Discourse Analysis through Interpersonal Meaning

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1. Introduction

Communication is an interactive process by means of language; language delivers messages from an interlocutor to others. Since communication is available to exist among people, it is inevitably influenced by interlocutors. Therefore, it is important to pay attention to how language makes meanings in spoken or written discourse in terms of grammar and meanings. There are many ways of determining functions of languages. One approach is to consider grammar as 'a set of rules which specify all the possible grammatical structures of the language' (Lock, 1996, p.1). Another approach is focusing on the functions of grammatical structures, and their meanings in the social context. The latter approach of grammatical analysis is called functional; it is Systematic Functional Linguistics. Systemics focuses on 'how the grammar of a language serves as a resource for making and exchanging meanings' (Lock, 1996, p.3). That is, it is concerned with the grammatical patterns and lexical items used in text, as well as choices of those items, focusing on 'the development of grammatical systems as a means for people to interact with each other' (Martin et al., 1997, p.1).

Certain grammatical structures and certain words do not always make the same meaning; 'the same words can have a different communicative

function in a different situation' (Bloor & Bloor, 2004, p.10). That is, meanings are influenced by the social situation. On the other hand, different utterances can work with the same communicative function. According to Bloor's example;

> … a woman might tell her child to take off his shoes in a direct way (Take your shoes off, Robin) or in a less direct way (Would you take your shoes off please, Robin?) or in an extremely indirect way (You haven't taken your shoes off, Robin). In each case the function of directing the child to take his shoes off is broadly similar even though the wording and the tone convey different nuances (Bloor & Bloor, 2004, p.10).

Here, the three utterances deliver the same message with different grammatical structures. The choice of grammatical structure should be dependant on the situation in which the utterance was given. As a result, it can be considered that social contexts decide words and grammatical structures.

The aim of this paper is practicing a functional grammatical analysis of text. Firstly, the major functions of the grammar of language will be discussed in terms of Systemics in Section 2. In Section 3, an experimental analysis of three types of text will be conducted. The result of the experiment will be summarised in Section 4.

2. Literature Review

Halliday (2002) introduces three functional modes of meanings of language from the point of the semantic system: (1) ideational (experiential and logical); (2) interpersonal; and (3) textual. He states that they are 'different kinds of *meaning potential* that relate to the most general functions that language has evolved to serve' (Halliday, 2002, p.198).

2.1 Ideational (experiential) meanings

Ideational meanings deal with the ways the language represents the interlocutor's experience: 'how we talk about actions, happenings, feelings, beliefs, situations, states, and so on, the people and things involved in them, and the relevant circumstances of time, place, manner, and so on' (Lock, 1996, p.9). That is, it focuses on how the text represents the external/internal reality: a certain happening by a certain person at a certain situation in the reality. Taking '*Mike arrived at school at nine o'clock*' as an example, it can be analysed that a man (i.e. *Mike*) represents his act (i.e. *arrive*) at the past tense (i.e. ---*ed*) in a certain situation (i.e. place = *school*, time = *nine o'clock*). Obviously, the interlocutor of the text represents his event in the experiential world.

It is natural that the text's subject is influenced by the situation where an interlocutor and a listener/reader are, which means the social context. Considering an actual situation where the sample text is used, it can be supposed to be between *Mike's* friends, between *Mike's* teacher and his classmate, or between *Mike's* teachers, etc. In this case, it can be said that the text was delivered in a casual conversation between people who know *Mike*. As a result, it is necessary to consider the subject matter of the text and the types of institutional context which a text operates, such as scientific research, health reports, sports commentaries, friendly conversations, political speeches, and interviews with teachers (White, 2000) for ideational meanings.

2.2 Interpersonal meanings

Interpersonal meanings focus on the interactivity of the language, and concern the ways in which we act upon one another through language. In either spoken texts or written texts, an interlocutor expects to tell listeners/

readers via text. This means that each text has a relationship between providers of information and recipients of information. See the following sentences as an example;

1. (Declaratives) Mike arrived at school at nine o'clock.
2. (Interrogatives) Did Mike arrive at school at nine o'clock?
   or What time did Mike arrive at school?
   or Where did Mike arrive at nine o'clock?
3. (Imperatives) Tell me when Make arrived at school.

In the declaratives, the information is provided from the interlocutor to a listener/reader; the former is a provider of information and the latter is a recipient of information. But in the interrogatives, we can see the opposite movement of information; the interlocutor expects to receive an answer (*yes/no, at nine o'clock, or at school*) from a listener/reader. This shows that the former is a recipient of information, and the latter is a (potential) provider of information. Finally, in the imperatives, the interlocutor demands the information (or goods & services, according to Halliday (White, 2000, p.7)) to a listener/reader; the former is a recipient of information, and the latter is a provider of information/service, as in the case of the interrogatives. The relationship between interlocutors and listeners/readers is shown as follows;

Table 1: Relationship of Interlocutors and Listeners/Readers

	Interlocutor	Listener/Reader
Declaratives (Statement)	Provider of information	Recipient of information
Interrogatives	Recipient of information	Provider of information
Imperatives (Demand)	Recipient of information/ Recipient of goods & services	Provider of information/ Provider of goods & services

It is noteworthy that such relationships of interlocutors are, naturally, influenced by the social situation, and as such, the interlocutors' positions will maintain some element of flexibility. Example 3 above, *Tell me when Mike arrived at school*, can be replaced by (1) *You should tell me when Mike arrived at school*, or (2) *Would you tell me when Mike arrived at school?* etc. Sentence (1) demands the service more strongly by using the word *should* rather than the original. On the other hand, sentence (2) represents a very polite request by using the phrase *Would you … ?*, and the demand of service is not so strong as the original. Although each sentence conveys the same message, they show the difference in terms of the subtle nuance behind the message. Moreover, sentence (1) carries a demanding message by a declarative sentence, and sentence (2) does it through an interrogative sentence. This means that the interlocutor of sentence (1) can become a recipient of service. As a result, sentence forms sometimes work together to make up for meanings.

Considering that the use of words in texts is strongly connected with the interlocutor's internal reality, it is important to pay attention even to decorative words found in texts. For instance, when example 1 contains the word *probably*, or the phrase *I suppose*, the certainty of the meaning of the text will be reduced. On the other hand, when it has *definitely*, or *I know*, the certainty will be increased. Such words, extending the meaning of texts, are called modal verbs. The types of modality are various, and the functions of modality are also various, depending on modal words/ phrases. A sample case of modality is shown as follows;

Table 2: Types and function of modality

degree	probability	permission/obligation	frequency
low	could/may/might possibly	can/may it's permitted that…	seldom
middle	will perhaps	will it's required that…	sometimes
high	must certainly	must/should/have to it's obligatory that…	usually

By using modal words/phrases, the interlocutor can decide his/her own positioning in communication with a listener/reader. As a result, it can be said that interlocutors can produce various levels of interactivity by the choice of text forms, as well as vocabulary in the various social contexts. That is, 'politeness, formality, intimacy, the power relationship between speaker and listener and the degree that the speaker indicated willingness to negotiate the demand' (White, 2000, p.9) can be created variously.

Moreover, it is significant to consider the social roles and relationships, seen in the text, of an interlocutor and a listener/reader: 'their relative social status and power, their degree of intimacy, the degree to which they share common knowledge, the degree to which they are in agreement or share a sense of solidarity' (White, 2000, p.20). It can be determined by:

- the use of more colloquial, casual or informal vocabulary, or of slang terms.
- the use of more familiar terms of address such as first names, nick-names, pet names, etc.
- the use of reduced, abbreviated or elliptical forms of expression --- conflations such as *I'll*, *what'll*, *I'd've (I would have) etc*; incomplete clauses, etc.

(White, 2000, p.34)

When the subject of the sample sentence *Mike* is replaced with *Mr Smith*, the text will lose the intimacy it contains. It sounds more formal, as though being spoken from a secretary to his/her boss. When *arrived* is replaced with *got to*, the intimacy of the text will become stronger. When the text is rewritten to *He'll arrive at school at nine o'clock*, it sounds to be delivered by a person who knows *Mike* in a casual way. As a result, it can be said that the use of words creates the social role and relationship in a text.

2.3 Textual meanings

Textual meanings deal with 'the way in which a stretch of language is organized in relation to its context' (Lock, 1996, p.10). See the example of declaratives in section 2.2, *Mike arrived at school at nine o'clock*. The same message can be delivered in other forms, such as: (1) *He arrived at school at nine o'clock*; and (2) *It was Mike who arrived at school at nine o'clock*. Although the core messages of the three sentences are the same, the interlocutor of each sentence can express a different nuance to listener/reader by using a different form. Replacing the subject *Mike* with the pronoun *he* in (1), it can be seen that the interlocutor expects that the listener/reader should already know who s/he is mentioning. In the case of (2), the interlocutor puts a strong focus on the subject Mike as an actor of the event. Hence, it is obvious that the way of expressing the interlocutor's experience decides the atmosphere of the three sentences.

3. Discussion
3.1 Texts for analysis

For the purpose of experimenting with the analysis of texts in terms of functional grammar, three kinds of text will be used in this paper as follows. For convenience, each sentence is numbered.

Text 1: extracted from a short pictorial information book for young children

1 Do you enjoy making sounds?

2 What sounds do these things make if you bang them?

3 What different sounds can you make with your body and your voice? 4 Put your fingers on your throat as you talk or sing. 5 What can you feel?

6 Hold a ruler on the edge of a table. 7 Press down the end and let go.

8 Can you hear a sound? 9 What do you see?

10 Whenever you hear a sound there is something moving. 11 This movement is called a vibration.

12 Try this with a rubber and see.

13 You can make musical sounds with rubber bands of different sizes or if you pluck the strings of a guitar.

14 Strike a triangle with a beater.

15 Touch the triangle while it is ringing. 16 What can you feel?

17 When something stops vibrating ii [*sic*]the sound stops.

18 How does someone's voice reach you?

19 The sound travels through the air as sound waves. 20 Throw a stone in a pool of water.

21 Watch the waves spreading out.

22 Sound waves move through the air in a similar way.

<div align="right">(Webb, 1987)</div>

Text 2: Parent child conversation: M = mother, C = a four-year-old child

C: 1 How could birds die?

M: 2 Like the one in the garden, are you thinking of? 3 Well, sometimes birds die when they get very old, or maybe they get sick because they got some disease, or maybe a cat got it. 4 Baby birds sometimes die when they fall out the nest, or, in the winter --- if you were in a cold place --- birds might die because they can't get enough food.

C: 5 Yeh, but what happens if one bird falls out and then --- and when it's just about at the ground it flies?

M: 6 Yes, well if it's big enough to fly it'll be all right. 7 And sometimes birds fall out the nest but they don't die… 8 But that didn't look like a baby bird; maybe there was something wrong with it; maybe a cat killed it --- (hastily) I don't think it was our cat.

C: 9 Perhaps it was on the ground and then a cat got it.

M: 10 Yeah, it was probably pecking something on the ground … maybe it was just a very old bird.

C: (referring to dead bird in garden) 11 But it looks as if it's alive.

M: 12 Yeah, it does, doesn't it?

C: 13 Perhaps its eye got blind.

M: 14 Could have been, but it definitely wasn't alive.

<div align="right">(Martin et al., 1997, p.82)</div>

Text 3: Classroom talk: extract from a sequence of lessons in an upper primary science class. The class has recently watched a science film on the topic of mechanical advantage.

Teacher: 1 Alright, a quick summary of what we have just seen. (*teacher writes the heading 'Summary' on the board.*) 2 Quick.

Andrew: 3 Lever. (*calls out to the teacher before he is ready.*)

Teacher: 4 Hold on.

Daniel: 5 Seesaw. (*another child calls out to the teacher.*)

Teacher: 6 Right. 7 Just wait till we are all here. 8 Have you got enough scrap paper on your desk please? 9 You'll probably only need two or three pieces. (*children get organized.*) 10 Right, you may have to use the stand. (*the teacher is waiting for the class to settle before he begins.*) 11 Steven and Brad, the sun is shining inside (*reminding the boys to tale their hats off inside*). 12 Alright, thank you. 13 Solved your problem? (*gaining the attention of a child*) 14 You'll probably need to see that film tomorrow, as an extra, to get you (*pause*) to get your ideas really sorted out. 15 Let's have a summary of what was the film basically about. 16 They seem

to mention two basic machines. 17 Um, Andrew?

Andrew: 18 Levers. (*pronounces the word with an American accent as in the film*)

Teacher: 19 It has an Australian pronunciation.

Simon: 20 Levers.

Teacher: 21 Yeah, leave her alone. (*said as a joke and the class laughs*) 22 Lever (*writes on the board*) and … (*pause*)

Brad: 23 An inclined plane.

Teacher: 24 An (*pause*) inclined plane. (*the teacher repeats the word as he writes it on the board and a child calls out*) 25 Hold on, hold on, now they extended these two basic machines, (*pause*) into five separate machines. 26 In that movie they extended them out, they extended out some of the machines. 27 They used the lever. 28 Hold on, hold on. (*a child is calling out.*)

Teacher: 29 Joanne?

Joanne: 30 Lever.

Teacher: 31 No, we've done a lever.

Brad: 32 Baseball bat.

Teacher: 33 Baseball bat. (*pause*) 34 Any bat really.

Joanne: 35 Flying Fox. (*said very quietly*)

Teacher: 36 Pardon, flying fox? (*writes on the board*)

Kane: 37 Clothesline.

Teacher: 38 And what with it?

Kane: 39 A wheel.

Teacher: 40 A wheel. (*repeat out loud to the class and writes on the board*) 41 Yeah, no you're right. 42 Clothesline. 43 That was a … (*interrupted*) what did she use on the clothesline?

Several: 44 Pulley.

Teacher: 45 A pulley, which is a type of (*pause*) lever. 46 Except of course, you've got also a what with it? 47 A (*pause*) wind (*prompting children*) lass. 48 Anything else that wasn't mentioned that possibly uses the principles of a lever.

Steven: 49 Door handle.

Teacher: 50 A door handle, good one, hey.

Teacher: 51 Yep. (*writes on board*) 52 Righto, let's have a look at an inclined plane one (*pause*) well actually that is a type of tool which you have seen in action, come to think of it. 53 Maybe we can get six uses of an inclined plane. 54 Um, Aranthi?

Aranthi: 55 Stairs.

Teacher: 56 Stairs, right. 57 Great answer. (*writes on board*)

(Martin et al., 1997, p.88 – p.89)

It is clear that the three texts show instructional or educational interactions between adults and children, but the differences can be identified when they are analysed in terms of Systemics. Analysis will focus on how interactions are constructed, especially paying particular attention to interpersonal meanings: such as (1) how the participants position themselves or are permitted to position themselves interactively; (2) how the sorts of roles and relationships are constructed by language choices; (3) how interlocutors construct the learning process underway, and represent the subject matter with which they are concerned.

3.2 Analysis

3.2.1 Interlocutors' interactive positioning

Participants' positions in each text can be determined by the direction of information between interlocutors. Text 1 is written by an adult/a teacher to explain about *sounds* to children; it supposes that a teacher is teaching children. There is, however, just one participant here; it is a one-way dialogue. Although the interlocutor (a teacher) is talking to readers (children) by mentioning *you* and *your*, there is not any response from readers. Therefore, Text 1 cannot be interactive. The text contains eight interrogatives (sentences 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 9, 16, & 18), and eight imperatives

(sentences 4, 6, 7, 12, 14, 15, 20, & 21). They are requesting invisible readers to answer questions or act, as s/he demands. It is interesting that the interlocutor of the text cannot become a recipient of information for the interrogatives or imperatives. All that the interlocutor of the text can do is to assume receiving response to develop the talk. On the other hand, his/her own six declaratives work as the response to his/her interrogatives and imperatives. S/he is answering to his/her own questions by him/herself: sentences 8 & 9 are answered by sentence 10, sentence 16 is by sentence 17, and sentence 18 is by sentence 19. The same pattern can be found between interrogatives and declaratives: sentence 13 responds to sentence 12, and sentence 22 responds to sentence 21. As a result, it can be said that the interlocutor becomes a provider and recipient of information. In this sense, we can say that the interlocutor can manage to make Text 1 interactive.

Text 2 is a to-and-fro conversation between an adult and a child about how birds die; the mother is explaining about it to her child. All interrogatives are from the child and most of mother's sentences are declaratives, apart from sentences 2 & 12. There are no imperatives here. In the first half, the child provides simple questions to the mother, and the mother answers them. Sentence 1 is answered by sentences 3 & 4, and sentence 5 is answered by sentences 6, 7, & 8. Here is a basic relationship between a person learning and a person teaching; the child is a recipient of information and the mother is a provider of it. In the second half, however, the child begins to use declaratives, and suggest possible causes of a bird's death (sentences 9, 11 & 13). That is, the child becomes a provider of information. The mother shows her agreement with the child's idea, by repeating the child's phrase (sentence 10) and using a tag question (sentence 12), following an interjection of agreement, *Yeah*. The past perfect tense, *Could have*

been, in sentence 14, also shows the mother's acceptance of the child's idea. Hence, it can be considered that their positions are reversed in the second half; the child is a provider of information and the mother is a recipient of it. It is, however, interesting that sentences 10 & 14 contain instructional sentences, following ones with agreement. The mother, here, provides extra information after receiving the child's idea. This means that in sentences 10 & 14, the mother has double positions, as a recipient and provider of information.

Text 3 is also a to-and-fro conversation between an adult and children about mechanical items. A teacher is telling several students, and each student is telling the teacher; conversations are made from one person (a teacher) to people (students), from a person (a student) to another person (a teacher), or from people (students) to a person (a teacher). Hence, Text 3 can be said to be very interactive. The teacher is not providing any explanation to the children. The children are showing their ideas, and the teacher is listening to them. Sentence 1 is an instructional demand/question, which is given in the imperative form. Children tell a possible answer to the teacher individually (sentences 3, 5, 18, 20, 23, 30, 32, 35, 37, 39, 44, 49, & 55). This means that children are providers of information, and the teacher is a recipient of it. On the other hand, the teacher's utterances consist of all three types of sentence forms; declaratives, interrogatives, and imperatives. Some imperatives (sentences 1, 2, 15 & 52) are demanding and encouraging children to find answers, and other imperatives (sentences 4, 7, 21, 25, & 28) are controlling children's behaviour in the classroom. In both cases, the teacher expects to get response from the children. Therefore, the teacher is a recipient of information/service. In the same way, some interrogatives are also encouraging children (sentences 17, 29, 38, 43, 46 & 54) and others are demanding a service from children (sentences 8 & 13). Here also,

the teacher is a recipient of information/service. Some declaratives of the teacher's utterance are instructional (sentences 9, 10, 14, 19, 25, 26 & 27). Others, however, are functioning in a different way (sentences 22, 24, 31, 33, 40, 41, 42, 45, 47, 51, & 56). They are following children's utterances and giving an agreement with them. Most of the teacher's utterances consist of a noun or a noun phrase, which is repeated from children's utterances. In both cases, the teacher is a provider of information. Sentence 11 (*the sun is shining inside*) is interesting in that it provides the information to students, as well as demanding their service (which is to take their hats off). This means that in sentence 11, the teacher is a provider and recipient of information/service at the same time.

3.2.2 Roles and relationships according to by the language choice

As analysed in section 3.2.1, the three texts stand on the basic relationship between teacher and student/students: a person teaching and a person learning. The interlocutor of Text 1 provides a solid answer to readers (sentences 4, 17 & 22) after giving questions and demanding services. All declaratives are affirming statements, and there are no words implying ambiguity or possibility such as 'probably' or 'maybe'. This shows that the interlocutor has the authoritative power. His/her utterance has no colloquial, casual, or informal vocabulary, and no abbreviated expressions. Each sentence is represented in a proper grammatical structure. Hence, it can be said that Text 1 is delivered in a very formal and firm style and, therefore, it does not show any intimacy to readers. It is, however, noteworthy that the vocabulary used here is not so difficult, and that children have no problem understanding it. This represents the interlocutor's intention to explain the subject matter easily to children.

In Text 2, intimacy can be determined between participants. There are some colloquial words, such as *Yeh* in sentence 5 and *Yeah* in sentences 10 & 12, and abbreviated forms such as *can't* (sentence 4), *it's* (sentences 5, 6 &11), *don't* (sentences 7 & 8), and *wasn't* (sentence 14). When the mother uses *our*, mentioning their cat in sentence 8, she shows that they have some shared information, and brings the subject matter closer to her child. The usage of *sometimes* (sentences 3, 4, & 7), *maybe* (sentences 3, 8 & 10), *might* (sentence 4), *perhaps* (sentences 9 & 13), *probably* (sentence 10) does not give high probability to her statements, and this means that the mother tries to avoid any straight expression dealing with the death of birds. On the other hand, the mother uses phrases representing high certainty: *I don't think*, in sentence 8, and *definitely* in sentence 14. These are used when the mother needs to mention the fact to her child clearly. We can see here the mother's authority as a person teaching, though it is not so strong as in Text 1.

Text 3 contains a stronger intimacy between participants than Text 1 and Text 2. Like Text 2, some colloquial words can be identified here: *Alright* in sentences 1 & 12, *Righto* in sentence 52, *Um* in sentences 17 & 54, *Yeah* in sentences 21 & 41, and *Yep* in sentence 51. It is noteworthy that they are mentioned by a teacher: children do not use such phrases. The teacher also calls his students by their names. This indicates the teacher's relaxed attitude towards children. The abbreviated expression can be found in the teacher's utterance: *you'll* in sentences 9, 14, and *you've* in sentence 46. This also shows his intimacy to children. Moreover, there are some incomplete sentences, such as sentences 13 & 38. We can see the informality in the teacher's utterance. Also, *we* in sentences 7, 31 & 53 and *let's* in sentence in 15 & 52 represent the teacher's intention to involve students in his talk. On the other hand, students also show their familiarity towards

their teacher. They are answering with a noun/noun phrase and omitting verbs, which is an informal style. As a result, we can see that Text 3 has a very casual atmosphere among its participants. Moreover, some words carrying lower probability can be identified in the text; *probably* in sentences 9 & 14, and *maybe* in sentence 53. They are mentioned when the teacher makes some statements to students. S/he offers a possibility about something in which children must think. There are more words of lower probability (*seem* in sentence 16 and *possibly* in sentence 48), and they are used when the teacher gives a hint of a possible answer to the children. That is, by using such words, s/he encourages children to think and find answers by themselves. As a result, the usage of modal values represents the teacher's authority as a person teaching.

3.2.3 Constructing learning process and subject matter

As mentioned in Section 3.2.2, the interlocutor of Text 1 uses familiar words for readers so that even children can understand. For the purpose of introducing a scientific word *vibration*, s/he begins the discussion by mentioning things around children. S/he makes children pay attention to *body*, *voice*, and *throat*, at first and demands them to feel *sounds* (sentences 3 & 4). Then, s/he introduces the scientific word *vibration*. The interlocutor repeats the process in sentences 6, 7, 8, 9, 10 & 11: mentioning familiar things such as a *ruler*, requesting to feel it (*hear* and *see*), and then introducing *vibration* again. The experiment with familiar things brings scientific knowledge to children. The same process is used when *sound waves* is introduced. Some familiar things such as a *rubber band* in sentence 12, *a triangle* in sentence 14, a stone in sentence 20, are followed by feeling (*see* in sentence 12, *touch* in sentence 15, and *watch* in sentence 21). Then, the interlocutor provides the scientific fact about *sound waves*. In this way,

a person teaching successfully introduces the subject matter, and children will learn a scientific phenomenon through the experience.

The subject matter of Text 2 is the death of a bird, which the child found in the garden. The text can be divided into two parts: discussion about general birds in sentences 1 to 7, and discussion about a particular bird in sentences 8 to 14. In the first half, the mother and her child are talking about general causes of death among birds. The child asks the mother about *birds* in sentence 1, and the mother tells the various possible causes of *birds'* death in sentences 3, 4, 6, & 7. This is a basic process of teaching: asking a question and giving an answer. Since they are discussing general cases in the present tense, the subject matter is not still introduced into their discussion. In the second half, they begin to discuss a particular bird, which died in their garden. The bird is expressed in pronouns: *that* (sentence 8), *it* (sentences 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, &14) and *its* (sentence 13). Their discussion is developed in the past tense. This shows that they are talking about a historical fact in which a bird died in their garden. Moreover, the child begins to participate in the discussion positively in the second half; s/he becomes a provider of a possible answer. When the mother finally declares that the bird in the garden is definitely *dead* in sentence 14, she successfully tells the truth to her child as a person teaching. As a result, the mother begins the discussion about the subject matter by introducing general cases of birds' death, and develops the discussion to the case of a certain bird. The child gains knowledge of the birds' death by participating in the discussion gradually; changing his/her position from a recipient of information to a provider of it.

Text 3 keeps the subject matter from the beginning to the end of the discussion. The discussion about a film, which the class had just watched, has been carried on since the teacher requests it in sentence 1. There is no

utterance, in which the teacher gives scientific knowledge to children, and the teacher keeps receiving information from children. S/he, however, shows his agreement with children's answers by repeating them orally, as well as writing them on board. Pause is also used very effectively to express the teacher's message to children. S/he uses it to gain attention of children (sentences 25 & 52), to encourage children to consider any possible answers (sentences 22, 33, & 47), and to promote children to understand the answer just mentioned (sentence 45). *and/And* in Sentences 22 & 38 work as a guide word promoting children to answer. At the end of the text, the teacher uses compliment expressions: *good one* in sentence 50 and *Great answer* in sentence 57. It also shows the teacher's encouragement to students. In this way, the teacher helps children to find answers by themselves, instead of providing solid information directly. S/he provides feedback to children upon which they are expected to build knowledge by themselves. That is, the process of autonomous learning can be seen in Text 3.

3.3 Result

As a result of the analysis above, we can identify some differences among the three kinds of texts, though they all contain instructional or educative interactions between adults and children: the relationship between a person teaching and a person learning.

Text 1 is written in an authoritative style, having one participant in discussion. All utterances are delivered one-way, and the interlocutor cannot expect to get any response or feedback. S/he provides information after requesting potential readers (children) to experiment with their familiar things. There is essentially no difficult vocabulary and no colloquial phrases. This produces formality in the context.

Text 2 is a to-and-fro dialogue between a mother and her child. At first,

the mother provides possible answers to the child's question. When the child begins to suggest his/her opinions, the mother provides only her agreement with them. Although the mother delivers a declarative statement when she needs to make the child learn the fact, she uses vague expressions by using modal values. The vocabulary is elementary, and colloquial phrases can be identified. This shows the intimacy between the mother and her child, and their close relationship.

Text 3 is also a to-and-fro dialogue, and it is developed between a person and several people: a teacher and students. The teacher does not provide concrete information, and he merely shows his agreement with answers coming from children. Colloquial phrases can be determined and some sentences are incomplete grammatically. This indicates the strong intimacy among them. The teacher encourages children to find answers by providing and introducing phrases and using pause effectively.

4. Conclusion

In this paper, three types of text were analysed. They all were instructional interaction between a person teaching and a person learning. When they are compared in terms of Semantics, however, some differences could be determined. Firstly, a difference came from the positioning of participants in texts; a one-way dialogue by an interlocutor in Text 1, a to-and-fro dialogue between a person and another person in Text 2, and another to-and-fro dialogue between a person and several people in Text 3. This difference decided the interlocutor's positions towards his/her readers/listeners, and it influenced the grammatical structures of their utterances. Secondly, the usage of vocabulary also produced a difference. Text 1 is more formal than Texts 2 & 3. Colloquial phrases and casual expressions were determined in Texts 2 & 3. Such wording, along with interjections, produced an intimacy in texts.

Finally, there is a difference about how to construct the learning process and subject matter. Although the three texts are teaching a certain matter to children, the process of teaching/learning is very different in each text. Text 1 was teaching technical knowledge after experimenting with familiar things; Text 2 was teaching the universal fact by mentioning general facts at first, and then a certain incident; Text 3 was teaching technical knowledge by encouraging children to find answers by themselves.

Considering that language is a tool of communication in its spoken and written forms, it should be a means of interaction among interlocutors; information is delivered from one person to another in language. People express their feelings, ideas, objective facts and so on, by carefully choosing lexical items and grammatical structures. Hence, it is important to understand that language is influenced by an interlocutor's condition, and situation, which means the social context. In terms of Systemics, an understanding of the social context should help L2 learners to develop their understanding of language.

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