simple. If you have a fragment that does not have a subject just bring a subject in and then that's all. Any question? Okay, so we go on. *Now* "run on". Run-on sentences. At times two thoughts are put together without any punctuations or linkages to mark the break between them. This means one sentence runs into the other.

The lecturer used *now* in the above extract to shift the topic from *sentence fragment* to *run-on sentence* and explains the entire concept of run-on. As she uses ***okay*** to bring to an end the explanation to sentence fragment, she draws students' attention to the fact that they are moving on to a new sub-heading by the use of ***now*** to draw the attention of students to the topic.

4.2.2.4.3 Yeah/yes/yah

The marker y*eah* or *yes* or *yah* as a discourse marker plays diverse roles in the lecturer's discourse. It serves as a useful illustration of how to decide among speech utterances types, how to recognize DMs that are included within larger speech utterances rather than acting as speech utterances of their own. ***Yeah*** is used in the initial position to

express agreement or indicate acknowledgment of the preceding utterances and as a trigger to code switch for eliciting a response or repeat or explain the prior utterance, as the example in Extract 29 indicates.

Extract 29

Lecturer: the verbs 'plays', 'eats', 'sleeps' there is something common to all of them. What is the commonality?

Student: 'S'

Lecturer: 'S', aha, what else, yes all of them end with 's', plays, eats, sleeps. So what would you say about a singular verb, how would you identify the singular verb? Looking at what we have just said. ***Yah***, the singular verb always has an 's' ending.

Before Extract 29, students were discussing the various ways verbs form their plural. The lecturer then asked students if the verbs displayed on the board have something peculiar about them. The use of the discourse marker *yah* by the lecturer organizes the lecture by indicating to students that all the verbs end with an 's' indicating they are all singular verbs.

Extract 30 is another extract used to explain the use of *Yes* as a discourse organizer:

Extract 30

Lecturer: In the same way we accept that compound subjects take plural verbs but some compound subjects take singular verbs, the operative word is but, we have said that compound subjects take plural verbs but some compound subjects take singular verbs. Now under which circumstance will compound subjects take singular verbs, it is very simple, now in a situation when different entities that are 2 or 3 compound subjects in the sentence refer to the same thing …

What is the compound subject in it?

Student: Because it is referring to the same person

Lecturer: ***Yes***, because it's referring to the same person.

In the extract, students were discussing the forms of the verbs that correspond with a compound subject. The lecturer then explains to students that compound subjects admit plural verb but stresses that in certain instances, where the compound subject has the same referent, it uses a singular verb. He puts down a sentence for students to analyze and tell if the compound subject should take a plural or singular verb. The use of the discourse marker *yes* is to first elicit responses from the students then to also affirm and express agreement to the answer given by the student. Discourse marker *Yeah* also affirm the speaker's statement.

Another example used to explain the use of *good* as a topic shift is seen in Extract 31:

Extract 31

Lecturer: 'The teachers teach well', a student wrote this and cancelled it and made it the teachers teaches well. What is your comment?

Students: 'Teachers' is wrong

Lecturer: Why is 'teachers' wrong?

Student: We are talking about the plural.

Lecturer: Ok, whether it's the teachers or a teacher it is subject. ***Yeah***, singular, aha, but this is what he wrote 'teacher', aha yes, you wanted to say something.

Student: Sir please the 's' behind the teach, it makes it plural so 'the teachers teach well is plural'. If you do it 'the teacher teaches well' it is singular

The lecturer in the extract affirms his statement to make the student understand the use of the compound subject concerning the verb it corresponds with.

4.2.2.4.4 Alright/right

The marker ***alright*** is used as organizers to cohere the delivery of the text to make them more meaningful for comprehension by students. The use of ***alright*** in the text therefore

aids the flow of communication, giving it a free flow of understanding. Alright/right in Extract 32 is used to organize this text.

Extract 32

Lecturer: Usually, we use the question mark at the final position of the interrogative sentence to solicit responses and in speech and we don't feel it. We use it in terms of what we call intonation. Example: Kofi is here. If you want to ask a question and you end up bringing a full stop it becomes a statement and not a question. And you are warned because you were told to ask questions and after the questions, you brought full stop. It means they were statements and not questions. You always have to remember to bring the question mark because in written form that is what will let you know that you need a kind of response from your hearers. I hope you are ok?

Students: Yes

Lecturer: ***Alright*** on the paragraph what we are trying to say is that we discuss punctuation. We are not discussing it in isolation from the paragraph because at the end of the day when you write sentences together to get a paragraph. What is a paragraph, if I may ask? When we talk about paragraph we are looking at related sentences. The most important thing is what we call related sentences.

The lecturer in the extract was explaining to students the uses of some punctuation marks like a question mark and a full stop and its effect when not well used. He then draws students' attention to the fact that punctuation cannot be discussed in isolation since it is used within paragraphs. Therefore, they should also concentrate on paragraphs. In his bid to emphasize this view, he used the discourse marker ***alright*** to hammer home his point.

Extract 33

That is why we have this. We had 'had to buy the goods'. But let me give you another sentence. We have no, erm (lecturer hesitates and changes sentence).' you ate the mangoes' Right, then 'you eat the mangoes' let's take that to be the direct speech. What will be the indirect version?

In the extract, the lecturer tries to explain to students how to change a direct to an indirect speech by using different sentences. The use of the discourse marker ***right*** was to organize the text in such a way that the students will know one sentence has been changed from direct to indirect and they are moving to another sentence. The use of ***right*** here is to ascertain if students understood the change in the first sentence before he moves to the second sentence.

4.2.2.4.5 Good

The use of good as a discourse organizer is to structure the text and make it more coherent. In line with this, Schegloff (2007) argues that in any topic development, discourse markers mark particular sequence to see how they relate to the suspected project theme, or stance which is essential to interactional projects. He further explains that discourse markers that are used as organizers function to cohere the delivery to make them more meaningful for comprehension by students. The use of ***good*** therefore makes students comprehend the lecture better. Extract 34 illustrates the use of ***good*** as discourse organizer.

Extract 34

Lecturer: When we talk of standardization in reading language, in reading language must follow a certain order that everybody who writes should follow. What are some of these things? Yes!

Students: Punctuation

Lecturer: Punctuation may differ sometimes

Students: Sir, what about capitalization?

Lecturer: Capitalization, ***good***! Well done. Capitalization means there are certain words that you have to capitalize the first letters. If you are writing a proper noun, you have to capitalize. Everybody who writes that noun should capitalize it. So that is standard. Any other?

The lecturer used *good* as a discourse organizer to make the class aware that the answer given by the student is correct and must, therefore, be taken note of as a way of standardizing in language. Throughout his lecture, the use of *good* as discourse organizer abound as a means of drawing students' attention to the salient points made. Extract 35 also used the discourse marker *good* to organize discourse.

Extract 35

Lecturer: 'Life is war' a Ghanaian proverb. What is the subject?

Students: Life

Lecturer: ***Good***, life, why is life the subject. Why is life the subject? Is it that you can't say it, you can't say what you said. Because here you said Kofi is performing the action, but that in this one (student talking), come again

Students: Life is the thing we are talking about

Lecturer: ***Good*** that is correct. Life is the thing we are talking about. So if you reduce the subject it is the verb that has a subject but usually, we say the subject of the sentence because it's the subject that influences the form of the verb.

In Extract 35, the lecturer informs students about what subjects are and their role in sentences. The use of the marker ***good*** in this extract is for the lecturer to affirm from students what a subject does in the sentence the lecturer provided. It also draws students'

attention to the fact that the answer provided is correct and that they are doing well in understanding the topic under study.

4.2.2.4.6 Let's say

As a discourse organizer, *let's say* is used to make the text coherent for students. It draws students' attention to the systematic sequencing of the events. In Extract 36, let's say has been used to organize discourse.

Extract 36

Lecturer: Then, there comes the almighty question. How much do you want us to pay you? What a lovely question. Who doesn't want to hear this? What will be your answers? Yes, you

Students: 5,000

Lecturer: Why 5,000? 'hmm' Research on their salary structure before you go for the interview. So during your research, it will tell you that if you are a customer relation officer you need to be paid **let's say** 3,000 to 4,000, that is the range you present to them, don't mention beyond a particular figure and mind you what you say is not what they will pay you.

In Extract 36, the lecturer used **let's say** as a discourse organizer to explain further to students how to answer interview questions that relate to salary. The use of the discourse marker **let's say** is to organize the discourse by giving examples to the point made. Similarly, Extract 37 used ***let's say*** as a discourse organizer.

Extract 37

This is just a sample of another form of C.V. This one *erm* is a C.V. that a company (pause) it came from one of its applicants. So the most important thing is, the

various sections we have discussed about the C.V. should be there. Now someone will ask, so if I want to be employed in a company, and I have seen an advert **let's say** the Graphic Corporation has placed an advert that they want an account officer, then I write, do I just send my C.V. to them and that is all? Someone will want to write an application letter and when you write the application letter, you add your C.V.

In Extract 36, the lecturer used ***let's say*** as a discourse organizer to explain further to students that apart from learning how to write curriculum vitae, when they are sending their C.V for employment, they need to add an application letter to it. The use of the discourse marker *let's say* is to organize discourse by giving a scenario using a graphic corporation to draw home his point.

4.2.2.5 Summarizing

Discourse markers that summarize text are markers that function to signal that a conversation has come to an end and introduce a summary of the opinions that will be made as a conclusion (Fung & Carter, 2007). Summarizing of a text is used to draw the attention to the listener to the fact that the delivery is about ending and as such the main points are being revisited. Fraser (1999) asserts that these markers are important elements that constitute and organize conversation. He further argues that they do not only have grammatical functions but also work as interactional features. A discourse marker that falls within this category is ***so***.

4.2.2.5.1 So

Another function of ***so*** is summarizing, recording, or giving examples. The marker ***so*** is used in the text to draw students attention to the fact that lectures are about to end and as such the main points are being repeated. In Extract 38, the discourse marker ***so*** in the text has been used to summarize the content.

Extract 38

An informal interview can happen anywhere. I can meet you anywhere and ask questions. That time I expect some information from you, you can decide not to give me the information, and you can decide to give it to me. ***So*** that is the informal one we are referring to. ***So*** basically I have said we have two main types, those are the broad types, the formal one, and then the informal one. I hope that is understood.

The lecturer in the extract was delivering a lecture on *types of interview*. He illustrates to students the two broad types that we have by creating a scenario of where and when these interviews can take place or be organized. He then concludes by using the discourse marker ***so*** to summarize all the points made that there are two broad types of interviews.

4.2.2.6 Reformulating

According to Fung and Carter (2007), a discourse marker that is said to belong to the category of reformulation is one that is exploited to allow sufficient time for speakers to modify, rephrase, self-correct or repair their utterance. According to Schiffrin (1987), ***I mean*** is the common marker used for this purpose. She explains that ***I mean*** marks the speaker's reformulation or modification of his or her prior ideas or intention. By so doing, the speaker rewords his ideas to clarify the meaning and his intention.

4.2.2.6.1 I mean

The discourse marker ***I mean*** is used as a means to indicate *upcoming adjustment*. It is appropriately utilized when speakers want to be more careful or precise than in their prior utterance or it may introduce a justification (Fox Tree & Schrock, 2002). The lecturer used the discourse marker ***I mean*** that is clausal in structure to perform reformulation function. In Extract 39, the lecturer used the discourse marker ***I mean*** in reformulating sentences. This is illustrated in Extract 39 as follows:

Extract 39

And then lastly, the interviewer should make sure that the interview ends in a very appreciative way. You don't just make the interviewee so sad by the time he/she leaves the interview room by giving negative comment, a no, no, no, it is not good. You have done well, well that is what you have been able to do, and you will hear from us. We will talk to you later. ***I mean*** let it end in a very appreciative way. Thank you for spending your time with us, that kind of thing.

The lecturer used the marker ***I mean*** that is clausal in structure to perform a reformulation function. The lecture in the Extract 39 rephrases what has been said by using the marker to tell students all that should occur at the end of an interview. He rephrases it to mean the interviewer should at the end of an interview be appreciative. The lecturer decided to reformulate his sentence or explain for students to have a better understanding and this he does by using the discourse marker ***I mean***. The use of the discourse marker was to draw students' attention to the points he was making to make the needed impact. He goes further and exemplifies the points he made to students by using a simple calculation which he reformulated for students to understand better.

Likewise, in Extract 40, the lecturer used the discourse marker ***I mean*** as reformulation:

Extract 40

Lecturer: During an interview, sometimes we are asked questions like why do you want us to employ you? Or what makes you the best candidate. What will be your answer?

Student: Murmuring

Lecturer: Aside from saying you are fit for the job, please come up with your qualities, something that will make you better than the others. So you tell them I think

I am the best person for the job because I have this quality, I am passionate about what I do, I can do other short courses in fashion and designing, I am one of the students who have been able to design software in fashion and designing or… *I mean* say something that is key, that is so special, that is what they need to hear.

The marker ***I mean*** in Extract 40 is used to rephrase what the lecturer said about answering a particular question during an interview. The lecturer was delivering a lecture on *interview* and the probable questions that can be asked in an interview with the expected answers. Upon a lengthy explanation of how these questions can be answered, the lecturer decided to reformulate or rephrase for the students to understand better thereby using ***I mean***.

4.2.2.7 Shared knowledge

In lecture delivery, verbs of perception such as *see, listen, know* are often used as discourse markers for marking shared knowledge between the speakers on the interpersonal level. These markers act as utterance launcher to orient and draw the attention of the listener to the upcoming utterance. These markers can occur in turn-initial position and signal that what follows is an explanation of what has preceded. Discourse markers here are important functional elements which influence the coherence and cohesion of discourse (Matei, 2010). The marker ***you see*** is used in the extract below to draw students' attention to a point that has already been made in the lecture.

4.2.2.7.1 You see

Extract 41

In Extract 41, the lecturer used the discourse marker ***you see*** to perform shared knowledge function.

Lecturer: So 'men', 'children' 'people' all these are plural subjects. The plural noun forms their plural by adding (s). The rule doesn't apply in the examples given so when

you have a plural like these the verb does should be plural 'the people spend a lot on food' right, ***you see***, these are already plural, they don't take 's' ending ok.

Before Extract 41, the lecturer had lectured on the verbs plural subjects admit and explained it into details to students already. Students therefore knew the subject and the verbs they agree with. The lecturer in giving more examples shared the knowledge the class had on subject-verb agreement; using the discourse marker ***you see*** to indicate this shared knowledge.

Similarly, in Extract 42, the lecturer used the discourse marker ***you see*** to share knowledge.

Extract 42

Lecturer: You should always be mindful of the tense you use whenever you speak. Is that okay? You can say the boy came here yesterday.

Students: Yes sir

Lecturer: You students of today do not care about your expression especially about the tense to use. ***You see***, whenever you are to use the present tense and you use the past tense or vice versa, it makes your hearers very uncomfortable. For example, "Have you came here before?" ***You see*** a good student in terms of language is noticed by the correct expression he uses.

In Extract 42, the lecturer had explained to students in details what and how to use the right tenses. The lecturer therefore used the discourse marker ***you see*** to share the knowledge both students and lecturers had about tenses. This made the lesson easy to understand on the side of the students.

4.2.2.8 Summary

Macro markers as discussed in the introduction of this chapter are considered as higher-order markers that identify and sequence important information in discourse. These

markers are used to signal transition and move from one place of a lecture to another (Chaudron & Richards, 1986). The markers that were identified as macro markers were used to perform different functions such as topic shifting, organizing, summarizing, marking shared knowledge, and reformulating among others. The markers that were identified as micro markers are okay, *Alright, Now, so, Good, let's look at, yes, let's say, I mean and you see.* These markers were used to signal transition and a move from one point in a lecture to another.

4.2.3 Micro-macro markers

Micro-macro markers are markers that comprise one micro marker and another macro marker. These two combine to form micro-macro markers, functioning as micro-macro discourse markers. Discourse markers when combined may be used in succession without restriction on the number of discourse markers to be used at any point in time. Researchers (e.g. Fraser, 2004; Schiffrin, 2001) have supported this idea of discourse marker collocation. A list of micro-macro markers and their functions are summarized in Table 4.2.3.

Table 4.2.3. Functions of micro-macro discourse markers identified in the data.

Marker	**Function**	**Category**
So let's go back	Referrer	Referential
Alright let's go back	Referrer	Referential
So you see	Shared knowledge	Interpersonal
Okay let's go on	Organizer	Structural
Now let's move on	Organizer	Structural

4.2.3.1 Referrer

A referrer is used when the speaker tries to draw the attention of the listener back to prior information based on continuing with the current delivery. According to Levinson (1983), we find words whose meaning-specifications can only be given by reference to contexts of usage. For instance, in English, words like ***ok***, ***well***, ***anyway*** cannot be explicated simply by statements of context-independent content but has to refer to pragmatic concepts like relevance, implicature, or discourse structure. Micro macro markers discussed *are so let's go back, alright let's go back, so you see, okay let's go on, now let's move on.* Extract 43 discusses the marker *so let's go back*.

4.2.3.1.1 So let us go back

The lecturer used the discourse marker ***So let us go back*** to perform referrer function. The marker is used in the data to make reference to an already stated point in the lecture delivery. Here the lecturer uses the marker to refer to a prior information relevant to the present point made in lecture. This is indicated in the Extract 43:

Extract 43

Lecturer: Okay, then the third and the last change in changing from direct to indirect speech. The third and the last change is the change in the words. Other words also change. What are those other words? They are made from (a minute let me finish cleaning the board "ahaa") yes, so the other words in the direct speech, the word "this", changes to 'that' 'these' become 'those' 'here' becomes 'there' 'now' becomes 'then' ago to before, yesterday to the previous day, today to that day, tomorrow to the next day, last week to the previous week, or the week before and it follows in that order. *So lets us go back* to our very first sentence. "We have to buy the goods today,

so in indirect speech, what will it be? The man said that 'ahaa' yes, yes. The man said that anybody (students speaks) louder, louder

Student: The man said that we have to buy the goods that day.

In Extract 43, the lecturers used the discourse marker ***so let's go back*** to refer to the student's prior discussion that enhances the comprehension of the day's delivery. His use of ***so let's go back*** indicates the lecturer was already discussing with students how to change direct to indirect speech and the lecturer was referring to a sentence already mentioned but hasn't been changed from the direct to the indirect speech yet. His mentioning of ***so let's go back*** to our very first sentence is to refer to a sentence already under study.

4.2.3.1.2 Alright let's go back

Extract 44 below also performs a referrer function.

Extract 44

Lecturer: They said… You said friends advised him (full stop) then you have they said 'hmm'. From what you have said if I am marking, I will say it's wrong. I told you whatever you do on paper when you are answering verbally say the same thing you will do on paper so that we will listen, we will know what to do. Yes, again (student repeats what he said) (students laugh) capital K (they all laugh) ***Alright let's go back*** to six. We are now going to do the correction on the fragment. "The baby whose mum died while the nurse was away. I gave you two solutions for fragments… yes, give me one.

Student: The baby whose mum died while the nurse was away is now my lecturer.

From the extract above it can be deduced that the lecturer was teaching students how to change fragment to a meaningful sentence. After an extensive explanation to students by the lecturer on how to make a sentence meaningful, she used the discourse marker ***alright let's***

go back to refer to sentence six which she has already mentioned but did not effect the necessary change and asks a student to correct the sentence. By referring to sentence six she tries as much as possible to make the students understand how to correct sentences.

4.2.3.2 Shared knowledge

The lecturer used discourse markers that are clausal in structure to perform shared knowledge function. This is shown in the following extract:

4.2.3.2.1 So you see

The marker ***so you see*** as a discourse marker is used in the text to perform the function of sharing knowledge. This is done to reduce the social distance between student and lecturer. It reminds students of the points stated and to build on it. Thus, ***so you see*** is used in Extract 45 to indicate shared knowledge.

Extract 45

Lecturer: He brought her flowers, what is the verb?

Students: brought

Lecturer: Brought, what is the tense?

Students: past

Lecturer: Took her to the movies, what is the verb?

Students: took

Lecturer: What tense?

Students: Past

Lecturer: And bought her an expensive phone. What is the verb in there?

Students: bought

Lecturer: And then tense

Students: past

Lecturer: ***So you see***, dated, brought, took, bought, they are all verbs and they are all in the past tense. Now assuming we have something like this. 'When

Henry dated Maggie he brought her flowers, is taking her to the movies, and bought her an expensive phone'. Then where we have 'is taking her to the movies' that is faulty. So if you are asked to correct it, what do you do?

In the extract, the lecturer was lecturing on parallel construction and how to correct it when it is wrongly written. The lecturer drilled students on tenses for a while through the use of different sentences and explained the use and importance to these students. With this prior knowledge lecturer and students have about parallel construction, the lecturer used the marker *so you see* to indicate this shared knowledge to emphasize the point being

made for better comprehension as such mentioning the verbs she used in her explanation simultaneously. Another lecturer in Extract 46 also used *so you see* as shared knowledge marker.

Extract 46

Lecturer: The first one, read it and then we will (pause) we want to find out whether it falls under (pause) it is a sentence fragment then we are going to write F, it's a run-on sentence: fused or comma splice then we are going to write R, if it is a faulty construction then we are going to write the letter P. mhmm Yes! (Student) speaks. ***So you see*** there are sentences in there. Yes, the first one, mhmm

Student: P

Lecturer: What makes it P?

Prior to Extract 46, the lecturer had taught students what sentence fragment, run-on sentence, and faulty constructions are, and how to correct these sentences when students come across them. In the extract provided, the lecturer tries to solve questions with students

to help them in their future studies. The lecturer, therefore, used the discourse marker ***so you see*** to draw students' attention to what the class has already discussed and thus prompting them on the parallel constructions they are discussing.

4.2.3.3 Discourse organizer

To develop a topic, the organization of the lecturer's content must be considered. According to Schegloff (2007) in the development of a topic, discourse markers mark a particular sequence to see how they relate to the suspected project, theme, or stance, which is essential to interactional projects. The DMs that were used as organizers functioned to cohere the delivery to make them more meaningful for comprehension by students.

4.2.3.3.1 Okay let's go on

The marker ***okay let's go on*** functions as discourse organizer. This is used as a means of structuring the text. In relation to this, Ostman (1982) asserts that discourse markers have mainly pragmatic functions, which usually provide the interlocutors with clues about how to decode utterances so that communication will be effective. In the text therefore the discourse marker okay lets go has been used to organize the discourse by drawing students attention to the next salient point. Extract 47 depicts *okay let's go on* used as discourse organizer.

Extract 47

Okay, let's go on to the second clause. It's a subordinate to the first clause but is superordinate to the next clause. 'Because he took someone's mobile phone' So they agree in terms of hierarchy. So when this happens we have a hierarchy of clauses. One within another, built into great complexity.

Now if there are two clauses in a sentence and one is a subordinate, then the other is paramount. I want us to look at our first subject under this.

So formal indicators of subordination or if you like markers of subordination. These factors help us to know that we are dealing with subordination, so formal indicators of subordination. Now generally subordination is marked by something contained in the subordinate clause rather than the superordinate clause. **So** depending on how the sentence…

In the extract, the lecturer used ***okay let's go*** on as an organizer because before the discussion on the second clause the lecturer was discussing and analyzing clauses with students. The use of the discourse marker ***okay let's go*** on after a pause is an organizing marker because *okay* in this instance has been used to mean that I have accepted your points or answer for the first clause while the micro marker ***let's move on*** brings us to another segment, thus, informing the second clause so they should organize their thought for that section. On the other hand, in Extract 48, the lecturer used the discourse marker ***now let's move on*** to organize the text.

4.2.3.3.2 Now let's move on

The marker ***now let's move*** on as a discourse marker is also used to draw students attention to the fact that they are moving on to a salient point so they pay attention to the point made. This helps to draw the attention of students who have drifted from the lecture back to the classroom.

Extract 48

Lecturer: I have talked about three uses of interviews. Mention one

Student: We get to know each other

Lecturer: Yes…

Students: Both interviewer and the interviewee can send information eligibly.

Lecturer: **Now let's move on** to the types…

In Extract 48, the lecturer was delivering on uses of an interview and in a bid to organize the text for the students to follow, and for them to know they are moving from the previous ideas to another idea or points, he used the discourse marker ***now let's move on***. Trillo (1997) is of the view that discourse markers are used as interaction tools. The use of **now** in this instance has been used as a summary to say I am done with this (uses of interview), then the use of **let's move on** here has been used to function as drawing their focus along to the next idea or points (types of interviews). He used the discourse marker after receiving a positive response from students indicating that they had understood the delivery. If they had understood, then it meant he could move on, thus his use of the discourse marker. He used the discourse marker after receiving a positive response from students indicating that they have understood the delivery. If they had understood, then it meant he could move on, thus his use of the discourse marker.

Another use of ***now let's move on*** is found in Extract 49. Here, the lecturer used ***now let's move on*** to organize the text.

Extract 49

If I am asked to correct it, then I will take away the 'watching', then I will replace it with 'to watch'. Okay, so that is that. *Now let's move* to the next stage. Exercise one. Now, this is how the questions are set. For the following construction, indicate in the bracket with each, F for a sentence which is sentence fragment, R for a run on and then P for faulty parallelism.

In the extract, after the lecturer has concluded lecturing on a topic, she used the discourse marker to draw students' attention to the completion of the topic as such testing them on how to answer questions on that particular topic. The discourse marker ***now let's move on***, in this case, is used to mean we are done talking about this topic hence the use of

now and ***let's move on*** is to draw students' attention to the answer and how the lecturer expects them to answer these questions.

4.2.3.4 Summary

Micro-macro markers as discussed earlier are a combination of micro and macro markers performing micro-macro functions. The discourse markers identified as micro-macro markers were *so let's go back*, *alright let's go back,* so you see, *okay let's go on*, and *now let's move on.* These markers were analyzed and used to perform a referential, interpersonal, and structural function.

4.2.4 Micro-micro markers

Micro-micro markers, unlike micro markers, appear in succession. They are a combination of two or more micro discourse markers performing micro functions just like micro marker in spite of their characteristics as coming in succession. These markers function as consequence and emphasis. They fall under the referential and structural categories. In spite of their characteristic as coming in succession, they still perform micro functions in text. Table 4.2.4 represents the micro-micro markers found in the data.

Table 4.2.4. Micro-micro markers and their functions

Markers	**Category**	**Function**
So because	Referential	Consequence
Ok so	Structural	Emphasis

4.2.4.1 Consequence

The micro-micro marker *so because* is said to show consequences because it is used to give reason. This occurs when Sentence 2 occurs as a result of Sentence 1. In this study,

the discourse marker ***so because*** is used concurrently as a micro-micro marker to give reason. Both ***because*** and ***so*** have a 'cause-effect' and 'reason' in view of its discourse use (Schiffrin, 1987). She explains that because and so are both markers of subordinate ideas

This is seen in Extract **50** the lecturer used ***so because*** as a marker of reason.

Extract 50

Lecturer: 'The lecturer together with his wife and children…' is the subject but we have the true subject. Which of them do you think is the true subject? The lecturer is the true subject. Singular or plural?

Students: singular

Lecturer: singular, then after it comes together with so when you see 'together with', accompanied by, 'no less than', 'including', 'in addition to', 'in conjunction with', coming immediately after it, not withstanding you use a singular verb, so 'the lecturer together with his wife and children has left for the United States'. If you use 'have' you are wrong. *So because* you have lecturer and his wife and children, you go and use 'have' aah you will be wrong.

In the extract, the lecturer used the ***so because*** as micro-micro markers to give reason to students on the rules and use of an intervening phrase during sentence construction. After explaining to students what and how to identify and use an intervening phrase in subject verb agreement, he gives an example of a sentence to analyze and finally uses the marker *so because* to give reason for his explanations.

On the other hand, the lecturer in Extract 51 used the micro-micro marker ***ok so*** for Emphasis. When a speaker places extra ideas on a particular text with a marker which in turn draws the students' attention to the particular text for comprehension, it is considered as giving emphasis. The use of these markers draws the students' attention to the particular text

for comprehension. In the data collected, the use of emphasis is depicted through the use of the discourse marker ***so ok*** as illustrated below.

Extract 51

Lecturer: You are not looking for one only, you are replacing, you are using letters.

Students: R

Lecturer: Why (students speaks) *ok so* the correction, we see that here one is running into the other or fused to the other. The bus collided with the salon car, there is supposed to be a pause or a break over there before we move on to the next part 'it was a disaster'.

In Extract 51 the markers ***ok*** and ***so*** are used concurrently as emphasis on the sentence explained. The emphasis was necessary to get the attention of the students to the different ways of correcting run-on sentences in a text. The marker ***ok*** was first used to accept students answer as Run-on (R) being correct. The marker *so* on the other hand was emphasizing on why the Run on sentences should be corrected in a particular manner.

4.2.4.3 Summary

Micro-micro markers in this thesis can be placed under the broad topic of micro markers. The discourse markers that were identified as micro-micro markers in the data were ***so because*** and ***ok so***. The marker ***so because*** performed function of consequence or reason in the text and categorized as performing referential function while the second marker ***ok so*** perform emphasizing function and categorized as performing structural function.

4.2.5 Macro-macro markers

Unlike macro markers, which do not appear in succession, macro-macro markers always come up in succession. They are a combination of two or more macro discourse

markers and perform macro functions; in this text, performing the function of summarizing. Table 4.2.5 contains macro-macro markers and their functions.

Table 4.2.5. Macro-macro discourse markers and their functions

Marker	Function	Category
So for now, as far as we know	Summarizer	Structural
Ok, so, now	Summarizer	Structural

4.2.5.1 Summarizing

The macro-macro markers used under this section is used to draw the attention of the students to the fact that the lecture is ending and the main points are being revisited. The first part of these markers draws students' attention to the fact that the lecture is ending and the second part summarizes the main points stated for the day. The use of so in both markers supports Fraser (1999), claim that the discourse marker so works as an effective interactional feature in discourse.

In Extract 52, the lecturer used macro-macro marker to summarize points made in the text of the lecture.

Extract 52

Lecturer: That is the number one exception. The exception number two is that when the idea in the direct speech is eternal, the idea holds true forever. When the idea in the direct speech is like that the tense does not change. Up to this time nobody has come to prove that the earth does not move round the sun. Has there been any discovery that the earth does not move around the sun?

Students: No

Lecturer: *So for now, as far as we know,* the earth moves round the sun. and it is eternally true. So in the principal clause, we have the past tense taught, is that not the case?

Students: Yes

Lecturer: But when you are reporting, we gonna have the teacher taught us that the earth, continue for me,

Students: moves

Lecturer: moves round the sun. Do you get it?

In Extract 52, the lecturer in teaching students how to change from direct to indirect speech explained at length to students the rules governing the changes of direct to indirect speech. The use of the macro-macro markers in succession was first to summarize what has already been said by using *so for now.* It is used to end the lecture and *as far as we know* recaptures the lesson. Subsequently, he used another macro marker as a referrer to what they have already mentioned to explain his point, thereby using ***as far as we know*** to summarize his points.

In Extract 53, ***ok so now*** has been used to summarize a topic.

Extract 53

Lecturer: Why is teaches wrong

Student: They are talking about plural

Lecturer: OK

Student: They **teach** well but not *teaches*

Lecturer: Now, what influence the student to cancel the right one, what influences her to cancel the right one, what influences her to cancel this and write that?

Student: Sir, she thought that, that was the right one.

Lecturer: Why did she think that was the right one? Now if you are analyzing for her, this is the plural of the verb. So for you to get a plural 's' that is why she added 's'. *Ok so now* one thing you should know about subject verb agreement for most of the subjects and the verbs is only one 's' at a time. Yes!

The lecturer in the extract was delivering a lecture on *subject verb agreement*. He illustrates to students what type of subject corresponds with a verb. He ends his point by using the marker ok so now to summarize all the points he made to the students on the subject that agrees with a verb. After a student explains his understanding of how a particular subject and verb have been used, the lecturer utilized the cluster of markers ***ok so now*** to summarize the points made. The use of *ok* is to show acceptance of the response given. The marker ***so*** and ***now*** are used to summarize all the points made.

4.2.6 Summary

The discourse markers identified and discussed in this section are micro markers, macro markers, micro macro markers, micro-micro markers and macro-macro markers. Micro markers as discussed are considered as lower-order markers of segmentations and inter-sentential connection. This is used as linkages within sentences so that relation of one clause to another clause or one sentence to another is easily comprehended. This is in agreement with Yang (2011) who asserts that discourse markers mainly function as connectives as defined in systematic functional grammar to connect preceding and following segments in meaning. This section also identified the micro markers *because*, *so*, *then*, *and*, *but*, and *actually* and used them to perform diverse functions such as consequence, temporal, contrast, and emphasis. These markers were further placed under referential and structural categories.

Macro markers as discussed in the introduction of this chapter are considered as higher-order markers that identify and sequence important information in discourse. These markers are used to signal transition and move from one place of a lecture to another (Chaudron & Richards, 1986). The markers that were identified as macro markers were used to perform different functions such as topic shifting, organizing, summarizing, marking shared knowledge, and reformulating among others. The markers that were identified as macro markers are okay, *Alright, Now, so, Good, let's look at, yes, let's say, I mean and you see.* These markers were used to signal transition and move from one place of a lecture to another. Micro-macro markers as discussed earlier are a combination of micro and macro markers performing micro-macro functions.

The discourse markers identified as micro-macro markers were *so let's go back*, *alright let's go back,* so you see, *okay let's go on*, and *now let's move on.* These markers were analyzed and used to perform referential, interpersonal, and structural function. Micro-micro markers in this thesis can be placed under the broad topic of micro markers. The discourse markers that were identified as micro-micro markers in the data were ***so because*** and ***ok so***. The marker ***so because*** performed the function of consequence or reason in the text and was categorized as performing referential function while the second marker ***ok so*** performed emphasizing function and categorized as performing structural function. The discourse markers identified as macro-macro markers in the data were *so for now as far as we know* and *ok so now.* These markers performed the function of summarizing in the text. Again they were categorized as performing structural functions within the data.

4.3 Conclusion

The chapter discussed the different types and functions of discourse markers identified in the data. The findings showed that the lecturers used discourse markers to

perform three main functions. The first is the micro function performed by micro markers, macro markers follow performing macro functions, and finally, the third being micro-macro markers that perform micro-macro functions. Two other markers were identified in the study. They are micro-micro markers and macro-macro markers. Unlike Chaudron and Richards (1986), who identified only three types of discourse markers with their various functions, one sub-version of micro markers and another of macro markers were identified in this thesis. In all, two micro-micro and two macro-macro markers were identified in this study. These markers; micro, macro, micro-macro, micro-micro, and macro-macro markers were used to perform various functions including topic shifting, topic opening, organizing, summarizing, marking shared knowledge, referring, and reformulating. Micro markers performed functions such as temporal links, causal links, contrastive relations, and emphasis.

The findings revealed that macro markers were frequently used by lecturers more than micro and micro-macro markers. In all, 33 markers representing the total number of markers were analyzed in the data. 6 different micro markers were representing 18% of all the markers identified in the data. Macro markers analyzed in this chapter totaled 18 in number representing 55% of the markers in the data and micro-macro markers analyzed totaled 5 representing 15% of the markers used. Micro-micro markers identified and analyzed totaled 2 representing 6% while the macro-macro markers identified and analyzed totaled 2 also representing 6%. Macro markers had a higher percentage among the markers used with the reason being that they make the text more meaningful than micro markers. This aligns with Chaudron and Richard's argument that macro markers contribute to successful recall of lecturers than micro markers since according to them micro markers are lower-order markers that do not aid the learner's retention of the lecturer and also do not add enough content to make the subsequent information meaningful and understanding.

The analysis showed that most of the discourse markers used by the lecturers could be classified as structural. For example, out of 33 discourse markers identified, 22 could be categorized as structural representing 67% of the total number. This may be because the lecture is the delivery of texts. This is in line with Fung and Carter (2007, p. 105) who asserts that "structural category embodies opening and closing of text, sequencing, topic shifts, summarizing and continuations". This is characteristic of lecture delivery and as such may account for this high percentage. The referential category accounted for 7 representing 24%, discourse markers at this category mark relationships between verbal activities preceding and following a discourse marker. Markers at this level function as consequence, temporal markers, contrast and emphasis.

This is in agreement with Yang's (2011) assertion that on the referential level, discourse markers mainly function as sentence connectives as defined in systematic functional grammar to connect preceding and following segments in meaning. The cognitive category had 1 representing 3% while the interpersonal category had 2 representing 6 %. The analysis suggests that the use of discourse markers helped lecturers to get responses that aided them to restructure their delivery to the benefit of their students.

Discourse markers in this study signal links and transitions between topics. They function as opening and closing of topics which is in relation to Fung and Carter's (2007) claim that discourse markers function to signal topic shifts and turn taking on the structural level. The study therefore reveals that there are three main types of discourse markers (micro markers, macro markers, and micro-macro markers which are in line with Chaudron and Richards' (1986) work. The study also revealed that apart from these markers two other markers were discovered (micro-micro, macro-macro). This makes comprehension of lectures easy and adds up to the already existing literature on discourse markers in general.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, RECOMMENDATIONS, AND CONCLUSION

5.0 Introduction

The purpose of this study was to explore the discourse markers used in lecture delivery at Kumasi Technical University. The study investigated the types of discourse markers employed by lecturers of Kumasi Technical University and the extent to which these markers helped students in comprehending lecturers better. Based on this, twenty-nine discourse markers were selected from the various types of markers identified using qualitative research approach. This chapter reports the main findings, draws conclusions, states pedagogical implications and offers suggestions for further studies.

5.1 Summary of findings

The summary of findings is presented in accordance with the order of the research questions. The first part discusses the types of discourse markers identified in the data, while the second part dwells on the functions the markers identified played in the study. The first research question is stated as follows: What are the discourse markers used in lecture delivery in Kumasi Technical University? The findings showed that lecturers from Kumasi Technical University in the bid to make students have a better understanding of lectures used micro markers, macro markers and micro macro markers frequently in their lecture delivery. The findings are consistent with Chaudron & Richards (1986) who identified the types of discourse markers as micro, macro and micro-macro markers. Apart from these, two other markers were discovered: micro-micro markers and macro-macro markers. In all, 33 different types of markers were used during these presentations. The results showed the markers fall under various categories ranging from being referential, structural, cognitive and interpersonal.

5.1.1.1 Micro markers

The findings revealed that the lecturers' use of micro markers was not as prevalent as those of macro markers. Out of the 29 markers used in the data, only six were micro markers representing 18% of discourse markers identified. The micro markers identified in this thesis were, *but, because, and, then, actually* and *so*. Micro markers are lower-order markers of segmentations and inter sentential connections. The micro markers used by the lecturers were broadly classified as referential and structural with 5 out of the 6 markers falling under the referential and 1 under structural categories. The micro markers can be classified as performing structural cognitive and inter-personal functions

5.1.1.2 Macro markers

The markers that were frequently used in the data were macro markers. There were 18 macro markers representing 55% of the total number of discourse markers identified. The markers that were identified as macro markers were single words such as *okay, alright, now, so, good, yeah*, and clauses such as *let's look at, let's say, I mean,* and *you see.* The macro markers are described as higher-order markers signaling major transitions and emphasis. The use of markers in the structural category dominated any other category in this section

5.1.1.3 Micro macro markers

The third type of marker identified in the study is micro macro markers, consisting of both micro as well as macro markers. This type occurs in succession with the first part being a micro marker and the second, a macro marker. There were 5 micro macro markers that were employed and they represent 15% of the number of markers used in the data.

5.1.1.4 Micro-micro markers

Micro-micro markers were used by lecturers in their lecture delivery. This marker also occurs in succession with both the first part and the second part being micro markers. In

both instances, 2 micro markers were used in the data representing 6% of the total number of discourse markers used in the data. They were used for emphasis and to indicate consequence in the text. They further performed structural and referential functions.

5.1.1.5 Macro-macro markers

Macro-macro markers identified in the data were essentially used to perform macro function of text structuring. They occur in succession with both parts being macro markers. In the data presented, 2 macro-macro markers were used representing 6% of the total number of discourse markers used. They were used for summarizing text and performed structural functions. The use of the structural category dominated the other three categories. The analysis thus revealed that the functions performed by these markers can be broadly categorized into four. The findings are consistent with the argument by Fung and Carter (2007) who identified four main categories. They argue that functions of discourse markers can be categorized as interpersonal, referential, structural and cognitive functions. They note that in interpersonal functions, discourse markers such as modal verbs are used often to reduce the social distance between the speakers through the process of sharing common knowledge and indicating agreed attitudes. Discourse markers used in the referential category mainly function as sentence connectives to connect preceding and following segments in meaning. In structural category, Fung and Carter (2007) generalize discourse markers as functioning to signal topic shifting and turn taking. Finally, discourse markers can also work as cognitive devices to denote the thinking process in utterances" (Fung & Carter, 2007, p. 415).

5.1.2 Functions of discourse markers

Research Question 2 was concerned with functions that these markers perform in lecture delivery as seen in Kumasi Technical University. The analysis revealed that the micro

markers produced by the lecturers performed functions such as contrastive, temporal, consequence and emphasis. Macro markers were used to perform functions such as topic opening, closing, shifting, organizing, summarizing, marking shared knowledge and reformulating. Micro-macro markers are consistent with Thornburg and Slade's (2006) and Schiffrin's (2001) assertions that discourse markers often become combined. That is, these markers may be used in succession were used to perform referring, organizing and sharing of knowledge functions. These findings also support the observation of Thompson (2003) that the most commonly used method of transferring information in the classroom is through lectures, which come in many forms. She asserts that for the lecturer to improve students' English comprehension, studies on lecture discourse recommend that lecturers use for example, accurate representations of the macro-structure.

Taking into consideration the functions identified in this study, it can be argued that the importance of discourse markers in lecture delivery cannot be underestimated. This is so because lecture delivery becomes less involving and interactive without these markers which portray receipt of information, agreement and involvement. The implication of this in lectures is that there is the need for the lecturer to the use of discourse markers to help them introduce segments or draw students' attention to the next segment in a lot of ways. This supports the claims by Chaudron and Richards (1986) that research into lecture comprehension processes, whether L1 or L2, points out the effectiveness of learning about discourse markers for comprehension. Another finding was that discourse markers are useful in the flow of conversation, and this is an important part of classroom interaction. As observed by Othman (2010), lecturers used the discourse markers as signposts on the structural level when taking turns in lecturing as a subconscious behaviour. Although little attention has been given to the use and functions of discourse markers in the pedagogical environment, they are constantly

used in teacher talk to help create effective flow of information from teachers to students in different stages of the learning process, if used appropriately (Yu, 2008).

5.2 The importance of discourse markers in lecture delivery

Discourse markers play vital roles in lectures. They make a text cohesive by promoting clarity. Guth posits that "apt transitional phrases help the reader move smoothly from one point to the next" (Guth 1980, p. 49). Sloan (1984) buttresses this point by suggesting that "in order to avoid the unclarity of the discourse, discourse markers must be used in papers which are characterized by so many logical analyses and arguments" (p. 168). It is therefore evident that discourse markers bring out the clarity of text and its better understanding. Chaudron and Richards (1986) further enhance this point with the argument that listeners benefit from the presence of signaling cues in lecture delivery. They buttress the fact that discourse markers aid the comprehension and that their use in the lecture environment is very important.

In relation to this, Euan (2003), after investigating the effects of discourse markers on the listening comprehension of students during a lecture, noted that they aid students in understanding the lecturer. Othman (2010) also supports this assertion by commenting that in educational settings, discourse markers are found to have a positive role in classroom context as effective conversational endeavours. Crismore (1989) highlights the importance of discourse markers in English studies and observe that they can lead to more efficient and effective speaking, listening, writing, reading, interpreting, and critical thinking. The absence of discourse markers under certain circumstances may create ambiguity that can cause the reader to misunderstand or misread the text. Another importance of discourse markers especially micro-markers is that they act as fillers. This way, they allow readers to pause and to catch their breath before bringing in their next thought. Although Chaudron and Richards

(1986) found some negative findings on discourse markers, they noted that they might nevertheless facilitate comprehension of spoken text by acting as filled pauses, thereby giving listeners more time to process the speech signal and making its segmentation more explicit.

According to their study, lectures are informationally dense, and micro-markers could help to dilute the rate at which the listener has to absorb information. In consonance with this, Brazil (1985) and Brown and Yule (1983) explain that discourse markers fulfill a role in spoken text similar to punctuations in written text, coming as they do at the beginning and end of tone groups. Halliday and Hasan (1989) claim an essentially semantic importance of discourse markers (or as they prefer, "conjunctives"). Conjunctives, for Halliday and Hasan, play an anaphoric role of the semantic relations pertaining to a given clause and its preceding clause. Another was that discourse markers have been identified to be important in a lecture is its role of signaling whether an upcoming stretch of text is to be interpreted as continuous or discontinuous with the current stretch. That is, to signal deictic continuity or deictic shift and the semantic-pragmatic views of functions of markers (Segal et al, 1991). According to them, whereas the semantic-pragmatic interpretations are concerned with the meaning inherent in the markers, the mental model-deictic shift interpretation relates to how the perceiver utilizes the information derived from the markers.

According to Walsh (2006), discourse markers in teacher talk play an important role for students to better understand teacher talk, which then helps them to improve learning efficiency. Available literature indicates that in lecture structuring, lecturers use strategies such as topic shifting, opening, organizing summaries, reformulating, and closers, to make it coherent for easy comprehension by students. Discourse markers play a very important role in lecture delivery. This is because they help the lecturer to organize the text coherently for comprehension without discourse markers, a lecture will not achieve coherence and thus lead

to the disorganization of the text. The effect of this will be lack of comprehension of the lecture delivered. According to Chaudron and Richards (1986), another importance of discourse markers is that macro markers aid in recall of a text. Discourse markers in lectures also provide an intended impact on the delivery. In line with this, Sankoff et al (1997) claim that the ability to fluently and confidently express oneself in a second language entails the use of those discourse markers that speakers produce effortlessly.

In support of this, Hlavae (2006) posits that native-like proficiency by definition entails appropriate use of discourse markers. For Biber et al (1999, p. 1086), signaling an "interactive relationship between speaker, hearer, and message" is one of the roles of discourse markers. Also, Jucker and Smith (1998) consider discourse markers negotiating strategies of the common ground between speaker and hearer. Finally, Flowerdew (1994) is of the view that there are two ways to help non-native speakers understand lectures in a second language. Firstly, the use of discourse markers helps improve the knowledge of and skills of learners in the target language until the comprehension process is no longer a problem and secondly, they modify the form of the lectures to vary the input so as to make them easier to comprehend.

5.3 Pedagogical implications

As indicated in the thesis, among tertiary education institutions throughout the world, the lecture is the most extended practice and remains the central instructional activity (Flowerdew, 1994). The lecture class seems to be changing with traditional methods giving way to more interactive methods due to lectures not being homogeneous and static anymore (Waggoner, 1984). Lecturers are therefore perceived at a closer distance by students and play the role of a learning process aid, mentor or facilitator, which suits their viewpoint better. In an attempt to narrow distance and avoid formalisms by lecturers, they allow and encourage

students to communicate with each other and to participate more than in the previous times. To achieve this, lecturers can utilize discourse markers to keep the students with the development and flow of information in the classroom. These markers serve as a means of signaling to the reader the relationship between the current and preceding discourse. The outcome of this study could be used to form a good base for the lecturer to determine the deficiency and weakness of the students in using discourse markers.

Knowing the weakness of the students will enable the teacher to plan to teach. The weakness identified in this study showed students do not have enough knowledge on the various functions of the discourse markers. Meanwhile, students should be able to use different markers that are suitable for various functions such as for adding points, opening discourse, shifting points, and making emphasis among others. These students, in addition to knowing the functions, should also know the types of discourse markers available to them. Another observation made in this study was that discourse markers were overused in these lectures, making their discourse sound monotonous and boring. It can therefore be said that the appropriate use of discourse markers will benefit listeners. This is in consonance with Yu's (2008) assertion that the appropriate use of discourse markers can improve the effectiveness of classroom teaching. Finally, it can be said that the use of discourse markers will help lecturers to effectively connect sentences in their lessons to maintain coherence. It can also help lecturers to deliver text systematically. All these would help students to understand the lectures better and would greatly benefit lecturers in facilitating students' thinking process. Finally, lecturers will also use discourse markers to mark shared knowledge, indicate attitudes, and share responses with the aim of aiding comprehension.

5.4 Suggestions for future research

It would be interesting to conduct a comparative analysis of the types of discourse markers made by different lecturers from the various faculties and departments. Such a comparison will open up avenue for lecturers to know the type of markers needed for specific purposes or associated with the various departments. Unlike the present study where a lecture is involved with or used all the types of discourse markers, a comparative study for these departments will involve several lectures from different departments focusing on particular types of markers. Such a study will reveal the major markers that are associated with these lecturers and the departments they teach to enhance comprehension in their teaching.

Another area of possible study lies in investigating the role of students' use of discourse markers in lecture delivery. Since the present study focused on the role and function in the lecture delivery in relation to lecturer use, how students use these markers may also be examined. Researching into the role of the student in Ghanaian lecture delivery will offer illuminating insights into why and how students react to certain utterances during lecture delivery and the functions of the markers. Such a study will also reveal the major functions that are peculiar with each department and faculty. All these will help obtain insight into the use of discourse markers in lecture delivery in Ghanaian technical universities.

5.5 Conclusion

In all, the present study has extended our understanding and explored the use of discourse markers in lecture delivery in Kumasi Technical University. The findings emerging from the analysis showed that the types of discourse markers as proposed by Chaudron and Richards (1986) were also used in the study; micro, macro and micro-macro markers. The analysis also revealed two other markers that have not been attested to in the literature; micro-micro and macro-macro markers. The findings of the study also confirm the assertion

by Chaudron and Richards (1986) that macro markers are the frequently used markers by lecturers in their delivery, performing the various functions mentioned earlier. It is hoped that this study contributes to existing literature of investigating the discourse markers in lecture genre and towards the studies of the functions of these markers. It also adds to the literature, new findings which may be explored further in future studies. In conclusion, it can be argued that discourse markers are important elements that allow lecturers to effectively present their lectures, and also serve as a framework which to aids comprehension for their novice students.

REFERENCES

Abraham, W. (1991). *Discourse Particles*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Aijmer, K. (2002). *English Discourse Particles*. Evidence from a Corpus. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Alonso, L., Castell´on, I., Gibert, K., & Padr´o, L. (2002). *An empirical approach to discourse markers by clustering.* In M.T. Monferrer & F. T Lobo (Eds.), Proceedings of Topics in Artificial Intelligence: 5th Catalonian Conference on AI, CCIA (pp. 173–183). Berlin: Springer-Verlag Berlin Heidelberg.

and Computational Linguistics, CMCL (pp. 84-93). Madison: Omnipress.

Anderson, A. & Lynch, T. (1988). *Listening*. Oxford: Oxford University Press

Apraku, A. (2017). *The use of discourse markers in lecture delivery_a study of two Public Universities in Ghana* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Education, Winneba).

Ariel, M. (1998). Discourse markers and form-function correlations. In A. Jucker and Y. Ziv (eds.), *Discourse Markers. Descriptions and theory*, 223-259. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Asr, F. T., & Demberg, V. (2013). *On the information conveyed by discourse markers*. In V. Demberg & R. Levy (Eds.), Proceedings of the Workshop on Cognitive Modeling and Computational Linguistics, CMCL (pp. 84-93). Madison: Omnipress.

Ball M. (1986). Exploring Stylistic Variation in the Aspirate Mutation of Welsh. *Etudes*

Barnabas J., & Adamu, M. (2012). Discourse Markers in Nigerian Television News Broadcast. *British Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences, 8*(1), 44-56.

Bazzanella, C. (1990). Phatic connectives as interactional cues in contemporary spoken Italian. *Journal of Pragmatics 14*, 629-647.

Beeching, K., & Detges, U. (Eds.). (2014). *Discourse functions at the left and right periphery: Crosslinguistic investigations of language use and language change*. Brill.

Bellés-Fortuño, B. (2008). *Discourse Markers within the University Lecture Genre: A contrastive study between Spanish and North-American lectures.* PhD dissertation: Universitat Jaume I, Spain.

Ben-Anath, D. (2005). The role of connectives in text comprehension. *Working Papers in TESOL & Applied Linguistics, 5*(2), 1-27.

Benson, M. J. (1989). The academic listening task: A case study. *TESOL Quarterly*, *23*(3), 421-445.

Benson, M. J. (1994). *Lecture listening in an ethnographic perspective*. In Flowerdew, I. (Ed). Academic English: research perspectives (pp. 181-198). Cambridge University Press: Cambridge:

Bestgen, Y. (1998). Segmentation markers as trace and signal of discourse structure. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *29*(6), 753-763.

Biber, D. (1988). *Variation across Speech and Writing*. Cambridge: Cambridge University.

Biber, D., Stig, J., Geoffrey, L., Susan, C. & Edward, F. (1999). *Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English*. Harlow: Pearson Education Limited.

Blakemore, D. (1987). *Semantic constraints on relevance*. Cambridge, MA: Blackwell.

Blakemore, D. (1989) Denial and contrast: A relevance theoretic analysis of BUT. *Linguistics and Philosophy*, *12*(1), 15–37.

Blakemore, D. (1992). *Understanding utterances: An introduction to pragmatics*. Cambridge, MA & Oxford: Blackwell.

Blakemore, D. (1996). Are apposition markers discourse markers? *Journal of Linguistics*, *32*, 325-47.

Blakemore, D. (2002). *Relevance and linguistic meaning: The semantics and pragmatics of discourse markers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Bolden, G. B. (2006). Little words that matter: Discourse markers "so" and "oh" and the doing of other-attentiveness in social interaction. *Journal of Communication*, *56*(4), 661-688.

Brazil, D. (1985). *The communicative value of intonation*. Birmingham, UK: English Language Research/ Bleak House.

Bright, W. (1992). *International encyclopedia of linguistics*. Oxford: Oxford University

Brinton, L. J. (1996). *Pragmatic markers in English: Grammaticalization and discourse functions*. Mouton de Gruyter, Berlin & New York.

Brown, G. (1990). *Listening to spoken English.* London: Longman.

Brown, G. & Yule, G. (1989). *Teaching the spoken language: An approach based on the analysis of conversational English*. Cuba. Edicion Revolucionaria.

Brown, G., & Yule, G. (1983a). *Discourse analysis*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Brown, G., & Yule, G. (1983b). *Teaching the spoken language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Brown, P. & Levinson, S. C. (1987). *Politeness: Some Universals in Language Usage*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Bussman, H. (2006). *Rouledge dictionary of language and linguistics*. London: Routledge.

Calsamiglia, H., & Tusón, A. (1999). *Las cosas del decir. Manual de análisis del discurso*. Barcelona: Ariel.

Campbell, C. & Smith, J. (2007). *English for academic study: Listening*. Garnet Publishing.

Carter, R. A. & McCarthy, M. J. (2006). *Cambridge Grammar of English: A Comprehensive Guide to Spoken and Written Grammar and Usage*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Castro, C. M. C. (2009). The use and functions of discourse markers in EFL classroom interaction. *Profile*, *23*, 255-264.

Chaudron, C. (1983). Simplification of input: topic reinstatements and their effects on L2 learners' recognition and recall. *TESOL Quarterly*, *17*(3), 437-458.

Chaudron, C. & Richards, J.C. (1986). The Effect of Discourse Markers on the Comprehension of Lectures. *Journal of Applied Linguistic*, *7*(2), 113-27. *contrastive study between Spanish and North American Lectures* (Unpublished

Cook, J. R. S. (1975). *A communicative approach to the analysis of extended monologue discourse and its relevance to the development of teaching materials for ESP*. Unpublished M. Litt. Thesis. Edinburg: University of Edinburg.

Coulthard, M. M. (1981). *The structure of monologue*. In Coulthard, M. &M. Montgomery. (Eds.) Studies in discourse analysis. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.

Crismore, A. (1989). *Talking with readers: Meta discourse as rhetorical act*. New York: Peter Lang.

DeCarrico, J. & Nattigner, J.R. (1988). Lexical phrases and the comprehension of academic lectures. *English for Specific Purposes*, *7*, 91-102.

Degand, L. (2014). 7 'So very fast then'. Discourse markers at left and right periphery in Spoken French. In *Discourse Functions at the Left and Right Periphery* (pp. 151-178). Brill.

Del Pozo, M. Á. M. (2016). Discourse markers and lecture structure: their role in listening comprehension and EMI lecturer training. *Language Value*, *8*, 26-48.

Demberg, V. & R. Levy (Eds.) (2013). *Proceedings of the Workshop on Cognitive Modeling and Computional Linguistics*. Sofia, Bulgaria: The Association for Computational Linguistics.

Der, C. (2010). On the status of discourse markers. *Acta Linguistica Hungarica*, *57*(1), 3-28 doctoral thesis). Universitat Jaume I: Castellón.

Douglas, A. (2001). *Discourse analysis for language teachers. Retrieved June 13, 2008, from the Center for Applied Linguistics: Digests*. Web site: http://www.calorg/resourses/digest/0107 demo html

Dudley-Evans, A. & Johns, T. F. (1981). *A team teaching approach to lecture comprehension for overseas students*. The Teaching of Listening Comprehension, ELT Documents Special.

Dudley-Evans, A. (1994). *Variations in the discourse patterns favoured by different disciplines and their pedagogical implication*. In Flowerdew, J. (Ed.) Academic listening: research perspective. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Dudley-Evans, T. (1994b). *Genre analysis: An approach to text analysis for ESP*. In: Coulthard, M. (ed.) Advances in Written Text Analysis. London: Routledge.

Dudley-Evans, T. (1994c). Variations in the discourse patterns favoured by different Disciplines and their pedagogical implications. *Academic listening: Research perspectives*.

Dunkel, P. & Davis, J. N. (1994). *The Effect of Rhetorical Signalling Cues on the Recall of English Lecture Information of English as a Native or Second Language*.

Durrant, P. (2014) Corpus frequency and second language learners' knowledge of collocations: A meta-analysis. *International Journal of corpus linguistics*, *19*(4), 443-477.

Durrant, P. (2017). Lexical bundles and disciplinary variation in university students writing: Mapping the territories. *Applied Linguistics, 38*(2), 165-193.

Erman, B. (1987). *Pragmatic Expressions in English: A Study of You Know, You See and I Mean in Face-to face Conversation.* Stockholm: English Department, Stockholm University.

Eslami, R. & Eslami, R. (2007). Discourse markers in academic lectures. *Asian EFL Journal*, *9*, 22-38.

Exley, K. and Dennick, R. (2009). *Giving a Lecture: from Presenting to Teaching*. London: Routledge Falmer.

Filipi, A., & Wales, R. (2003). Differential uses of okay, right, and alright, and their function in signaling perspective shift or maintenance in a map task. *Semiotica*, *147*(1/4), 429 - 455.

Firth, J. R. (1957). *Papers in Linguistics*, 1934-1951, London, Oxford University Press.

Fischer, K. (2000). Discourse particles, turn-taking, and the semantics-pragmatics interface. *Revue de Sémantique et Pragmatique*, *8*, 111-137.

Flowerdew, J. & Miller, L. (1997). The teaching of academic listening: comprehension and the question of authenticity. *English for Specific Purposes*, *16*(1), 27–46.

Flowerdew, J. & Tauroza, S. 1995. The Effect of Discourse Markers on Second Language Lecture Comprehension. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *17*, 435-458.

Flowerdew, J. (1994). *Academic listening: research perspectives*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Flowerdew, J. (2003). Signalling nouns in discourse. *English for Specific Purposes*, *22*(4), 329-346.

Flowerdew, J. (ed.) Academic Listening: research perspectives. Cambridge:

Fortuño, B. B. (2006). *Discourse markers within the university lecture genre: a contrastive study between Spanish and North-American lectures* (Doctoral dissertation). Publications Universitat Jaume·I. Retrieved from http:// www.Tesisenxarxanet/TDX-0526108-134615/index.html

Fouka G. & Mantzoron M. (2011). What are the major ethical issues in conducting research? *Health Science Journal,* 5 (1), 3-14.

Fox Tree, J. E. (2006). Placing like in telling stories. *Discourse Studies*, *8*(6), 723-743.

Fox Tree, J. E. (2015). Discourse markers in writing. *Discourse Studies*, *17*(1), 64-82.

Fox, T., Jean, E. and Schrock, J. C. (2002). Basic Meanings of you know and I mean. *Journal of Pragmatics, 34*(6), 727-747.

Fox, T., Jean, E. and Schrock, J.C. (1999). Discourse markers in spontaneous speech: Oh what a difference an Oh makes. *Journal of Memory and Language*, *40*, 280-295.

Fraser, B. (1990). An approach to discourse markers. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *14*, 383–95.

Fraser, B. (1993). *Discourse marker across languages*. In L. F. Bouton (Ed.), Pragmatics and language learning. (Monograph Series), 4, 1-6.

Fraser, B. (1996). Pragmatic markers. *Pragmatics*, *6*(2), 167–90.

Fraser, B. (1998). *Contrastive discourse markers in English*. In A. Jucker & Y. Ziv, Discourse markers: Description and theory (pp. 301–326). Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Fraser, B. (1999). What are discourse markers? *Journal of Pragmatics*, *31*, 931-952.

Fraser, B. (2004). *An account of discourse markers*. In Garcés, P., R. Gómez, L. Fernández, & M. Padilla. (Eds.). Current trends in intercultural, cognitive and social pragmatics. Sevilla: Universidad de Sevilla: 13-34.

Fraser, B. (2006). *Towards a theory of discourse markers*. In Kerstin Fischer (Ed.), *Approaches to discourse particles* (pp. 189-204). Amsterdam: Elsevier.

Frederick, P. J. (1986). The lively lecture - 8 variations. *College Teaching*, 34(2), 43-50.

Fuller, J. M. (2003). Discourse marker use across speech contexts: A comparison of native and non-native speaker performance. *Multilingua*, *22*, 185-208.

Fuller, J. M. (2003). The influence of speaker role on discourse marker use. *Journal of Pragmatics, 35*, 23-45.

Fuller, J. M. (2003b). Use of the discourse marker like in interviews. *Journal of Sociolinguistics*, *7*(3), 365-377.

Fung, L. (2007). Discourse Markers and Spoken English: Native and Learner Use in Pedagogical Settings. *Applied Linguistics*, *28*(3), 410-39.

Fung, L., & Carter, R. (2007). Discourse Markers and Spoken English: Native and Non-Native Use in Pedagogic Settings. *Applied Linguistics*, *28*(3), 410-439.

Geis, M. L. (1991). *Speechacts and social actions*. Manuscript. The Ohio State University Department of Linguistics.

Gerard, S. (2000). *Discourse Markers*. Center for Applied Linguistics. Learning English online At Warwick.

Giménez, R. 2000. *La repetición lingüística en el género de la clase magistral: El inglés académico oral en el ámbito de las Ciencias Sociales*. Unpublished PhD Dissertation. València: Universitat de València.

Gimenez-Moreno, R. M. (2002). La repeticion linguistica en el genero de la clase magistral: El ingles academico oral en el ambito de las ciencias sociales.

Goffman, E. (1981). *Forms of Talk*. Basil Blackwell, Oxford.

Goldberg, J. (1980). *Discourse particles: An Analysis of the Role of Y'know, I Mean, Well and Actually in Conversation*. PhD dissertation. University of Cambridge.

Grice, H. P. (1975). '*Logic and conversation'* in P. Cole and J. L. Morgan (eds): Syntax and Semantics, Vol. 3: Speech Acts. New York and London: Academic Press.

Grosz, B. J., & Sidner, C. L. (1986). Attention, intentions, and the structure of discourse. *Computational linguistics*, *12*(3), 175-204.

Guth, H. P. (1980). Composition then and now. *Rhetoric Society Quarterly*, *10*(1), 9-16.

Halliday, M. A. K. & Hasan, R. (1976). *Cohesion in English*. London: Longman.

Halliday, M. A. K. (1989) (2nd Edn). *Spoken and written language*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Halliday, M., A., K. & Hasan, R. (1989). *Language, Context and text: Aspects of language in a social-semiotic perspective*. Oxford: Oxford University Press

Hlavac, J. (2006). Bilingual discourse markers: Evidence from Croatian-English code switching. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *38*(11), 1870- 1900.

House, J. (2013). Developing pragmatic competence in English as a lingua franca: Using discourse markers to express (inter)subjectivity and connectivity. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *59*, 57-67.

Hyland, K. (2009). *Academic Discourse: English in a Global Context*. London: Continuum

Hymes, D. (1981). *In vain I tried to tell You: Essays in native American ethnopoetics*. Philadelphia: University of Pennslyvania Press.

Jean, E. & Fox, T. (2014). *Discourse markers in writing*. University of California, Santa Cruz USA

Johns, A. M. (1981). Necessary English: A faculty survey. *TESOL Quarterly*, *15*, 51-57

Jones, J. F. (1999). From silence to talk: cross-culture ideas on students' participation in academic Group discussion. *English for specific group Purposes*, *18*(3), 243-259.

Jones, M. G., & Carter, G. (2013). Science teacher attitudes and beliefs. In *Handbook of research on science education*(pp. 1081-1118). Routledge.

Jordan, R. R. (1989). English for academic purposes (EAP). *Language teaching*, *22*(3), 151-164

Jucker, A. H. & Smith, S. W. (1998). *And people just you know like wow: Discourse markers as negotiating strategies*: in A. H. Jucker and Y. Ziv (eds): Discourse Markers: Descriptions and Theory. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Jucker, A. H. (2002). 11 Discourse markers in Early Modern English. In Richard Watts an Peter Trudgill (eds). Alternative history of English. London and New York-Routledge

Jucker, A. H. and Ziv, Y. (1998b). *Discourse Markers: Descriptions and Theory*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Jung, E. H. (2003a). The role of discourse signaling cues in second language listening comprehension. *The modern language journal*, *87*(4), 562-577.

Jung, E. H. (2003b). The effects of organization markers on ESL learners' text understanding. *TESOL Quarterly*, *37*(4), 749-759.

Jung, E. H. (2006). Misunderstanding of Academic Monologues by Nonnative Speakers of English. *Journal of Pragmatics,* 38(11), 1928-42.

Kerans, M. H. 2001. Live delivery of lectures in a discipline-relevant, sustained-content practice. *TESOL Journal 10*(2-3), 13-17.

Kintsch, W. & Yarbrough J. C. (1982). Role of rhetorical structure in text comprehension. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *74*(6), 828-834.

Knott, A. (1996). *A data-driven methodology for motivating a set of coherence relations* (Doctoral dissertation): University of Edinburgh).

Knott, A. & Dale, R. (1994). Using linguistic phenomena to motivate a set of coherence relations. *Discourse processers*, 18(1), 35-62.

Komar, S. (2007). The interface between intonation and function of discourse markers in English. *ELOPE: English Language Overseas Perspectives and Enquiries*, *4*(1-2), 43-55.

Kroon, C. (1995). *Discourse Particles in Latin: A Study of Nam, Enim, Autem, Vero and At.* (Amsterdam Studies in Classical Philology 4.) Amsterdam: J.C. Gieben.

Labov, W. & Fanshel, D. (1977). *Therapeutic discourse.* New York: Academic Press.

Lambert, V. A. & Lambert C. E. (2012). Qualitative descriptive research: An acceptable design. *Pacific rim International Journal of Nursing Research*, 16(4), 255-256

Lee, K. (2009). Book review of Brinton: The comment clause in English. *Studies in language*, *33*, 1004-1011.

Lenk, U. (1998). Marking Discourse Coherence: Functions of Discourse Markers in Spoken English. *International Review of Pragmatics*, *1*, 293–320.

Levelt, W. J. M. (1989). Speaking: From intention to articulation. *A Bradford book; ACL-MIT Press series in natural-language processing*.

Levinson, S.C. (1983). *Pragmatics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Litman, D. J. (1996). Cue Phrase Classification Using Machine Learning. *Journal of Artificial Intelligence Research*, *5*, 53-94.

Luke, K. (1990). *Utterance particles in Cantonese conversation*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Luke, K. K. (1987). *The establishment of common ground in natural conversation: The case of the utterance particle LA in Cantonese*. Paper read at the 1987 International Pragmatics Conference, Antwerp.

Marcelo D. and Tamar K. (1977). Between semantics and pragmatics: the two types of *but* Hebrew *aval* and *ela*. *eoretical Linguistics, 4*, 143-172.

Matei, M, (2010). *Discourse markers as functional elements*. Bulletin of the Transylvania University of Brasov.

McCarthy, M. (1991). *Discourse analysis for language teachers*. Cambridge. Cambridge University Press.

McDonough, J. (1978). *Listening to Lectures*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

McNaughton, S., Lai, M., MacDonald, S., & Farry, S. (2004). Designing more effective teaching of comprehension in culturally and linguistically diverse classrooms in New Zealand. *Australian Journal of Language and Literacy, 27*(3), 184.

Mendelsohn, D. (1998). Teaching listening. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, *18*, 81-101.

Miller, L. (2002). Towards a model for lecturing in a second language. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, *1*, 145–162.

Miracle, W. C. (1991). *Discourse markers in mandarin Chinese* (Doctoral dissertation, The Ohio State University).

Montgomery, M. (1977). *Some aspects of discourse structure and cohesion in selected science lectures*. Unpublished Master's Thesis: University of Birmingham, Birmingham, UK.

Morell, T. (2004). Interactive lecture discourse for university EFL students. *English for Specific Purposes*, *23*, 325-338.

Morrison, J. W. (1974). *An investigation of problems in listening comprehension encountered by overseas students in the first year of postgraduate studies in science in the University of Newcastle upon Tyne*. Unpublished M.Ed. thesis, University of Newcastle upon Tyne.

Müller, S. (2005). *Discourse markers in native and non-native English discourse*. Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins.

Munby, J. (1978). *Communicative Syllabus Design*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Murphy, D. F. & Candlin, C. N. (1979). *Engineering lecture discourse and listening comprehension*. Practical Papers in Language Education, *2*, 1-79. Lancaster: University of Lancaster.

Nattinger, J. R., & DeCarrico, J. S. (1992). *Lexical phrases and language teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Neuman, W.L. (2007). *Basics of Social Research: Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon

Norris J.M., & Ortega, L. (2001). Does type of instruction make a difference. Substantive findings from a meta analytic review. In R. Ellis (Ed.), *Form-focused Instruction and Second Language Learning* (pp. 157 213). Oxford: Blackwell.

Norris, J. M., Ortega, L. (2000) Effectiveness of L2 instruction: A research synthesis and quantitative meta-analysis. *Language Learning, 50*(3),417-582

Olsen, L. A. & Huckin, T. H. (1990). Point-driven understanding in engineering lecture comprehension. *English for Specific Purposes*, *9*, 33-47.

Ostman, J. (1982). *The symbiotic relationship between pragmatic particles and impromptu speech*. In Nils Enkvist (Ed.), Impromptu speech: A symposium, (pp. 147-77). Abo, Finland: Abo Akademi.

Othman, Z. (2010). *The use of okay, right and yeah in academic lectures by native speaker lecturers: Their 'anticipated' and 'real' meanings.* Discourse Studies, *12*, 5, 665-681.

Perez, M. A. & Macia, E. A. (2002). Metadiscourse in lecture comprehension: Does it really help foreign language learners? *Atlantis*, 7-21.

Polanyi, L. & Scha, R. (1983). The syntax of text and discourse. *Text*, *3*, 261-270.

Quirk, R., Greenbaum, S., Leech, G., & Svartvik, J. (1985). *A comprehensive grammar of the English language*. London: Longman

Redeker, G. (1990). Ideational and pragmatic markers of discourse structure. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *14*, 367 - 381.

Redeker, G. (1991). Linguistic markers of discourse structure. *Linguistics*, 29, 1139 –1172.

Redeker, G. (2000). *Coherence and structure in text and discourse*. In H. Bunt & W. Black (Eds.), Abduction, Belief, and Context in Dialogue: Studies in Computational Pragmatics (pp. 233-263). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Redeker, G. (2006). *Discourse markers as attentional cues at discourse transitions*. In K. Fischer (Ed.), Approaches to Discourse Particles. Retrieved from http://www.elsevier.com.

Richards, J. (1983). Listening comprehension: Approach, design, procedure. *TESOL Quarterly*, *17*(2), 219-240.

Rido, A. (2010). The use of discourse markers as an interactive feature in science lecture discourse in L2 setting. *TEFLIN Journal*, *21*(1), 90-106.

Romero T. J. (1997). Your attention, please: Pragmatic mechanisms to obtain then addressee's attention in English and Spanish conversations. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *28*, 205–21.

Sackoff G. (1997). Variation in the use of discourse markers in a language contact situation. *Language Variation and Change*, *9*, 191-217.

Sadeghi, B. & Yarandi, A. (2014). Analytical study on the relationship between Discourse markers and Speaking Fluency of Iranian EFL students. *International Journal of Linguistics and Communication*, *2*(2), 101-123.

Sanders, T. & Noordman, L. (2000). The role of coherence relations and their linguistic markers in text processing. *Discourse Processes*, *29*(1), 37–60.

Schegloff, E. A. (2007). *Sequence organization in interaction: a primer in conversation analysis I*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Schiffrin, D. (1987). *Discourse markers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Schiffrin, D. (2003). *The handbook of discourse analysis*. Wiley-Blackwell.

Schifrin, D. (2001). *Discourse markers. Language, meaning and context*. In Schiffrin, D. Tannen, & H. Hamilton (eds). The hand book of discourse analysis (pp. 54-74). Massachusetts: Blackwell.

Schourup, L. (1985). *Common discourse particles in English conversation: Like, well, y' know*. New York: Garland.

Schriberg, E. E. (1994). *Preliminaries to a theory of speech difluencies* (Doctoral dissertation): University of California, Berkeley).

Segal, E. W., Duchan, J. F. & Scott, P. J. (1991). The role of interclausal connectives in narrative structuring: Evidence from adults' interpretations of simple stories. *Discourse Processes*, *14*, 27-54.

Sharndama, E. C. & Yakubu, S. (2013). An analysis of discourse markers in academic Report writing: Pedagogical implications. *International Journal of Academic Research and Reflection*, *1*(3), 15-24.

Shillcock, R., Kirby, S., McDonald, S., & Brew, C. (2001). Filled pauses and their status in the mental lexicon. In *ISCA Tutorial and Research Workshop (ITRW) on Disfluency in Spontaneous Speech*.

Shuttleworth, M. (2008). Descriptive research design-observing a phenomenon. *url: http://explorable. com/descriptive-research-design, date retrieved: February*, *10*, 2013.

Sidner, C. L. (1985). Plan parsing for intended response recognition in discourse 1. *Computational intelligence*, *1*(1), 1-10.

Sloan, G. (1984). The frequency of transitional markers in discursive prose. *College English*, *46*(2), 158-179.

Smit, T. C. (2006). *Listening comprehension in academic lecture: A focus on the role of discourse markers*. (Doctoral dissertation): University of South Africa.

Sperber, D. & Wilson, D. (1995). *Relevance: Communication and Cognition*. Oxford: Blackwell.

Steen, G. (Ed.). (2010). *A method for linguistic metaphor identification: From MIP to MIPVU* (Vol. 14). John Benjamins Publishing.

Stenstrom, A. (1990). *Lexical items peculiar to spoken discourse*. In J. Svartik (Ed.), The London-Lund Corpus of Spoken English (pp. 137-175). Lund, Sweden: Lund University Press.

Stubbs, M. (1983). Discourse analysis: The sociolinguistic analysis of natural language. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Swales, J. M. (1990). *Genre analysis. English in academic and research settings*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Tamm, A. (2011). Cross-categorial spatial case in the Finnic nonfinite system: Focus on the absentive TAM semantics and pragmatics of the Estonian inessive m-formative nonfinites, *Linguistics*, *49*(4), 835-944.

Tehrani, A. & Dastjerdi, H. (2012). The Pedagogical Impact of Discourse Markers in the Lecture Genre: EFL Learners. Writings in Focus. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, *3*(3), 423-429.

Thompson, S. (1994). Frameworks and contexts: A genre-based approach to analysing lecture introductions. *English for Specific Purposes*, *13*, 171-186.

Thompson, S. E. (2003). Text-structuring metadiscourse, intonation and the signalling of organisation in academic lectures. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, *2*, 5-20.

Thornbury, S. & Slade, D. (2006). *Conversation: from Description to Pedagogy*. Cambridge University Press, United Kingdom.

Traugott, E. C. (2010). (Inter) subjectivity and (inter) subjectification: A reassessment. *Subjectification, intersubjectification and grammaticalization*, *66*, 29-74.

Turner, K. (1999). Functional variation of okay/alright usage in spoken discourse. *Special Project, University of New South Wales, Semester*, *2*, 1999.

Van Dijk, T. (1972). *Some Aspects of Text Grammars*. The Hague: Mouton.

Van Dijk, T. (1979). Pragmatic connectives. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *3*, 447-456.

Van Dijk, T. (1997). *Discourse as structure and process*. London: Sage Publishers.

Van Dijk, T. A. & W. Kintsch. 1978. Cognitive psychology and discourse recalling and summarizing stories. In Dressler, W. V. (Ed.), *Current trends in text* linguistics (pp. 61-81). Berlin/ New York: Walter de Gruyter.

Vandergrift, L. (2004). Learning to listen or listening to learn. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, *24*, 3-25.

Ventola, E. (1987). *The structure of social interaction: A systematic approach to the semiotics of service encounters*. London: Frances Printer.

Verschueren, J. (2000). *Understanding Pragmatics*. Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press & Edward Arnold Limited.

Waggoner, M. (1984). The new technologies versus the lecture tradition in higher education: Is change possible? *Educational Technologies*, *24* (3), 7-12.

Walsh, S. (2006). *Investigating classroom discourse*. New York: Routledge.

Wang, Y. (2005). Cognitive Pragmatic Interpretation of Discourse Markers. *Journal of Tianjin Foreign Studies University*, *3*, 44-48.

Ward, N. (2006). Non-lexical conversational sounds in American English. *Pragmatics and Cognition, 14*(1), 129-182

Williams, J. (1992). Planning, discourse marking, and the comprehensibility of international teaching assistants. *TESOL Quarterly*, *26* (4), 693-711.

Wilson, D. (1998). Discourse, coherence and relevance: a reply to Rachel Giora. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *29*, 57–74.

Yang, S. (2011). Investigating Discourse Markers In Pedagogical Settings: A Literature Review. *Annual Review of Education, Communication & Language Sciences*, *8*.

Yong-ping R. A. N. (2002). On the pragmatic Functions of the Discourse Marker "You know". *Journal of Pal University of Foreign Languages*, *4*.

Yong-ping, R. A. N. (2003). A pragmatic account of the Discourse Marker WELL. *Journal of Foreign Languages*, *3*.

Young, L. (1994). University lectures—macro-structure and micro-features: Academic listening. *Research perspectives*, 159-176.

Yu, L. Q. (2008). Interpersonal meaning of discourse markers by foreign language teachers in classroom. *Journal of the Graduates of Sun Yat-Sen University (Social Sciences)*, *29*(3), 129-135.

Zhang, J. (2012). Discourse markers in college English listening instruction: an empirical study of Chinese learners. *English Language Teaching*, *5*(3), 46-61.

Zhao, H. (2014). The textual function of discourse markers under the framework of relevance theory. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, *4*(10), 2105-2113.

Zhuang, X. (2012). A study of the effects of conjunctives on lecture comprehension. *US-China Foreign Language*, *10*(1), 855-863.

Zwicky, A. M. (1985). Clitics and particles. *Acta Linguistica*, *61*, 283–305.

APPENDIXES

LECTURE 1

Lecturer:

The future becomes future in the past. This means that will, will change to would. Then should will be should, no, shall, will be should. So these are the changes that occur so far as the tense is concern. When you are changing from the direct speech to indirect speech or reported speech. These are the changes that occur so far as the tenses is concerned. So here, in this sentence we said that we are going to get, we what, had, to buy the goods. So 'have' which is present changes to 'had' which is past. Do you get it?

Students: Yes sir.

Lecturer: So in that case if the direct speech were we had to buy the goods. What will be the indirect speech? We had to buy the goods would be. What will be the direct speech? Anybody here please. Look at the trend. The rules are there, so we had to buy the goods, what is the tense here, we had to buy the goods, what is the tense here.

Students: Simple past tense

Lecturer: Sorry, oow louder, louder, louder

Students: Simple past tense.

Lecturer: Simple past tense, had, simple past tense. And then the simple past tense, becomes what?

Student: Past perfect

Lecturer: Past perfect. So let's see, we are ahaa. Oow I think that will be a problem for you.

Let me change it for you then I will give you another one. It will be, we had, had to buy the goods. So this second had will be for this one here. The past participle. Then we know that to change into the tense you need the verb 'to have' is that not the case?

Student: Yes

Lecturer: That is why we have this. We had, had, to buy the goods. But let me give you another sentence.

We have, no, (lecturer hesitate and changes sentence) you eat mangoes. From direct to indirect speech will be. You eat mangoes, from direct to indirect will be.

You ate mangoes. Right. Then you ate mangoes, let's take that to be the direct speech. What will be the indirect version? Ahaa!!! What will be the indirect version of "You eat mangoes." Mhmm. You have not been reading. Yes.

Student: You had eaten.

Lecturer: Sorry

Student: You had eaten

Lecturer: You had eaten. You have not been reading, you only remember that you have to read when you are already in class. Let's be careful ooo. Alright.

You had eaten (pauses for a while) mangoes. That is the past to the perfect, ate so ate past, perfect had eaten. "Mmm" do you observe that? Then let us take this sentence here,

We shall read our books everyday "Mmm" That is the promise you are making to me. We shall read our books every day. 'yes'. That is the direct speech, the indirect version will be.

Students: We should read our books.

Lecturer: We should read, shall become should, so we should read our books every day. So that is the first change when you are changing from direct to indirect speech is the change in pronoun let us look at the following sentences.

'yah' change in pronoun, "The teacher is telling Florence something directly". I know where you stay. Now this is the direct speech. Florence is reporting to Mark. (student speaking) sorry. Why are you not bold to talk, let everybody here talk, when after all when you get it wrong no problem, we are all learning.

Yes anybody, ahaa. Yes.

Students: The teacher said he knows where she stays.

Lecturer: "Yah" So the teacher told me that, he what

Students "Knows"

Lecturer: Again he

Students: Knows

Lecturer: "He knew, change; A tense, so the rule still prevails. You get it, so know becomes knew. Where "ahaa" I stay. Good. Then mark is now reporting to James, so what would Mark tell James. These are the, this is the direct speech. What would Mark tell James.

Students: He knew where she stay

Lecturer: So the teacher told Florence that, he knew where, where what, she stays. I will tell you why this tense, this verb did not change. We did not term it that sir, the present changes

to past this is still present, why is it still present, no one asked. I will tell you why. I deliberately left it. Good. Now lets look at something here. 'Eerm' James is now telling the teacher something. He is now reporting. What will James tell the teacher in respect of this direct speech.

Student: He knew where she stays

Lecturer: You said that "You knew where she stays". Good. Now you remember we said that the tense changes: present to past, past to perfect, future to future the past. So that one they correspond but let us look at the pronoun. The direct speech 'I' and then 'you'. The indirect speech 'I' has change to what over here 'he', then "he again", and now what do we 'have' "you". Then 'you' we have 'I' and then what 'she'.

So can we draw the conclusion that, were we have I in the direct speech in the indirect speech we have "he" or "you" can we draw that conclusion. We can't or when we have "you" as the direct speech indirect speech I or she we don't have it. It is the context that will determine the pronoun to be used. Do you get it?

LECTURE 2

Lecturer: As we have done so far, let's get them clear for now, "hmm" drop your table of content and let's talk about the topic. So far we have treated tenses, we have treated voice, we have treated sentence, direct and indirect, subject verb, faulty "aah" (students murmuring) what are you talking about

Student: We have not done direct and indirect speech

Lecturer: "Aaah yoo" okay, then let's go on to faulty construction for today. Let's go to faulty constructions; you are looking at my face "eer yoo". Faulty construction okay, faulty

construction still has to do with sentence remember when we started sentence. It still has to do with sentence, but the point is that sometimes there are certain sentences which we treat us sentence which are not sentences. Remember when we were talking about sentences I told you that for a sentence to be a sentence it must make meaningful meaning by expressing one complete thought. Now if the sentence has all the parts that we are looking for in a sentence for instant verb subject etc, but they don't not express a complete thought; remember we cannot call it sentence remember? If we can't call them sentences this topic is telling us we can call them fragment. When something is in the form of a fragment it's scattered, it doesn't make a complete thought remember? Okay it says a sentence fragment is a group of words that does not express a complete thought; so we can't even call it sentence "oooh" we call it group of words because it is only a part of sentence it should not be allowed to stand by itself.

Most of the time especially when we speak we treat some group of words as sentences though they may not be. We do so by giving them the full stop or the question tone in speech or punctuating them with a full stop, question mark, and exclamation mark in writing. If they mark the properties of a sentence they become a sentence fragment or part of the sentence but not full sentences; so that is it, sometimes too our own writing the way we write and punctuate makes the whole thing wrong. The thing doesn't make a complete though but yet we put a full stop there. If you put a full stop there it means you have finish expressing that idea. You are not going to express it again. However looking at what you have written you can see that it leads much to be added, it means what you have written is wrong that is what the preamble is telling us. Now it went down there to tell us the different types of fragment that we are dealing with, different types of those (small small sentences) we are dealing with, which we think they are sentences but they are not. It says these can be dependent word

fragments ING and fragments other details fragment or missing fragments. They are fragment, they are not complete sentence; remember they are fragment, and the book has told us that fragments are group of words sometimes they have a verb, sometimes they don't have, sometimes the subject of the sentence is there, sometimes the subject of the sentence is not there but to you who thinks that yes it is correct and because of that you put your full stop there and go away; meanwhile it doesn't mean a thing.

Now that it has given us a division it takes the divisions one by one and tell us how to even correct them if we see them that way. How to correct them, now the first word dependent word; if something is dependent it means relying on something. Remember when we were learning clauses we had subordinate clause and then main clause. The main clause is the same as independent clause and then the subordinate clause becomes the dependent clause. Now this one says dependent work simply means that it is depending that thing that, that fragment that we are considering has to depend on something else to make a meaning. Okay lets go and see; these depend on subordinate clause that are treated as sentences and when we were doing the sentence you know that the dependent clause it depends on the main clause to make full meaning. They normally arrives when they begin the sentence for example "since I was only 14" I am sure you are with me.

Student: Yes

Lecturer: "I couldn't get a driver license" that one too full stop. If you put a full stop there it means you have finish expressing your ideas; you have finish. Now you tell me if the who is writing this has finished, there me what is the meaning of since I was only 14. It doesn't mean anything but you said you have finished talking so you have put full stop there. The second one, I couldn't get the driver's license makes more meaning than… but even that one

any questions need to be answered. For instance, I couldn't get a driver's license and somebody will ask you why? Why couldn't you get the driver's license? As for since I was only 14 "deE" we won't talk, since I was only 14 "ahaa" so what happened because you are only 14 so many questions. So you see if you write this way and you end it with you full stop you haven't make sense "oooh" but to you, you think you have make sense. The second word group I couldn't get a driver's license is a complete sentence that is why I even said even though it is a complete that one it still has questions to answer. Why couldn't you get, what did you do and because of that you didn't get. However, the first one since I was only 14 cannot be a sentence but the thought in it is not complete, it leaves several questions unanswered. What did the speaker do, where did she go, how was she treated etc. since she was only 14. If the second group o words should be added to the first then the result can be called a sentence. As that one will express a complete though; so then this is what it becomes "since I was only 14" should depend on I couldn't get a driver's license to become meaningful. So when you put the two together look at A.

"Since I was only 14 I couldn't get a driver's license or I couldn't get a driver's license since I was only 14". When you join the two of them together it makes sense. Remember this is how one of the ways to correct it. When you have two fragment that way, this is the way to do the correction. Correction number one says join the dependent group of words to the main one, the side that does not make sense join it to the one that does not make sense; then the meaning inside will be complete. It is just like adding a subordinate clause to a main clause then the sense inside will be complete. The next thing I want you to look at is open your eyes and look at the joining, how the joining is done. Look at the first one since I was only 14(full stop). I couldn't get a drivers license (full stop). When we were putting these fragments

together look at it “since I was only 14 I couldn’t get a driver’s license or I couldn’t get a driver’s license since I was only 14”. What has happened the full stop after the 14 has gone, have you seen it?

Students: Yes

Lecturer: Then we have the sentence continuing “mepawokyew se wate asee”, good. If you turn it the other way round; you have done it two ways. If you turn it the other way round where I couldn’t get the drivers license starts the sentence, have you seen since the S there; the first letter which is the S the font goes down because it is now joining. Have you seen it? “hmm”. There are the things that you must open your eyes to when you are doing this type of work; why, because when you go to the exam room, the sentences will just be there just like that, maybe 2, and 3 of them. We are joining to make sense. And remember when we are joining we don’t just speak them and put them ‘bam’ this is here then this should add, please you must understand we are joining so when we have the one that is coming to join, the font must step down; if there are any punctuation marks in between you move them or you can also do it this way; by omitting the dependent word and making a new sentence. In the above example the dependent word says when it is omitted the sentence will be like this, it says, you other join the one that makes sense so that the sense will be complete or you can remove the word that is creating the confusion inside the sentence. Remove it from there and then you solve the problem. If you look at the second one since is the word that is creating the confusion. The word “since” so we move it from there, join it then “woasEM nay E pEpEEpE”. I was only 14; I couldn’t get a drivers license. Do I make myself clear? Remember we are talking about correction “ooooh” correction, how to correct these things. That is the essence o the exams so when we reach where we are correcting, you must be very

careful and look at the way the corrections are done. How the fragment has joined to make a complete thought that is the essence of the exam.

Any question? We have finish with the dependent word fragments; you can either join it this way or that way which is the way.

LECTURE 3

Lecturer: So what we have is you find out that when I decide to use the verb, the verb and verb, so when a sentence contains a series it becomes easier to read and understand. If the elements in the series are of the same grammatical structure, the elements can be nouns, adverbs, and adjectives whatever; so when you decide to use the nouns I should have nouns throughout. If I decide to use a verb the particular thing I am talking about should run through. Let's look at an example; "Ghana exports cocoa, minerals and timber". Cocoa is a noun, if you don't know what a noun is, cocoa is a noun, minerals is a name of something. Nouns are names of something so minerals is a noun and timber is also a noun. So this sentence that I have, there is nothing faulty about this because I have mentioned a noun. I have mentioned another noun and then there is another noun. Let's go to the second sentence: "when Henry dated Maggie he brought her flowers, took her to the movies and bought her expensive phone". Now let's go back, "when Henry dated Maggie" what verb do we have in here?

Students: Qualitative

Lecturer: So what verb, I have not asked for the things; I said what verb?

Students: Dated

Lecturer: Dated, what things is it

Students: He brought her flowers

Lecturer: He brought her flowers, what is the verb?

Students: Brought

Lecturer: Brought, what is the tense?

Students: Past

Lecturer: Took her to the movies, what is the verb?

Students: Took

Students: Past

Lecturer: And bought her an expensive phone, what is the verb in there?

Students: Brought

Lecturer: And then tense

Students: Past

Lecturer: So you see, dated, brought, took, bought, they are all verbs and they are all in the past tense. Now assuming we have something like this; "when Henry dated Maggie he brought her flowers, is taking her to the movies and bought her an expensive phone". Then where we have is taking her to the movies that is faulty, so if you are asked to correct it what you do is, is taking her to the movies; you take that off and then you will bring a verb. You will look for the tense of the verb and bring that verb in there. Let's move to the third one. "My sister thought I was too young, too troublesome and ignorant". Now young is an adjective, troublesome is an adjective, and ignorant is also an adjective, so with this sentence

there is no faultiness about it. Alright let's go to the next one. Skip, move to where we have many people, many people get up; have you seen that?

Students: Yes

Lecturer: Many people get up early enough to jog along country lanes. I want you to listen to the sentence carefully. "To jog along country lanes, to observe the wonder of nature or watching the sun come up". Many people get up early enough to jog alone country lanes to observe the wonder of nature and what is faulty about this? Yes!

Student: Watching the sun come up is faulty

Lecturer: Why is that faulty? They are, we have jog; they are not in the present things, they are into infinity. So to jog, to observe, then instead of us having 'to watch', we have watching. So where watching is, that is wrong. If I am asked to correct it, then I will take away the watching, then I will replace it with 'to watch'zx e. Okay so that is that, now let's move to the next stage. Exercise one: Now this is how the questions are sit, for the following constructions indicate in the bracket with earth. For a sentence which is sentence fragment R for Run on and then P for faulty parallelism that is the faulty constructions. After this re-write each of the sentences correctly. Now you see that you have not been told or you have not been, there is nothing like there is a dependent word fragment. You don't see a fuse sentence; you don't see a comma splice, what is a sentence fragment. So all the types that we have done under sentence fragment you are going to look out or any of them and when you see it, the instruction is that use earth, any where you see a sentence fragment whether dependent word, whether missing subject, where other detail, what ever type it is the instruction is that use the letter F capital F to indicate a sentence fragment. Are we okay?

Students: Yes

Lecturer: Then anywhere you see a Run on sentence whether fuse or comma splice use capital R and then anywhere you see faulty parallelism or faulty construction use the letter capital P, so that is what we are going to look at. Now the first one, I I am not going to read any of the sentences I will just mention the figure because when I finish reading I have already done the correction. The first one, read it and then we will, we want to find out whether it falls under is, it a sentence fragment, then we are going to write F is a Run on sentence or comma splice then we are going to write R, is it faulty construction then we are going to write the letter P. "mhmm" yes (student speaks). So you see so sentences in there. Yes the first one "mmm"

Student: What makes it a p?

Lecturer: What makes it a P? Why is it a faulty contraction? Yes!! I am listening; we need to explain so that others get to know. Why it is a faulty construction or faulty parallelism? Parallelism is the same as the faulty construction. Why is it a faulty construction with answer? Leave her to say what she wants to say, yes I am listening.

Student: And the other sentences the "eerm"….

Lecturer: Yes. why is it faulty parallelism?

Student: Because the sentence is a present tense

Lecturer: "Mhmm" you don't tell me the sentence is a present tense we are talking about something in the sentence. The whole sentence cannot be a present tense. The whole sentence can we say it is a present tense? You tell me the verb in the sentence is in the present tense but if you say the sentence is in the present tense it is wrong "mhmm".

Student: And then know that she believing God is a continues…

Lecturer: Tell me specifically what

Student: Madam the ironing is a continuous tense

Lecturer: "Aha' so what should we do

Student: So we change the ironing to iron

Lecturer: And then read it

Student:

Sarah does not cook nice meats not does she iron well

Lecturer: So that is the correction. Sarah does not cook nice meals nor does she iron well. The first one we have cook in the present tense. Now we saying that parallelism is saying let everything because if it is a verb in the present let it moves in that direction. Remember we said parallel lines moves in the same direction. So if I am using a verb in the present tense, present tense, present tense to the end. Cook is in the present tense but we see ironing to be in the present continuous or progressive form so what we are doing is, we are changing the ironing to fit the first form which is present tense. So we have Sarah does not cook nice meals nor does she iron well. Any problem about this? Okay we move to the second one. "The two of you don't have any book in front of you, the two of you no book. They are busy coping in the exercise book. You won't buy the book. It is resting in you suit case or under your pillow which one?" yes the second one? "You decide not to buy the book this is not the type or me to force you, I have never even forced anyone, is your own choice you can decide not to, you can decide to buy it, I won't force you. When you go and write the exams then you will see

the essence of owning a book to yourself not sharing with a friend". Yes the second one, what is our solution? Are we using an F for sentence fragment, is it an F for Run on sentence or is it a P for faulty construction or parallelism. Please if you know it raise your hand. I don't want to have a unisex answer. No you have done too much of talking. Yes!!

Student: Run on sentence

Lecturer: Why is it a Run on sentence?

Student: Because it has two sentence

Lecturer: It has what?

Student: Two sentence

Lecturer: So correct it for us

Student: When he turn they saw her out of the car, he was saved

Lecturer: Are you doing the correction?

Student: Yes one sentence is when he turns they saw her out of the car

Lecturer: Is one sentence?

Student: But he was saved

Lecturer: "Hmm" the correction is wrong; we have more than one sentence over there. So if you tell me is two sentences, is more than two sentences over there. Yes the correction, I am waiting? Yes

Student: When he turn

Lecturer: Please it is a full stop, it is a comma; whatever you are bringing in there. Bring it out for all of us to hear. Don't let me assume or guess it

Student: When he turns, they saw her out of the corner of his eye (full stop) and he was saved.

Lecturer: You brought a full stop then you start then he was saved. No full stop read the sentence again.

Student: When he turn (comma) they saw her out of the corner of his eyes and he was sick.

Lecturer: No, yes!!

Student: When he turn (comma) they saw her out of the corner of his but he was sick

Lecturer: No, yes!! Today is the last day, please talk, talk. The dump people in the room, those whose lips are tight today is the last day, talk. Yes!!

Student: When he turns (comma) they saw her out of the corner of his eyes whom he was sick

Lecturer: Yes!!

Student: When he turns he saw her out…..

Lecturer: When he…

Student: When he turn (comma)

Lecturer:"Aha"

Student: Comma

Lecturer: Okay

Student: He saw her out of the corner of his eyes because he was sick

Lecturer: "Mmm", again.

Student: When he turned (comma)

Lecturer: "Mhmm"

Student: He gets out of the corner of the car because he was saved

Lecturer: Good. When he turned (comma) he saw her out of the corner of his eye because he, (the one who saw the lady) the person was sick and that is why he… do you know what the corner of the eye is? you are saying your hair. The two eyes you have in front of you where is the corner (the students burst into laughter) because he was sick. The third one; so the second one we saw that it was a Run on sentence. We bring a capital R, don't go and bring your own answer if you bring a small R is wrong. Some of you go to the examination room and you don not follow instruction, the instruction is, use a capital R, if you don't know how to write it, learn how to write it. Yes the third one? Yes!!

LECTURE 4

Lecturer: So how many topics have you done.

Students: Two

Lecturer: You are seriously behind the others, I don't know why. You need to finish about three topics before you write your exam.

For the spoken language, let me say that, you have characteristics of, you have spoken language, characteristics of written language yes, is very behind us so, read them for yourself. Read them for yourself. These are not difficult. And let's move on to subject verb agreement. Subject verb agreement (where is the marker); subject verb agreement, (Long pause)

Alright, so subject verb agreement is one of the very important topics in grammar this is to say that, anytime you are writing or speaking you choose a subject, the subject must match with the verb.

This matching process is what we call agreement. The bible said, two people walk without agreeing so lets take the sentence to written

"Kofi plays good football", what is the subject here.

Students: Kofi

Lecturer: What is the subject

Students

Kofi

Lecture: Why is Kofi the subject. (students murmuring) come again

Students

Kofi is the one who is performing the action

Lecturer:

Kofi is the one who is performing the action, so Kofi is the subject. What about this one.

"Life is war" a Ghanaian proverb. What is the subject?

Students:

Life

Lecturer:

Life. Why is life the subject? Why is life the subject? Is it that you can't say it, you can't say what you said. Because here you said Kofi is performing the action, but that in this one. (students talking) come again

Students:

Life is the thing we are talking about

Lecturer : Good that is correct. Life is the thing we are talking about, so if you refuse the subject of a sentence in fact when you talk of a subject it is the verb that has subject but lose the subject of a sentence. Because is the subject that influences the form of the verb but usually we say the subject of the sentence right so this become the subject right because this one is talking about the rest of the sentence is talking about life so we call it predicate so subject and predicate. Kofi is the subject place book eeii so Kofi is a subject, life as a subjects so if you reduce subject to the one producing the action what happens is that there are some verbs that do not press action and leave out words like thus which have verbs that are not actually verbs so the one that will cater for all action verbs and non-action verbs is thus explanation the subject is what the predicate talks about so the predicate is the verb and whatever follows out so when we change the predicate take the verb of whatever form take some like an articulated vehicle or articulated truck with a sentence so the head of a truck where we have the head is the subject and the trailer of the articulated truck is the predicate. Do you see it right and the trailer some are short, some are long so predicate can be one word.

The man died subject predicate died yesterday in his sleep at Komfo Anokye teaching hospital around 3.00 am the subject is the man. The whole of this is the predicate the whole that is predicate so the predicate can be one verb or one verb plus other words so we are saying that in subject verb agreement we must select a subject what matches with verb in the right proposition in terms of numbers. One very important issue that you should know in subject verb agreement is that a singular subject takes a singular verb and a plural subject takes a plural verb thus is the basic rule of subject verb agreement a singular a singular subject matches with a singular verb, plural subject matches with a plural verb if you know thus at your finger tips you will never go wrong whenever you are confronted with a problem of subject verb agreement so we have our subject Kofi one person so lets remove the and lets write the boy play good football. The boy is it singular or is it plural

Students: singular

Lecturer: Singular correct so when is singular then the verb must also be singular come your life singular or plural singular so it also takes singular. That girl eats too much what's our subject the girl, our verb eats, she speaks fluent English. Right our subject is she, our verb speaks might so we don't have any problem with the singular subject now the verbs are plays, eats there is something common to all the verbs lets leave this up 1, 2, 3 verbs there is something common to all of them what is the commonality so, aha, yes all of them end with s, days, eats, so what would you say about a singular verb from thus we need to form an opinion about a singular verb how would you identify a singular verb looking at what we have just said yes the singular verb always has an s ending that is very important singular verbs has s endings in subject verb agreement we don't have past tense the only past tense forms subject verb agreement was and were The boy was, The boys were you cannot say the

boy s was so that is what we mean by singular verbs so now if the singular verb ends in s already like poses you add es it ends on ‘e’ you add es go, does, as in finish you add es. When it ends in h as in watch to watch something watches so that is the nature of the singular verb then, we also have the plural verb vow the plural verb is the opposite of the singular verb the plural verb does not have s there is no s ending at the plural verb so if you have a plural verb the subject must also be plural lets use the same sentence. The boy plays good football so the plural subject takes a plural verb the moment we make the boys what will happen? The s goes away the boys play football, the girl also eat, she so lets make at they, they what speak fluent English so that makes plural subjects matching with a plural verb so that is the basic rule of subject verb agreement that we call grammatical conford concords another word for subject verb agreement so some books will use concord but sometimes concord is a kind of pronoun that’s why most books will say subject verb agreement.

LECTURE 5

Lecturer: Hello class good afternoon “erm” I promised you we will have a lecture today. I earlier told you to go and read on interview. Now I am going to start the lecture. You listen carefully to the lecturer, then afterwards you will go for your book “erm” read and then understand the lecture that I have posted, if you have any questions you can send them to me. I will answer them via Whatsapp. Now what I am going to do in interview is I am not going to do everything because I want us to take our time to understand the whole thing. I will divide it into parts so that you will understand it very well. Now those who cannot join whatsapp I don’t know how you are going do it and repost to them or whatever. Let’s find a way of taking part because when school resume I don’t think I will be going over some of these topics anymore, so our topic for today are talking about interview.

Now some of us might have attended interviews before some might not have attended before but at least you have heard of interviews. Some goes for interviews before they are employed, sometimes for visa you might go for an interview, so I want to us ourselves what is an interview now most of the time when you attend an interview what happens is, there is an exchange of thoughts and feelings. And when it happens that way, the two parties that is the one interviewed and the one doing the interview listen and talk to each other, so I am the one doing the interview I listen to you and then, tell you what is on my mind, what I feel, then you also talk to me, so that is the exchange of thoughts and feelings I have talk about.

Now basically we do this so we know each other better. Now assuming you came for an interview for me to employ you I will talk to you ask you a series of questions in other for me to know you and then you also get to know on who I am and all that. I want to know whether you are eligible for the job that I am going to give to you. So that is what happens.

That is what we mean by interview. Now as I have already said, the interaction can be between individuals, it can also be between groups of people. Now we can divide interview into two forms. We have the formal and the informal types of interview. Those are the types. Basically the broad types because we will be looking at types of interview itself. Now these are the broad types, we have the formal interview and informal. In the formal situation what happens is the interview between the interview that takes place in 1) the specific rules and regulations governing the interview. So what do I mean by specific rules and regulations, probably I have given you an interview lecture, I invite you, you come at a specific time for the interview maybe I record whatever is happening. So that is the difference.

So the informal one, we don't have any laid down rules and regulations. It can happen at any point in time, that is what we call extemple. It can happen at any point in time, there is no

preparation. We don't also take records of whatever that take place at the interview and you can expect a feedback or not expect a feedback. Let me give you an example. For instance, am your roommate and I have heard that you have made a lot of allegations concerning my relationship with you, I can meet you anywhere, on campus at the snack bar at the Cafeteria where ever it is and the moment I meet you I confront you.

Then I will ask you, I have heard you went to tell this, this that about me, who do you think you are?

Now that time I expect some information from you, you can decide not to give me an information, you can decide to give that to me. So that is the informal one we are referring to. So basically I have said we have two main types, those are the broad types, the formal one and then the informal one. I hope that is understood

Now lets come to uses of interview. When you conduct interview what is the use of the interview. Now one thing is, the one who is doing the interview is interviewer and the one that is been interviewed is the interviewee, I am going to make use of these terms as we move along so let's take note on that.

Now with interview, one use of interview is that both the interviewer and the interviewee are able to send information eligibly so I give you the information, you receive it and you give me mine the information I want from you, then it goes on, so both of us are able to send and receive information effectively, that is one use of interview. And when we talk about interview please let's not think about employment because when I get to the types of interview you will realize that we have so many types of interviews. So we shouldn't always

think about employment, employment… there are so many types of interviews. Now the second use of an interview is people know each other and sometimes getting to know each other can also changes the behavior or the "erm" opinion you have about somebody. You might have a bad opinion about me but when you get to interview me and when we talk at length you realize that "ooh" all these I talk about that woman, they are not really true. So one use or one benefit or use we are talking about benefits, important, values of interview is that we get to know each other better and when we do that it helps to change our behavior towards our friends, our colleagues, whoever is interview. And then the third use or importance is because I have gained on better a better understanding about you, about somebody doing the interview, now what happens is both of us especially when it happens in an organization two colleagues get to know each other better, now it happens in an organization two colleagues get to know each other better, now it helps them to work towards common goals if both given an examination officer for lets say liberal studies, another one is called lets say procurement. Then we have an interview face to face chat, we talk at length, now I have gotten to know that "ooh" this lady it is not as what people think she is. Based on that now, I have a better understand about you and therefore both of us are able to work to achieve a common goal. That is helping to conduct exams successfully at KsTU

I have talk about three uses of interviews. When you play it back carefully you get to find the uses. Now we are going to talk about the types, first I said we have two broad types, now we are going to go the specific types of interviews we have and I have said that don't focus your mind only on employment. Employment is just one aspect of interviews. We have several types so we pick the first one that is called the information interview… What do we mean by information interview? Anytime an information interview is organized, what it means is that

interview what it does is it seeks to obtain facts, it seems to obtain information or facts about something.

Now let's look at what is happening currently which has push us out of the classroom and that is the corona virus issue. So the health minister is invited, let's say by TV3, then TV3 conducts an interview finds out about the information minister or minister of health about all the thing he wants the public' to know about this coronal virus thing

We could also have UTAG or lecturers wants to go on strike. Then let's say radio "erm" which radio peace FM comes and then interviews the UTAG president about the strike why do you want to go on strike, why don't you think about the work of the student, all the things that he wants to… and the end of it this TV or radio presenter can go back and educate the public on what he heard from the president

That kind is called information interview I hope that is very clear? Then we move on to our second type of interview called counselling interview.

So here we have two people, the counselor

LECTURE 6

Hello class I have come back once again, I should have done this on Monday but I decided to wait for you to observe what I have taught you so far. Good evening and today we are looking at curriculum vitae that is C.V. That is what we are concentration on today. Remember a week ago we looked at interview, before I intend on interview I must submit an application letter and then added a C.V. That is what we are concentrating on today. Remember a week ago we looked at interview, before I intend on interview I must submit an application letter and then added a C.V so the interviewers will have my C.V. before them.

Sometimes some of the questions that we ask are based on your C.V I want to find out what really goes into C.V and what is C.V, what is Curriculum Vitae, what is it. Basically curriculum vitae is a written account of personal details. When we talk about personal details we are looking at your education, "erm" the degrees you have acquired, maybe you have worked at certain places, the position you held, some responsibilities you hold or might have held some skills you must have obtained. Maybe an achievement and all that. All these things more into what we call C.V. So you find out that the C.V will give details about all the things that I have mentioned. And the panel members look at all the things you have said you have or you had or what you have gone through and sometimes they based on that and they begin to ask you questions of some of the courses, some of the degrees you have, some schools you attended and the skills you said you have so writing a C.V is very important. You need to write it and write it very well because if you don't do that then it will lack a lot of details about you.

We can also describe the C.V. as a form of advertisement about you the applicant. Now look at the adverbs we have on TV sometimes you look at an advert we have on TV bored with it. tis not interesting, there is nothing interesting about it and there are certain adverts too you look at it and you just like it, you just love to listen to it every day, every time. The C.V you present, the C.V you write can advertisement about you. Now you are telling them that this is me, assuming you are a product by me. What will make somebody by you. So lets look at maybe a particular kind of soap, what will make someone to buy the soap. Probably the branding, the cover, the colours, the way the soap has been made the design of the soap the, the "erm", when I use it what happens to my skin the scent and the leather it produces and the fat, all these will make somebody desire to buy a particular kind of soap. Why is it that when

you go to the market you want a particular kind of soap not another type though they perform the same function. That is how a C.V works your C.V is an advert about you, you are telling the company buy me, employ me, I am the best, I can do all you want me to do and so writing a C.V is not just a child's play. You don't just put an item or what we put on in our C.V. It has to be written and written very well. Your C.V. enhances the chance in getting a job as I have rightly said. Now we sometimes describe a C.V as the resume, there is an assent there those who have done French before an assent or whatever they call it on the e, that is a French word. Most of the time when the C.V is summarized not very detailed because when it is not very detailed that is what we describe it as resume. And more often the resume "erm" is prudential that is it talks more about your documents, degrees and all at you have academic background, your work experience and other achievements you have been able to attain for yourself, that is your other achievement you have been able to attain for yourself.

There are certain institutions that will want your C.V. to be written in a particular way, so sometimes in their adverts they will tell you how to present your C.V, aside that generally we have a general way of writing C. V's. You might go home and find different C. V's writings, different methods but we are going to look at some details that will certainly goes into every C.V no matter how it is presented. We are "erm" going to look at C.V based on sections. So assume I want to write my C.V. The first thing we are going to look at on the C.V. is personal details. So aside my "erm" probably the writing C.V boldly on top, aside that as I have said these details that I am going to look at or teach you would go into every C.V because it is very necessary. The first one is personal details. As I have already mentioned, with the C.V's we don't write essays and it is sought of phrases very short "erm" expressions

and most of the time, you would have to arrange the items in such a way that, would be more understood. It shouldn't be in a haphazard manner.