

**USE OF DISCOURSE MARKERS IN ACADEMIC WRITING OF
UNIVERSITY STUDENTS IN KENYA**

**DISSERTATION SUBMITTED TO THE UNIVERSITY OF DELHI IN PARTIAL
FULFILMENT FOR THE REQUIREMENT OF THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF
PHILOSOPHY**

SUPERVISOR:

DR RAVINDER GARGESH.

RESEARCH SCHOLAR:

JUDITH MIGUDA-ATTYANG.

**DEPARTMENT OF LINGUISTICS
UNIVERSITY OF DELHI
DELHI 11007
FEBRUARY, 2000 .**

CHAPTER ONE.

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

The focus of this study is on the academic writing abilities of university students in Kenya. Writing is a major component of academic activities for the university student as indeed his/her success as a student hinges on whether or not s/he can write good term essays and good exam answers. The pressure is therefore on the student to produce good writing that will ensure this success. The question asked about the Kenyan student is whether or not s/he is equipped with the writing skills that enhance writing.

The chief aim of this study is to find out whether students possess the requisite skill, and, if not, where the deficiency lies. This is done through the analysis of a sample of student essays from one of the public universities in Kenya in three humanities subjects: philosophy of education, sociology of education and literature in English. But before we embark on this, we shall look at some general writing problems and relate them to the specific Kenyan situation.

Kenya is an English as a Second Language (ESL) country and English, which for most people is a third language after mother tongue and Kiswahili, is the official language. It is used as the medium of instruction in school from the first year of most schools in major towns and cities, and from about fifth year of primary schooling in the rural areas. Apart from that, students must pass it as a subject to move on to the next level in the education system.

Academic writing skills is taught in Kenyan Universities as a component of the academic communication skills course. This course is a compulsory one for all first year students and writing skills is usually taught for half a semester in most universities.

The academic communication skills course was introduced in the universities in 1990 when Kenya changed her education system. Before this students had a total of six years of secondary education, four of ordinary and two of advanced level. In this system not all proceeded for the advanced level, only those that passed an exam at the end of fourth year continued. There was another exam at the end of these two years and only those who passed went on to the university. The change in the system among other things means a reduction of secondary education from six

to four years. This meant students could move on to the university after form four and not form six as before. Also an extra year was added to university courses meaning that a basic degree that lasted three years now lasts four years. The introduction of academic communication skills as a compulsory course for all first years was an attempt to help the new university students to adapt to and adopt university culture. The aim of the writing skills component is to impart the skills of academic discourse of the various disciplines.

1.2 Problem Statement.

Writing has now been taught for at least eight years to first years, but no serious and systematic research has been done to gauge the impact of the course; this despite the fact that there is a proliferation of research in this field from other parts of the world (USA, UK, India, Hong Kong, Zimbabwe, Canada). The writing course is largely focused on the macro features of writing. It emphasizes such techniques as paragraph formation, use of cohesive devices and discourse patterns. In view of this the study would like to find out whether the teaching of writing skills has had any impact, and if it has of what nature. Specifically we want to concentrate on students use of discourse markers and other cohesive devices in their attempts to create text. The problem then can be stated as follows: has *the teaching of discourse markers to join clauses and sentences and to organize text resulted in quality writing for university students in Kenya?* This question can only be answered after an analysis of students writing has been carried out. For our purposes we have chosen to apply the *Clause Relations* theory. Clause Relations theory focuses on how clauses are related in discourse. This theory though, basically developed for the analysis of written text and has therefore been used more for teaching reading, (see McCarthy and Hewings 1989) has huge potential for the teaching of writing as well.

1.3 Research aims

The aims of this study are:

- To determine if, and how university students in Kenya use discourse markers to signal meaning and to organize their message across clauses and with what effect.
- To determine if there is a match between pedagogy and the end product.

1.4 Research Objectives.

The objectives of this study are to:

- Analyze the use of discourse markers in the academic writing of Kenyan university students.
- Describe the use of discourse markers in the academic writing of the students
- Determine if there is a match between pedagogy and the students writing.

1.5 Rationale

This study has its justification in recent researches in the field which indicate that process research is not informing or transforming pedagogy (Connor 1987). A desirable situation therefore is one where studies should encourage both the description and evaluation of written products leading to a writing theory that integrates product and process. Process is an approach or method used in the teaching of writing advocated mainly by the American practitioners (Flower and Hayes 1981, Scardamelia 1982, Zamel 1983, Raimes 1985, Arndt 1987). This approach lays emphasis on writing through composing under the stimulus of pictures and reading. The approach is based on the theory that writing is a recursive activity that goes through the stages of motivation, idea generation, drafting, reformulation, editing and delivery to the reader. The major concern is with the generation and organization of ideas.

The concern aired by Connor (1987) on the state of writing is the general concern, but there is an even more specific concern in as far as ESL situations are concerned because, as Love (1999) laments, published materials do not pay attention to the varying backgrounds of the budding academic writers. The lack of published material could be directly attributed to lack of research in some situations. In Kenya in particular there is a dearth of research in this area and as such there is a big information gap in as far as teaching and learning of academic writing at the tertiary level is concerned. It is thus hoped that this study will help bridge the void in information in the teaching of writing in Kenya. It is also hoped that the findings of this study will serve as input to future academic writing courses in the Kenyan universities.

1.6 Writing

Writing is the process that produces written communication. Writing which is the coding of the writer's message, is essentially an interactive process. It involves putting together well-formed

and properly connected clauses to constitute a text. Writing involves making linguistic choices within the writer's repertoire of language. This in essence means making syntactic, semantic and lexical choices in their various combinations. The different types of writing ranging from creative writing to non-creative have their own peculiar demands in terms of language use and rhetorical organization. Academic writing, which is ideational in nature, for instance, does not require a writer's creative imaginations, but rather an ability to present and organize information in a manner that is acceptable in a given academic culture through the appropriate use of language. The term *creative* here is not being used in the sense in which Chomsky has used it, i.e. referring to ability to produce infinite structures from a finite set of rules. The term has been used here in terms of normal literary connotation.

Learning writing skills therefore entails the acquisition of the ability to organize information in the most appealing manner through appropriate paradigmatic and syntagmatic devices from the verbal repertoire.

An important concept here is that of 'choice'. The notion of choice stems from the systemic-functional theory, a conceptual framework on which this work is based. This functional theory emanates from the perspective of language as communication. As Halliday (1985) puts it language has over the years evolved for the function of communication, that is, to satisfy human communication needs. Language is therefore organized in a functional way in consonance with the needs. Underlying this is the idea of choice. When an utterance is made in a particular way choice is involved. A speaker/writer makes particular choices, which s/he perceives to be best for the meaning s/he wants to convey, and therefore how the message is to be interpreted by the reader/ speaker. Thus with the idea of meaning underlying is always that of choice. What all this means is that a writer/speaker has reasons for choosing one form and not another to convey their message. Meaning then is expressed through form. Meaning here is used in the Hallidayan sense, where the fundamental components of meaning in language are functional components. Language is used to realize 'interpersonal' and 'ideational' meaning and both meanings find expression in the 'textual'.

Function, then, is concerned with meaning; hence the fundamental components of meaning in language are functional ones. There are two kinds of meaning that are fundamental in all languages, and these are what Halliday refers to as the ideational or reflective, which is the

language we use to talk about things and events (*the bridge was destroyed*). The other meaning is the interpersonal or active, language used to get things done (*destroy the bridge!*). These two components that are known as the metafunctions are the manifestations of two very general purposes that underlie the use of language, that is, language to understand the environment and language to act on others. There is, however, a third function of language, the textual. In defining the textual function of language Thompson (1996) says that it is a kind of language-internal 'service function'. What this really means is that when we use language we organize our messages in ways which indicate how they fit in with the wider context in which the writing or talking is taking place, in other words, how the choice is textualized.

The features that make up the textual component are structural and these include the thematic structure (Theme and Rheme), the information structure and focus (Given and New) (Halliday 1985). The other component of the text is cohesion which according to Halliday and Hasan (1976), Halliday (1985) is made up of reference, ellipsis and substitution, conjunction and lexical cohesion. And according to Winter (1974, 1994 and elsewhere), Hoey (1983) the features of cohesion are conjuncts (vocabulary one), subordinators (vocabulary two), lexical cohesion (vocabulary three) and repetition. A discussion of these components will be presented in chapter two.

Functional grammar sets out to describe the choices that exist for the writer/speaker both in the meaning to be expressed or function to be performed, and in the wordings to be used to express these meanings, and to describe how the two match. In order, therefore, to identify meaning the choices made must take into account the context in terms of the society or environment in which this communication is taking place, what it is that needs to be said, and what in the context makes the choice more appropriate than the other ones (Halliday 1978). Alongside this is the consideration for the language available, that is, the linguistic option for expressing the chosen meaning within the given context. By linguistic options we mean the lexical and structural options which the examples below illustrates:

1. Oh shut up all!
2. Could we have some silence please?

Sentence 1 could have been uttered in all manner of informal situations, while sentence 2 tends towards a more formal situation as revealed by both the grammatical and lexical choices.

The choices made are not always consciously done. Sometimes they are already made for the speaker and the role of functional analysis is to investigate why the writer/speaker opts for a particular lexical choice rather than any other in a particular context. What has been discussed so far is choice within the wider context of the whole system of language, and this has provided a general framework within which we can discuss the specific.

According to Nash (1992) selection is one of the four components of the composing process. He maintains that as soon as an item is chosen to be realized as text, it becomes the substance of investigation because the choice on the page reflects a choice that is not in the page. He exemplifies this by saying that the choice of the passive, for instance, implies the rejection of the active which in turn implies a special function for the choice. This rejection of the immediate partner of the passive illuminates the creative or stylistic significance of the passive in the particular context in which it is being used. Thus choices, or selections as Nash prefers to call them, are binary options as in active versus passive, transitive versus intransitive, declarative versus interrogative and so on.

Another option involves 'branching', and by this Nash means the placement of subordinate material in relation to the principal structure where left branching indicates that the subordinate structure is fronted in a sentence. Such a choice will imply that left branching at the surface level heightens the stylistic function of the choice. His example from a well known English nursery rhyme is as follows:

When she got there, the cupboard was empty.

The left branching serves to create suspense for an audience who cherishes this kind of technique in story telling.

What have been illustrated by Nash are grammatical and structural choices at the sentence or local level. Choice is also made at the global or inter-sentential level and Hoey and Winter (1986) illustrate this very vividly. Hoey and Winter (ibid.) say that their definition of Cause Relations (see 2.5) suggests that the lexical, grammatical and intonation choices are in part governed by the choices already made and are about to be made. We, below reproduce a

summary of Hoey and Winter's simulation of a writing process in their attempt to illustrate how a writer goes about making his/her choices.

They start with a text to which they try to imagine what choices the writer made and what motivated him to make the choices he did and with what impact. The relations and therefore the meaning that the writer wanted to convey is that of contrast and Hoey and Winter attempt to reconstruct how the writer must have in his mind arrived at this. Below is the final text and what follows will be how Hoey and Winter imagine the writer must have arrived at the final text. (Hoey and winter 1986:123-126)

This skirmish was not taken seriously at Vienne. What was taken seriously, however, was the fact that Constantinus had named me his fellow consul for the New Year. [Gore Vidal (1962) Julian London, Heinemann: 202]

Their assumption is that Vidal decided to report three pieces of information:

- i) The skirmish (previously described) was not taken very seriously at Vienne.
- ii) Constantius had named me his fellow consul for the New Year
- iii) This was taken seriously.

These three pieces of information already represent a series of selections and decisions and most notably the decision that the three of them should be seen as of potentially equal weight. The first piece of information is regarded as fixed choice; the choice of the writer therefore is one of how to present the two factors that follow. Hoey and Winter then go ahead to give options as they imagined Vidal to have done to arrive at what he did. One option – which they regarded as the weakest- is to present the three sentences sequenced independently in a single paragraph as:

This skirmish was not taken very seriously at Vienne. Constantius had named me his fellow consul for the New Year. This was taken seriously.

The problem with this arrangement in as far as conveying meaning in the second sentence is concerned is that the perfect form in the second sentence encourages the reader to interpret it as reason for the evaluation given in the first sentence. Such an interpretation would in turn encourage a reader to see the third sentence as providing a connection between the apparent

reason in sentence two and what is set out to explain. This, however, is not the intended reason. The writer therefore has to consider other options.

A possibility is to remove the past perfect verb form and by that remove the signal of reason, and this will give:

The skirmish was not taken very seriously at Vienne. Constantius then named me his fellow consul for the New Year. This was taken seriously.

But this does not show a strong clause relation and as such is not good prose. The 'then' that merely signals time sequence needs to be strengthened more by topic maintenance, which is not the case here. The addition of the conjunct 'so' would achieve this aim. But this would lead again to a cause-consequence interpretation, which is not the author's intention. The relations that the author is aiming at is that of contrast, and in their simulation of Vidal's writing situation Hoey and Winter say that one way that he achieved his aim was through the nominalization of the second sentence and incorporate it into the third, so that it now reads:

The skirmish was not taken seriously at Vienne. The fact that Constantius had named me his fellow consul for the New Year was taken seriously.

This grammatically correct but clumsy sentence needs a signaling device of contrast such as 'however'. And in view of the fact that the question that the reader expects an answer to after reading the first sentence are 'why' or 'where was it taken seriously' or even 'what happened as a result' and certainly not the 'what was taken seriously?' that is answered, the skilful writer, Vidal, smoothens the readers task by using the conjunct of contrast 'however' to easen the reader into this unexpected turn of events. Thus, through this use of choice both at the grammar and discourse level, Vidal guides the reader to his intended meaning

1.6.1 The Writing Process

Coulthard/Winter (1974), Kress (1982), Hoey (1983), Perera (1984), Coulthard (1994), all view writing as an interactive process where in order to satisfy the demands of the reader, the writer in the process of text creation, has to project himself/herself in the position of the reader at the same time that s/he is the writer. To demonstrate this Hoey gives the following example, which he terms dialogue technique, to show how this works. In his description of Winter's work, Hoey

notes that Winter shows how the use of questions help to explain the relations that hold between a sentence and its context. The following example illustrates how this technique works.

Sometimes we don't do a thing to cottage cheese down at Eden Vale. We simply leave it plain. At other times, though, we do add things to it. Like pineapples, chives or onion and pepper.

But plain or fancy, the cheese itself is still stirred carefully, by hand, until it reaches exactly the right consistency. (Hoey 1994:29).

To elicit the last sentence, for example, a number of questions can be asked, such as:
How are Eden Vale cheeses prepared? How much care is taken in the preparation of Eden Vale cheeses? What features do all Eden Vale cheeses have?

The fact that several questions can elicit the same answer shows the complexity of monologue and the difficulty a writer faces in his endeavour to give the right information to his reader.

Widdowson expresses the same concept with the following:

Almost every living thing is sensitive to light. Plants accept the energy of light, some moving to follow the sun almost as though flowers were eyes to see it. Animals make use of light, shadows and images to avoid danger and to seek prey.

(Widdowson 1983:35)

The above text can be derived from the following dialogue:

- A: Almost every living thing is sensitive to light.
- B: Give me an example
- A: Plants accept energy of light, some moving to follow the sun almost as though flowers were eyes to see.

B: You said every living thing, what other example?

A: Animals make use of light, shadows and image to avoid danger and to seek prey

The writer should be able to go through this question and answer technique to not only develop coherent discourse, but also a discourse pattern.

1.6.2 Difficulties in Writing.

Writing has been viewed in different ways by different schools of thought. For quite some time writing was viewed more as a product than a process. Consequently scant attention was paid to the actual route that a writer took towards the production of his/her text. It was not until the late seventies and early eighties that writing teachers began to take an interest in how writing is produced. It is not within the scope of this study to go into the process of writing, but a brief discussion of some of the difficulties experienced by writers, particularly student writers, will ^{be} made here.

People write for two major reasons: in order to record facts and ideas and hence writing for ideational purposes. People also write to establish and maintain human relations, that is, for interpersonal reasons (Halliday 1985 and elsewhere). Academic writing which is writing for ideational purposes has its own distinct conventions. But different academic disciplines require different treatment; indeed writing a scientific report will require different kind of writing from a history essay. Nevertheless they share the feature of language as the means of communication and the process described above will be followed by both writers.

Writing is a highly complex exercise, and this for several reasons. One of the reasons why writing proves such a forbidding task, especially to students, is that it is in many ways different from speech. Writing is not natural to humans the way speech is and consequently some difficulties experienced by writers derive from differences between spoken and written language. The grammar of speech and writing are not the same, a fact which linguists for a long time ignored or did not think worth investigating much into. The assumption was that it is simply an alternative medium of communication with one of the function that of making speech permanent. However, recent research in such areas as

sociolinguistics and discourse analysis has convincingly shown that the two systems are distinctly different in their grammars, structures and organization. Kress (1982) points out that the syntax of writing and speech is not the same. He says that studies in text linguistics have shown that there are linguistic patterning and semantic relations which the sentence, the structure patterning and semantic relations texts exhibit, which while differing from the grammar within the sentence are no less part of a speaker's and writer's knowledge of language. connectedness of text and the development of theme through the use of paragraphs. In pointing out the difference between the two systems, Kress notes that the sentence belongs to writing, its basic unit of textual structure. But speech is organized on the basis of clausal complexities, which are not sentences and the long chain of clauses, may be linked by coordination.

Studies of written and spoken modes have unearthed significant differences between them. Harell, quoted in Poole and Field (1976), Poole and Field (1976) De Vito (in Poole and Field) all found that writing has a higher propensity of subordinates and modifying clauses (adverbs and adjectives), while spoken language is 'looser', 'vaguer', 'more imprecise', more flexible, more redundant and repetitive as well as more structurally complex than the written language. These findings are echoed in Halliday's assertion that each system is complex in its own way. The complexity in writing, he maintains, lies in its density, the packaging together of lexical content, but in rather simple grammatical frames. He describes the complexity of spoken language as mobile and intricate, because meaning is expressed more in the grammar than by the vocabulary. Halliday illustrates with the following example:

Written: *the outlook is for continued high levels of liquidity.*

Spoken: *liquidity will continue to be at high level, the amount of cash flowing will continue to be high, cash is going to go on being freely available.*

(Halliday 1985:xxiv)

The clause in the written form is quite simple and it is the lexical items that are densely packed.

Other findings are that written work contains more passive verbs not frequently used in spoken language, the reason being that the passive being more complex needs time to work in

a sentence and this time can be found more in a writing situation. Mean pre-verb length was found to be greater in written language, and, this is one of the reasons for the comparative greater length of writing. O'Donnell (1974) has reported that writing contains more gerunds, participles, attributive adjectives, passive constructions, modal and perfective auxiliaries, while noun clauses, infinitives and progressive auxiliaries occur more in spoken language.

A rather different view is assumed by Tannen (1982) who argues that features of one mode can be found in the other, in other words, what other researchers have found to be exclusive features of written language find their way in spoken language and vice versa. She argues that studies such as those by Poole & Field, and O'Donnell used inappropriate methods and data and hence their results. The data they used were incomparable ones, for example, the use of formal written sample versus informal spoken sample. Other variables, genre and context and associated register were ignored. Interestingly enough at the grammatical level she comes to more or less the same conclusions as of those she criticizes. But she goes further in that she also looks at the differences from the discoursal level.

Tannen (1982:13) reports that the spoken version through such devices as pauses, intonation, pitch and amplitude, lexical choice and repetition show the attitude of the speaker towards his/her subject. She found no such evaluation for the written version. The speaker also needs to use tone of voice, rhythm and other paralinguistic features to show his/her attitude towards the material and the way in which they want to show its parts to be related, while the writer must depend on lexicalization. Tannen's (1982:18) other finding is that spoken language is more imageable, she uses this in reference to lexical choice; she gives an example where the same person uses 'inoculation' in speech and 'medical records' in writing in referring to the same thing in the same circumstances. In the same vein Tannen concludes that spoken language reports action (take their records...) while written language reports state (records were required...).

In their summary of views from scholars such as Chafe (1979), Ochs (1979), Goffman (1981), Brown and Yule (1983) show the differences in form, production and function. The written language, they maintain, is primarily for shaping and forming ideas and for the transference of these ideas, while spoken language is basically for establishment and

maintenance of personal relations. This however is not a rigid dichotomy as there are overlaps, where in some situations speech assumes the characteristics of written language, and vice versa.

In the production of speech a speaker is able to control what is being produced, but in different circumstances from that of a writer. The circumstances demand that a speaker not only monitors what s/he has said to make sure it matches the current interaction, but must at the same time be planning for the next utterance which must fit into the overall plan. The monitoring activity of the speaker is also extended to the listener in a bid to tailor his/her production to the listener. The writer however has the advantage of permanence. S/he can go over what has already been written and decide on what to improve on by changing, adding or substituting without interruption by a reader. In other words, the writer has all the time and freedom to shape his writing in whatever manner that pleases him without fear of immediate consequences. But more advantageous to the speaker while producing speech is that s/he has a range of available paralinguistic devices to which a writer has no access. By the use of facial expressions, tone and other body gestures, and the fact that the referent may be within the vicinity, a speaker is able to vividly convey to his/her listener a lot of information. Also, because a speaker more often has a face to face interaction with his listener and can therefore gauge the listener's response, s/he has the opportunity of correcting whatever could be going wrong with the exchange instantly. This is a privilege lacking for a writer.

The differences in production and function are also reflected in form. The syntax of spoken language is different from that of written language. This is manifested in such ways as spoken language containing many incomplete statements often just sequences of phrases, and in addition there is little subordination in spoken language. Also in conversational speech there are more active declaratives and few passives, it-clefts or wh-clefts. A marked difference is also that while written language has extensive use of metalingual markers to mark relationships between clauses, in spoken language the chunks of utterances are generally connected by 'and', 'but', 'then' and 'if'. Spoken language also does not contain rhetorical organizers for large stretches of language. Also, whereas in written language sentences are generally packed in subject-predicate form, it is more common to find a topic-comment structure in spoken language. Other features of spoken language that are absent in written language are that spoken language makes use of more general vocabulary like 'nice', 'stuff', 'things' etc. A speaker may

also repeat the same syntactic form over and over, and a speaker may produce prefabricated fillers such as 'er', 'uum', 'aah' and others like these.

1.6.3 Writing problems for Kenyan Students

The Kenyan students might be experiencing writing problems which are unique to them in nature or which they could be sharing with students from other regions who find themselves in similar linguistic situations. Hence this section examines possible causes of writing problems for the Kenyan students.

The difficulties in writing experienced by these students might not be entirely of a linguistic nature as their proficiency in English is quite high. Widdowson (1983) says of ESL writing difficulties "they are clearly not linguistic in any straightforward sense since they are not solved by the acquisition of linguistic competence" Zamel (1983) echoes this opinion when she says "while ESL students must certainly deal with concerns that are linguistic specific, it seems that it is their writing strategies and behaviours and not primarily language proficiency that determine composing skill". This certainly suggests that there are factors other than linguistic ones to be taken into consideration when looking at the problems of these students. What kind of strategies, one might ask, do they need to master to produce good writing? The answers that come to mind are that they need to be made aware of the differences between the two modes and hence be in a position to make the correct choices in their vocabulary, grammar and discourse organization when writing as well as the ability to negotiate meaning and also be able to organize text in a coherent manner by developing their ideas logically while at the same time adopting a recognized discourse pattern.

1.6.4 Writing Skills in L1

Virtually all the well known studies of writing in English have carried out in native speaker situations. Those carried out in ESL have been mainly in Canada and the USA. Kenya too can be regarded to manifest an ESL situation however which is different in as far as writing is concerned. One of the most significant differences is that non-native writers in these two countries often have L1 writing. In other words, they have already learnt to write in another language, usually their mother tongue, and this is why Widdowson argues that the ESL writer's problems are textual rather than discursal as the writers will have already learnt to write in their

own language and as such their problem is how to textualize discourse in a different way. This view not shared by Husain (1998) when he says that it is not always that L1 writing skills can be transferred to L2. Since Kenyan students have no L1 writing skills to transfer to English, they have to grapple with the complexities of writing at the same time as they are learning the grammar and other systems of a second language.

1.6.5 Pedagogy

Another factor that writing problems could be attributed to is the teaching methods that the students have come into contact with through the educational system. Writing in the Kenyan classroom is very much a *laissez faire* undertaking as casual observations show that the elements that go into the construction of written discourse are often not made explicit to the learners. As already mentioned no studies have been carried out at any point of the education system to find out how writing is taught and learnt. The students especially at the primary and secondary level often lack a clear purpose for writing and in most cases do not think that outside class writing has any importance.

The teaching of writing at the university is probably only marginally better, because even though special measures have been taken to teach writing there are still complaints from other subject teachers about the lamentable level of writing from the students. And just like at the lower levels its not clear what goes on in the writing classes, all indications are that there is a lack of expertise in this area. When the communication skills course was started in 1989, a handful of English teachers were, under a British Council-Kenya universities personnel development scheme, sent to universities in Britain to undergo courses in applied linguistics with the hope that they will come back and handle the communication skills course in which the writing course fell. But to date no evaluation has been made of the teaching of writing and it is not at all apparent what is going on in the writing class. We are aware that at Maseno University, for instance, the only common thing is the course outline otherwise the theoretical underpinnings are as diverse as there are teachers.

1.6.6 The Writer's Challenge

Overcoming some of the differences discussed and hence coming up with a coherent text is one of the challenges that a writer is faced with. As already noted speech is more natural to humans and there is the danger of the conventions of speech intruding in writing. Whereas this is perfectly acceptable in informal interpersonal writing, it is not acceptable in formal ideational type of writing. As Coulthard (1994) notes, one of the major problems for a writer is that it is not always easy for him/her to decide on what of the ideational to textualize, and this particularly when there is no clear notion as to who the audience is.

A student writer is often faced with an ideational/personal decision which s/he finds difficult to resolve in terms of how it is to be textualized. This difficulty arises for the student because s/he is not in a position to tell what his/her audience knows or does not know, and therefore what to tell the audience. These problems are particularly acute for students writing essays for their lecturers since s/he believes that the lecturer already knows what s/he has to say, so what then should s/he include in the essay? We may then ask what is the writing purpose for this kind of writer? Who really is his audience? Does s/he believe himself/herself to be writing for a bonafide reader? These and similar questions though important and worth investigating are not within the scope of this study. Of more concern and relevance to us in this study is how the student writer presents his/her text in terms of clause cohesion and textual organization.

1.6.7 The writer, Reader and discourse

There is one other important challenge that a writer faces and this is the challenge of producing discourse. By discourse here is meant a situation where there is an exchange between the interlocutors. In a conversational situation this should not be difficult because as already noted there is an immediate back and forth exchange and they, therefore, understand each other as they go along and in this way discourse is created. The burden of creating discourse is not solely on the shoulders of any one of the interlocutors but on both. This is contrary to the writing situation where the responsibility of creating a dialogue rests almost wholly with the writer for the people connected with this discourse are generally at a distance spatially. The reader can only respond to what the writer has encoded. If the reader is able to respond in the way the writer intended then discourse is created.

The flip side of writing is reading and therefore questions uppermost in our minds are: What is the reading process that allows the reader to arrive at the writer's intended meaning? This act of communication involves negotiation for meaning between the writer and reader and hence a requirement for cooperation. The role of the reader is to unravel meaning as packaged. Widdowson (1983) also notes that the act of communication through language such as that engaged in by the writer and reader is a social one, and like all social acts there must exist between the parties involved a social contract and a cooperative principle.

The writer's obligation in this contract is to initiate the discourse and make the message both accessible and acceptable to the reader. The writer, Widdowson (ibid.) says, is basically impinging on the reader's privacy and as such must prepare the reader sufficiently.

Accessibility is achieved when knowledge is presented in such a way that what is presented is common knowledge to the reader and the writer. While acceptability is achieved when as Widdowson says, "the interlocutors locate their interaction on the power and solidarity dimensions and reconcile the conflicting forces of the territorial and cooperative principles imperatives".

In written discourse the writer is not only the initiator of events, but is in the major part in control. S/he controls the text by anticipating the reader's likely reaction and negotiates accordingly. In addition to providing the information the reader needs, the writer has to bring into focus the main points of his/her representation and to do this s/he uses signaling cues.

The reader on his part seeks to recover the underlying discourse from the textual clues provided. In this s/he will generally be directed by the writer. But since the writer is not immediately available to direct how the text is to be used the reader can manipulate the text to fit in his/her own scheme of things and hence to suit his/her purpose and the text, therefore, can be used as a source of information and as a script for discourse. In this it is the ideational rather than the interpersonal factors that are going to determine the reader's position. But whatever the case reading emerges as a predictive activity where the reader draws from long term memory and background knowledge both of which are brought to bear on the text to achieve communication.

This therefore means that reading is not a passive but an active activity. This approach to reading has been promoted by Goodman's (1988) psycholinguistic reading model.

Goodman, who refers to reading as a psycholinguistic guessing game hypothesizes that the reader reconstructs what the writer has encoded through graphonic, syntactic and semantic systems of language. What the reader is therefore doing is that s/he is using cues from these three levels of language to predict and confirm the predictions by relating them to his/her past experience and knowledge of the world.

This model has been characterized as a concept-driven top-down approach (Carrell 1988) and supplants the earlier decoding model which suggested that all the reader does is to decode the graphics in an attempt to make meaning out of them. The psycholinguistic approach therefore views the reader as an active participant who in his/her efforts to reconstruct meaning brings something to the text and in this way discourse is achieved.

1.7 Maseno University writing course

Before we proceed to discuss the framework in which we are going to analyze the student essays we shall examine the Maseno University writing course with the view of determining which ESL writing theory it subscribes to and also be able to ascertain whether or not there is a match between the course and the students writings.

The general objective of the course is: To write in a concise, accurate, and fluent manner and with a text structure and language appropriate to the task (e.g. reports, essays, examination answers). And its specific objectives are:

- (a) To write legibly
- (b) To punctuate properly
- (c) To organize and synthesize material relevant to writing task
- (d) To write an outline
- (e) To write short properly formed sentences
- (f) To write in paragraphs
- (g) To write topic sentences to paragraphs
- (h) To use appropriate connectors to produce coherent text.
- (i) To write appropriate introduction and conclusions
- (j) To produce different types of texts –descriptive, explanatory, discursive, reports etc.

- (k) To write examinations and assignment answers appropriate to questions asked (e.g. examine, discuss, consider explain justify)

In order to situate this course we need to briefly look at the existing theories in the teaching of writing. There exist several approaches to the teaching of writing stemming from different philosophies. Some of these different approaches are the process approach, the contrastive approach, English for Specific Purposes (ESP) and the product approach (Knapp1998). The widely practiced ones are the process and product approaches. As a matter of fact in the last decade or so attention has shifted from product to process approaches.

1.7.1 Product Based approach.

The product based approach (Connor 1987) stresses expository writing, personal style and also maintains that writing is a linear process that can be determined by a writer before s/he starts on the task. It is therefore assumed that before a writer comes up with the final product s/he would have gone through the stages of pre-planning, writing, revising, and finally a final draft in this linear fashion. In the classroom, therefore, teachers insist on outlines consisting of introduction, main body and conclusion as the beginning of a writing task.

1.7.2 Process based approach

The process approach (Zamel 1983, Flower and Hayes 1983, Johns 1990) to the teaching of writing on the other hand stresses on the actual process of writing. In other words, what is it that the writer does to produce writing. It puts emphasis on writing through composing under the use of visuals aids like pictures and reading. This approach is based on the theory that writing is a recursive activity that goes through the stages of motivation, idea generation, drafting, reformulation, editing and publication (delivery to the reader). The major focus of this approach is on generation and organization of ideas. It also maintains that audience and purpose are important, and further distinguishes between aims and models of discourse. There are two broad classes within the process theory: sentence based and process based.

The sentence based approaches concentrate on sentence level features of inter-sentential relations, coherence, breaks and functional sentence perspective. Here the dominant theory emerged as the functional sentence perspective, which major concern is with the question of coherence in texts. And coherence, according to this theory, is achieved through the semantic

relationships that exists between sentence topics and the discourse topic. These relationships are studied through topical structure analysis where the relationships can be studied by looking at sequences of sentences and examining how the topics in the sentence work through the text to progressively build meaning. In the classroom the topical structure analysis has been used to teach students to revise for coherence in their writing.

The process-centred approach differs from the sentence-centered approach in that it emphasizes on whole texts or macro-structures over linear representations of the sentence-based approach. Teaching of writing based on this approach have been the result of research based on semantic representations of texts theory. A ready definition of semantic representation of text is ; the way information is organized in text. This theory sees text as a complex proposition in which each proposition has a rhetorical function.

In the classrooms, accomplished writing is used to teach students to recognize how the propositions function to build a text. This is done by imposing a rhetorical structure on a selected text and then the students are asked to study the structure, recall and paraphrase it. The aim of this is that this exercise should enable the students to construct their own texts by imitating the structure of the sample text.

Based on this discussion it becomes rather difficult to situate the Maseno University writing course. It presents as an amalgam of different approaches. Such objectives as to 'write legibly', 'punctuate properly', 'organize and synthesize material...' 'write appropriate introduction and conclusions' assume a linear progression of writing and as such are features of a product-based approach. While on the other hand such objectives as 'to use appropriate connectors', 'write paragraphs', 'write topic sentences...', are features of the sentence-based process approach, and 'produce different types of text', 'answer examination questions' are within the process-based process approach. This course does not show an awareness of the different theories. It gives the impression of bits and pieces from different courses. Finally no meaningful comment can be made about the effectiveness of actual classroom instructions based on this course as no classroom observations have been made.

1.8 Conclusion

In this chapter, we have, through the problem statement, aims and objectives and rationale, discussed what we propose to do in this study. We have also discussed writing and the challenges it poses both to the writer and reader as interactants in a communication process. The chapter has also made a brief analysis of the Maseno University writing course and noted that it does not seem to adhere to any particular writing theory. Chapter two presents the theory that is used to analyze the essays while chapter three analyzes, interprets and discusses the data. And finally chapter four looks at the theoretical implications of the results drawn.

In the past the study of language has been concerned with the study of its structure and how they functioned. Empirical studies have been concerned with the study of the structure and acquisition of second language. The study of language has been concerned with the grammatical level. But by the early 1970s, the study of language has been concerned with the study of language as a social context and the result of active processes where 'grammar' plays a key part. The language acquisition research (1960) argued that the rules of grammar would only apply secondarily to language use and the emphasis was also taken into consideration. The discourse analysis approach has been used to interpret discourse and hence has been used to study the 'social context'. The example below illustrates this point:

- A. they are not going to be there
- B. I asked them to go to the office
- A. let's go to the office
- B. the office is not there

CHAPTER TWO

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Introduction

In this section we are going to discuss the discourse analysis theory used to analyze the students essays. This study analyzes discourse, specifically written discourse. It may be pointed out that discourse analysis is the study of language as used in contexts. On the one hand, it is concerned with speaker/writer meaning and how participants in a transaction go about the process of negotiating meaning, and on the other discourse analysis deals with the portrayal of the structure of suprasentential text and social transaction by imposing some framework upon the data. This then means that discourse analysts work with language above the sentence and also study language in use as in written texts and spoken discourses in all kinds of situations.

In the past the study of language had always meant the study of sentences and how they functioned. Eminent linguists spent their time formulating theories about the structure and production of sentences, and therefore everything was perceived purely at the grammatical level. But, by the early sixties a few linguists were already propounding the notion that meaning could not be divorced from grammar. The argument put forward was that sentences are produced in social contexts and are therefore the result of active processes where 'meaning' plays a large part. The language philosopher Austin (1962) argued that the rules of grammar would only apply sensibly if the social context of the sentence was also taken into consideration. The discourse analyst therefore insists that it takes more than grammar to interpret discourse and hence his/her preoccupation with 'form' and 'function'. The example below illustrates this point:

- A: they are arriving now;
B: I slept soundly last night
A: let's get ready to receive them.
B: the grass is green outside.

This exchange though grammatically sound breaks the rules for production of a coherent text. One of the tasks of discourse analyst is to discover such rules and to describe the conversational structure they generate.

In English there is not usually a one to one correspondence between grammar and function. A subject-verb structure need not necessarily be interpreted as a declarative nor does the inverted verb-subject structure be interpreted as an interrogative. This example from McCarthy (1991:7) succinctly illustrates this point:

Ernie: *Tell 'em about the show.*

Eric: *(to audience) Have we got a show for you tonight folks! Have we got a show for you! (aside to Ernie) have we a show for them?*

The humour of the piece is in the fact that the same structure is used to heighten the audience's expectation about the show and at the same time to express doubt whether there really is a show. In this way the same form is has been used to realize two different functions. This shows that interpretation depends on a number of factors namely linguistic and situational relationship between interlocutors and also intonation. Discourse analysis wants to look into how grammar is interpreted appropriately. Each interaction has its own convention which it follows. This includes different ways of opening and closing encounters, different role relationships, different purpose and different settings (McCarthy 1991). In trying to account for all these discourse analysis will look for rules different from those of grammar, as grammaticality is only but part of discourse. The speech act and cooperative principle theories attempt to explain this aspect of language communication.

2.2 The Speech act theory.

The speech act theory was developed by Austin (1965) in refute to the logical positivism claim that the sole purpose of statements was that of making true or false statements about 'facts' or 'state of affairs'. The central tenet of logical positivism was that all statements are about facts or how things are and that the statement made is either true or false. If a statement could not be tested for 'truth' or 'falsity' then it is for all practical purposes meaningless. This, an extreme position that as Levinson (1983) notes would render most ethical, aesthetic and literary discourses not to mention most everyday

discourse meaningless. Austin made an observation that some declarative sentences are not used with any intention of making any true or false statements. He went on to show that there is a class of statements in which the saying of the word constitutes performing of the action, and these he called performatives. Below are examples of performatives:

1. I bet you sixpence it will rain tomorrow
2. I hereby christen this ship the H.M.S Flounder.
3. I declare war on Zanzibar.
4. I apologize.
5. I dub thee sir Walter.
6. I object.

(Levinson 1983:229)

According to Austin these are not statements that describe events, but those that actually perform them. So that by having 'objected' in 6 a state has changed, furthermore the statement cannot be assessed for truth or falsity. Performatives, however, can go wrong and become 'infelicitous' so that rather than being true or false, they can either be felicitous or infelicitous. And the conditions for felicity are:

- There must be a conventional procedure having a conventional effect.
 - The circumstances and persons must be appropriate as specified by the procedure.
 - The procedure must be executed correctly and completely
 - Often the person must have the requisite thoughts, feelings, and intentions as specified in the procedure and if consequent conduct is not specified then the relevant parties must do so.
- (from Levinson 1983:229).

Failure to observe any of the conditions renders the performatives infelicitous and the discourse becomes null.

Austin realized that most performatives are really specified statements used to perform ceremonies and as such saw the need to develop and expand performatives in such a manner that would allow for more situations to be covered. For this he developed the Illocutionary Act theory. Performatives are sub-classes of illocutionary acts. In the Illocutionary acts theory a lot more statements and utterances are performatives so that in uttering such statements as

'I promise', 'I warn', 'I object' etc one is actually performing the acts of warning, promising, objecting and so on.

In the illocutionary act Austin postulated in what way to utter an act is to perform it. He pointed out that in making an utterance a speaker performs three acts simultaneously as follows:

- **Locutionary act:** the utterance of a sentence will determine sense and reference, in other words, the actual act of 'saying' something.
- **Illocutionary act:** the making of a statement, offer, promise, apology and so on in uttering a sentence by virtue of conventional force associated with the explicit performative paraphrase. This is to say, the act which is the 'act' performed in saying something, the 'act' identified by the explicit performative.
- **Perlocutionary act:** the bringing about of effect on audience by means of uttering the sentences, such effects being special to circumstances of uttering. This is the act performed as a result of saying.

Linguists such as Searle (1969), Coulthard (1977), Brown and Yule (1983), Levinson (1983) have argued that it is not often easy to distinguish between the locutionary and the illocutionary force, and as a matter of fact the three are in most cases performed simultaneously and the separation is only made for the purposes of analysis. Searle says that a statement like **I warn you there is a bull in that field** has only one act, the illocutionary one. As a result of such arguments the illocutionary act is the act that the speech act theory has become synonymous with.

Searle (1975) made a distinction between 'direct' and 'indirect' speech acts. Indirect speech acts are ones that are a recognition of the intended perlocutionary effect of an utterance in a particular occasion. Searle describes indirect speech acts as cases in which one illocutionary act is performed indirectly by way of performing another. For example:

Teacher: Is there something funny?

Class: (all quiet)

The teacher's question is not a yes/no one as it appears at the illocutionary level, but an order to the class to be quiet.

2.3 The Cooperative Principles.

Alongside Austin and Searle's speech acts are Grice's Cooperative Principles theory.

This like the Speech Act theory is a theory about conditions under which discourse takes place. Grice's theory operates on the principle of implicature. Sometimes a writer/speaker does not state what they mean in explicit terms instead they imply or implicate. When this happens the reader/hearer is left to read between the lines as it were. This is what Grice called conversation implicatures. Grice suggests that in conversations there is a cooperative principle at work. The principle being: make your conversation contribution such as required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the accepted purpose or direction of the exchange in which you engage in. The principle operates in four major areas, relation, quality, quantity and manner. Their significance are spelled out by the maxims:

- **Relation:** be relevant
- **Quality:** (a) do not say what you believe to be false. (b) Do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence.
- **Quantity:** (a) Make your contribution as informative as is required (for the current purpose of exchange) (b) Do not make your contribution more than is required.
- **Manner:** (a) Avoid obscurity of expression, (b) avoid ambiguity, (c) be brief, (d) be orderly.

The maxims are not meant to be an account of how conversations go, but are supposed to form a basis for the inference of what has been implicated. This means that they are not meant to be applied at the superficial level. Thus when for some reason the maxim is violated flouted or there is a maxim clash the hearer will make recourse to the maxims because the hearer's assumption will be that despite the seeming chaos at the superficial level, the maxims are being adhered to. This assumption is made in the example below:

Carol: Are you coming to the party tonight?

Laura: I've got an exam tomorrow.

The likely puzzle here is, how can a statement so related to the question be an answer to it? In order to interpret it as the answer to the question, Carol has to first assume that Laura is being relevant and informative. From here she can begin to work out that exams tomorrow means study tonight which then means no party tonight. This second step is contained as an implicature in Laura's statement. Also Carol's background knowledge tells her that exams and parties do not go together. A criticism leveled at this theory is that in the right context an utterance could imply any number of things.

What has been discussed here was a new paradigm in the study of language that concerned itself with the study of language as communication in ordinary situations. These theories showed conclusively that there are rules other than those of grammar that operate in language communication. The theories have, therefore, helped establish discourse analysis as a firm discipline that studies language as it is spoken and written. From these foundations, text and discourse analysis have since come up with theories and frameworks such as the Clause Relations theory which will be used in the present study.

2.4 Conceptual Framework

The present study is going to make use of Winter(1976) and Hoey's (1983) Clause Relations theory to analyze data. Clause Relations theory, which was developed by Winter and Hoey primarily for the analysis of written discourse, will be made use of to determine how discourse devices are used to organize texts. The theory maintains that written discourse is part of interaction and that text analysis must recognize this interactive nature of text otherwise it would be inadequate in some respects. The clause relations approach to discourse analysis integrates the grammar and the lexis under scrutiny. Eugene Winter started his work on discourse analysis in the late sixties and early seventies and was later joined by Michael Hoey. Over the years they have worked on the theory together sometimes collaboratively and sometimes separately. For Winter and for Hoey clause relations is a means of textualizing the ideational and interpersonal. Hence clause relations refer to the inter and intra-clausal relationships that hold between clauses to form a text. This is what Halliday refers to as cohesion.

Before giving a review of the theory an attempt will be made to define concepts that are very crucial in the analysis that we are going to make. These concepts are 'text', 'cohesion' and 'discourse'. These are notions that are central to both writing and to the analysis of writing. The definition of these terms will be juxtaposed, because it is rather difficult to discuss any one of them without reference to the other two as they all presuppose one another.

We start from the premises that a writer's aim is to communicate a message to his readers and that s/he is going to make use of every linguistic means available to him to achieve this aim. In his/her writing s/he wants to achieve coherence. Coherence presupposes several things: that there is a text, that there is cohesion and that there is discourse. The task of the writer therefore is to produce a text. Before we go into how text is achieved we need to define text. Our definition of text will proceed alongside the concepts of 'cohesion' 'coherence' and 'discourse' because as has already been mentioned these are intricately bound with the notion of text.

Van Dijk's (1977) definition of coherence put across the notion of text as a set of sentences belonging together when he says, "intuitively coherence is a semantic property of discourse based on the interpretation of each individual sentence relative to the interpretation of other sentences". Others such as Winter (1974), Halliday and Hasan (1976) and Hoey (1983), have used the term cohesion in much the same way as Van Dijk has used coherence, though elsewhere they all are at pains to explain that cohesion and coherence are not synonymous and that cohesion is a means of achieving coherence. Thompson (1996) discusses cohesion and coherence almost interchangeably, but notes that there is an important difference in that cohesion refers to linguistic devices by which the writer/speaker signals the experiential and interpersonal coherence of text which serve a cohesive function. Coherence on the other hand is in the mind of the writer and the reader and cannot be conceived tangibly in the same way as cohesion. Thus language users always assume coherence where there is cohesion.

A widely recognized work on cohesion is that of Halliday and Hasan. In their *Cohesion in English* (1976) the authors gave a description of the various cohesive devices used in English and also gave a definition of text. They say that a text gets its 'texture' through the cohesive relationship within the sentences. It is this texture that distinguishes text from non-text. They further say that cohesion in text occurs "where the interpretation of some element in the discourse is dependent on that of another. The one presupposes the other in the sense that it

cannot be effectively decoded except by recourse to it" (1976:4). They maintain that cohesion in text is achieved through the use of cohesive devices which they refer to as 'ties'.

Halliday and Hasan divide cohesive ties into the categories reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction, and lexical cohesion. Reference is a semantic relation, which occurs when the meaning of an item can be discovered by referring to another item in the surrounding text. In English reference items are pronouns, demonstratives, and determiners. Substitution and ellipsis are grammatical ties; whereas substitution creates coherence by replacing one item with another, ellipsis does so by not replacing the item with anything. Conjunctions form semantic relations by systematically connecting what is to follow with what has gone before. Halliday and Hasan contend that conjunctions serve this function not because the conjunctive elements themselves are cohesive, but because they have a specific meaning which presupposes the presence of other components in the discourse. Lexical cohesion is discussed in two strands: reiteration and collocation. Reiteration creates cohesion when an item is repeated later in the text as the same item i.e. synonym (or near synonym), superordinate or general word. Collocation is a form of lexical cohesion because cohesion is achieved through the association of lexical items that regularly co-occur.

Halliday (1985) carries the definition a little further as he not just describes the ties but also discusses how they function to organize text. He thus, looks at text as a sequence of clause or clause complexes whose external relationships are made explicit and are not dependent on grammatical structure. He explicates a clause complex by saying that it closely resembles a sentence in its internal structure, and that it is the existence of the clause system that leads to the evolution of sentences. Cohesion then, is a non-grammatical way of showing relations that exist within and between clauses in a text. These relations may range from words to clauses and elements larger than clauses such as lengthy passages in a text.

2.5 Clause Relations

Winter and Hoey are more concerned with describing how ties form a text rather than providing a taxonomic account of the devices. They do not use the term 'text', but 'discourse' when referring to stretches of language that belong together, but which in their discussions of clause relations comes through as the equivalent of Halliday and Hasan's 'text'. Winter (1974) divides clause relations into two: On the one hand he refers to *basic Clause Relations* by which he

means relations between any two clauses or sentences when they are put together, i.e., it is formally concerned with the sentence in the context of its adjoining sentences and their constituent clauses. Later (Winter 1994) expanded his definition of the theory. He argues now that the study of written discourse should include as perspectives in language use, a study of the grammar of the clause in the sentence, a study of the basic discourse clause relations and a study of the two basic discourse structures in English whose meanings may organize significant sequences as part of their whole as 'messages'. By a study of the grammar of the clause Winter means the study of such connective devices as conjunctions and their lexical paraphrases, other adverbials, substitutes of various kinds and repetitions which also include the replacement of the clause, and the study of tense, modality and aspect. Winter argues that these devices serve to signal the place of the clause in its sentence with respect to its adjoining clauses. By basic clause relations he means the sequential relations between clauses both inside the grammatical domain of their sentences and immediately outside this domain.

Winter(1994) bases his theoretical approach to the clause on three assumptions. The first assumption is what he refers to as limited or imperfect communication. By this he means that it is never possible to say all one wants to say in any given communication structure, thus communication is imperfect. Various factors contribute to this, but the linguistically pertinent one is that we are forced to say less by the need to produce unique sentences whose selected content has been in some ways predetermined by that of its immediately preceding sentence or by the previous history of its larger message structure. Thus a major criteria for the production of sentences is *relevance*. The word relevance is important because linguistically it implies the relevance of the topic and its development by giving new information in terms of the old or given and this implies a unique message, transmitted for a particular purpose, in a particular context at a particular time. To the encoder relevance means being directed to choose words lexically as permitted by the grammar of their lexical patterns for each of the sentences in terms of the message as given by the encoder, which represents a knowledge of the world and also have to be judged as relevant to the particular purpose of the unique message. Relevance implies that the decoder wishes to be told something new in the light of what s/he already knows. And this, Winter asserts, implies the decoder's assumption of the uniqueness of the encoder's message.

This, then, implies that in this process of saying much less than everything, the clause and not the sentence is the device of relevance, as the lexical choices and therefore the grammatical choices permitted by this lexical choices are guided by their 'perceived relevance to the unique message'. This suggests that the study of verbal interaction should be a study of grammar and lexis for saying less than everything. Winter also emphasizes the fact that the surface grammar of the clause, that is, the signals of lexis are grammar and the grammatical status of the clause in any sequenced utterance are crucial to the understanding and interpretation of the message, hence an aspect of discourse analysis that should not be ignored.

Winter's second assumption about the clause is that it is a significant semantic unit of sentence function and a sentence can consist of one or more clauses. This then means that in the analysis of discourse every clause in every sentence must be accounted for since every clause matters to the message, hence the importance of clause relations. The third assumption is that relations between a clause in its sentence and its adjoining sentence are not random or haphazard, and beyond the sentence the meaning of every sentence is a function of its adjoining sentence particularly those preceding it. What this means is that what is said in the next clause or rather the lexical choices made in a clause are determined by what has gone before and hence clause relations. Following this, Winter defines clause relations as follows:

Clause relations is the shared cognitive process whereby we interpret the meaning of a clause or groups of clauses in the light of their adjoining clauses or group of clauses.

Where the clauses are independent, we speak of sentence relations. (Winter 1994:49).

This definition takes into account the fact that the clause is the largest unit of meaning in the sentence, and that relations between the sentences are the synthesized sum of the relations between their constituent clauses. This definition an improvement on an earlier one which Hoey (1983) adopted and which said:

A clause relation is the cognitive process whereby we interpret the meaning of a sentence or group of sentences in the light of adjoining sentences or group of sentences. (Winter 1971:41)

Both Winter and Hoey use the term 'discourse' when referring to stretches of writing that belong together. They therefore view discourse as the product of semantic relations holding between sentences or propositions.

These relations Hoey (1983) notes are not called so for any other reason than that all systems for signaling relations are rooted in the grammar of the clause. For him therefore, relations are concerned with meaning. Relations also involve the addition of something. Hence when two pieces of language are placed together and the meaning of their sum total is more than their meaning separately, then they are in relations. The most important part of the definition is that the clause relations are acts of interpretations by the reader/listener of what s/he encounters in the light of what has already been encountered. Therefore when analyzing discourse the analyst must bring out what in the discourse makes the reader make the sort of interpretation s/he does. In view of this Hoey adopts and adapts Winter's definition as:

A clause relation is also the cognitive process whereby the choices we make from grammar, lexis and intonation in the creation of sentences or groups of sentences are made in the light of its adjoining sentences or group of sentences. (Hoey 1983:19).

The point that Winter and Hoey make is that there are several ways in which writers process or produce sentences, and they discuss two basic types in details, a summary of which will be given here. In one, pieces of information can be seen as logically connected thus matched in what they refer to as matching relations. Matching relations compare things or persons for their similarities and differences and are expressed by a high degree of repetition. The matching relations can be of either compatibility or incompatibility. Compatibility shows up comparisons, while incompatibility shows up contrasts and contradictions. When pieces of information are matched they are brought together to show how they illuminate each other; the example below illustrates the point:

Fred was big. Ted was little.

The sum of the two sentences is greater than the sum of each individual sentence. A unifying proposition is the one that shows the way two sentences show up each other and in this particular example it is the contrast in size that is being illuminated, hence the unifying

proposition is the matching contrast. In the second we get the logical sequence where sentences are seen in sequence where one event comes before another. Logical sequence includes cause-consequence, condition-consequence, evaluation-basis, instrument -achievement and the simple time sequence. These too have a third proposition that unifies them. For example in:

He knew he was supposed to fly, but couldn't. He never learnt how to.

The second sentence is interpreted as the basis for the denied expectation in the first; i.e. his having not learnt to fly was the reason he could not fly.

A writer makes choices of how to show semantic relations or how he wishes the readers to interpret relations. This to a large extent involves projecting himself/herself in the position of the reader. This choice will depend on the kind of clause relations he wants to project, that is, whether matching of information, or logical sequencing. Whichever is chosen will require further even finer choices so that if the choice already made is of the matching type then it will have to take into account which of the matching sub-types it will be. Similarly if it is logical sequencing then the choice has to take into consideration the type of sequencing. What guides the writer in making connective choices is his/her continual answering of anticipated questions by the reader.

2.6 Clause Relation signals.

For readers to interpret the intended meaning, the writer has to make a conscious effort to signal this particular meaning and a way of doing this is through the use of clause relation signals. These signals explicitly express the clause relations and thereby help the reader infer relations. The theory discusses four types of linguistic signaling devices: subordinators, conjuncts, lexical signals and lexical repetition. Subordinators include such connectives as *although, as, despite, if, since, provided, unless, whatever, whereas, whether, while*, and so on, while conjuncts include such connectives as *and, also, but, nevertheless, therefore, however, either...or, not only...but, accordingly, hence, thereby, thus, yet, and so on* (Jordan 1983) Subordinators and conjuncts, which are grammatical connectives, are the most apparent ways in which clause relations may be signaled. Thus in:

He swam because his girlfriend was swimming.

The 'because' subordinator shows the cause consequence relations between the two clauses. And in the same way:

She couldn't be of any further use so she went home.

The 'so' conjunct signals the cause-consequence relations.

The lexical signals on the other hand are non-grammatical words that are used to signal both clause relations and to organize discourse. Examples of such items are *different, reason, example, include, condition, compare, contrast, problem, solution, first, finally, in conclusion* etc. Lexical signals are often used by writers to answer readers anticipated questions; for example, in 'our purpose is twofold' the writer is anticipating the reader to ask "for what reasons?" and 'twofold' guides the reader as to how many reasons to expect.

The other type of lexical signaling is repetition. This functions differently from the lexical signaling just described. The repetition is not just reiteration, but includes pronominalization and paraphrase. The commonality here being that they are all means of saying the same thing again. Repetition involves systematic repetition of clauses or sentences in order to set up a matching relation between clauses or sentences. In

The midday sun was harsh. The sun was so harsh that they had to seek shelter under the lone bush.

Here a cause-consequence relation is achieved by means of repetition of **the sun**.

Clause relations in combination form patterns. Writers may adopt a pattern appropriate to the subject or topic they are writing on. Some of the well known patterns are 'problem-solution', 'general-particular' and 'hypothetical-real'.

In conclusion it can be said that the aim of the use of discourse devices by the writer is to help the reader interpret discourse more easily. This may or may not happen depending on a number of things as the incorporation of signals is not a guarantee of coherence. Several things may go

wrong. Elegant variation, for example, could serve to hinder rather than to enhance interpretation. In the same way under-signaling or mis-signaling could cause problems to the reader. In under-signaling, a writer simply does not give enough signals for the reader to go by, while in mis-signaling, the writer gives the reader the wrong expectations. In the same vein over-signaling can be just as damaging, as too many signals could serve more to confuse than to enlighten.

Needless to say, then, it does not follow that a writer who consciously uses signaling devices is necessarily a good writer as lexical choices might not be brilliant. All that this means is that the writer must judge what degree of signaling will keep him/her from being excessively compact or excessively redundant, but at the same time achieving clarity. Hartnett (1986:143) sums up the delicate nature of signaling in text when she says, "using cohesive ties successfully is apparently not easy. Both good and poor writers may use the same kinds of cohesive ties, but they use them differently."

2.7 Conclusion

Halliday, Winter and Hoey are all unanimous that writing is interactive, but Winter and Hoey's theory are more rational in dealing with sentence relations. For the purposes of text analysis Winter and Hoey's work are more insightful as these focus not only on relationships between sentences, but also offers a credible method of how large tracts of text can be analyzed. Cohesion as described by Halliday and Hasan does not give very insightful view of how the ties, very smartly described, function as text or discourse organizers; they are more of surface features and do not give an account of sentence relations within a text. Moreover, mere presence of ties in a piece of writing does not guarantee cohesion and therefore coherence; and some features such as substitution and ellipsis do not feature very much in writing (Hoey 1983).

Winter and Hoey's clause relations theory has been adopted as the most suitable one to analyze the students essays because it looks at how sentences, clauses, and paragraphs relate to each other and explain in common sense terms the discursal relations that hold between these propositions both in terms of grammar and discourse. Furthermore, this theory takes into account meaning.

CHAPTER 3

Research Design and Methodology

3.1 Aim of the chapter

This chapter contains the analysis and discussion of data. It looks at the frequency of use of cohesive devices identified to determine whether or not they have any impact on the quality of the essays. The chapter also looks at text and information structure in the text to ascertain in what ways these corresponds with the quality of the essays. In the chapter is also provided a brief socio-economic and educational background of the study subjects.

3.1.1 Study Subjects

These essays were collected from third year university students of Maseno University College in Kenya. Maseno University College, which is a constituent college of Moi University in Kenya, has been in existence since 1989. It is situated in the Nyanza Province, of Kenya approximately some four hundred and fifty kilometres West of Nairobi. Maseno University was started at a time when Kenya had just changed her education system, and suddenly in a single year there was twice the usual number of students demanding first year places in the university. This resulted in the 'double intake'. The double intake was a result of sixth and fourth year students joining the university at the same time. One of the reasons Maseno was started, therefore, was to help ease this situation.

The students that join Maseno University come from all over the country, and therefore are of diverse background in as far as earlier education, social class, culture, ethnicity and socio-economic factors are concerned. The average age for a student joining first year university in Kenya is nineteen years.

Maseno University, like all other Kenyan universities, and in some respects more than others has suffered severe constraints in resources and facilities, a situation which has impacted very negatively on the teaching and learning activities of the institution. The teaching of communication skills has specially suffered because there have not been enough teachers and suitable rooms to carry out the teaching as it should be done. In 1996 the communication skills

department was merged into the English department and only two lecturers moved over from communication skills to English department to handle the three hundred plus students. This is the situation pertaining to date, and as a matter of fact it has deteriorated even further since one of the teachers is now away on study leave. It is therefore quite obvious that the teaching of writing at Maseno University might not be as effective as it should be.

3.1.2 Collection of Data

This study confines itself to the study of non-fiction academic writing of Kenyan University students. To get data I had to communicate with my colleague back at Maseno University in as precise a manner as possible to request for my requirements. I eventually received fourteen marked essays and fourteen answered questionnaires. Maseno was chosen because that is where the researcher had colleagues who could comply with the request for data. Essays by third years were chosen because it was reasoned that they had gone through the writing course and had had some reasonable time writing academic essays since their writing course in first year. Although twenty essays were sent for from any social science discipline, only fourteen arrived after a considerable period of waiting. Although the essays were marked I have no idea other than for content what else they were marked for. Therefore the data used in this study were essays written by third year students of Maseno University College students.

These essays which were written over a period of two weeks were part of the Continuous Assessment Tests (CATs), a system used at Maseno University to assess undergraduate students. The CATs account for thirty percent of the total marks.

The collection of data for this study turned out to be difficult because the distance between the researcher and study subjects did not allow for control over some aspects of the data collection. For example, in far so as the actual data collection is concerned the researcher had no control over such factors as the choice of essay topic, duration, and also length of essay. It was also not possible to have the same students write the essays on different subjects. This was because communication with colleagues at Maseno about the finer details proved to be extremely problematic.

3.1.3 Instruments.

A set of fourteen essays from three different subjects in the social sciences, a questionnaire and the writing course outline was used in this study. One set of seven essays were from philosophy of education and the essay wanted a definition of the concept 'philosophy', hence the essay topic "define philosophy". The second set of four were from sociology of education with the essay topic "The school is generally looked at as a socializing agent. Do you agree?" This broadly falls in the cause-consequence relations. From literature the essay was a comparison which required the students to compare and contrast two sets of poems by the Nigerian poet Wole Soyinka, and there they were three essays and the essay topic was "Discuss the significant differences and similarities between *Telephone Conversation and Idanre and Other Poems*".

For easy reference the sentences in all the essays were numbered and the essays coded as follows: philosophy of education (P1-P7), literature (L8-L10) and sociology of education (S11-14). The scores were also converted into percentage. A questionnaire was also used to determine the socio-economic and education background of the students.

3.1.4 Data Analysis

The analysis of the essays showed the use of different types of cohesive devices. These were then categorized according to the Winter and Hoey classification discussed in chapter two. The devices identified included conjuncts, subordinators, and lexical signals.

3.2 Results

The tables 1-9 below give the frequency of use of subordinators, conjuncts and lexical signals, and their distribution in the three different subjects. Table 10 lists the total frequency and percentage of use of cohesive devices and related total score.

Table 1: Frequency of use of subordinators in philosophy of education essay:

<u>Subordinators</u>	<u>P1</u>	<u>P2</u>	<u>P3</u>	<u>P4</u>	<u>P5</u>	<u>P6</u>	<u>P7</u>
Since	2	-	-	-	-	-	-
While	1	-	-	-	-	-	-
Because	-	-	-	-	3	2	3
Total	3	0	0	0	3	2	3

Table 2: Frequency of use of conjuncts in the philosophy of education essays:

Conjuncts	P1	P2	P3	P4	P5	P6	P7
Therefore	1	-	-	-	-	-	-
And	2	-	-	-	-	-	-
Also	-	2	1	1	1	1	1
Moreover	-	-	-	1	-	-	-
But	-	-	-	-	1	-	-
Thus	-	2	-	1	-	-	-
Hence	4	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total	7	4	1	3	2	1	1

Table 3: frequency of use of lexical signals in philosophy of education essays

Script	frequency of LS
P1	14 items
P2	8 items
P3	14 items
P4	5 items
P5	3 items
P6	5 items
P7	10 items

Table 4: Frequency of use of subordinators in sociology of education essays:

Subordinator	S11	S12	S13	S14
Because	2	—	—	—
Than	1	—	—	—
Since	1	2	—	—
Although	—	1	—	—
For	—	1	—	—
Whereas	—	—	1	—
Total	4	4	1	0

Table 5: Frequency of use of conjuncts for sociology in education essays:

Conjunct	S11	S12	S13	S14
Therefore	1	1	1	3
Or	2	3	-	2
Either ... or	1	-	-	-
And	4	15	6	1
Also	2	3	1	2
But	-	4	-	1
Thus	-	1	1	-
So	-	-	1	-
However	-	-	2	-
Consequently	-	-	2	1
Total	10	27	12	10

Table 6: Frequency of use of lexical items in sociology essays:

Script	frequency LS
S11	5 items
S12	4 items
S13	30 items
S14	19 items

Table 7: Frequency of use of subordinators in the literature essay:

Subordinator	L8	L9	L10
Which	1	-	-
While	1	3	1
Because	-	2	1
For	-	-	1
Whereas	-	-	1
Total	2	5	4

Table 8: Frequency of use of conjuncts in the literature essays:

Conjuncts	L8	L9	L10
And	19	6	13
Or	1	4	5
Also	3	4	4
But	3	-	7
Not only...but	-	-	3
Hence	-	1	-
However	-	1	-
Total	26	16	32

Table 9: Frequency of use of lexical signals in literature essays:

Script	frequency of LS
L8	13 items
L9	12 items
L10	15 items

Table 10: frequency of use of cohesive devices and scores

Script	<u>Subordinators</u>		<u>conjuncts</u>		<u>LS</u>		total	score
	f	%	f	%	f	%		
P1	3	9.7	7	4.6	14	9.0	24	60
P2	0	0	4	2.6	8	5.8	12	60
P3	0	0	1	0.7	14	9.0	15	47
P4	0	0	3	1.8	5	3.1	8	43
P5	3	0	2	1.2	3	2.0	8	37
P6	2	6.5	1	0.7	5	3.1	8	43
P7	3	9.7	1	0.7	10	6.4	14	43
L8	2	6.5	26	17.1	13	8.2	41	53
L9	5	16.1	16	10.5	12	7.6	33	73
L10	4	12.9	32	21	15	9.5	51	67
S11	4	12.9	11	7.2	5	3.1	20	50
S12	4	12.9	27	17.8	4	2.5	35	57
S13	1	3.2	12	7.9	30	19.1	43	63
S14	0	0	9	5.9	19	12.1	28	67
Total	31	9.1	152	44.7	157	46.2	340	

F = frequency

% = percentage

LS = lexical signaling

The following conclusions are drawn from the results:

1. The most utilized device are lexical signals, followed by conjuncts and then subordinators
2. The conjunct 'and' was the most used, and the heaviest use was in the literature essays.
3. In the philosophy and sociology of education essays there are what appear to be individual preferences in the use of subordinators and conjuncts

4. Devices seem to be either subject or discourse pattern specific.

3.3 Discussion

Our data reveals that lexical items were the most used devices, with a usage of 46.2.5% as against conjuncts at 44.7% and subordinators at 9.1%. Studies comparing written and spoken language have reported that written language contain more subordinate clauses and therefore more use of subordinate devices. The data examined in this study, however, shows more main clauses coordinated mainly by 'and', and 'also'. This contradictory trend to research findings could be an indication of immature writing where sentences are joined more by conjuncts, hence displaying a lack of ability to manipulate the more sophisticated subordinate structures.

The data also throws up what appears to be a correlation between the use of cohesive devices and scores. Basically the essays that have used more devices also have higher scores. The top scoring six essays, for instance, also display the highest use of cohesive devices with a mean of 11.8, while the six lowest scoring also show the lowest use of devices with a mean of 5.8. However the fact that two essays that were among the highest and best users of cohesive devices were not very high scoring cannot be ignored. Essays that used a total of 51 and 43 devices scored 67%, 63% respectively. This usage correlates fairly credibly with the scores. On the other hand there are some high scores that do not register high usage of cohesive devices but scored among the highest. This can only mean that the low scores despite high frequency of cohesive devices must not have given sufficient information or there are some discipline specific issues.

3.3.1 Use of devices.

In the order of scores, the literature essays scored the highest marks. The highest scoring essay was a literature one that scored 73% and the next highest was also a literature one that scored 67% and were among the highest users of cohesive devices as well. The next highest scores were in the sociology of education essays and it was among these essays that cohesive devices were maximum in use. The philosophy of education scored lowest and also had the lowest use of cohesive devices. This trend is significant in as far as the use of cohesive devices is concerned in these essays in that there is some correlation between subject and the use of cohesive devices.

As the scores show except for the literature essays the overall quality of these essays is not very high. An interesting phenomenon is that these grades appear to correspond to subjects which as we have seen demanded different writing or discourse patterns. There is, therefore, a need to distinguish if it is the case that it is easier to write in some patterns than others. This is so because obviously the comparison and contrast essays yielded the best essays, followed by the logical-sequence ones and then by the definition ones.

Three devices, i.e., subordinators, conjuncts and lexical signals were used in various ways to structure both sentences and information. In as far as subordinators are concerned, although other subordinators were used, the most widely used were *because*, *while*, and *since*. Likewise the most widely used conjuncts were the conjuncts *and*, *or*, *but*, *therefore*, *thus*, *hence* and *however*. These frequently used conjuncts and subordinators were used mainly to consolidate ideas within sentences and in this way used to link clauses with same, contrasting and resultative ideas. As devices linking two or more clauses their use in these essays is quite acceptable, though it is also noticeable that only a very limited number is used in all the essays. Given below is an analysis of the use of subordinators as linking devices in the essays.

Subordinators

In these essays subordinators have been used to frame reasons and therefore serve the function of showing the cause-consequence relations. The subordinator 'since', for example, has been used to supply details by way of reasons as to why a condition exists.

(2) This then implies that at least every person is a philosopher **since** everyone has his own philosophy. (P1)

and

(4) It is through socialization that our behaviours become regulated **since** we now possess values, goals and ambitions. (S12)

However we also find an instance of unsuccessful use as in:

(33) **since** the breakdown of oral transmission of community values to formal transmission of state values, the school was set up to function on behalf of the nation. (S11)

This statement gives an ambiguous reading as it is not clear whether this device is used as a time or condition adjunct.

Subordinators have also been used to frame contrasts in the matching relations. The subordinators 'whereas' 'while', 'although' and the correlative 'not only...but' are used in this manner. The examples below illustrate their successful uses:

(65) **Whereas** telephone conversation has a shrew authorial indication of starting wit and grim humour, Soyinka's *Idanre and other poems* makes him emerge as a serious poet. (L8)

(23) **While** scientific thinking goes for physical characteristic in defining things, and religious thinking looks for spiritual aspects, philosophical reflections combines all these in a comprehensive manner. (P7)

(39) His titles **not only** place many poems this way, but often supply important keys to their meaning. (L10)

The most widely used subordinator in these essays is 'because'. It has in all instances been used to show cause-consequence relation.

Conjuncts

The conjuncts used in these essays are resultative (therefore, hence, thus consequently), additive (and, also, moreover) contrastive (but, however) and alternative (or, either... or) to show cause-consequence, logical-consequence, matching-compatibility relations.

'Therefore' has been mostly used to sum up or give a resulting situation as a consequence caused by other events hence cause-consequent relations:

(2) A social organization is a social unit that pursues specific goals which it is structured to serve for example prisons, churches and universities. (3) In each of them there are members interacting with one another in their efforts to reach aims of civilization which may either be profit oriented or client oriented. (4) Human conduct **therefore** becomes socially organized. (S11)

'Hence' is used to in the definition essays and is used to show condition-consequence relations. This example below shows this:

(8) A school performs specific functions allotted to it by the society and **hence** it qualifies to be called a social institution. (S11).

This device is used only six times in all the essays and four of its occurrences appear only in one essay.

'Consequently' is used to join clauses in a cause-consequent relations and used twice only and by the same student.

(54) This knowledge is essential if man has to conquer and subdue his environment **consequently** the school ensures that man does not live by the mercy of nature but rather becomes master of his own environment. (S13)

Both 'and' and 'also' are the most heavily used conjuncts as well as grammatical devices. Their use in these essays is basically to join clauses in the logical-sequence relations as more information of the same kind is added as in:

(21) It makes people hopeful **and** expectant as the new day approaches. (23) It **also** signifies the rising of the sun. (L9)

(12) This cannot be said in the poem telephone conversation which is a straightforward satire **and** whose meaning is not so difficult to deduce from the poem itself. (L8)

3.3.2 Information Structure

As already noted there is a correlation between the use of cohesive devices and scores, but at the same time the essays have not scored very highly. This raises the question of discourse organization within these essays, and whether merely the use of cohesive devices is enough a pertinent question is are all the expectations raised by the use of these devices met? This has to do with the provision of the relevant information to create a tight and compact piece of writing. The point being, to create discourse the writer has to deliver what s/he promises to the reader. Jordan (1984:7) underscores the importance of information structure when he says:

Clear information-structuring involves...appropriate selection of high-priority information with sensible ordering, and the effective use of signals in the text that tie together into a coherent whole and to help to guide the reader through it. Good selection of information and good arrangement of the material are not sufficient; structured writing also depends on the appropriate use of signals that tell the reader what type of information is being presented and how it relates to other items of information elsewhere in the text. We are here studying signals as well as structure.

And Hoey (1994) acknowledges that discourse with bad signaling presents problems of comprehension for the reader, problems which arise from 'faulty' or missing signaling. Different types of writing have given structures which must be established with the aid of signals, but equally important is the relevance to what the readers wish to know and not merely the manner of description. The organization of information according to the pattern signaled must be adhered to otherwise there will be information gaps as is in the case of student essays obtaining low marks. This compactness of information is what is lacking in these essays. In a significant proportion of the essays what is promised is not delivered in a satisfactory manner. With this in mind we look at these essays for a closer study of how the signaling devices have been used in their role as discourse organizing features.

3.4 Faulty Signaling

Under faulty signaling we shall discuss no-signaling or lack of signaling, mis-signaling and under-signaling. This discussion focuses mainly on the use of lexical signals or vocabulary

three items since this is where the bulk of faulty signaling occurred. A weak point of these essays is that some clause-relations and writer's intentions are not signaled. Several paragraphs in almost all the essays are almost incoherent because of these faults. A few of these paragraphs chosen at random serve to illustrate these problems, the full essays are in appendix 1.

In script P7, for instance, the writer attempts a definition of philosophy through a matching contrast relation. He makes the following generalization that signals that the definition is going to contrast two different things.

(5) *From the above definitions philosophy then can be **sub-divided** into two categories namely **general philosophy** and **technical philosophy** with distinct characteristics.*

The next fifteen sentences i.e. 6-20 are attempts at detailing the two categories of philosophy, but it takes the reader a while to realize this. Within the definition of the two branches of philosophy the contrast made is such where one branch deals with a given set of things, the other deals with another. This contrast is not at all signaled, and it is because of this lack of signaling that the reader takes some time to realize that there is a contrast that in actual fact is part of a definition of philosophy. Devices such as *difference, while, whereas* and so on would have orientated the reader to the contrast and hence to the definition. In addition to this there is a lack of adequate information because as we see it the reader's question of *in what way is technical philosophy search for wisdom?* is not answered at all. There is no attempt to relate the details of what technical philosophy is said to be to in what ways they could constitute a search for wisdom.

In P4 *different types* in sentence 4 signals a contrast and the reader therefore expects the statements made after this to be of matching-contrast relations showing or giving details of the differences between the philosophies. Although the three different philosophies are mentioned, their differences are not given as had been signaled in the earlier part of the paragraph; and this is the information that is really important i.e. not just naming, but describing the actual differences

In the section of this essay between sentences 5-8, the reader gets confused as there are no signals indicating the nature of the information s/he is receiving about the different types of philosophies. The reader is left asking if this is an elaboration of the definition of the word philosophy or is it more information on the different philosophies? What also does not come

Improper and therefore misleading signaling is also encountered in the section beginning from sentence 39. In this sentence which reads:

*There are **three factors** that explain how word wide (sic.) of general philosophy came to be reduced to small world of technical or formal philosophy.*

the signaling device 'three factors' prepares the reader for explanation based on three reasons. But the writer discusses only two factors and even then it takes a while to realize that the factors are being discussed and this is because they are not signaled. The use of *first, second, and third* would have not just made easier reading but would probably have alerted the writer to the fact that s/he has tackled only two issues though three are signaled.

Faulty signaling is encountered in the sociology of education essays as well. In script S11, for example, the writer's attempt at defining the functions of the school comes through in a rather disjointed manner as s/he misleads the reader. Here sentences 9 and 10 are as follows:

*(9) **Roles** played by a school as a socializing agent are such as initiation. (10)*

Initiation is a process of introducing someone to society development and valuable qualities to learners.

The signal given here is that a series of roles are going to be discussed, but as it is only one role is mentioned. Presumably the rest of what is discussed in this essay is the role of school in initiating the individual into society, but this major theme of the essay is not at all signaled. This has also created an information gap. The lecturer scoring this essay will certainly withhold marks for the information not provided. His question as a reader will be "what about the other roles, what are they? He will certainly wonder why have they not been discussed?" After several careful readings of this essay one realizes that it has much in the way of contrasts. The writer makes contrasts of family and school environment, only these contrasts do not come through clearly because the writer does not make conscious attempts to indicate them to the reader. A good example of this is the section between sentences 26-30 where the roles of school and family as socializing agents are being contrasted, the clause-relations are marked as those of logical-sequence (*at the early stages..., later in life...*) instead of as matching contrasts.

This failure to use the right signaling devices can be linked to the failure of providing more of the relevant information. The comparison given here is very general, a reader will want to know the contrasts in parental and teacher roles in more details, or contrasts between child-parent and child-teacher relationships, or even a comparison of the *attitudes, values, knowledge and skills that latter change*.

Other sections of this essay display similar weaknesses to what has just been discussed. A casual reading of sentences 45-50 leaves a reader puzzled as to what idea is being discussed. The major problem here is that no attempts have been made to link the clauses and show their relations with each other and in this way guide the reader to the meaning of the discourse. Sentence 49, for instance, should have been more closely linked with sentence 45. The lack of signaling in this section gives it a rather chaotic character. The last paragraph of this essay comprising of sentences 45-50 appear to be a concluding one summarizing the ideas that have been discussed in the essay: if it is, then the use of a signaling device such as *in conclusion, to conclude, to summarise etc* to indicate that the whole essay is being rounded up would aid a reader greatly in identifying the paragraph as a concluding one and therefore read it as that and not as an unnecessary repetition of facts. This plus other devices to link the clauses and sentences would have made this paragraph read more coherently.

The trend seen in these examples where faulty signaling leads to near incoherence and information gaps is characteristic of the other essays too which form our data. Although this is the general trend there are also more successful uses of signaling devices, especially in the literature and sociology essays. In L8, for example we see devices used to show the matching-contrast and matching-compatibility relations. The examples below illustrate this good use: in sentence 1 there is the use of *differences and similarities* that straight away points to the reader that the essay is going to be about the two poems. At the clause and sentence level this is done consistently right through the essay as seen in the few examples :

(12) *This cannot be said of the poem Telephone Conversation which...*

(13) *this is different from Idanre...*

...Telephone Conversation is thus easy to understand unlike some poems which...

...generally... *structurally there is a big difference in the way...*

Telephone conversation is **lengthy**...this of course is **not seen in Idanre**...

An even more judicious use of cohesive and signaling devices is witnessed in L13. We shall give two paragraphs from this essay to exemplify this good use. The first paragraph sets the situation by indicating what the whole essay is going to be about. Each of the seven sentences in this paragraph point the reader to the writer's intention by a very clear use of signaling devices. This situation setting paragraph is given below:

I device... This cues the reader to the fact that she is going to discuss four

(1) To discuss the view that the school is a socializing agent I will **begin** by looking at the concept of socialization. (2) The **major** task will be to **demonstrate** socialization could be equated to education. (3) In doing so a **glance at education from sociological perspective would seem necessary**. (4) Then I will move on to **have a look at the school and the functions of the school**. (5) The **other side** of my argument will be committed to **analyzing** whether the school meets its objectives of socializing members of the society. (6) The **issue of contention** here will be the **indiscipline and deviant behaviour** portrayed by especially secondary school students. (7) **Thirdly** it will be after reconciling **these two opposing sides** on the role of school as a socializing agent that I will be able to give **my stand on the matter**.

...inadequate use of devices with inadequate information... leads to incoherence and therefore confusion for the reader.

This is a clear instance of signaling of how the writer intends to go about his essay and if he does not score higher than he did, it would be because he may not have delivered all his promises concerning giving information. However in this paragraph there is an instance of a misuse of a signaling device. The use of the device *thirdly* is completely out of place as the reader is not told which are the *first* and the *second* instances. The use of *these two opposing sides* also leaves the reader trying to figure out which are the two opposing sides as they are not signaled.

II (18) *Generally* education serves society in *four* ways. (19) *First* it prepares the individual's mind in that he may be internally consistent and harmonious with himself thus developing the right type of personality required for living in society. (20) *Second* it equips the individual with knowledge, skills and values of the past that are cherished and valued by the given society so that they may be preserved from one generation to another. (21) *Third* education must equip an individual with such skills, attitudes and values which will make him function properly in that society; and ***fourth***...education also equips the individual to bring about useful changes.

The use of signaling devices here is very clear, accurate and precise. In sentence 1 we have the device *generally* and *four* ways. This cues the reader to the fact that s/he is going to discuss four ways in which society is served by education. The next sentence gives the first way, which is signaled by *first*. The third sentence gives the second way which once again is signaled by the device *second* and the fourth sentence gives the third and fourth ways which are also signaled by the devices *third* and *fourth*. In reading this paragraph a reader is very clear about the points the writer is making

3.5 Conclusion

In this chapter we have examined the essays to see how discourse markers have been used. We have looked at the use of conjunct, subordinators and lexical signals. We have also concluded that the use of lexical devices as cohesive devices is anchored to their discourse organizing function. We have seen a correspondence between inadequate use of devices with inadequate information, while mis-signaling leads to incoherence and therefore confusion for the reader. *This, in our opinion, is a major reason why some of the essays scored low marks.*

CHAPTER FOUR

4.1 Conclusion

The aim of this study was to find out if use of discourse markers by university students in their writing made for quality writing. Discourse markers function to signal the writer's intention and to organize discourse by showing the clause relations that exist in the writing. In this way the use of discourse markers establishes coherence. This objective was hinged on to the teaching of writing, which as we have already noted emphasizes the macro features of writing such as the use of discourse markers and text organization.

To satisfy our objective of determining the students use of discourse markers we identified the different discourse markers and categorized them into the Winter and Hoey categories of subordinators (Voc. 1), conjuncts (Voc. 2) and lexical signals (Voc. 3). The frequency of their use was then tabulated. This answered our question concerning their actual presence in the essays. To determine how they are used we have described the use of the markers and attempted to assess the degree of success achieved.

Our analysis revealed that all the categories were used and that there is a correlation between the use of discourse markers and scores. Generally higher scores correlated with higher use of discourse markers. But a qualitative analysis revealed some major weaknesses that explain the rather low quality of the essays and the low scores in those that used the markers rather well. Two major faults were detected in these essays: faulty signaling and insufficient information. These two are linked.

In some sections of these essays faulty signaling has resulted in poor presentation of information which in turn makes for near incoherence. Faulty signaling also led to information gaps or inadequate information. This happened in two ways. The first was when clause relations were inadequately, or wrongly signaled, or not signaled at all, then the writer also neglected to supply all the information associated with a particular clause relation. The second way in which information gaps have resulted in these essays is when the writer has not taken the reader into account and therefore failed to establish a link with the reader by putting to himself the questions a reader is likely to ask about the information being supplied. This inevitably led

to information gaps and therefore according to our theory inadequate discourse has taken place since the writing has not been made interactive.

4.2 Recommendations

Examination of the course outline of one of the universities revealed lack of clear theoretical approach. Consequently it is not clear which of the various writing approaches have been adopted in the teaching of writing in the Kenyan universities. Even though it is clear that students are aware of discourse markers as writing strategies, they are used more as surface features and not as devices to show relations between clauses and to organize writing in a given pattern. The essays also suggest that students do not seem to be aware of the different discourse patterns. They are even less aware of the relations that hold between clauses. In view of this we recommend that the Clause Relations theory and approach be adopted for the teaching of writing to university students. This approach will ensure that:

1. Clear distinction is made between the different types of discourse markers and how they are used to organize discourse and provide sufficient information;
2. Clause-relations and how they are achieved in writing are clearly explicated;
3. Students are exposed to the different discourse organization patterns;
4. Student writers' view writing as an interactive activity and therefore learn to engage the reader by projecting the information they are giving into dialogues.

Appendix 1

Note on subordinators and conjuncts

Combining Sentences.

In order to express complex ideas clauses have to be combined into sentences. This combination of sentences is called coordination and it is achieved by means of conjunctions. Traditionally there is a distinction between independent and subordinate clauses. Independent clauses are those clauses that can stand alone as complete utterances and are joined by coordinating conjunctions while subordinate clauses can only occur as part of a large clause.

Subordination

A distinctive characteristic of subordination is the special classes of words that introduce subordinate clauses which in English are such words as 'that', 'although', 'then', 'since' and are known as subordinating conjunctions. The verb in the subordinate clause is often in the subjunctive form as well as infinitives, participles and gerunds. Within subordination in English backward pronominalization distinguishes adverbial subordination from other types of subordination. Traditionally there are three types of subordination:

1. 'relatives' in which a clause modifies a noun or other element
2. 'adverbial' in which a clause, usually introduced by a conjunction marks a peripheral relation such as cause, purpose, time manner and so on
3. 'complementation' in which a clause is an argument of a verb, noun and so on.

Quirk et al (1985) have used the terms subordinators to refer to the subordinating conjunctions that introduce an adverbial clause and conjuncts to refer to coordinating conjunctions that function as peripheral adverbial connectives. They provide a comprehensive description of the two types of coordination a summary of which is given below.

Subordinators

Subordinators, according to Quirk et al are the most important formal devices for indicating the relationships pertaining between clauses, particularly for the finite clauses.

They consist of a single word, but there is a range of complex subordinators which function as a single conjunction. In addition there is a small class of correlative subordinators.

Simple subordinators: these consist of *after, although, as, before, directly, if, immediately, lest, like once, since, that, though, till, unless, until, when(ever), whereas, whereupon, while, whilst*.

Complex subordinators (ending with *that*): *but that, in that, in order, in the event that, save that, such that*.

Complex subordinator (ending with optional *that*)

a) Participle form: *assuming, considering, excepting, given, granted, provided providing, seeing, supposing*.

b) Others: *except, for all, now, so*.

Ending with *as*: *as far as, as long as, as soon as, for as much as, inasmuch as, insofar as, insomuch as*

Others: *as if, as though, in case*.

Correlative subordinators: these are divided into five sets:

- a) *as...so*
- b) *as...as, so...as, such...as, so...that, such...that, less...than more(ler)...than, no sooner...than, barely...when, hardly...when, scarcely...when*.
- c) *The...the*
- d) *Whether...or, if...or*
- e) Subordinator plus optional conjuncts: *although...yet, nevertheless*

Even if...yet, nevertheless

Even though...yet, nevertheless

While...yet, nevertheless

If...then, in that case

Once...then, in that case

Since (reason)... then, in that case

Unless...then, in that case

Because...then, in that case

Seeing (that)... then, in that case

Subordinators for nonfinite and verbless clauses: *with, without, rather than*

Subordinators for bare infinitive clauses: *rather than, sooner than*

Subordinators for to-infinitive clauses: *as if, as though, in order, so as, whethr... (or), with, without*

conjunctions

Other indicators of subordination:

Wh-elements are indications of subordination in subordinate interrogative clauses, subordinate exclamative clauses, wh-relative clauses and conditional concessive clauses.

The wh- words are: *who, whom, which, when, where, what, why, how, whoever, whomever, however, whichever, wherever, whenever, however, that* (restrictive relative clauses)

could be used to connect paragraphs or larger parts of text on the one hand or constituents

Functions of Subordinate clauses A conjunct will often have a focussing as well as a

Subordinate clauses have both syntactic and semantic functions. Syntactically they function as subject, object, complement or adverbial in a superordinate clause. Semantically they have the following roles:

Conditional clauses: the most common indicators are *if, unless*

Others are: *as long as, so long as, assuming (that), given (that), in case, in the event that, just so (that) on condition (that) provided (that) providing (that) supposing (that)*

Clauses of concession: These are introduced by *although*. Other subordinators used with concession clauses are *if, even if, even though, when, whereas, while, whilst*. Concessive relationships indicate that the situation in the matrix clause is contrary to expectations in the light of what is said in the concessive clause. Often they also imply contrast between the situations described by the two clauses

Clauses of contrast: these are introduced by *whereas, while, whilst*

Clauses of exception: These are introduced by the subordinators *but that, except (that) save that*

Reason clause: these are of different categories as shown:

- a) cause and effect
- b) reason and consequence
- c) motivation and result
- d) circumstances and consequence

clauses of result: clauses of result are introduced by the subordinators *so that, so*

clauses of comparison and similarity: these are introduced by *as, like, more precisely, in*

conjuncts

conjuncts have the role of conjoining independent units rather than of contributing another facet of information to a single integrated unit and this a role that is conjunct specific. According to Quirk et al (ibid.) in considering conjuncts it is necessary to look beyond the particular grammatical unit in which they appear. Conjuncts are related to the speaker's assessment of how s/he views the connection between the two linguistic units. The units could be sentences, paragraphs or larger parts of text on the one hand or constituents of a phrase realizing a single element. A conjunct will often have a focussing as well as a conjoining role

The semantic functions of conjuncts

Conjuncts have the following functions:

a) LISTING

i) **enumerative:** *first, second, third(ly), in the first place, first of all, on the one hand, for one thing, for a start, next, then, finally lastly*

ii) **additive:**

equative: *correspondingly, equally, likewise, similarly, in the same way, by the same token*

reinforcing: *again, also, further(more), more, moreover, in particular, in addition, above all.*

f) **SUMMATIVE:** *altogether, overall, therefore, thus, all(in all), in conclusion, in sum, to conclude, to sum up, to summarize*

g) **APPOSITIVE:** *namely, thus, in other words, for example, for instance, that is, specifically.*

h) **RESULTATIVE:** *accordingly, consequently, hence, now, so, therefore, thus, as a consequence, as a result, of course, somehow*

i) **INFERAL:** *else, otherwise, then, in other words, in that case,*

j) **CONTRASTIVE:**

- i) reformulatory: *better, more, accurately, more precisely, in other words, alternatively.*
- ii) Replative: *again, alternatively, rather, better, worse, on the other hand*
- iii) Antithetic: *conversely, instead, opposite, in contrast, contrary, in comparison, on the other hand.*

k) **TRANSITIONAL:**

- i) discursal: *incidentally, now, by the way*
- ii) temporal: *meantime, meanwhile, originally, subsequently, eventually*

In conclusion we can say that in text interpretation conjuncts are used to express relevant connections between one part of the text and another.

Appendix 2

Students Essays

P1

What is philosophy?

- (1) Philosophy in a popular sense or non-academic sense refers to the sum of beliefs (sic) or assumptions upon which anyone habitually acts. (2) This then implies that at least every person is a philosopher since everyone has his own opinions. (3) In a more broad sense traditions and customs can be said to be constituting philosophy. (4) every culture has ideas, values, norms and beliefs which underlie and satisfy it. (5) These ideas form a system which in a broad and popular sense can be termed (sic) as people's philosophy. (6) In that case philosophy can be said to be people's world view. (7) In the above sense philosophy is seen as a principle upon which a society has to operate. (7a) Hence we may have national philosophy like the Ujamaa of Tanzania.
- (8) In general, philosophy may be said to refer to general attitudes, wisdom, beliefs about life, which guide thinking; hence everybody has his own philosophy since everyone has his own way of thinking about life. (9) This is called personal or collective philosophy which is everyday philosophy that guides individual behaviour and thinking.
- (10) As a concept philosophy is derived from a Greek term "philosophia" from two words "philein", which means to "love" and "sophia" which means wisdom or knowledge, hence philosophia means love of wisdom and Knowledge. (11) In general philosophy means or refers to beliefs, attitudes and wisdom about life. (12) Philosophy therefore aims at a world of wisdom and strive to achieve knowledge (sic) to acquire knowledge and aspects of life. (13) Philosophy associated with wisdom means making informed judgments, choices or decisions; thinking seriously and critically about issues rather than taking them for granted as stated by Plato and Socrates.
- (14) Philosophy is a way of thinking which is critical and analytic about issues which we normally take for granted. (15) That way philosophy seeks to establish with clarification and justification of issues rather than superstitiously. (16) It advocates rational thinking which is comprehensive rather than looking at things from one point of view, thus in its reflection, it tends to combine both physical and spiritual views of life in an organized and orderly manner, hence it is a wholesome thinking.
- (19) Philosophy deals with problems like; what's life? (19a) What's the essence of being? (20) What is the difference between real and apparent? (21) What is human mind? (22) What is the essence of the existence of the supernatural, for example God? (23) While scientific thinking goes for physical characteristics in defining things, and religious thinking

looks for spiritual aspects, philosophical reflections combine all these views in a comprehensive manner.

(24) Philosophy is all about detachment hence being philosophical is not to be concerned of the moment experience, but is to take different views of the immediate issues. (25) As an area of study, it deals with specific problems and embodies specific explanation of believes and reality; (29a) hence it is a form of a discipline that can be studied, an academic or specialised discipline (26) From this sense we can therefore talk of forma/technical and general philosophy. (27) Formal philosophy includes areas of study like philosophy of science, philosophy of religion, philosophy of education and philosophy of mathematics. (28) It is in this way associated with specific content, specific language and specific objectives. (29) General philosophy deals with general issues, believes and attitudes, it is subjective and informal both in method and language. (30) It is not specific, it embodies general wisdom for person or society.

(31) To Plato a philosopher is the one who is devoted t the test of gaining vision of the absolute ideas by means of contemplating' (31a) and philosophers must strive to defy sensual limitations caused by the body. (32) According to Aristotle, philosophy was knowledge of truth, philosophy should investigate things and critically discuss on their theoretical as well as practical application. (34) To him this is not an exercise of an ignorant person who takes things for granted, and who may find it difficult to pursue knowledge for its sake. (34) He will change to sensual activities and irrational and irrelevant sense of knowledge. (35) If a man is possessed with the intellectual curiosity and ambition that can break the bound of ignorance by defying its all restraining and irrational beliefs, such people are called rebels by the majority. (35) Philosophy in strict sense means a deeper search or quest into reality of life.

(37) On the other hand, Thomas Aquinas says that philosophy is a discipline that investigates the physical as well as spiritual reality of issues and aims at understanding the ultimate principles and concepts that underlie reality, it is a life process of search of knowledge

(38) Hegel defines it as the thinking that aims at maximum concreteness.

(39) In summary, philosophy can be said to be a process which entails intellectual and rational concern for wisdom, knowledge, and endeavours to understand and explain the fundamental principles of man and nature, thinking systematically, logically and critically about the issue at hand; it is involved in deeper thinking about life and the world and it is also an academic discipline.

P2

What is Philosophy

(1) To start with the word philosophy is derived from two Greek words namely "philein" meaning love, to strive after and search for and the name "sophia" meaning wisdom (2) Thus philosophy involves search for wisdom by philosophers .

(2) The word philosophy can be taken to mean two different things meaning it can be viewed in two different ways. (4) The first is the general or the popular conception of philosophy. (5) Under this it is used to mean the sum total of assumptions, beliefs, attitudes and prejudices. (6) These may be inherited or acquired through the process of life. (7) This can be seen as the habitual pattern of response of a person to events. (8) This aims at expressing one's world view. (9) These factors are what a person philosophy in the sense that each person has his/her own way of viewing the world under general view also traditionally. (10) It was philosophy taken to mean the profound sayings of the elders which was both witty and pregnant with meaning. (11) In this sense old men were considered to have a lot of wisdom.

(12) The second view is the one that takes philosophy as an academic discipline characterised by logical consistent and systematic thinking to arrive at sound conclusions that are coherent and consistent in all their parts. (13) Philosophy is also taken to mean to engage thought with an aim to clarify and explain language which we express our ideas. (14) As an academic discipline philosophy has an element of reason and logical arguments as the basic tool in its operations. (15) It aims at examining evidence in favour or against any claim from a dispassionate and impartial point of view.

(16) It also has a feature that its open ended meaning that it holds that no condition is absolute and certain to be immune from further correction in future using evidence. (17) When philosophy has this feature of questioning conclusions and proposing for the future it has a speculative aspect. (18) Where one by reasoning tries to build a consistent and coherent view of ideal world that ought to be. (19) This philosophy as an academic discipline should define concepts and analyze and criticize them and put forward propositions for the future.

(20) This second view is also called technical or professional view of education and is characterized by formalization, westernization and specialization. (21) Its formal in that its books oriented, has scholarly writings and systematic thought. (22) Its western in the sense that it originated from western scholars and specialization in the sense it's a field of specification of many.

(1) Generally philosophy can be said to be unique way of knowing. (2) the word philosophy is derived from two Greek words:- (2a) philein- meaning to love, to strive after or to search for.

(2b) Sophia –meaning wisdom. (3) Therefore philosophy involves search of wisdom. (4) There are different types of philosophy for example we have Nyayo Philosophy, Traditional Philosophy and Philosophy of life. (5) The word philosophy has no clear definition in advanced English dictionary, the word philosophy is defined in three bits as; love of wisdom, study of indispensables, and study of causes of phenomena. (6) For the type of philosophy mentioned above, Nyayo philosophy for instance; none of the above definitions seems to fit in it. (7) the word philosophy in Nyayo philosophy has a different meaning. (8) As we use the word philosophy we find that it can stand for two things.

(9) It can be a process, as an activity and philosophy as a product and the outcome of the process. (10) As a process it stands for in activity for doing something. (11) More especially it stands for mental activity that involves thinking using the mind as we do when we are studying. (12) In this sense as a process philosophy may stand than for study of something that is study of causes of phenomenon. (13) The outcome or result of doing philosophy are: Specific ideas or thoughts or even systems of thought. (14) For example, when you think about happiness, what it is etc you finally end up with ideas about happiness that being rich and these ideas are the outcome or product of thinking.

(15) Nyayo philosophy can be termed as an outcome of a long process of thinking because Nyayo involves peace, love and unity. (16) We expect all the three to be followed by all Kenyans. (17) Traditional philosophy is outcome of traditional thinking. (18) Philosophy as a process involves thinking. (19) Thinking is an activity of the mind which someone is different from knowing and understanding.; with effect thinking proceeds and comes before knowing (you have evidence) and understanding is (you know well and fully) (21) Thinking is trying to understand. (22) Philosophic thinking involves thinking about fundamental methods about questions of life, happiness etc. (23) In philosophical thinking we distinguish between ordinary questions and other fundamental questions that examine our whole life. (24) Fundamental questions are more difficult to imagine. (25) In this sense we see that philosophy is unique because it is concerned with fundamental issues.

(26) Philosophy is like a road, a road of human history studying philosophy does not mean to get the answer but it is to be on the way. (27) It is also like a mirror which reflects issues affecting our life in which we may discover our identity as human beings.

(28) However, we have general and technical philosophy. (29) General philosophy is defined in more concrete terms of time and space. (30) History of philosophy is as old as that of mankind, as old as human history.

(31) Referring to time we speak of ancient and modern of precolonial or present times. (32) Referring to place we speak of history of Africa of Kenya etc. (33) Like history philosophy is both particular and universal. (34) It is particular because it varies from time to time, from place to place.

(35) In terms of time we speak of traditional and modern philosophy. However it's also universal in the sense that philosophy as human response can be found in every period of history, in every culture or society on earth. (36) The world of philosophy is then not only as old as mankind but also as wide as mankind. (37) Philosophy is then truly universal, phenomenon, philosophers are to be found in all places in all times.

(38) On the hand (sic) Technical philosophy is taken as formal philosophy developed from general philosophy. (39) There are three factors that explain how worldwide of general philosophy came to be reduced to small world of technical or formal philosophy. (40) westernization refers to the historical fact that due to the ones (sic) dominant position of western civilization resulting in imperialism and colonialism, formal philosophy came in course of time to be dominated by Western Philosopher's. (41) As a result philosophy in the formal, technical sense came to be regarded as a predominantly Western or European affair. (42) Technical philosophy has various systems of thought such as realism, idealism, pragmatism and phenomenon, all Western in origin. (43) Briefly the world of technical philosophy is highly Western in orientation, in expression, in character. (44) Specialization is a process whereby individuals acquire exceptional knowledge of constant and intensive study of the subject. (45) These individuals are said to be experts or specialists in their field, they tend to create a small world of their own.

(46) With specialization and westernization going hand in hand, formal philosophy became highly technical and as such a matter for experts but with the western concept.

(47) Contents of technical philosophy usually called four branches of philosophy are logic, epistemology, axiology and metaphysics

(48) Epistemology is the study of knowledge. (49) Axiology is the philosophical study of human values, metaphysics deals with questions are concerned with what lies after or beyond the physical world or sense experiences that deal with the supersensible; logic on the other hand may be defined as the study of sound reasoning which is critical and analytic; it studies the structure and principles of sound arguments.

P4

(1) Philosophy is a heavily loaded word which cannot be precisely defined. (2) The word has a Greek origin.

(2) sophoo- a word which means a wise man in Greek.

Sophia-which means wisdom
Philia-which means to love and
Philos-which means a friend.

(3) Hence philosophy from a nominal point of view means love of wisdom

(5) Philosophers are involved in more than just loving wisdom. (6) They are also concerned with thinking seriously about issues rather than taking them for granted. (7) They want to know the nature of life (8) Therefore philosophy can be understood as a personal attitude toward life and universe. (9) A problem is seen to be part of a large scheme of things. (10) Thus its an attitude where a person sees a problem in a broad perspective. (11) Here a person faces the situation calmly without excitement and develops a mature attitude towards which a solution is sought.

(12) Philosophy can also be said to be a method of reflective thinking and reason acquired.

(13) This method involves careful and accurate thinking. (14) It's more intensive of synoptic than other various sciences. (15) Philosophical method is creative and critical.

(16) It involves the attempt of one think through (sic) one's problems. (17) Philosophy is also an attempt to gain a view of a whole. (18) Philosophy seeks to combine the conclusions of various human experiences.

(19) The philosophers wishes to see life with overall view of someone who recognises life as totality. (20) Philosophy is also the criticisms of the sciences, arts, religion, moral life, social believes sic) and practical activities. (21) Philosophy is the logical analysis of language and classification of the meaning of words and concepts. (24) Moreover, philosophy can be said to be a group of problems as well as theories about the solution of these problems.

P5

WHAT IS PHILOSOPHY

(1) The term philosophy is derived from two Greek words.

Philen-loving

Sophia-wisdom

Philosophy therefore means the love of wisdom.

(4) Philosophy can be defined as the study of ultimate reality and fundamental principles of existence which in some sense both transcend and unify the insights offered to us through religion and the scientific knowledge gained as a result of observation and experiment.

- (5) Philosophy is a personal attitude towards life. (4) In this context everyone has a personal philosophy that is in some aspects unique.
- (6) Philosophy is also a method of reflective thinking and reasoned enquiry. (6) A logical analysis of language and classification of the meanings of words and concepts. (7) It is also an attempt to gain a view of the whole combining the conclusion of the various sciences and human experience into some kind of consistent world view. (8) It can be termed as a group of problems and the theories about the solutions of these problems.
- (9) According to Kant, philosophy is an investigation into the preconditions and limits of human knowledge.

P6

What is philosophy?

- (1) It is difficult to get the true meaning of the word philosophy. (2) Those found in dictionary and encyclopedia are misleading.
- (2) Philosophy is a curious word indeed and odd in definition because its reality consists of not one but two world. (4) the wider world of general philosophy and technical philosophy. (5) Philosophy is curious because it's a world of wonders and wisdom. (6) The world curiosity from the word cura meaning care and concern. (7) Therefore philosophers show care and concern even anxiety about man and the world he lives in. (8) They try to explain the world in order to survive in it as human beings. (9) Try to gain insight they are constantly in search of wisdom and this search is reflected in the word philosophy itself. (10) Derived from a Greek word philein meaning to love to strive after to search for and from the word sophia which means wisdom. (11) Philosophy involves a search of knowledge and wisdom. (12) Philosophy is therefore a world inhabited by people known as philosophers who are constantly searching for an answer and who try to come to term with life in the world of today. (13) This search of wisdom answer requires struggle serious struggle involving the whole person and not everybody is prepared for this struggle. (14) Too often human being are so involved in the activities of day to day life that they take many things for granted while philosophers do not take anything for granted.
- (15) Too often the world of philosophy is seen as a world of books. (16) But the world philosophy is too wide to be restricted to books. (17) for this reason doing philosophy includes any serious attempt by people to arrive at an answer as response to the basic questions of human life.
- (18) Meaning of philosophy in general sense constitute a general attitude or principle with which we charge our action and those of others views or belief of life. (19) General philosophy is not specific in content and focus. (20) Its about everything at the same time

not defined in depth and breadth. (21) It also subjective in that it may not be applicable to everybody at all times. (22) Its also not specific in terms of methods of inquiry.

(23) Philosophy in technical sense refers to philosophy as an academic discipline which is taught in educational institutions. (24) Its still carries the fundamental view principle and belief in life and universe. (25) The content is specifically defined and well focused. (26) It also defined in depth and breadth. (27) It has specific methods of inquiry. (28) It is also objective and western oriented.

P7

“What is Philosophy?”

(1) Philosophy is derived from a Greek words (sic) “Philein” and “Sophia” with meanings, Philein to love, to strife(sic) after, to search and Sophia meaning wisdom. (2) Philosophy is therefore the search for wisdom as put by philosophers. (3) Philosophy is then a human concern, requiring the attention of all people because philosophy here is the search for an answer for understanding which is a general task that applies to all human beings. (4) Philosophers are concerned with the search for an answer with meaning and its (sic) significant to life.

(5) From the above definition philosophy then can be subdivided into two categories namely general philosophy and technical philosophy with distinct characteristics;

(6) General philosophy (wide/broad philosophy); It constitutes in general sense general attitudes towards life. (7) It refers to general attitudes with which we judge the actions of others which include basic beliefs, view of life and principles with which we make our decisions. (8) General philosophy is not defined in specific content and focus because it is about everything. (9) It is not defined in depth and breadth. (10) It is also subjective in its position of issues and has no specific methodology of enquiry.

(11) Technical philosophy; has specific content and specific methods of enquiry. (12) It has got specific terms like realism, idealism, pragmatism and with writings of famous philosophers and their technical language like ‘metaphysics’ ‘phenomenon’ ‘logics’ ‘essence’ but all are from western origin

(13) Contents of technical philosophy are concerned with distinct areas of study;

(14) (i) logic; which is the study of correct reasoning like studies of structure and principles

(15) (ii) Epistemology; study of knowledge which includes philosophic reflections of issues related to knowledge (non physical abilities)

(16) (iii) Axiology; deals with nature of human values such which tries to meaning of good and evil (sic) axiology have (sic) various subcontents which are ethics (study of moral conduct and values), aesthetics (study of beauty) and logic (study of human reasoning).

(17) (iv) Metaphysics; deals with issues beyond the study of nature which is the study of what is beyond the physical world. (18) Metaphysics also has got some subcontents; theodacy (study of supernatural powers), cosmology (study of the origin and nature of the universe), ontology (study of being which are living and non living) and rational psychology (study of philosophy of the mind)

(20) Since philosophy deals with the study of the state of the mind (perceiving imagining, remembering, feeling, understanding and feeling (sic), therefore philosophy is a kind of activity that concerns itself with investigating certain problems in areas of knowledge value and 'being

L8

(1) Given the two works of the Nigerian poet, Wole Soyinka we cannot fail to look at the question of timing, that is the time the two works were written as it will throw light on the significant differences and similarities. (2) The differences and similarities manifests themselves in the form of thematic concerns. (3) The style of writing of the two mood and tone of the writer but above all the question of cultural identity of the poet.

(4) Telephone conversation was written earlier than the poems in *Idanre and other Poems*. (5) Critics have come up with ideas and theories why Soyinka did not include it in this collection, potent in this is that Wole Soyinka had performed it for so long and probably felt he was getting to be identified with it.

(6) *Telephone conversation* is a satire of the contemporary society. (7) It is witty and humorous Eldred Jones (1973) calls it a light satirical verse obviously Soyinka did not wish to be seen as a witty humorous poet and therefore felt the need to leave it from the collection.

(8) *Idanre and other Poems* is a collection of other poems that intergrates imagery into pervading imagery of Yoruba beliefs. (9) He has delved deep into the Yoruba mythology and culture and borrowed the belief of his people and created a potent work of art.

(10) It is a difficult and condensed poetry in which individual poems may not yield their meaning unless placed alongside others. (11) This cannot be said to the poem *Telephone Conversation* which is a straight forward satire and whose meaning is not so difficult to deduce from the poem itself. (12) This is different from *Idanre* where one has to know about the beliefs about gods like *Ogun* and *Sango* before one can really appreciate the poem.

(13) The poem *Telephone Conversation* is thus easy to understand unlike some poems which Eldred Jones (1973) said are either simply impenetrable or have no emotional appeal and there's verbal dexterity but it is observed by the authors obsession with difficult words and complicated construction.

(14) From this we can see that *Idanre* is difficult to comprehend in terms of language and its thematic concerns

(15) Structurally there is a big difference in the way *Telephone conversation* is written and the poems in *Idanre and other Poems*. (16) Telephone Conversation is lengthy, actually one poem without stanza. This of course is not seen in *Idanre and other Poems*. (17) Probably seen in a poem like *Koko Oloro* page 23, but this by far too short and not lengthy. (18) This could be comparable to the long stanzas in 'the civilian soldier page 53, but again this is not again very similar and falls far too below the one long length of *Telephone Conversation*. (19) In the Telephone conversation the poet relies on dialogue a lot. (20) This is absent in *Idanre and other Poems* with where it is present unmarked like in the *Telephone conversation*.

(21) The use of capital letters, stand especially out very well where showing the difference colours

(42) ARE YOU LIGHT OR VERY DARK?

(22) It emphasizes the question of race in the society. In *Idanre and other Poems*, it is seen in the poems 'to my first white hair' a hilarious look at the aging process, for emphasis we have

THREE WHITE HAIRS (page 30)
written in bold letters and therefore stand out.

(23) This is conspicuously absent unlike in *Idanre* where we find it especially in the section 'battle'

(24) In some of his poems like *Death in the dawn* the poet has taken the trouble to give us an indication of what the poem is about. (25) Also the poem *Koko Oloro* this makes it easy to read the poem and understand it better. (26) This kind of explanation is absent in Telephone Conversation.

(27) On the graphological level we encounter Soyinka at his creativity best, twisting of language in both works. (28) In Telephone Conversation we have public hide-and- speak to refer to a public telephone booth which can be compared with the poem 'a first clear day' which refers to a first birthday. (29) This is feature of coinage of new words. (30) It suits his work as a poet and are striking in their originality and uniqueness.

(31) The use of narration is seen clearly in both *Idanre* the poem and telephone (32) Conversation both work have a narration technique that Soyinka uses to further his thematic concerns.

(33) At the same time the use of detailed description is apparent in both works. (34) In *Idanre* part iv the beginning we find the point by point description of the gods and Ifa the

religion. (35) This compares favourably with the point by point comparison of *Telephone Conversation*.

(36) The similarity in the construction of sentences is apparent in both works. (37) The use of commas in between the sentence and the use of full stops, after just a word for example in the poem 'By a little loving pg 41

...enough, I swore, the wear of purses

and in *Piper's daughter* pg 25

(48) The nose, you know, is thorned...

(38) These could be compared with the short crisp lines of conversation in the *Telephone Conversation*

(39) Conversation is another feature found in the two works

(40) In the poem *Civilian Soldier*, the encounter is between a civilian and a soldier, though not reported directly and marked with quotation marks, like in the *Telephone conversation*.

(41) The echo of the conversation is all too apparent to be missed.

(42) *Telephone Conversation* ends with a question mark. (43) This is a similarity observed in the poems *Civilian Soldier* which ends

What is it all about?

and the poem 'death in the dawn' which ends with the question 'this closed contotion-I?

(44) The use of dots very prevalent in *Telephone Conversation* showing hesitation and sign of after thought

HOW DARK...I had not misheard... ARE YOU LIGHT.

can be compared to the poem 'around us dawning' in paragraph three in the line

The hidden ache... when

Death makes a swift descent.

(45) And in the poem *Luo Plains* paragraph two in the line

Down cloudflues of alchemist sun...

(46) The use of dashes is also prevalent in both works for example

I hate wasted journey-I am African

can be compared with the poem 'season' in the second paragraph in the lines

...laden stalks

ride the germs decay-we await

the promise of the mist

the *Telephone conversation* on one hand is a social satire satirizing the racist white landlady who is mocked by the reference of her voice.

(47) Lipstick coated, long gold rolled which can be compared with the poem 'Malediction' where reference is also made of the lips in page 55 in the first line

Unsexed your lips

(48) This kind of mockery throws to the ridicule the people being referred to in the poem.

(49) Mockery is seen in death as in *Death in the Dawn* as there is mockery in telephone conversation, mockery in *Death in the dawn* is on man's thought that he is superior but in the end, ends up killing himself with his own invention, the roads and vehicles while the mockery in *Telephone Conversation* is on the racist woman.

(50) Moving to the cultural concern it is evident that Soyinka has borrowed heavily from Yoruba beliefs

(51) He has used symbolism, most of the poem in *Idanre* have symbolic connotation like 'Harvest' is used to show fertility. (52) The grey colours, which are the hours of Ogun recur repeatedly in *Idanre* and other Poems. (53) This cannot be said the same of *Telephone Conversation*. (54) The spiritualism in *Idanre* is not there in *Telephone Conversation*; similarly myths and beliefs are absent in *Telephone conversation* which is straight to the point

(55) Another aspect present in *Idanre and other Poems* is the poets use of tense. (56) Here has mixed tenses, wavering into the past present and future. (57) These he uses to show the cyclical nature of life like in the poem 'season'.

(58) The use of colour can be said to be similar. (59) The colours grey is prevalent in *Idanre* and other poems it can be compared with red, the colour of danger in *Telephone Conversation*

(60) All in all we can see that there are vast differences as well as similarities. (61) Soyinka can be said to have stretched his imagination wide in the *Telephone Conversation* to write the witty satire something he is not so keen about in *Idanre* and other Poems. (62) Here he is seen exploring deeply into the meaning of life and death. (63) The two works complement each other one a social commentary and the other a serious work looking and evaluating the meaning of life, the full circle and at the same time the role of gods in shaping man's destiny.

(1) *Telephone Conversation* and *Idanre* and other poems are among the various compositions of Wole Soyinka. (2) The latter is a collection of poems consisting several short and one long poem entitled *Salenre*. (3) This long poem is a creation myth of Ogun the Yoruba god of iron the short ones on the other hand range from the realizations on the issue of October massacres in Northern Nigeria to a very comment (sic). (4) *Telephone Conversation* is a social satire. (5) Soyinka is satirising the white lady.

(6) There are several differences and similarities between the two. (7) To begin with in '*Idanre and other Poems*' Soyinka borrows heavily from the Yoruba cosmology and religion while we don't see any features of Yoruba cosmology in the '*Telephone Conversation*' the former for instance most of the poems feature Ogun the god of iron and metalogy. (8) Every phenomena in these poems is attributed to Ogun, these phenomena involve life and death or procreation and destruction, the death of Segun in the poem *In memory of Segun Awolowo* is attributed to Ogun. (9) Procreation in *To one In Labour* is also associated with Ogun. (10) In *telephone Conversation* Soyinka discusses the conversation between the landlady and her would be tenant. (11) there is no feature from the poem which is borrowed from the Yoruba culture.

(12) The structure of the two poems are different while '*Telephone Conversation*' is in prose form the poems in *Idanre...*' are written in stanzas. (13) The poet in the later uses stanzas to express his ideas. (14) Stanzas of as few as two lines are evident in *Malediction*, and others with as many lines as eight in the same poem. (15) *Telephone conversation* gives the impression of a lengthy conversation between two people due to its lack of stanza.

(16) Symbolism is more prominent in *Idanre and Other Poems* than in *Telephone Conversation*. (17) In the former we have life after death symbolizing the processes of procreation and destruction respectively. (18) The colour 'grey' in the same represents depression or something which is dull. (19) It's also the colour of Ogun it represents rain for instance in the poem. (20) 'I think it rains' represents creation and liberation the artist in this poem expects to be liberated because it has rained. (21) *Dawn* which is that period in the early morning hours before sunrise is used symbolically. (22) It makes the people hopeful and expectant as the new day approaches. (23) It also signifies the rising of the sun. (24) In another poem *psalm* Soyinka has greatly explored symbols. (25) He uses words like 'ripened', 'pods' and 'ivory' to represent fertility, breasts and baby respectively. (26) He also uses symbol of metal, wire and iron to show the existence of their god. Palm trees, seeds are images of life. (27) In '*Telephone Conversation*' the poet has wilfully left out symbols.

(28) Its worth noting that while the most recurring theme in *Idanre...* is life and death, racialism features prominently in '*Telephone Conversation*' in fact life and death is said to be Soyinka's set theme. (29) There is a whole section in the collection of poems dealing with the aforementioned theme. (31) 'Koko Olowo' is a children's event in Yoruba which is

supposed to appease Ogun so that he protects the people from death. (32) In *Dedication* the earth is portrayed as giver and taker of life. (33) 'Yaws' in the same poem symbolises that which sustains life. (34) 'Eerie in the Night' is also about a woman traumatised by death. (35) She had a stillbirth throughout the poem she is experiencing her grief after the stillbirth. (36) *A first deathday* is about a child who dies on his/her first birthday thus death and life feature chiefly in most poems in *Idanre*.... (37) 'Telephone Conversation brings out the realism. (38) The white lady wants to know if her would be tenant is black or white before she rents the house to him/her. (39) Hence she asks 'are you light or very dark' (40) The tenant sarcastically describes himself by giving unnecessary details like colour of his palm and soles of his feet.

(41) The language used in *Idanre*... is highly metaphorical and is rich in imagery. (42) On the other hand the language in *Telephone conversation* is sarcastic and ironic as it is satirising. (43) In *Idanre*... we have images of metal and iron which show the existence of Ogun. (44) Others include *Palm Tree* and *Sewe* which are relieved as sustenance of life. (45) The tenants language in *Telephone* ... is full of sarcasm. (46) Instead of giving his colour, he sarcastically gives a description of himself. (47) He says 'facially I am brown the... palm of my hands, soles of my feet' to the disgust of the white lady who bangs the phone on him. (48) We expect the would be tenant to bang the phone because he/she was offended by the white lady's question.

(49) Soyinka has made use of upper case letters in between the lines in '*Telephone Conversation* while he has not used this in *Idanre*...', there are words like 'HOW DARK', 'WHAT'S THAT' 'THAT'S DARK' among others. (50) He could have done this to stress the white lady's question and to break the monotony of the lower case letters.

(51) In *Idanre*... we find extensive use of italics but we do not find the same in 'Telephone...'. The first stanzas of section V of the poem 'Idanre' are in italics. (52) The same have been used in other sections of the poem like section II ... and after. (53) Italics serve as choruses in the poems of *Idanre*..., break monotony and lay emphasis on particular ideas.

(54) Dialogue is more pronounced in *Telephone Conversation* than in *Idanre*..., in the latter the poet does not exploit dialogue. (55) The white lady and her would-be tenant are literally involved in a dialogue although not face to face. (56) The dialogue is emphasised by the use of opening and closing inverted commas.

(57) An introduction, sort of a background is provided in *Idanre*... but not in *Telephone*... (58) For instance in *Death in the Dawn* Soyinka briefly gives a background of this poem. (59) He gives his experience on the road that is how a squirrel smashed against his windscreen and the accident he came across afterwards. (60) The reader can tell that the *Luo Palms* was set in Kenya as he provides the information. (61) He has given a lengthy explanation of *Idanre* 'that is a walk through wet woods, a pilgrimage and so on.

(62) However there are several similarities. (63) Both works make the theme of racialism.

(64) The white lady in *Telephone Conversation* wants to know her would-be tenants colour before she rents he house. (65) Colour seems to be the major determinant.

(66) *Black Singer* in *Idanre*... is a song about oppression of the black people. (67) *Telephone Conversation* and *Idanre*... are both typical of Soyinka's poetry in that they are lengthy and the message is not easy to grasp. (68) For instance in *Psalm* its quite difficult for one to know that the poem is in praise of a woman by a man whose child is dying. (69) *Bringer of Death* also follows the same trend. (70) Its about an analysis of the nature of the peace a woman can afford to offer a man. (71) *Idanre* is one long poem divided into sections. (72) *Telephone*... gives the impression of a face to face conversation between two people but, this is not the reason he is talking over the phone. (73) Its hard to identify this unless one has thoroughly gone through the poem like *Idare* it is lengthy.

(74) Soyinkas negative attitude towards women is evident in both. (75) He describes the whitelady in *Telephone Conversation* in a very dehumanising way, (76) He says 'voice when it came, lipstick coated, long gold-rolled cigatte holder pipped'. (77) Women are potrayed as sex objects in *Idanre*... for example in the poem *Bringer of Peace* and *Her joy* is weird. (78) He has looked at women as beings who are there for the men to satisfy his lust and bear him children. (79) In 'Psalm' the person is praising the woman simply because she is carrying his child.

(80) Semantic deviation features in both, there is 'hide and speak' in *Telephone*... instead of 'hide and seek', and 'loaves of lead' instead of 'loaves of bread' in 'night', *Idanre*...

(81) Like *Idanre*... *Telephone*... has a detailed description of the booth. (82) He says 'red pillar box, red booth, red double-tiered' all these in an attempt of making the reader realize vividly. (83) He gives a very detailed description of the journey undertaken by the poet in *Idanre* the poem. (84) Its (sic) divided into seven sections, all giving an account of same pilgrimage.

(85) Satire as a stylistic device is use in both *Telephone*... and *Idanre*... (86) The former is a social satire. (87) Its (sic) satirising the white lady who is talking over the phone with her would-be tenant that she requires the colour of the would-be tenant. (88) According to Soyinka the colour of the tenant is not an issue. (89) What matters is the deal they'll strike. (90) *Malediction* is a social satire for women. (91) The poet is satirising the women for rejoicing when others were suffering satire is when an artist criticizes a social in a light hearted manner (sic). (92) He makes the reader laughs and at the same time teaches them on what they would do, the reader learns from the satire.

- (1) Soyinka, writer of both *Telephone Conversation* and *Idanre and Other Poems*, has been described as a poet of twilight zones between night and day or day and night especially in *Idanre and Other Poems*. (2) They are areas of transition which he has an abiding fascination for they are those areas in which he can most fully explore certain basic facts about life and death.
- (2) The traditional Yoruba cosmology is a potent fact in the imaginative life of Soyinka. (4) Soyinka is therefore still working within a traditional system. (5) The central tenets he uses to underlie his poetic argument are his idea of reincarnation and cyclical nature of existence.
- (6) The above points are clearly portrayed in *Idanre and Other Poems*. (7) *Telephone Conversation* however had hugged the foreground of attention and established Soyinka almost exclusively, in many minds as a writer of light satirical verse. (8) The exclusion of this poem from his collection gently directs attention to the much greater part of his poetry which is quite another mood. (9) On balance he is not essentially a humourist although even his graver poems are startlingly witty and sometimes grimly humorous. (10) His exclusion of his brilliant but on general assessment uncharacteristic. (11) *Telephone Conversation* as a shrewd authorial indication. (12) Gerald Moore in his book *Modern African Writers* (1978) says that *Telephone Conversation* may have been left aside perhaps because he felt it was in danger of knowing his anthology piece.
- (13) Its characteristic of Soyinka to sometimes handle very serious issues with a light touch or with some humour. (14) In 'Telephone Conversation' Soyinka raises a very serious and important issue the issue of racial discrimination, and yet he fills the poems with a tinge of humour.
- “ my bottom, raven black, one moment madam!...
- (15) When he does this he is not only echoing the bias which is in the mind of the landlady but he ends up reducing the whole issue into something quite funny.
- (16) In the poem *Post Mortem* in *Idanre and other Poems* Soyinka discusses a very serious issue of death in a mortuary on a humorous note. (17) He plays around with words like 'beer' and 'bier' which although have nearly the same pronunciations have completely diverse meanings. 'Beer' is a pleasurable drink while 'Bier' is a deathly plant where coffins are kept. (18) This dialectism seems to be a tactic by Wole Soyinka to mock death.
- (19) From the thematic levels the theme of colour bar which has been an outstanding aspect in man's lifestyle over the years/centuries has been satirically presented by Soyinka. (20) the

landlady in 'Telephone Conversation' has to know the colour of the tenant before she can rent him the house.

(21) "ARE YOU DARK OR VERY LIGHT?...."

(22) The colour problem in *Idanre and Other Poems* has been discussed in 'October '66' which is written in Tegel. (23) There is some resemblance between *October 66* and *Telephone Conversation* over this issue. (24) In both the poems the persona seems to be frustrated in an alien land. (25) However, there is a difference in that in *October 66* the of the setting where the poem is written is indicated (Tegel). (26) The time and the place of the poem is therefore limited even though it projects to Nigeria in the poets imagination.

(27) In *Telephone Conversation*, there is no limit of time or place. (28) It could be anywhere and at any time. (29) Telephone Conversation could therefore be satirising any racial discrimination evident at any time and in any country throughout the world. (30) Time and space is also limited in, *Ikeja Friday Four O'clock* in *Idanre and Other Poems*.

(31) 'Telephone Conversation' also raises the question of remorselessness or lack of pity displayed by one party to another. (32) The landlady seems to show no sympathy to the tenant who is in need of a place to stay. (33) Just like the woman who shouts 'joy where all the humans world shared in grief's humility *Malediction* in *Idanre and Other Poems*. (34) Soyinka's feelings for this kind of attitude is more openly seen in *Malediction* than in *Telephone Conversation*

(35) Civilization as a theme is discussed or portrayed in both poems by Soyinka. (36) It is looked at as a dehumanising agent. (37) 'The red omnibus squelching tar', 'lipstick-coated', 'gold-rolled cigarette-holder pipped' and the voice of the woman (the landlady) reflects on civilization. (38) The irony in this however, is seen in how a woman who depicts civilization can have such low standards as to be a racist. (39) It is just like looking at the section in *Idanre and Other Poems* called *of the Road* which deals with the destructive nature of the road, and all that civilization has brought with it like cars, aeroplanes and so on. (40) It is this civilization and new technology which with it destruction and suffering. (41) Man is unaware that the very things he associates with advancement and civilization are the same things which bring him death and so much suffering because it is actually in creating that he destroys.

(42) Soyinka saves the critic/reader a good deal of trouble by announcing the historical or rather the background of the poems in the titles, for example *Massacre October '66, to my first white hairs*. (43) His titles not only place many poems in this way, but often supply important keys to their meaning. (44) By reading the poem then associating it with the title, he reader is in most cases able to clearly understand the theme and meaning of the poem. (45) This is a very prominent feature in Soyinka's work and is what makes him so outstanding and unique as a poet.

(46) Soyinka quotes the direct speech in *Telephone Conversation* through the use of dialogue. (47) Through this dialogue the reader is able not only to get to know the basic theme of the poem but also shows the real words that the persona is saying. (48) This is also reflected in the poem *civilian and soldier* in *Idanre and Other Poems*. (49) However this technique is very rare in *Idanre and Other Poems*. (50) Soyinka however, in some cases uses italics or italicises certain lines to portray direct speech, for example in the poem *Idanre* Ogun's words are written in italics.

(51) In *Post Mortem* Soyinka starts every line with a lower case letter. (52) He might have used this strange technique to symbolize among other things the small worthless body of a dead man. (53) In *Telephone Conversation* Soyinka has distinguished the words of the white landlady from the ones of the black tenant by presenting the white lady with uppercase letters and the tenant with lowercase letters. (54) This feature seems also to portray the whole issue of racial superiority and inferiority.

(55) However, it has to be noted that the use of uppercase letters between the lines in the 'Telephone Conversation' is a feature which does not appear the poems in *Idanre and Other Poem*.

(56) Rhythm, a basic poetic feature which sometimes helps in making the poem more interesting to read, is a feature that is completely absent in 'Telephone Conversation', but is present in some poems like 'Koko Oloro', 'Psalms', 'song: Deserted Markets' and so on

(57) However, it is to be noted that in three examples there is the aspect of song. (58) They are not recitation poems as such but are more or less written down songs, as such the rhythm factor is evident.

(59) There is one graphological difference clearly shown in the two poems. (60) *Telephone Conversation* is written in one prosaic stanza. (61) In it Soyinka ends up sacrificing uniformity and order because he tries to pack in too many thrusts in the parenthetical lines. (62) This feature might be because of the influence of Soyinka's earlier poetry which was of nervous energy darting about with little regard for decorum or uniformity of tone. (63) Most of the poems however, in *Idanre and Other Poems* are written in divided stanzas and clearly arranged lines. (64) We can say that this was also an indication by Soyinka to be identified as a subtle and serious poet.

(65) *Telephone Conversation* does not have such aspects like mythology and he cyclic nature of life and death which are highly prominent in *Idanre and Other Poems*. (66) In *Idanre* Soyinka's traditional influence is portrayed through the account of Ogun's creation pilgrimage to the earth is to date by far his most extensive and ambitious poem. (67) It contains within itself to those main lines of thought that have marked Soyinka's verse throughout his career. (68) It is the Yoruba cosmology and values and the 'Diversified Unity' of the 'Ifa' which has motivated Soyinka in the writing of *Idanre and Other Poems*. (69) 'Telephone Conversation' is however more contemporary than that. (70) It sheds light on the present society or focuses on an issue which is more or less outside the traditional boundaries or issues.

(71) Whereas 'Telephone Conversation' has a shrewd authorial indication of startling wit and grim humour, Soyinka's *Idanre and Other Poems* makes him emerge a serious poet concerned with grave issues.

(72) Conclusively, however, *Idanre and Other Poems* and *Telephone Conversation* are expressions of intense personal feelings arising out of actual feelings, for example 'Massacre October '66'. These two works show Soyinka's ability to face a whole wealth of meaning to the small compass of a poem so that he ends up reminding one of some of the best English metaphysical poets like Shakespeare and Donne.

S11

(1) A school is a social structure or social institution and machinery through which human society organizes, directs and executes the multifarious activities required to satisfy human needs. (2) A social organization is a social unit that pursues specific goals which it is structured to serve for example prisons, churches, schools and universities. (3) In each of them there are members interacting with one another in their efforts to reach the aims of the organization which may either be profit oriented or client oriented. (4) Human conduct therefore becomes socially organized. (5) The parts of an organization interact with each other for a common goal.

(6) The school is generally looked at as a socializing agent. (7) This is true because the school is a social structure that pursues specific goals to cultivate distinctive patterns of behaviour which are more or less adapted to the functions they are expected and executed (sic) for society. (8) A school performs specific functions allotted to it by the society and hence it qualifies to be called a social institution

(9) Roles played by a school as a socializing agent are such as initiation. (10) Initiation is a process of introducing someone to society development and valuable qualities to learners. A school is the first large-scale organization where the child becomes a member. (11) Unlike the family, the school members are unrelated by blood or marriage for example in some places teachers may not belong to the child's ethnic community and others may even be expatriates. (12) In this case then the child is initiated into a new environment from the home and usual environment of his parents and relatives. (13) The school is an organization which comprises different characters of people. (14) The heterogeneity coupled with large sizes makes the school a secondary social group. (15) Here a child is supposed to relate with different people who act in *loco parentis* ad fellow children who are neither his sisters or brothers. (16) The child will have to learn how to conduct oneself in such a larger social group which has more demands on character and discipline unlike his minute group at home. (17) It is in this social setting that the child will be faced by peer group influence.

(18) The process of socialization is unlike in the family because it is too formal than the informal socializing process to be met at home. (19) The school presents the child with authority which functions in channels from junior to senior. (20) He is to learn to respect ranks, statuses and the administration. (21) There are ways to induce respect such as fines, canning, suspension, expulsion and prizes. (22) There are also informal modes of social control applied in limited ranges. (23) In this case, the learner is in the process of becoming one of the school society members. (24) He has to undergo all the formalities of getting socialized fully into the school institution

(25) At the early stages of development, the family plays a greater role of socialization process. (26) The child is usually bound with the rules and regulations of the home. (27) He feels as part of the group and is well suited and accepted by the virtue of birth in the same family. (28) Later in his life the child spends most of his life in school. (29) The teacher takes the role of a counsellor (sic) and political culture. (30) The child and the teacher interact in the educational institution which has brought them together. (31) Their relationship in the beginning could not be successfully perfect but with time the school gains at the expense of the family because the child changes his attitudes, values, knowledge and skills from those taught in his background to those of school.

(32) Since the breakdown of oral transmission of community values to formal transmission of state values, the school was set up to function on behalf of the nation. (33) For example development of the general state of Kenya depends on the literacy of its people. (34) Since independence, the late President Jomo Kenyatta said that elimination of ignorance, poverty and sickness is the root to developing the Nation. (35) The school was given greater priority in its functions. (36) All the Kenyan children had to go to school where they would be socialized in how to overcome poverty by gaining education for employment and economic development, acquire knowledge into wholebeing of individuals and the society in general that is education for social services in social development and then education for the health of the individuals and the health of the Nation. (37) In this case then, the school became the only sole (sic) of social development in Kenya.

(38) Social stratification is always brought into light through the school. (39) Whenever children join certain schools, the privilege given to that school makes them also feel privileged. (40) Later in their lives they identify with only those fellow students from the same schools. (41) Again, the distribution of school facilities, staff, activities and performance makes the children understand which social class their background belong to. (42) In this case the school may socialise them into the similar class as their parents or else they may feel encouraged to work harder to identify themselves with a different social class all together. (43) These changes or lack of change will depend mostly to the school unlike the family background for most of his life a child spend in school.

Culture is too dynamic. (44) The social cultures which traditionally prevailed were only informally transmitted. (45) Traditional societies have changed their culture. (46) The only agent which could affect this change on behalf of the parents is the school. (47) Culture which includes language, beliefs and practices, dressing, kinds and forms of entertainment,

political and social organization. (48) Schools inflict great changes in the children such that they are able to fit in their society and identify with problems of their dynamic societies.

S 12

(1) Socialization is the life long process of * whereby an individual learns the principal values and symbols of the social system in which he participates and the expression of those values in the norms composing the roles he and others enact. (2) This process is vitally important to both individual and society. (3) Without some processes of socialization the society would cease to exist. (4) Thus socialization can be regarded as the way by which culture is transmitted and individuals are fixed into the society's organised way of life.

(5) Its through socialisation that our behaviour becomes regulated since we now possess values, goals and ambitions and live in our ordered environment. (6) Therefore human personality is developed through socialisation

(7) Schooling is essentially a socialising agent in the sense that when the child begins formal education that is from nursery or kindergarten schools as well as primary and secondary schools and universities, the child is exposed to a wider world, a world where he interacts with his peers and teachers of all kinds. (8) This is when a demand is put upon him to play new roles. (9) The teacher assumes the role of the parents and tries to inculcate his values into the child.

(10) At school the child learns all kinds of skills, some of which are deliberate because they are embodied in the school curriculum but some of which the teacher aims to convey to them as part of his function in the socialisation process. (11) At this age the child spends a greater proportion of his time away from home. (12) The influences of the teacher and his peer group could be overwhelming but some may be complimentary to his previous experience in the family. (13) Whatever knowledge he gains at school will help the child to be able to interact with his friends and colleague, therefore he must conform to the norms and values of the peer group. (14) Where his own values clash with those of his teachers he can expect sanctions until he conforms to the generally accepted values of the environment. (15) When the child has finished in school he is expected to have acquired various skills not only academic but skills which could place him in a profession in the wider world. (16) He will become more mature and experienced and achieve a high degree of coherence and forbearance. (17) He also will have learnt a series of roles that will enable him to adopt to any situation in which he may find himself. (18) Formal education thus has paved the way to adulthood.

(19) We can conclude that the school presents a formal and conscious effort by the society to socialise the young. (20) It does this firstly through the content of the curriculum, secondly the attitudes and values of teachers are communicated to the child. (21) Teachers

also act or are perceived by children as models, the children identify with these teachers as role models and acquire their values.

(22) Although the family is the basic agent of socialisation there are other agencies to which the child is exposed and these in turn assume a socialisation role; for instance at school the teacher occupies an important position in the child's life so do the peer group, neighbours and any other group which the child interacts. (23) Education in this broadest sense is a mechanism of socialisation. (24) Both formal and informal education systems help the child to acquire various skills which will prepare him for manhood and the important roles he is expected to play in society.

(25) In school there are peer groups are also important (sic) as socialisation agents. (26) The peer group serves as a reference point of assessment of primary sexual behaviour, for example boys evaluate themselves and each other on aspects of maturity such as growing pubic hairs, girls discuss various aspects of menstruation, breast development. (27) The peer group may transmit prevailing social values or develop new and distinct cultures of their own. In schools children are taught obedience, self-discipline or commitment to the group to which they belong. (28) The schools emphasizes the group rather than the individual. (29) Competition is encouraged but always between groups not between individuals.

(30) The teacher has standards, but teaches the peer group to enforce those standards that gradually authority come from the teacher to the per group. (31) The peer group learns to encourage each member, helping those in trouble and leading those who don't perform well. (32) The older pupils has responsibility to carry out in the classroom and must also take a younger child to school, help that child with his/her homework and act as an older sibling. (33) This peer group method of socialization is effective for example boarding school students are more resistant to antisocial behaviour than their agemates in regular schools. (34) They are much obedient and hardworking.

S13

(1) To discuss the view that the school is a socialising agent, I will begin by looking at the concept of socialisation. (2) The major task will be to be able to demonstrate how socialisation could be equated to education. (3) In so doing a glance at education from a sociological perspective would seem necessary. (4) Then I will move on to have a look at the school and the goals of the school, before discussing the socialisation function of the school. (5) The other side of the discussion will be committed to analysing whether the school meets its objectives of socialising members of the society. (6) The issue of contention here, will be the indiscipline and deviant behaviour potrayed by specially secondary school students. (7) Finally it will be after reconcilling the two opposing sides on the role of the school as a socialising agent that I will be able to give my stand on the matter

(8) Let us start by defining the term socialisation, it is a process by which the accumulated culture of a society is transmitted to its members, and especially to the children. (9) Culture and its content refer to the procedures and materials by which individuals are socialised or educated. (10) Socialisation involves behaviour change in the individual. (11) Such changes are brought about by the subjects interaction (that is conversation, reciprocal acts, exchange of ideas, information and material objects) with appropriate stimulus situations involving other members of society. (12) In the school context, interaction with fellow students, teachers and learning materials like books bring a change into the learner.

(13) We have already mentioned in the preceding paragraph that socialisation also implies education. (14) It is important to note that education is not only formal but it can be informal and non-formal. (15) The school, as we shall see later, has both formal and informal aspect of organisation, and schools for adults education provide non-formal type of education. (16) As per now our interest is to be projected on education as a social institution. (17) Emile Durkheim sees education as the influence exercised by the adult members of a given society over the young ones. (18) Generally education serves society in four way: (19) First, it prepares the individual's mind in that he may be internally consistent and harmonious with himself thus developing the right type of personality required for living in society. (20) Second, it equip the individual with knowledge, skills and values of the past that are cherished and valued by the given society, so that they may be preserved from one generation to another. (21) Third, education must equip an individual with such skills, attitudes and values which will make him function properly in the society; and fourth, the future is most uncertain and it has to be planned for, so that it may be better than the past and present; education, then, also equips the individual to bring about useful changes in society.

(22) Having seen what socialisation is and ways through which education (or socialisation) serves society, we may ask how or by what means does this process of socialisation take place? (23) An answer to this is that society has created institutions or agents which help it in accomplishing its goals. (24) The school is one of these institutions. (25) It is a formally constituted community. (26) The school is part of the community or society and so it cannot pursue goals different from the values of the society of which it is part. (27) Generally the schools teach the culture of the society at large to its members occupying the position of students. (28) They also prepare these members to have a good character and to participate in society effectively. (29) Further more schools give the members cognitive orientation for the development of themselves, consequently of society.

(30) The following is the socialisation function of the school:

(31) The school is the first large scale organisation of which the child becomes a member, unlike family, its members are mostly unrelated by either consanguinity or marriage. (32) the members could be coming from different cultural backgrounds and even differences of language may exist. (33) Despite all these divergencies, a child joining school soon learns the school ways of doing things by interacting with the other members.

(35) Whereas the family is essentially an informal socialising agent, the school combines the formal and informal process of socialisation with formal (fines, canning, suspension,

expulsion, official mention and prizes) and informal (the pressure of peer groups) modes of social control.

(36) The school gives instructions in the performance of occupational roles. (37) Thus in this case the school prepares personnel for society, as the society is in need of different people performing different task, consequently perpetuating it's continual existence. (38) It is from the school system that we get the police force, doctors, teachers, lawyers, engineers and many more.

(39) A child spends the major part of his most active hours of the day in school. (40) For boarding schools it is even more worse. (41) Taking example of Kenya. a child spends nine months out of twelve in a boarding school. (42) In this case the school society surpasses even the family in importance. (43) When it comes to socialising the child.

(44) A teacher takes the role of a counsellor and guides the child in academic and vocational matters. (45) This in essence is socialisation as the child prepared to live into the wider society and contributes to its well being.

(46) The school plays important role in the political future of a nation. (47) The involvement of university students into politics is a testimony to this fact. (48) Still taking the example of the Kenya situation, we now have many politicians whose careers trace origin from the time of their involvement in the leadership of university students organisations. (49) It may be said to go beyond this as the process starts at secondary school level.

(50) The school influences the morals of children, generally for the better. (51) Children are taught the need of such values like obedience and cooperation. However on the other hand stealing, lying, disobedience, wickedness, dishonesty and other bad behaviours are discouraged.

(53) The school is a mediator of knowledge necessary for adjustment and successful living in society. (54) This knowledge is essential if has to conquer and subdue his environment. (55) Consequently the school ensures that man does not live by the mercy of nature but rather he becomes master of his own environment.

(56) We have already mentioned the fact that the school organisation is both formal am informal. (57) The formal (official) structure is manifested in age grading, division of time in specific ways, physical space, prescribed standard of behaviour, school uniform, officially sponsored ceremonies such as opening day and school assembly, classroom teaching, sports, drama and other recreation activities. (58) On the other hand the informal aspect of the school is manifested in the dress in vogue, elements of specific mode of speech, patterns of recreation, ragging, and generation of status system based upon qualities which the pupils regard as important, for example, ability to fight among boys and physical attraction among girls. (59) It is by means of participation in informal activities tha young people obtain actual knowledge about certain areas of life for instance sex, which are neglected by the family and the formal school organisation.

(60) On the other hand of the discussion, does the school always achieve its goals? (61) To answer this question, first we note that the goals of the school are not only difficult to identify, they are also difficult to measure. (62) Nevertheless it has already been said that the common goal of every school is to educate the children under its care in harmony with the prescribed values of the larger society. (63) We need to add that it also prepares the children, specifically, to pass the school leaving certificate exams. (64) However if teachers, students or parents do not participate as expected, then the attainment of these goals becomes difficult.

(65) How do we explain the indiscipline and deviant behaviours observed among school children? (66) A child could be from a Christian family with strong morals on behaviour and yet when this child enters school his behaviour becomes an issue to be alarmed of. (67) He may for instance become a drug addict. (68) Under such circumstances, can one claim that the school has socialised this child? (69) The answer is obviously no. (70) In fact the school would have done more harm to the child.

(71) It is of necessity, now, to examine factors contributing to deviation at school. (72) First, adolescent characteristics can cause deviation in school settings. (73) Secondly, the student may fail to adjust himself in a new situation, that is, the school environment. (74) Thirdly it may be due to the failure in exams and fourthly, the school environment could be lacking the basic facilities. (75) In Kenya's educational history the St. Kizito tragedy is still fresh in the memory of many, needless to mention numerous other related incidences.

(76) A solution to the above problems could be fostering responsible attitudes among pupils which will bring about a greater sense of self discipline in the student body. (77) also an effort should be made to maintain the continuity of teaching staff to build up healthy traditions in the school. (78) Organisation and strengthening of Parents Teachers Associations to enlist the support of parents and the local community for the smooth functioning of the school. Lastly official encouragement to school societies to provide opportunities for leadership among student, and an outlet for energy.

(80) In conclusion I do wholly agree with the idea of looking at school as a socialising agent. (81) The school is an institution that no society can do without, or else it risks facing extinction.

S14

(1) According to the *Oxford Advanced Learners Dictionary*, society is a system whereby people live together in organised communities. (2) This implies that society, as a system, is made up of different social structure or institutions some of which are the family, the school, law courts and churches. (3) It is within this framework that a person or child is born and brought up according to the customs and beliefs of the existing

structures.. therefore by the time a child acquires maturity he finds himself fully socialised into his own society with corresponding values and regulations.

(4)Therefore socialisation on the other hand is the process by which an individual systematically learns and adapts to the way of life of his society. (5) the school, in this case is one of the components of the wider society- a unity or social organisation within the wider concept of society. (6) Therefore it contributes to the maintenance and perpetuity of the total system of which it forms part.

(7) The family is the first social institution that the child encounters and he process of socialisation that takes place here is rather informal. (8) He is subjected to conditions that will make him accept as well as adapt to the values and norms of the existing system, for instance, respect for his seniors, honesty and goodwill. (9) In this case the child's worldview is limited to its immediate members of the family, that is, close relatives and friends. (10) When the child joins school, he is immediately plunged into the first large scale organisation. (11) Here he becomes a member of an institution whose membership is varied or unrelated by either marriage or consanguinity. (12) For example, the teachers may not necessarily belong to his ethnic community- they might be expatriates, while the other children might be as diversified as their number. (13) Under these circumstances the child is subjected to both the formal and informal processes of socialization.

(14) The formal aspects of socialization include classroom teaching and evaluation while the informal aspect consists of peer group influences and pressure. (15) All these are reinforced by rules and regulations controlled or affected by a variety of punishments and rewards like canning, fines, suspension, expulsion and or peer group pressure, the school in this case is geared towards checking on the child's deviant behaviour and imposing on him positive social morals and values.

(16) That the social (sic) is an effective socializing agent is evident from that a child spends the major part of his most active hours of the day in the school. (17) this therefore implies that the teacher takes the role of counsellor and part-parent.

(18) the value placed by people on the school as a socializing agent is popular world wide, this explains the unanimous concern for any disruption of the smooth running of the school. (19) For example, indiscipline due to the breakdown of communication between the and the students population or teachers (sic). (20) this is due to the fact that when social organisations fail to minister to its members appropriately there is bound to be differences and conflict.

(21) Just like any organised system, the school as a community is defined by various distinctive structures, these include its members who consists of pupils, teachers and the non-teaching staff and a restrictive territory that includes the buildings, playground and gardens. (22) For the smooth functioning of the school it is characterise by a hierarchy of authority with the headteacher as the overall head and this is followed by a succession of others to the cleaners and messengers in the lowest rank. (23) therefore administrative duties follows a chain of command if the institution is to achieve its objectives, this is

subsequently followed by a network of patterned social relationships, as in teacher-pupil relationships.

(24) The classroom itself can be seen as organised community. (25) It consists of different elements like the class teacher and pupils who operate in relations to one another and constitute the entire classroom and just like the larger institution it is governed or controlled through a chain of command from the class teacher, class secretary to the ordinary student. (26) All pupils are required to strive for the achievement of the same goals, cognitive and moral, while the teacher represents the adult world with its authority, he is in loco-parentis.

(27) Other than the cognitive function of the school, it also trains students good citizenship. (28) This includes inculcation of respect for seniors, friendliness towards comrades and good work habits such as punctuality and self satisfaction with ones work. (29) It also aims at culminating in the capacity for leadership and initiative. (30) For instance, Kenyan system of education (8:4:4) aims at producing a self reliant citizen after undergoing the full cycle of the system. (31) Right from the pre-primary school level the child begins to open up his eyes to the outer world in relation to its existence. (32) This together with the primary school experience is the first socializing agency in the child's experience which evaluates him institutionally in terms of his achievement

(33) As part of the wider community the school cannot pursue different goals from the value of the society. Instead its goals are to a large extent determined by the value of this same community of which it is a part. (35) It is worth noting at this point that the major goal of traditional African education was character training but the school aims at a variety of goals and objectives character training being one of them. (36) As a socializing agent the school teaches the students the values and wider beliefs of their society in order to participate actively in the day to day activities, hence an effective tool of national development. (37) That is why the school is the centre of community interest and its teachers together with the headteacher are highly regarded as key participants in communal development with their students

(38) the school also plays a crucial role in preparing its graduates for professional as well as vocational life. (39) It is argued that students in school select peer partners with whom they tend to share similar interests. (40) This therefore further emphasises the role of peers in socialization. (41) For instance the individual headed for higher occupational status will choose peer groups that tend on the whole to facilitate his progress in this direction. (42) This is a major factor in reinforcing the child's predispositions in terms of his own ability and its encouragement in the school to transcend the expectations of his class origin

(43) The school acts as a catalyst for individual excellence. (44) In this case it instigates a sense of a feeling of qualification on the part of learners as a spring board towards the occupation of prestigious position in society. (45) It eventually comes to the realization of the pupil that headteachers, teachers and other members of the subordinate staff are in those positions due to excellence in technical qualifications which are certified by special examinations. (46) This therefore increases their aspirations hence leading to hard work in

order to attain excellent performances that will enable them occupy such prominent positions in future.

(47) The school as a socializing agent inculcates in the learner the spirit of co-operation and teamwork which is a basic requirement in the development of society. (48) Indeed most states use the school as an effective tool of indoctrination into the policies and philosophy of existing power structure, hence sensitising the pupils into the fabric of society. (49) Therefore it goes without saying that the school is part and parcel of the existing social structures that make up the wider society hence a valuable contributor to the social well being of that society which it is part.

Alford, J.L. (1982). *Discourse analysis*. Oxford: Clarendon Press.

Barnes, C. (1976). *Does Writing Have to be so Difficult?* In Freedman, A. (ed.) *Writing a Second Language*. Harlow: Longman. 20-33.

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

Carroll, P. J. (1987). *Interactive Approaches to Second Language Reading*. In Carroll, P. J. (ed.) *Interactive Approaches to Second Language Reading*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. 1-10.

Chomsky, N. (1977). *Discourse analysis* (New edition). London: Longman.

Coakley, W. (1979). *Analyzing and Evaluating Text*. In Coakley, M. (ed.) *Advances in Research in Applied Linguistics*. London: Longman. 1-11.

Carroll, P. J. (1987). *Research in Second Language Writing Analysis*. *TESOL QUARTERLY* 21(1).

Carroll, P. J. (1987). *The Reading Process in Care*. In Carroll, P. J. (ed.) *Interactive Approaches to Second Language Reading*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. 11-31.

References:

- Arndt, V. (1987). Six Writers in Search of Text: a protocol based study of L1 and Writing. *ELTJ*. 41/4 : 257-267.
- Asher, E. A. (ed.) (1985). *Encyclopaedia of Linguistics and Languages* (vols. I-X) Oxford University Press: Oxford.
- Austin, J.L. (1962). *How to do things with words*. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
- Bereiter, C and M. Scardamalia (1983). Does Writing Have to be so Difficult? In Freedman, A. et al. (eds.) *First Language/Second Language*. Harlow: Longman. 20-33.
- Brown, G. and B. Yule, (1983). *Discourse Analysis*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Carrell, P. L. (1988). Introduction: Interactive Approaches to Second Language Reading. In Carrell, P.L et al. (eds.) *Interactive Approaches to Second Language Reading*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. 1-10.
- Coulthard, M. (1977). *An Introduction to Discourse analysis* (New edition). London: Longman.
- Coulthard, M. (1994). On Analysing and Evaluating Text. In Coulthard, M (ed.) *Advances in Written Text Analysis*. London: Routledge. 1-11.
- Connor, U. (1987). Research Frontiers in Writing Analysis. *TESOL QUARTERLY*. 21/4: 677-696.
- Goodman, K. (1988). The Reading Process. In Carrell, P. L (ed.) *Interactive Approaches to Second Language Reading*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. 11-21.

Flower, L. and Hayes, J.R (1983). A Cognitive Process Theory of Writing. *College Composition and Communication*. 32/4: 365-387.

Halliday, M.A.K. (1978). *Language as Social Semiotic*. London: Edward Arnold.

Halliday, M.A.K (1985). *Introduction to Functional Grammar*. London: Edward Arnold.

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

Harnett, G. (1986). Static and Dynamic Cohesion: Signals of Thinking in Writing. In Couture, B. (ed.) *Functional Approaches to Writing*. London: Frances Pinter. 142-151.

Henner-Stanchina, C. (1985) From Reading to Writing Acts. In Riley, P. (ed.) *Discourse and Learning*. Harlow: Longman. 91-104.

Hoey, M. (1983) *On the Surface of Discourse*. London: George Allen and Unwin.

Hoey, M. (1994) Signaling in discourse: a functional analysis of a common discourse pattern in written and spoken English. In Coulthard, M. (ed.) *Advances in Written Text Analysis*. London: Routledge. 26-45.

Hoey, M. and E. Winter, (1986). Clause Relations and the Writer's Communicative task. In Couture, B. (ed.) *Functional approaches to Writing*. London: Frances Pinter. 120-138.

Husain, K. (1998). Needs of the ESL Writing Student: A Case Study. *Indian Journal of Applied Linguistics*. 24/1: 59-69.

Johns, A.M. (1990). L1 composition theories: Implications for developing theories of L2 composition. In Kroll, B. (ed.) *Second Language Writing*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Jordan, M. P. (1984). *Rhetoric in Everyday English Texts*. London: George Allen and Unwin.

- Knapp, G.C. (1998). Critical Pedagogy in an Academic ESL Writing Classroom. In *University of Hawaii Working Papers in ESL*. 17/1: 45-78.
- Kress, G. (1982). *Learning to write*. London: Routledge and Kegan.
- Levinson, H.C. (1983). *Pragmatics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Love, A. (1999). Framing Claims: An Examination of one Feature of Undergraduate Writing in Zimbabwe. *Indian Journal of Applied Linguistic*. 25, 1-2: 71-85.
- McCarthy, M. (1991). *Discourse Analysis for Language Teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- McCarthy, M. and M. Hewings (1989). An alternative approach to the analysis of text. *Praxis Des Neusprachlichen Unterrichts*. 35: 3-10.
- Nash W. (1992). *An Uncommon Tongue: The Uses and Resources of English*. London: Routledge.
- O'Donnell, M. (1974). Syntactic Differences between Speech and Writing. *American Speech* 49: 102-110.
- Poole, M.E, and Field, T.W. (1976). A Composition of Oral and Written Code Elaboration. *Language and Speech* 19: 305-311.
- Quirk, R. et al. (1985). *A Contemporary Grammar of English*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Raimes, A. (1987). What Unskilled ESL Students do as they Write: a Classroom Study of Composition. *TESOL QUARTERLY*. 19/2:229-258.
- Searle, J.R (1969). *Speech acts: Essays in the Philosophy of Language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Steffensen, M.S. (1988). Change in Cohesion in the Recall of Native and Foreign Texts. In Carrell, P. L et al. (eds.) *Interactive Approaches to Second Language Reading*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Tannen, D. (1982). Oral and Literate Strategies in Spoken and Written Narratives. *Language* 58:1-21.

Thomson, G. (1996). *Introducing Functional Grammar*. London: Arnold.

Van Dijk, T. (1977). *Text and Context: Explorations in the Semantics and Pragmatics of discourse*. London: Sage.

Widdowson, H. G. (1983). New Starts and Different Kinds of Failures. In Freedman, A. et al. (eds.) *Learning to Write: First Language/ Second Language*. Harlow: Longman.

Widdowson, H. G. (1984). Reading and Communicating. In Alderson, J.C. and A. Urquhart (eds) *Reading in a Foreign Language*. Harlow: Longman. 213-226.

Winter, E. O. (1971) Connection in science material, a proposition about the semantics of clause relations. *Centre for Information on Language Teaching Papers and Reports*. 7: 41-52.

Winter, E. O. (1977). Replacement as a Function of the Sentence in Context. *Forum Linguisticum*. 4/2:95-133.

Winter, E.O. (1994). Clause Relations as Information Structure: Two basic Text Structures in English. In Coulthard, M. (ed.) *Advances in text analysis*. London: Routledge.

Zamel, V. (1983). The Composing Processes of Advanced ESL students: Six Case Studies. *TESOL QUARTERLY* 17/2: 165-187.