國立政治大學語言學研究所碩士論文

National Chengchi University

Graduate Institute of Linguistics

Master Thesis

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# 以語體變異現象驗證認知框架之存在

# Stylistic Variation as Surface Evidence for Frame

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中華民國一百零四年四月

April, 2015

# STYLISTIC VARIATION AS SURFACE EVIDENCE

# FOR FRAME

BY
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A Thesis Submitted to the
Graduate Institute of Linguistics
in Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirements for the Degree of
Master of Arts

April, 2015

**Acknowledgements**

在語言所求學期間，拓展了我對語言學此學科的眼界，大部分的人聽到語言所，會認為語言所的學生會講各國的語言，剛進入語言所的我，認為語言學是研究語法、語音等，侷限在語言層面的一門學科，在剛踏入語言所時我覺得疑惑，為何有些語言學家強調語言學是一門科學，在進入語言所後，逐漸明瞭其理。

語言學涉及的領域甚廣，與其他學科領域皆有關聯，例如近期的新興領域大數據(Big data)，許多語言學的相關研究也採用大數據做為分析依據，講求一分證據說一分的話，又如我的論文中所研究的認知框架理論，竟然可以運用在人工智慧上，由此可見，語言學是一門跨足各領域的科學。此外，許多人認為語言學理論大多只能運用在語言教學上，其實不然，醫學上的語言治療與語言學習習相關，書店架上暢銷的談判、溝通、說話術等書籍，也是語言學涉及的領域，語言學涉獵的範圍相當廣闊，並且非常實用。

能夠完成這本論文，主要要感謝我的論文指導老師詹惠珍老師以及我的父母親，感謝詹老師的引導與督促，不僅教導我學術方面的專業知識，也常講述一些待人處事的道理，感謝我的父母親一路支持我就讀研究所，並給予經濟上的協助使我能夠專注在課業上，另外，感謝我的論文口試委員曹逢甫老師和蘇席瑤老師願意擔任口委並給予精闢的意見，此外，感謝賴惠玲老師和徐嘉慧老師平時的鼓勵與照顧。

還要感謝助教學姊在行政事務上的提醒及協助，還有我的同班同學們，謝謝你們讓我在研究所期間度過了一段非常美好的學生時光，並在我有困難時給予打氣與協助，感謝你們，我才能完成這本論文。

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Stylistic variation = SV

Stylistic variation for frame = SVF

國 立 政 治 大 學 研 究 所 碩 士 論 文 提 要

研究所別：語言學研究所

論文名稱：以語體變異現象驗證認知框架之存在

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論文提要內容：

本研究主要討論認知框架(Frame)的存在可藉由語體變異現象驗證，框架的概念可藉由說話者語體的轉換辨識，與語體變異現象相關並可驗證認知框架的語言策略和功能性策略皆被討論。本篇將歸納出語言策略與功能性策略的對應關係，並藉由語體變異現象驗證框架的結構是具階層性的。

本研究以語料庫為本，文內所分析的七筆語料皆來自政大國語口語語料庫，七筆語料皆是面對面、包含兩位參與者的對話，分析的過程以說話輪替(Turn)為計量單位，進而討論語體變異的目標。語料分類條件主要為語言形式策略(包含詞彙及句構)和功能性策略(包含言談結構、言說行動、語用合作原則)。

研究結果顯示(一)框架的概念可藉由語體變異現象驗證。語言形式策略包含詞彙的語意密度、正式性、詞頻，以及句型的複雜性、完整性、特定句型模式(Sentences patterns)等；(二)在敘述架構(Narrative Structure)中，語體變異現象主要用來標示闡述(Elaboration)，其次是評價(Evaluation)部分；在對話結構(Conversational Structure)中，語體變異現象則主要用來標示話題延續(Topic Continuity)(三)語體變異現象主要可用來辨識言說行動中的斷言行為(Assertive)，其次為表述行為(Expressives)和指示行為(Directives)；(四)語體變異現象可用來辨識語用合作原則中的量的準則和方式

準則；(五)語體變異現象驗證框架具有階層性的概念，包含主要三大階層—Denotative level、Metalinguistic level、和 Metacommunicative level。

關鍵字；認知框架、語體變異現象、階層性框架

## Abstract

The aim of this study is to investigate how frame can be manifested through stylistic variation. Linguistic devices and functional strategies which related to stylistic variation for the manifestation of frame are discussed; the distributions between linguistic devices and functional strategies of stylistic variation for frame are also patternized. Last, stylistic variation can help to identify hierarchical structure of frame is verified.

This study is corpus-based that all of the data are face-to-face, spontaneous, dyadic conversations, extracted from NCCU Corpus of Spoken Mandarin. Seven samples are analyzed. “Turn” is using as measurement of linguistic unit to count the amount of stylistic variation for frame. In addition, only the goals of stylistic variation are counted and categorized. Criteria for data classification includes linguistic criteria (includes lexical devices and syntactic devices) and functional criteria (includes discourse structure, illocutionary acts, and Cooperative Principle).

The results of data analysis show that (1) frame can be identified through stylistic variation of lexical choices based on semantic density, word formality, and word frequency, as well as through shifting of syntactic devices which include sentence complexity, sentence completeness, and sentence patterns. (2) On discourse level in a narrative, stylistic variation is most frequently used to signal elaboration, less is evaluation; on discourse level in a conversation, stylistic variation is most frequently used to signal topic continuity. (3) Among the five types of illocutionary

acts, stylistic variation is applied most frequently for assertives, less for expressives and directives, and never for commisssives and declaration.(4) Among Cooperative Principle, stylistic variation is applied most frequently for Maxim of Quantity and Maxim of Manner. (5) Last, hierarchical structure of frame, including subordinate denotative level, metalinguistic level, and dominant metacommunicative level, are verified in this study.

Keywords: frame, stylistic variation, hierarchical structure of frame

# Chapter 1

# Introduction

## 1.1. Motivations

Stylistic variation (SV, hereafter), the phenomenon of shifting from one linguistic form to another, is commonly used in daily communication. People may shift stylistically on the level of a word, a phrase, a clause, a sentence, or even beyond sentence level. As theories of sociolinguistic variation prescribe, stylistic variation of every kind serves functional requirements in verbal communication. It has been noticed that various linguistic devices, on lexical level as well as on sentence level, are applicable not just to serve for different communicative purposes and to reflect or highlight contextual characteristics, but also to manifest frame—the structured expectation on meta-thinking level—behind all functional demands.

Although the sociopragmatic functions of stylistic variation have been widely discussed, the notions of "function" and "context" are quite confusing. To be specific, first, for the concept of "function," social functions and pragmatic functions are not differentiated, and frequently they are examined within sentence boundary. Next, for the thought of "context," it is treated as one single entity on one single layer, which is insufficient from the stance of function. Instead, the concept of context is multi-layer and can further be categorized into linguistic context, physical context, situational context, and social context, within each of which it is likely that different linguistic devices for stylistic variation are selected. In addition, rare of the current studies

analyzes stylistic variation from the perspective of frame. For the above reasons, this study intends to examine how stylistic variation may serve as surface evidence for frame.

### 1.2. Research Questions

The aim of this study is to investigate how frame can be manifested through stylistic variation. The following research questions are included in this study.

(1) Can stylistic variation serve for the realization of frame? If yes, what are the linguistic devices of stylistic variation adopted for this purpose?

(2) What functional strategies are related to stylistic variation for the manifestation of frame?

(3) What are the distributions between linguistic devices and functional strategies of stylistic variation for the manifestation of frame? What are the linguistic features related?

(4)Is there hierarchical structure in a frame? If yes, how can stylistic variation help to identify it?

### 1.3. Hypotheses

In this study, four hypotheses are given below.

(1) Frame can be identified through stylistic variation. Also, linguistic devices applicable include lexical choices (based on semantic density, word formality, and word frequency) and syntactic selections (based on sentence complexity, sentence completeness, and sentence patterns).

(2) Frame on pragmatic level—including discourse structure, illocutionary acts, and Cooperative Principle—can be manifested by stylistic variation.

(3) The distributions between linguistic choices (of both strategies and features) and selection of functional strategies for surface representation of frame are patternized.

(4) Frame does have hierarchical structure, the existence of which can be verified by stylistic variation.

### 1.4. Outline of the Thesis

This study is composed of five sections. The first chapter introduces the motivation of this study, the research questions, and the related hypotheses. The second chapter reviews definitions and theories related to frame analysis, pragmatic functions related to frame, and stylistic variation. The third chapter describes the research design of this study, which includes data collection, measurement, and criteria for data classification. The fourth chapter presents data analysis and discussions. The last chapter summarizes the major findings and describes limitations and suggestions of the study.

# Chapter 2

# Literature Review

This chapter reviews definitions and theories related to frame analysis, pragmatic theories, and stylistic variation.

## 2.1. Frame Analysis

### 2.1.1. The Definition of Frame

To define what a frame is, the concept of *expectation* should be examined first. The concept of *expectation* has been discussed in many fields. Related scholars, to name few, include Bartlett (1932), Rumelhart (1975), and Abelson (1975) in psychology; Bateson (1972), Hymes (1974), and Frake (1977) in anthropology; Goffman (1974) in sociology; Minsky (1975) in artificial intelligence; Fillmore (1975) and Chafe (1977) in linguistics. Different terms—including schema, script, and frame—are used to refer to the concept of *expectation.*

Bartlett (1932) proposes that schema is dynamic, which is always active and developing through time. Hymes (1974) regards the notion of frame as a means of speaking. In order to interpret utterances correctly, hearers must know what frame they are engaged in. Schank & Abelson (1975:151) give a classical example to describe the notion of script—the restaurant script. The example is given below:

> John went into the restaurant. He ordered a hamburger and a coke.
> He asked ***the*** waitress for ***the*** check and left.

In this example, definite article “the” is used to refer to “the waitress” and “the check” which do not mention before. Schank & Abelson take this definite article “the” as linguistic evidence of the existence of script.

Chafe (1977) proposes that the process of verbalization is composed of three stages. The first stage is to identify what the event is, and to determine what frame will be applied, including determining what roles interlocutors play. The second stage is concerned with construction of syntactic structure. At the last stage, lexical choice is determined. All these terms can be summed up to Bateson’s notion—frame and Ross’s (1975) concept—*structure of expectation*, with which people use their prior experience in a given culture to predict and interpret new information, events, and experiences.

Goffman (1974) points out that frame can help people to understand the incoming message and respond to events. Tannen (1993) adopts Goffman and other scholars’ notions and develops the definition of frame. According to Tannen (1993:14), “In order to function in the world, people cannot treat each new person, object, or event as unique and separate,” indicating that people, based on their prior experiences, make sense of the world. In other words, with the frame in mind, people perceive, interpret, and verbalize things around them.

### 2.1.2. Footing and Frame

Goffman (1981:128), in his investigation of footing shifts within interaction, finds that footing not only can shift from one to another, but also can be embedded

within one another, which is called *lamination of experience*.

Based on Goffman's notion of footing, Tannen (1991) purposes that footing is also a kind of frame that can be used to identify the relationship between interlocutors; therefore, footing shift can be regarded as frame shifting. Tannen (1986:91) also suggests that "frames are constantly evolving lines of interpretation, continually negotiate footings."

Tannen (1986) gives an example to explain footing and frame. Imagining a card checker of swimming pool does not let you go into the swimming pool when you forget to bring the card. He says, "How do I know you're not trying to sneak in?", or he may say "I wish I could let you in. I don't think the policy makes sense either, but I can't go against policy." In the first one, the footing of the card checker is "me and the policy against you," which leads to opposition; while in the latter one, the footing of the card checker is "you and me against the policy" that he tries to show empathy, not opposition. This example shows that different footings may identify different relationships between interlocutors.

Another example is Hoyle's (1993) study that she investigates the sportscasting speech activity which constructed by three 8- and 9-year-old boys when they play games. Hoyle finds that these children can manipulate footing shifts in their play. In the sportscasting frame, the boys play the role of sportscasters. However, when they conduct footing shift, they pretend they are interviewing an imaginary player, playing the role of interviewer. Their footings are continuously changing with the ongoing game. In other words, the changes of their footings display their shifts of frames.

### 2.1.3. Message and Metamessage

Hoyle (1993:114) suggests that all messages involve implicit metamessage. Bateson (1972) uses the term “metacommunicating” to refer to the notion of frame. Tannen (1986:86) proposes that “metacommunicating itself carries a metamessage of involvements.” Therefore, meaning is composed on at least two layers, one is message (or surface meaning), and the other, metamessage (or intended meaning).

Tannen (1986:88) gives an example, in which a woman takes a trip to London to visit her friends on Christmas holiday after she gets divorced. When the holiday is over, a male friend of her says, “You don’t have to go all the way to London not to be alone on Christmas. Next year you can spend Christmas with us.” The woman thanks for her friend’s kindness, but she feels offended. The message of the male friend’s speaking is meant to be an invitation, but the metamessage implies the woman’s pathetic attempt to avoid being alone on Christmas Day. Tannen concludes that such a confusing communication is owing to the conflict bind of message and metamessage.

### 2.1.4. Interactive Frame V.S. Knowledge Schema

#### 2.1.4.1. Types of Frame

According to Tannen & Wallat’s (1987) study, the concepts of frame can be divided into two categories, one is *interactive frame* (i.e. *frame*), and the other is *knowledge schema* (i.e. *schema*). *Interactive frame*, being regarded as “dynamic”, refers to a definition of knowing “what is going on in interaction” or “what activity is being engaged in” (Tannen & Wallat, 1987:59).

Bateson (1972) suggests that people have to know which frame is being applied

in the discourse, so they can decode the message without misunderstanding. Likewise, Ortega y Gasset (1959:3) points out that before understanding a statement, people should know which frame is being selected in the communication.

As for *knowledge schema*, it refers to participants' "expectations about people, objects, events and settings in the world" (Tannen & Wallat, 1987:60). Compared with interactive frame, which is dynamic, knowledge schema is rather static. In order to understand the meaning in discourse, people should "fill in unstated information which is known from prior experience in the world" (Tannen & Wallat, 1987:60).

**2.1.4.2. Interaction of Frames and Schemas**

It is necessary to elaborate how frame and schema can interact with each other and influence the way people communicate. Tannen & Wallet (1987) discuss interaction of frames and schemas by giving Tannen's own experience as example. One time, she is talking on the phone with a male friend, her friend suddenly yells "YOU STOP THAT!" She knows that this interjection is not indicating to her, but the friend's dog. She can distinguish such reference because her friend uses a specific prosodic representation which is only used to address the dog. Besides, "YOU STOP THAT!" is more likely to appear in the frame "disciplining a pet" rather than "talking to a friend." She can also infer that her friend may talk to a misbehaving child owing to her knowledge schema since she knows that the friend has a child. These "expectations" about what the friend might be speaking to indicate that frames and schemas interact with each other then influence people's comprehension.

Another example about interaction of frame and schema shows that mismatch

of knowledge schema will lead to frame shifting. In Tannen & Wallet's (1987) study, they investigate a pediatrician's register shifting during the examination, and they find out that frame shifting can be triggered by the mismatch of knowledge schemas. When the pediatrician is reporting some typical symptoms of cerebral palsy to the camera what she thinks that is normal for people who have the disease, the patient's mother who has no professional medical knowledge schema will interrupt her, asking whether it is symptoms of illness. The pediatrician adopts register shifting, shifting from technical terms to simple words, to explain the ordinary symptoms to the mother. It is this shifting from examination register to consultation register that exemplifies the matching between interactive frame and knowledge schema.

### 2.1.5. Evidence of Frame

#### 2.1.5.1. The Peer-story Experiment

It seems like frame interplays with people all the time, but it is hard for people to be conscious of its existence. A film-telling experiment reveals the existence of frame. Chafe (1977) conducts an experiment by showing a six-minute short film to a group of participants, and asks them to tell the content of the film to someone. In this experiment, it is found that the ways which the participants organize and describe the film are varied. Besides, some informants change the content of the film. Tannen (1993) contends that how participants organize their narrations and why they change the content of the film are related to their structure of expectation (or frame). Also, in comparing the oral narratives of Greek and Americans participants, Tannen notices the ways they do the narratives are frame determined which is culturally determined.

For instance, it is showed that American participant are more aware of being a film viewer than Greeks, many of them give criticism to the film.

In addition, in this film-telling experiment, participants are involved in interview that they are aware of being recorded. Both participant's expectation about the film and the expectation of being as a film viewer would influence how the film is to be perceived and verbalized. Using the concept of frame to discuss this issue, several frames are interplayed with each other in this film-telling event, includes film-telling frame, interview frame, storytelling frame, and so on. For example, some participants mention that there is no dialogue in this film that they are conscious of the film-telling activity. When the film-telling frame is salient, participants may mention or comment on film viewer's point of view when do the narrations, such as mentioning the sound track, sound effect, and verisimilitude in the film. They apparently feel that they should talk about the point of the film or give some comments when telling about a movie. This is owing to the *frames* in their mind that direct them what they should see or what they should talk about.

Investigating the film-telling narrations, Tannen (1993) categories several linguistic phenomena which can be regarded as evidences of frame, includes omission, repetition, hedges, and negatives. Take omission for example, when telling the film, some participants may mention or emphasize specific details (such as a goat in the film), while the others, due to their culture backgrounds, would not. Using the concept of frame to explain these differences, "a man with a goat in the country" is a common scene in Greek's frame which is viewed as unmarked, so it is less important to report.

While in American's frame, seeing a man with a goat may not so common; the scene is marked and is worth-mentioning. Frame acts like a filter which operates a selection process, and determines what should be emphasized and what could be omitted.

Moreover, take evaluative language for example, when describing the pear picker in the film, some Greek informants portray him as a "tall" pear picker, while American participants do not mention this characteristic. This may be owing to cross cultural differences in frame: Americans may regard the pear picker as average height according to their frame, but for Greeks, the height of the pear picker is not so common in their frame. Tannen (1993) concludes that frame can not only influence the way people what and how to perceive things, but also the way they verbalize things which they perceive.

### 2.1.6. Frame Shifting

#### 2.1.6.1. Reframing the Frame

Tannen (1986) suggests that frame can be reframed. She gives a personal example about how she reframes the frame to avoid confrontation. One time when she is lecturing, a couple sitting at the front of the room keep interrupting her. She thinks the better way to deal with the situation is not to start a battle frame, debating and arguing with the couple, but to jump out of the frame and say, "There are seventy-five people in this room. You've already asked a lot of questions; let's give some of the others a chance (Tannen, 1986:86-87)." She reframes the frame to shift her attention from the couple to the other audiences. This effectively blocks the interruption from the couple, and more importantly, avoid confrontation.

### 2.1.6.2 Register Shifting

To understand how people manipulate with frames, it is needed to investigate linguistic forms as evidence to discuss people's underlying expectation. Goffman (1974) proposes that linguistic forms can be used as cues or markers to see how frame is manifested.

In Tannen & Wallet's (1987) study, they investigate a pediatrician's register[1] shifting during the examination as the linguistic evidence of frame shifting. In the pediatric interaction, the pediatrician has to deal with three addressees: the patient which is a little girl, the girl's mother, and the future audience of the recorded videotape who may watch it for research usage. It is found that three kinds of registers are applied by the pediatrician in order to talk appropriately to different addressees.

First of all, the pediatrician uses motherese to address the little girl, and she applies teasing register that sounds like they are playing games. She exaggerates shift in pitch, lengthens vowel sounds, and with a smiling facial expression to get the little girl's attention. Afterwards, when she explains the examination to the mother, she shifts to conversational register. She uses simple words to explain the result of examination which are easy to understand for normal people. And then, she applies reporting register when she reports the findings to the camera. She uses many technical terms with flat intonation and applies third-person pronoun "her" to refer to the girl when doing the report. During the examination, the pediatrician shifts from

[1]Ferguson (1985) defines the term *register* as "variation conditioned by use;" that is, people use particular lexicons, syntactic structures, prosodic aspects depending on the contexts, so that such linguistic features are regarded as "appropriate."

one register to another; register shifting in these speech activities illustrates frame shifting. Tannen & Wallet (1987:65) propose that “each of the frames entails addressing each of the audiences in different ways.” They also discover that sometimes frame can’t be embedded with each other: the pediatrician cannot apply both examination frame and consultation frame at the same time. Tannen and Wallet (1987) suggest that avoidance of such conflict verifies the existence of frame.

### 2.1.7. Interaction of Frames

#### 2.1.7.1. Yield or Resist the Frame

There are two ways when dealing with the frame set by others: to yield the frame, or to resist the frame.

Tannen (1986) gives an example to describe the two ways. A car approaches an intersection when two pedestrians, a women and a man, want to cross it. The driver stops the car and signals them to go first. In this situation, the frame set by the driver is that it is the driver’s credit to let the pedestrians cross first. While in fact, it is not the driver’s magnanimity since the law requires drivers to do so. The women who yields the frame crosses the road quickly to show her appreciation to the driver. In contrast, the man signaling the driver to go first resists the driver’s frame showing that it was *his* credit to let the car go first. Tannen points out that when dealing with the frame which is set by others, people can choose to yield or resist the frame.

### 2.1.8. Levels of Frames

Goffman (1981) proposes the notion of *lamination of experience* that not only frame can shift from one to another, but it can be embedded within another. In Hoyle’s

(1993) study, she investigates the sportscasting speech activity which constructed by three 8- and 9-year-old boys when they play games. She finds out that one frame can be embedded with other frames which proves that there can be levels of frames existed in one activity.

Tannen (1993) proposes that frames have levels. According to Tannen, there may be more than one frame intertwined or overlapped with each other. Tannen also suggests that a speech event is composed of a larger "context" and the "content" of communication. In the peer storytelling experiment, she proposes that the larger context is the interview frame that participants are aware of being recorded so they have certain expectations about how to act in the interview. Interview frame is the *overriding frame* of this speech event, and there are other *subordinate frames* (such as the film-telling frame). In other words, the former is that part of the frame on higher hierarchy, while the latter is on lower hierarchy. When participants try to retell the film, their expectations about the story in the film and being a film viewer come into play. Therefore, Tannen suggests that frames have levels which include overriding frame or other subordinate frames, and that they may intertwine and interact with each other. The illustration of overriding frame and subordinate frame is presented in Figure 1.

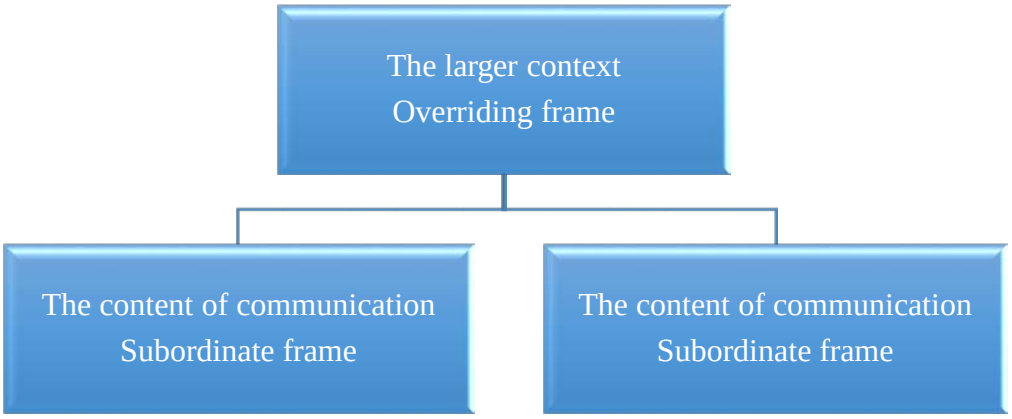


Figure1. Overriding frame and subordinate frame

## 2.2. Discourse Structure

Since stylistic variation for frame by discourse structure is analyzed in this study, including both narrative structure and conversational structure, a review of these two types of discourse structure is given below.

### 2.2.1. The Structure of a Narrative

Labov (1972:359) defines narrative as "method of recapitulating past experience by matching a verbal sequence of clauses to the sequence of events which actually occurred." He proposes the structure of narrative; as he asserts, a fully-formed narrative structure is composed of six elements: abstract, orientation, elaboration (complicating action), evaluation, solution or resolution, and coda.

To describe the elements of narrative structure in an easier way, Labov regards them as a series of answers to underlying questions:

a. Abstract: what was this about?
b. Orientation: who, when, what, where?
c. Complicated action (Elaboration): then what happened?
d. Evaluation: so what?
e. Result: what finally happened?

**1. Abstract**

According to Labov (1972:363), abstract is the part which "encapsulates the point of the story."

**2. Orientation**

Orientation is the part which sketches the time, place, persons, activity or situation of the story. It is used to "sketch the kind of thing that was going on before the first event of the narrative," and it is always placed at the beginning of the narrative (Labov, 1972:364).

**3. Elaboration (Complicating action)**

After the orientation, the narrator elaborates the narrative in a more detailed way, namely, giving more (and more detailed) information when doing the elaboration.

**4. Evaluation**

Evaluation is defined as "the means used by the narrator to indicate the point of the narrative" (Labov, 1972:366). Labov compares a narrative of vicarious experience and a narrative of personal experience, and proves that the latter is an evaluated narrative which involves narrator's self-aggrandizement; that is, the narrator uses subjective view to describe the experience.

**5. Solution or resolution**

Solution is the consequence or outcome of the story; resolution is the final determination or decision of the story.

**6. Coda**

Coda is used to signal that the narrative is finished. For instance, sentences such as "*And that was that*" or "*That was it, you know*" can signal the narrative is completed (Labov, 1972:365). Coda includes "general observation" or "the effects of the events on the narrator." Coda is always placed at the ends of narratives. Labov finds out that "tense" can also be used to distinguish coda from others. The illustration is showed below.

> And you know that man who *picked* me out of the water?
> He's a detective in Union City
> And I *see* him every now and again.

The italics in these examples show that past tense and present tense are applied in coda. As Labov (1972:365) mentions, the change of the tense from past to present can "bring the narrator and the listener back to the point at which they entered the narrative.

**2.2.2. The Structure of a Conversation**

According to Sacks, Schegloff & Jefferson (1974), the structure of conversation can be divided into four major parts, including opening, body (i.e., middle), pre-closing, and closing. Opening is the part that conversational exchanges are initiated. This part also establishes the relationship between interlocutors. Body,

which is so-called middle of the conversation, is the part that topic is developed and discussed by interlocutors in conversation. A pre-closing can signal that the conversation is near the end. Closing is the part that conversational exchanges are finished.

### 2.2.3. Components of Communication

According to Hymes (1988), communication is composed of several components which includes genre, topic, purpose, setting, interlocutors, message form, message content, act sequence, rules of interaction, and rules of interpretation. Each of the components is illustrated below.

**1. Genre**

Genre refers to type of event, such as chatting, debating, lecturing, and discussing.

**2. Topic**

Topic refers to the referential focus, ranging from daily affairs, through social issues, to professional talks.

**3. Purpose**

Purpose indicates the function of the communication, such as gaining approval and showing repression.

**4. Setting**

Setting includes the factors of time, location, and physical aspects of situation.

**5. Interlocutors**

Interlocutors include speaker and hear. Both the speaker and the hearer carry social features (e.g. gender, age, ethnic background, race, educational level, and

interpersonal relationship), and there is always a social distance based on power and solidarity between them.

**6. Message form**

Message form includes code (verbal code vs. nonverbal code) and channel (vocal form vs. nonvocal form).

**7. Message content**

Message content includes the surface denotative reference of the verbal form and the underlying intention of the speaker.

**8. Act sequence**

Act sequence refers to the ordering of speech acts in verbal communication. For example, in a Q-A sequence, it is expected that the prior speaker's question would invite the next speaker's answer.

**9. Rules of interaction**

Sociopragmatic rules such as Cooperative Principle and Politeness Principle are considered and applied to define appropriateness of verbal behavior during communication.

**10. Rules of interpretation**

Rules of interpretation may influence by individual's personal frame which helps to perceive and interpret things.

### 2.3. Illocutionary Acts

Searle (1979) categorizes illocutionary acts into five major types, including

assertives, expressives, directives, commissives, and declarations. First, assertives are speech acts that commit a speaker to the truth of the expressed proposition. Second, directives are speech acts that are to cause the hearer to take a particular action. In addition, commissives are speech acts that commit a speaker to some future action. Fourth, expressives are speech acts that express the speaker's attitudes and emotions. Last, declarations are speech acts that change the reality in accord with the proposition of the declaration.

Communicative purposes on pragmatic level are achieved through successful accomplishment of the illocutionary speech acts, which also help to display frame.

**2.4. The Cooperative Principle (CP)**

Grice (1975:45-46) proposes The Cooperative Principle to explain how people act in a cooperative way during communication. The four maxims and their submaxims of CP are given below.

1. Maxim of Quantity
   a. Make your contribution as informative as is required.
   b. Do not make your contribution more informative than is required.
2. Maxim of Quality
   a. Do not say what you believe to be false.
   b. Do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence.
3. Maxim of Relevance
   a. Be relevant.
4. Maxim of Manner
   a. Avoid obscurity of expression.
   b. Avoid ambiguity.
   c. Be brief (avoid unnecessary prolixity).
   d. Be orderly.

## 2.5. Stylistic Variation

### 2.5.1 Notions of Stylistic Variation

Holmes (1992:245) proposes that style is the way people talk, that is, “the choice of code.” Holmes suggests that stylistic variation refer to language variation which is influenced by situational factors, such as addressee, setting, task, and topic. Stylistic variation can be influenced by two major factors, one is addressee, and the other is context. Addressee is an influential factor which affects speech style, which involves age, gender, and social status. When talk to a close friend or someone who you are quite familiar with, casual style is used; in contrast, when address an unfamiliar person, much formal style is applied. For instance, people in Northern Ireland tend to use Standard English, a formal speech style, when they talk to visitors. Another example is the “baby-talk” style; people tend to use baby-talk words such as doggie and with high pitch sound when they talk to young children.

Formality of the context is also one of factors which could determine choice of style. For instance, business meeting and conference are much formal settings, so a formal speech style is applied. Wardhaugh (2010) also suggests that stylistic variation is influenced by the circumstance. For instance, people apply formal style of speaking when they are in ceremonial occasion, but they used informal style when conducting daily communication. Wardhaugh believes that certain stylistic features are applied for specific occasions.

In addition, Holmes (1992) regards register as a kind of style and it is function-oriented. Register is a kind of jargon that is used by a group of people who

have common specialties or interests. For instance, the language used by engineer and athlete are registers. Wardhaugh (2010) also thinks that register is language that used by certain occupations or groups, but he distinguishes register form jargon that he thinks the term *jargon* may have some negative meaning. Last, Holmes and Wardhaugh both believe that stylistic features can reflect the context and the identity of speaker.

Hausenblas (1993:52) regards style as "means that take part in the construction of communications described as linguistics or verbal." Hausenblas believes that communication has layers. The notion of *linguistic means* is introduced that it is the basic layer for construction of communication, including lexical and syntactic devices which denote the basic meanings. *Paralingual means* are phonetic features that are parallel to linguistic means. *Thematic means* are the higher layers which are themes of the communication. For instance, the theme of condolence is to show grief, while there are different linguistic means could use to express the grief. The highest layers are *textual means*, which help to supplement the subordinate means and "combine parts of discourse into a whole" (Hausenblas, 1993:54).

### 2.5.2. Code-switching as a Strategy of Stylistic Variation

#### 2.5.2.1. The Definition of Code

Bernstein (1971) raises the notion of code, proposing that code is the symbolic system of a language; different languages have different code systems. However, the notion of code is not just symbols of a language; it also includes symbols of varieties within one language, such as dialect. Versehueren (1999) regards code as a kind of

language variety which is systematic and distinguishable; it may relate to social status, functional need, setting, or geographical factors.

According to Wardhaugh (2010:84), “code” is a neutral term, unlike language, dialect and style, which are inclined to arouse emotion. He suggests that code is “any kind of system that two or more people employ for communication.” When people speak, they need to determine what language, dialect, style, or register they will employ; that is, what particular *code* they will choose. It is unusual for a speaker to use only one kind of code to communicate with other people. Therefore, code selection is an unavoidable process when people conduct verbal communication. To sum up, the definition of code is “a system used for communication between two or more parties,” ranging from language and dialect to style, register, and verbal forms of any other kinds (Wardhaugh, 2010:98).

**2.5.2.2. The Definition of Code-switching**

The usage of the term *code-switching* is first appeared in Vogt’s (1954) work “Language Contacts.” Many scholars proposed that code-switching can be divided into two categories, one is cross-language code-switching; the other is within-language code-switching.

**1. Cross-language code-switching**

Cross-language code-switching refers to shifting between languages. Gumperz (1982), Heller (1988), Myers-Scotton (1993), Timm (1993), Grosjean (1995), and Milroy & Muysken (1995) all propose that code-switching is the shifting between different languages in the same communication.

**2. Within-language code-switching**

Most of the researches discuss only the code-switching phenomena found in bilingualism/multilingualism and bilingual/multilingual societies. However, some scholars point out that code-switching should include the notion of *within-language code-switching*, such as style shifting and register shifting. Hymes (1974), Kirschner (1984), Romaine (1995), Wardhaugh (2010), and Thompson (2011) all regard code-switching as a form of style shifting.

Woolard (2004) suggests that code-switching is the act of an individual who uses more than one varieties of a language within the same speech event or communication. He proposes that "If only one code is behaved necessary to get the communication job done, then the use of more than one needs explanation." As Labov (1972) and Wardhaugh (2010) contend, there is no single-style speaker; people often switch codes in accordance with topic, participant, setting, which lead to different styles. Both Woolard (2004) and Auer (1995) suggest that linguistic choice is function-oriented. To be specific, different forms could convey different functional meanings.

To sum up code-switching is the shifting between languages, dialects, styles, and registers. In order to speak appropriately or to achieve the intended communicative goal, it is inevitable that a speaker chooses particular linguistic forms.

**2.5.2.3. Linguistic Aspect of Code-switching**

In this section, studies which categorize linguistic aspects of code-switching are reported, including Poplack's (1980) and Muysken's (2000) works.

**1. Inter-sentential Switching, intra-sentential switching, and tag switching**

Poplack (1980) classifies code-switching into three categories according to the syntactic structure: related inter-sentential switching, intra-sentential switching, and tag switching.

First, the phenomenon of ***inter-sentential switching*** occurs between sentences or clauses. Speaker considers addressee's language competence or other factors, thus code-switches and employs sentence or clause as linguistic unit of code-switching.

Next, ***intra-sentential switching*** is the switching within one sentence, which involves intra-sentence and intra-clause switching. For instance, speaker may code-switch at the beginning, middle, or end of a sentence in order to achieve the discourse function of emphasis. According to Tay (1989), intra-sentential switching is also termed as "code-mixing," which is the switching within the same sentence and most of them are words or phrases.

Third, ***tag switching*** is inserting a tag of distinctive code to a sentence or clause in order to achieve the discourse function of emphasis. It also includes the insertion of discourse markers, such as "OK," "all right," "well." Tag switching may occur at any position of a sentence.

**2. Linguistic devices of code-switching**

Muysken (2000) proposes three linguistic devices of code-switching: insertion, alternation, and congruent lexicalization.

Code-switching of ***insertion*** type takes one of the two codes being the matrix language which determines the syntactic structure, with the other only inserts a single

word or constituent into the sentence structure.

Code-switching of ***alternation*** type refers to the usage of two matrix languages within one single utterance; that is, both languages involved are matrix languages, and syntactic structures from both languages are used.

For code-switching of ***congruent lexicalization*** type, "the grammatical structure is shared by languages A and B, and words from both languages A and B are inserted more or less randomly" (Muysken, 2000:8). In other words, both languages can be matrix languages; the syntactic structure is alternatively changed within utterance.

**2.5.2.4. Functional Aspect of Code-switching**

**2.5.2.4.1. Functions of code-switching**

Many scholars have discussed the functions of code-switching. Auer (1995) proposes eight major functions of code-switching which include: reported speech, change of participant constellation, parentheses or side-comments, reiterations (so called translation, repetitions, or recycling), change of activity type, topic shift, puns or language play, and topicalisation.

Myers-Scotton (1993) propounds four motivations which cause speaker to employs code-switching, including emphasizing personal style and sociopragmatic meaning, using as discourse marker, using for convenience of expression, and using to fill the lexical gap.

McClure (1977) proposes that more than often, code-switching serves to obtain hearer's attention, to emphasize the manner of speaking, to emphasize topic or

personal opinion, to reduce ambiguity, to shift the manner of speaking, to conduct topic shifting, to invite new participants, and to show interest to the topic.

**2.5.2.4.2. Situational, metaphorical and conversational code-switching.**

Gumperz (1982) regards code-switching as a kind of social phenomena that people's psychological thinking is involved. He proposes that code-switching can imply speaker's motivation, and it can also label the change of relationship between interlocutors. Through such phenomenon, speaker can confirm and enhance the relationship with their interlocutors, so they can achieve their communicative purposes easier.

Blom & Gumperz (1972) investigate the phenomena of code-switching in the Norwegian village of Hemnesberget. They find out that Norwegians switch between standard language and dialect in order to convey certain social information. They propose that code-switching is influenced by social, situational, and affectional factors, based on which they categorize code-switching as *situational code-switching* and *metaphorical code-switching*. Later, Gumperz (1982) proposes another category—*conversational code-switching*.

**1. Situational code-switching**

Situational code-switching is influenced by many situational and social factors, such as types of events (such as debating, chatting, and reporting), settings (such as class, workplace, and home), and interlocutors (such as advisor, family member, and boss). When one of these factors changes, it may cause speaker to do code alternation. For instance, Blom & Gumperz (1972) investigate the phenomena of code-switching

in Norway and discover that teachers tend to speak standard language—Bokmål when do the lecture, but use dialect—Ranamål while chatting or discussing with students. This proves that social and situational factors cause the emergence of code-switching.

**2. Metaphorical code-switching**

Metaphorical code-switching is used to convey certain implicit social meaning. Topic is the crucial communicative factor which arouses metaphorical code-switching. That is, if situational factor changes, speaker would chooses an established code in their mind to convey implications or motivations. For instance, Blom & Gumperz (1972) find that bank staffs in Norway tend to use standard language, Bokmål, when they discuss business affairs; but they use the dialect, Ranamål, when they talk about daily affairs. Such linguistic choice reveals that when people discuss formal or serious topic, they tend to use standard language, while when they discuss casual or personal affairs, they tend to use dialect. It is shown that topic is an important communicative factor which influences metaphorical code-switching. Rickford & McNair-Knox (1994) also emphasize that topic is an influential factor which leads to code-switching.

**3. Conversational code-switching**

According to Gumperz (1982:59), "conversational code switching can be defined as the juxtaposition within the same speech exchange of passages of speech belonging to two different grammatical systems or subsystems." He classifies the functions of conversational code-switching into six subcategories: quotation, addressee specification, interjections, reiteration, message qualification, and personalization versus objectivization. However, McClure & McClure (1988) propose that conversational code-switching is a

subcategory of situational code-switching, with both being caused by the factor of social identification.

#### 2.5.2.4.3. We Code and They Code

Gumperz (1982) adopts anthropological view of code-switching, and regards code-switching as a kind of social phenomena. He believes that the usage of code-switching is motivated by certain social purpose, and that it is also accompanied with the change of the relationship between the interlocutors. Therefore, he proposes the notion of ***we code*** and ***they code***. As Gumperz suggests, code-switching is the shifting between the ethnically minority language and majority language, with the minority language being regarded as *we code* (i.e. the in-group language that is associated with familiarity, solidarity, or informal activities), while the majority language being *they code* (which is associated with formal, out group relationship). Therefore, code-switching can be used to reveal interlocutors' identities and relationship.

Gal (1979:116) provides a classic example in which a Hungarian-speaking woman in Austria uses the majority language, German, to show retort to her husband. In this case, the woman shifts from minority language (i.e. we code) to majority language (i.e. they code) in order to enlarge the social distance between her and her husband, and thus cause the effect of repression.

## 2.6. Summary

The above studies indicate that stylistic variation of every kind may serve as a tool to manifest frames on different functional layers. It is based on this point that this study is designed.

# Chapter 3

# Methodology

In this chapter, the research design of this study is described, including data collection, data analysis, and criteria for data classification.

## 3.1. Data Collection

### 3.1.1. Data Sources

This study is corpus-based. All of the data are from face-to-face spontaneous conversations, extracted from NCCU Corpus of Spoken Mandarin. In NCCU corpus, conversations last between twenty to forty minutes. Within each conversation, at least two interlocutors are involved. All of these conversations address to topics of daily affairs (including jobs, school life, friend's marriage, and traveling), also some of them include social issues (such as food safety issues in Taiwan), and also some contain professional talks (such as global warming). In addition, the word frequency is based on Academia Sinica Corpus.

### 3.1.2. Sampling

Data analyzed in this study are all from face-to-face spontaneous communication between two interlocutors. Also, although effect of gender is not examined in this study, both same-gender and cross-gender conversations are included to secure data balance. In total, seven conversations are analyzed, including three cross-gender conversations, two male-to-male ones, and two female-to-female ones.

Following the same line, the interlocutors in the conversations are of similar age, ranging between twenty-three years old to twenty-five years old.

### 3.2. Measurement

Owing to the extracted data in this study are all spontaneous spoken data, it is clearer to use “turn” as measurement of linguistic unit to count the frequency of stylistic variation. For instance, in the same turn, when the speaker shifts form high density words to low density words, ignoring how many low density lexical items are, this wound count once. Furthermore, different linguistic criteria would count separately.

In addition, only the goals of stylistic shifting are categorized and counted; the sources of stylistic shifting are ignored in this study.

The results of data analysis are presented in percentage as well as in frequency.

### 3.3. Criteria for Data Classification

#### 3.3.1. Linguistic Criteria

In this study, both lexical and syntactic devices for stylistic variation were examined.

##### 3.3.1.1. Lexical Level

On lexical level, it is hypothesized that SVF involves shifting of semantic density of word, word formality, and word frequency.

**1. Semantic density of word**

The measurement of semantic density is determined by how much information conveyed in the lexical item. In this study, semantic density of a lexical item is

divided into low density and high density. Both stylistic shifting form high density words to low density words and that in opposite direction were examined in this study.

Linguistic features related to the judgment of lexical semantic density include ellipsis, pro-form, pragmatic particle, discourse marker, technical term & jargon, and syntactic particle. These features are illustrated one by one below.

**a. Ellipsis**

Ellipsis is one of the linguistic features which indicates low semantic density. Ellipsis includes abbreviation, blending, and acronym. In this study, only abbreviation and blending are found in the data. Example (1) is an illustration of ellipsis.

(1)
M: ..那你爸媽會**煩惱**嗎
F: (0)不會..因為我爸媽不會幫他出錢..但是我媽會催他趕快結婚
→M: …*那你爸媽會**煩**說以後還要…如果他不..不..就以後沒有什麼工作..*
*啊以後結婚還要他幫他出錢..這樣*

In example (1), the two interlocutors are discussing a quite serious topic－job. In this example, the male speaker shifts from the word "*煩惱*" to an abbreviation "*煩*," which is taken as a lexical item of low semantic density.

**b. Pro-form**

Pro-form, as a substitute of a full form, the semantic content of which is subtracted, is regarded as a feature of low semantic density words. In this study, pro-form includes pronominalization and substitution, which replace the original noun or verb. The example of pro-form is showed below.

(2)

F: 如果到時候海平面上升的話..其實先淹的一定是沿海城市..可是很多國家都是靠沿海城市在發展經濟..然後到時候**全球經濟體系**也會變

M: …(0.5)嗯對

→F: *所以就不知道**他們**..到底什麼時點**他們**才要開始作這件事情*...可是我覺得近期之內他們根本不會覺悟..如果覺悟的話美國 [interrupted by the male speaker]

In example (2), the female speaker shifts from high density word (jargon such as "*全球經濟體系*") to pro-form "*他們,*" which is considered as a lexical item of low semantic density.

**c. Pragmatic particle**

Pragmatic particle, which is a word that carries only functional meaning, denotes no semantic referential meaning. Therefore, it is considered as a feature of low semantic density. Example (3) is an illustration of pragmatic particle.

(3)

M2: ...(1.4)可我覺得**台大心理**跟我..唸**心輔**..其實原來好像不太一樣

M1: ... (0.4)大學部的東西..我覺得..不知道

→M2: ..(TSK)*我覺得還是差滿多的**耶**..台大的很...(0.5)很...(0.6)很*

In example (3), speaker M2 shifts from using high density words (such as the jargons of "*台大心理*" and "*心輔*") and not using pragmatic particle to using pragmatic particle such as "*耶*" to imply his attitude and disagreement to M1. In here, "*耶*" is regarded as low semantic density word.

**d. Discourse marker**

Discourse marker, like pragmatic particle, has no surface referential meaning either. Discourse marker can help to regulate the communication process, instead of denoting a semantic meaning. Therefore, it is regarded as a feature of low semantic density. Example (4) is the illustration of discourse marker.

(4)

F: ...然後文茜小妹大就是可能就是**因應**就是最近**全球暖化**的那個問題.然後其實...(0.5)像我說…年底啊..年底其實就是會在哥本哈根 kan-…開一個那種環保會議..然後那種環保會議其實是前幾年每年都有在**召開**的..然後就是在講說就是..**二氧化碳排放量**..就是應該要減低到多少…(0.9)然後可是因為就是富國一直不願意**妥協**啊..然後所以就是…(0.9)一直都沒有辦法**達成共識**...(0.3)然後..所以它其實也有**牽涉**到一些政治的**議題**啊..對所以可能..因為這樣文茜小妹大所以才會..才播…(0.5)然後…(0.7)陳文茜她就是他們那電視台就是去收集就是美國那邊..還有英國那邊..就是..可能是**氣象局**啊..或者是一些科學家他們的那個研究報告…(0.5)然後再加上中研院…(1.5)地質所…(0.5)然後還有..**大氣科學**…(0.6)研究方面的那個**專家**..他們的那個報告…*(1.1)然後…(0.3)喔..地質所是那個..台大教授有個*

→ *地質..地質研究所教授..叫陳文山..搞不好龍井茶認識…(0.9)**對***

In example (4), the female speaker shifts from high density jargon such as "*全球暖化*" and "*二氧化碳排放量*" to a discourse marker "*對,*" which is used as a form to regulate the communication process. It is thus considered as a low semantic density word.

**e. Technical term & jargon**

Technical term & jargon are used in professional field or in a special activity by a group of people involved. Since interpretation of technical term & jargon require special background knowledge, they are considered as high semantic density words. Example (5) illustrates this point.

(5)

可是這也很好笑..他們如果現在就是短視近利的話..其實未來..那什麼…

如果到時候海平面上升的話..其實**先淹的**一定是沿海城市..*可是很多國家*

→*都是靠沿海城市在發展經濟..然後到時候**全球經濟體系**也會變*

In example (5), the speaker shifts from low density fragmental expressions (such as "*先淹的*") to the jargon "*全球經濟體系*," a high semantic density word.

**f. Syntactic particle**

Syntactic particle involves in using question marker "*嗎*," which semantically denotes a question, is taken as a feature of high semantic density word. Example (6) depicts this point.

(6)

M: ..對啊..就是..節目在講的...就整個炸掉..然後那個...旁邊的車全部都是血就變紅了..地板上也全部都是紅的..那種...鯨魚的血肉整個都..炸飛..整隻喔

F: (0)可是我覺得很怪**耶**..怎麼會爆炸<閩***乎***閩>

M: …(0.5)他那個是..不知道是怎麼樣就是

→F: (0)*壓力**嗎**還是什麼*

In example (6), the female speaker shifts from low density words (pragmatic particles such as "*耶*" and "*乎*") to a syntactic particle "*嗎*," which has semantic denotation thus is considered as high semantic density word.

**2. Formality of words**

In this study, it is hypothesized that lexical formality is also applicable to manifest frame. When a lexical item's semantic referential meaning is partially or completely subtracted, that lexical item is usually taken as less formal. In this study, formality of lexical items is divided into low formality and high formality. Since formality is influenced by contextual factors, such as topics and types of speech activity, it is presumed that shifting of word formality entails the existence of context of communication and its components. For instance, in professional talk, the situational formality is relatively higher, and the formality of words, as a reflection of the context, is also high; and vice versa.

In addition, it is proposed that linguistic features which distinguish formality of words include ellipsis, pro-form, pragmatic particle, discourse marker, vernacular, technical

term & jargon, syntactic particle, and archaic form (as opposition to vernacular). All these features are defined and illustrated below. Examples (7) to (11) are instances for SV form high formality to low formality; examples (12) to (14) are illustrations for SV in opposite direction.

**a. Ellipsis**

Ellipsis is one of the linguistic features which indicates low formality. Ellipsis includes abbreviation, blending, and acronym. In this study, only abbreviation and blending are found in the data. Example (7) is an illustration of ellipsis.

(7)

M2: ..而且..其實現在我們目標很清楚..你是明年的**研究所**..我是明年的**國家考試**嘛

M1: ..嗯..你不是也要考研究所

M2: 然後

→M2: ..我那只是去**練筆**..*就算**上**了我也不會去*

In example (7), speaker M2 shifts from jargons such as "*研究所*," "*國家考試*," and "*練筆*" (which are taken as high formality words) to "*上*" as an abbreviation of "*考上*," which is considered as low formality word.

**b. Pro-form**

Pro-form, without semantic referential meaning, is more likely to be regarded as feature of low formality. Example (8) illustrates this point.

(8)

F: 如果到時候海平面上升的話..其實先淹的一定是沿海城市..可是很多國家都是靠沿海城市在發展經濟..然後到時候**全球經濟體系**也會變

M: …(0.5)嗯對

→F: *所以就不知道**他們**..到底什麼時點他們才要開始作這件事情*...可是我覺得近期之內他們根本不會覺悟..如果覺悟的話美國 [interrupted by the male speaker]

In example (8), the female speaker shifts from high formality word (jargon such as "*全球經濟體系*") to pro-form "*他們,*" the semantic meaning of which is subtracted and, thus, considered as low formality word.

**c. Pragmatic particle**

Pragmatic particle, a word with pragmatic meaning but without semantic meaning, is also considered as a word of low formality. Example (9) is an illustration.

(9)

M2: ...(1.4)可我覺得**台大心理**跟我..唸**心輔**..其實原來好像不太一樣

M1: ... (0.4)大學部的東西..我覺得..不知道

→M2: ..(TSK)*我覺得還是差滿多的**耶**..台大的很...(0.5)很...(0.6)很*

In example (9), M2 speaker shifts from high formality words (jargons such as "*台大心理*" and "*心輔*") to pragmatic particle such as "*耶,*" which is pragmatically functional but semantically not functional, and, thus, considered as low formality word.

**d. Discourse marker**

Discourse marker, like pragmatic particle, which serves discourse function but carries no semantic meaning, is regarded as word of low formality. Example (10) is the illustration of discourse marker.

(10)

F: ...然後文茜小妹大就是可能就是**因應**就是最近**全球暖化**的那個問題.然後其實...(0.5)像我說…年底啊..年底其實就是會在哥本哈根 kan-…開一個那種環保會議..然後那種環保會議其實是前幾年每年都有在**召開**的..然後就是在講說就是..**二氧化碳排放量**..就是應該要減低到多少…(0.9)然後可是因為就是富國一直不願意**妥協**啊..然後所以就是…(0.9)一直都沒有辦法**達成共識**...(0.3)然後..所以它其實也有**牽涉**到一些政治的**議題**啊..對所以可能..因為這樣文茜小妹大所以才會..才播…(0.5)然後…(0.7)陳文茜她就是他們那電視台就是去收集就是美國那邊..還有英國那邊..就是..可能是**氣象局**啊..或者是一些科學家他們的那個研究報告…(0.5)然後再加上中

研院…(1.5)地質所…(0.5)然後還有..**大氣科學**…(0.6)研究方面的那個**專家**..他們的那個報告…*(1.1)然後…(0.3)喔..地質所是那個..台大教授有個*

→*地質..地質研究所教授..叫陳文山..搞不好龍井茶認識…(0.9)**對***

In example (10), the female speaker shifts from high density jargon such as "*全球暖化*" and "*二氧化碳排放量*" to a discourse marker "*對,*" which is used as a form to regulate the communication process. It is thus considered as a low semantic density word.

**e. Vernacular**

According to Labov (1972), vernacular is the style that people take the least attention to the monitoring of speech; it is a person's "most basic style." Vernacular words include slang, cursing word, and casual expression, all of which are taken as words of low formality. In example (11), shifting to vernacular words is illustrated.

(11)

然後文茜小妹大就是可能就是**因應**就是最近**全球暖化**的那個問題..然後其實...(0.5)像我說…年底啊..年底其實就是會在哥本哈根 kan-…開一個那種環保會議..然後那種環保會議其實是前幾年每年都有在**召開**的..然後就是在講說就是..**二氧化碳排放量**.. ..就是應該要減低到多少…(0.9)然後可是因為就是富國一直不願意**妥協**啊..然後所以就是…(0.9)一直都沒有辦法達成共識...(0.3)然後..所以它其實也有**牽涉**到一些政治的**議題**啊..對所以可能..因為這樣文茜小妹大所以才會..才播…(0.5)然後…(0.7)陳文茜她就是他們那電視台就是去收集就是美國那邊..還有英國那邊..就是..可能是**氣象局**啊..或者是一些科學家他們的那個研究報告…(0.5)然後再加上中研院…(1.5)地質所…(0.5)然後還有..**大氣科學**…(0.6)研究方面的那個**專家**..他們的那個報告…(1.1)然後…

→*喔..地質所是那個..台大教授有個地質..地質研究所教授..叫陳文山..**搞不好龍井茶**認識…(0.9)對*

In example (11), the speaker shifts from high formality lexical items (jargons such as "*因應,*" "*全球暖化,*" and "*二氧化碳排放量*") to vernacular form such as "*搞不好,*" which is considered as low formality word. In addition, the speaker uses nick name "*龍井茶*" to refer to a person in her speaking, which is used in informal context only.

**f. Technical term & jargon**

Using technical term & jargon, which are usually used in more formal setting, are more likely to be regarded as words of high formality. Example (12) is an illustration.

(12)
可是這也很好笑..他們如果現在就是短視近利的話..其實未來..那什麼...
如果到時候海平面上升的話..其實**先淹的**一定是沿海城市..*可是很多國家*
→*都是靠沿海城市在發展經濟..然後到時候**全球經濟體系**也會變*

In example (12), the speaker shifts from fragmental expression of low formality (such as "*先淹的*") to jargon "*全球經濟體系*," which is considered as high formality word.

**g. Syntactic particle**

The use of syntactic particle is considered as a feature of high formality. Example (13) provides an illustration.

(13)
M1: ..(0.5)你說**那個**..**這樣子**...(1.8)是喔...(1.7)為甚麼
M2: ...(1.6)我覺得..那個需要有錢又有閒
→M1: ...*(1.2)那你不覺得非洲是更好的選擇**嗎***

In example (13), speaker M1 shifts from low formality expressions (such as pro-form "*那個*" and "*這樣子*") to a syntactic particle "*嗎*" to denote an interrogative of the propositional content, which is, thus, considered as high formality word.

**h. Archaic form**

Contrary to vernacular word, archaic form is either formal or less formal, but never casual. Therefore, it is more likely to be regarded as high formality. Example (14) describes this point.

(14)

M2: ..應該是說..你可以在那一邊做幾個...(0.9)打工然後你又可以玩**啊**

M1: ...(2.2)可能吧..我覺得..因為..那時候電視新聞就在講..啊..學英文學英文..這樣子可以..免費學英文..怎麼樣怎麼樣..那然後我就覺得那根本就是狗屁..根本就是去那裡當廉價勞工

→M2: ...(1.4)*我覺得那應該是說..體驗另外一種生活還比較實在..我覺得學英文反而是**其次***

In example (14), speaker M2 shifts from low formality words (pragmatic particle such as "*啊*") to archaic form such as "*其次*," which is considered as high formality word.

**3. Word frequency**

Since word frequency is congruent with contextual factors (such as situational formality, types of speech act, and referential focus), shifting of word frequency, whether from high to low or from low to high, implies the existence of communicative context, which is a part of the concept of communication. In this study, word frequency is divided into low frequency, mid frequency, and high frequency. Owing to there is no word frequency corpus for spoken Mandarin, the word frequency in this study is based on Academia Sinica Corpus.

Examples (15) to (17) illustrate shifting to low frequency, mid frequency, and high frequency words respectively.

(15)

ei 可是我**覺得**…(0.8)那個末日…(0.3)就是那種..末世預言那種傳說..就

→是很奇怪..*他們…(0.5)這個像是這個是很有**根據***..可是他們那個只是好像單純預言就說是..是世界末日這樣子

In example (15), the speaker shifts from high frequency word "*覺得* (word frequency of 4437)" to low frequency word "*根據* (word frequency of 52)."

(16)

累..可是他們至少錢..eh..其他人累才沒像他們那麼多錢啊..我**覺得**其

→他人累的**程度**..不比他們差…(1.0)其他人累的**程度**一樣

In example (16), the speaker code-switches from high frequency word "覺得 (word frequency of 4437)" to mid frequency word "程度 (word frequency of 913)."

(17)

對..因為那個**南極**那邊就有很多那種…(0.7)就是可..啊..火山…(0.4)想起來了..對..就是那種…(2.5)就是他說…(0.9)如果說你冰層溶解的話..然後好像…(0.8)連帶的就會..影響到版塊的活動..然後南極那邊..就是火山活動頻繁的話..又會連帶影響到世界各地的那個板塊帶..所以那個最近印尼才會那

→個頻繁的發生地震…(1.2)對啊.. 然後其實我**覺得**台灣好像…(0.9)不知道..不一定是那種很強的..地震..可是就是那種地震的次數好像有在增加

In example (17), the speaker shifts from low frequency word "南極 (word frequency of 15)" to high frequency word "覺得 (word frequency of 4437)."

**3.3.1.2. Syntactic Level**

On syntactic level, SVF is classified according to three linguistic features of the target sentence, including sentence complexity, sentence completeness, and sentence patterns. These features are illustrated below.

**1. Sentence complexity**

Shifting of sentence complexity is divided into two categories, namely, shifting to simple sentence and shifting to complex sentence. Usually the greater the syntactic complexity of a sentence is, the higher the formality of that sentence is and more likely that it is used in more formal setting. However, the lower the syntactic complexity of a sentence is, the less likely that sentence is used in a non-casual situation.

**a. Shifting to simple sentence**

(18)

M: ..**<u>你有實務的經驗會不會加薪</u>**

F: ..不會…而且..就是你反而沒有時間唸書…他就是..解除經濟的壓力啊

→M: …***<u>那那樣錢多嗎</u>***

In example (18), the male speaker shifts from complex sentence to a simple sentence, which implies the shifting of formality from high to low.

**b. Shifting to complex sentence**

Examples (19) to (21) are illustrations of complex sentences which include embedding, coordinate, and subordinate sentence.

(19)

..然後他就出來啊…就…(0.7)**<u>他們好像還拿了一張紙</u>**…(0.7)就是

→***<u>我猜他們應該是有什麼系統吧</u>***

In example (19), the speaker shifts from simple sentence to an embedding sentence when the speaker tries to make some prediction seriously.

(20)

M2: ..就她們那三個

M1: ..對..**<u>那個是</u>**

M2: ...(18.9)如果我們沒有那一個啊..我們平常會怎麼聊天

→M1: ...(3.8)應該是...(0.1)***<u>我轉身..然後玩神治宴遊..然後漫不經心的聊天</u>***

In example (20), M1 speaker shifts from fragment to a coordinate sentence.

(21)

→...(1.6)**<u>還不錯啊</u>**..***<u>摩斯打工…(1.7)打到正職..就至少比沒工作好啊</u>***

In example (21), the speaker shifts from simple sentence "*還不錯啊*" to a subordinate sentence. Examples (19) to example (21) reveal increase of syntactic complexity which implies the speaker's consciousness of formality. In addition, the speakers of these examples apply high formality and high density words with complex sentence (archaic form such as "*漫不經心*" and jargon such as "*系統*" and "*正職*")

**2. Sentence completeness**

Like shifting of sentence complexity, shifting of sentence completeness is also predicted to be related to the manifestation of frame. Also, it is assumed that syntactically complete sentence is more likely to be used in situation of higher formality, while syntactic fragment is more frequently used in casual situation. In other words, shifting of syntactic completeness implies the frame of situational formality.

**a. Shifting to fragmental structure**

In example (22), the goal of SVF is fragmental sentence.

(22)

對..因為那個南極那邊就有很多那種…(0.7)就是可..啊..火山…(0.4)想起來了..對.. 就是那種…(2.5)**就是他說…(0.9)如果說你冰層溶解的話..然後好像…(0.8)連帶的就會.. 影響到版塊的活動..然後南極那邊..就是火山活動頻繁的話..又會連帶影響到世界各地的那個板塊帶..所以那個最近印尼才會**

→**那個頻繁的發生地震**…(1.2)對啊.***然後其實我覺得台灣好像…(0.9)不知道***..不一定是那種很強的..地震..可是就是那種地震的次數好像有在增加

In example (22), the speaker shifts from complete sentences to fragmental sentences when she jumps out of the professional talk and shares her personal opinions, which implies the shifting of formality from high to low.

**b. Shifting to complete sentence structure**

Stylistic variation which shifts from fragmental sentences to a complete sentence is presented in example (23).

(23)

→**不知道是幾…(0.9)相當於那個**..***威力好像是幾幾..幾幾噸的黃..黃色炸藥***

In example (23), the speaker shifts from fragmental sentences "*不知道是幾*"and "*相當於那個*" to a complete sentence "*威力好像是幾噸的黃色炸藥*" in

order to do the emphasis. In here, frame of situational formality is implied.

**3. Sentence patterns**

Choices of syntactic patterns are also predicted to be frame-oriented.

**a. Voice: shifting to active sentence vs. shifting to passive sentence**

Sentence of active voice is considered as unmarked; in contrast, passive structure is marked. Usually unmarked sentence pattern is used more frequently in less formal situation, while sentence of marked structure sound more formal. In the corpus used for this study, but there is no example of shifting form passive voice to active voice is found; only stylistic shifting from active voice to passive voice is found as presented in example (24).

(24)
...(0.9)很難說啊...(0.4)只是平常常常不會灌女生酒...(0.3)TSK..***這種場合感覺會被..一定會被灌***

In example (24), the speaker shifts from active voice to passive voice to emphasize the seriousness of the problem, which implies the shifting of formality from low to high.

**b. Question form: shifting to question with question marker and shifting to A-not-A question**

It is assumed that question with question marker is more likely to be used in situations of higher formality, while A-not-A question is more frequently used in casual situation. Examples (25) and (26) illustrated this point.

(25)
M: …不然..不然你覺得如果你一輩子都做那個工作..你有辦法養家活口嗎
F: …(0.3)**叫老婆賺啊**
M: …(0.4)@那..那..那如果
→F: 可是我覺得…(0.6)***科技業沒有加給那回事嗎***..就是譬如說做久會加薪

In example (25), the female speaker, in using an interrogative with a question marker "*嗎*," she stops joking and talks seriously, shifting form low situational formality to high situational formality.

(26)

F: 除非你…除非你做很久..而且你後來..你實務的能力..深深超過一般

M: 很強

F: …一般..這個執照律師才會比較高

M: ***身份特殊***

F: (0)對啊

→M: ***還是正妹有沒有加薪***

In example (26), the male speaker uses an A-not-A question (*"有沒有"*) when he is teasing and joking, shifting form high situational formality to low situational formality.

**3.3.2. Functional Criteria**

For the functional controls of SV, this study focuses on SVF on pragmatic level. Related factors to be analyzed include discourse structure, illocutionary acts, and maxims of Cooperative Principle. First, it is presumed that the linking between SV and identification of various parts of discourse structure, narrative as well as conversation (only oral communication is discussed, SVF in written text is excluded), implies the existence of discourse structure, which, in turn, implies the existence of the frame of a discourse. Next, if the point of SV coincides with the identification of an illocutionary purpose, with communicative purpose being a component of verbal communication of any kind, it entails the pre-existence of the frame of communication. Third, in general situation, people communicate with each other under the expectation that mutual cooperation between speaker and hearer is a

pre-requisite for a successful communication; therefore, any sign of SV functioning for the implementation of the cooperative maxims can be taken as an evidence for the existence of the frame of communication.

**3.3.2.1. Discourse Structure**

On discourse level, both narratives and conversations are examined. However, since this study aims at analyzing SVF in oral communication, analysis of written text is excluded.

**3.3.2.1.1. Narrative structure**

In this study, it is hypothesized that SV may serve to identify the components of a narrative structure, which implies the existence of the frame of a narrative on meta-thinking level. According to Labov (1972), the structure of a narrative consists of abstract, orientation, elaboration, evaluation, solution or resolution, and coda.

**1. Abstract**

Abstract is the part which summarizes the main point of the story. SV which manifests the abstract of narrative structure is presented in example (27).

(27)

F: ....(0.5)然後…(1.3)上個禮拜回家那個什麼…(5.5)就我爸他錄那個節目是那個文茜小妹大

M: ...um

→F: *...然後文茜小妹大就是可能就是**因應**就是最近**全球暖化**的那個問題.*然後其實...(0.5)像我說…年底啊..年底其實就是會在哥本哈根 kan-…開一個那種環保會議..然後那種環保會議其實是前幾年每年都有在召開的..然後就是在講說就是..二氧化碳排放量..就是應該要減低到多少…(0.9)然後可是因為就是富國一直不願意妥協啊..然後所以就是…(0.9)一直都沒有辦法達成共識...(0.3)然後..所以它其實也有牽涉到一些政治的議題啊..對所以可能..因為這樣文茜小妹大所以才會..才播…(0.5)然後…(0.7)陳文茜她就是他們那電視台就是去收集就是美國那邊..還有英國那邊..就是..可能是

氣象局啊..或者是一些科學家他們的那個研究報告…(0.5)然後再加上中研院…(1.5)地質所…(0.5)然後還有..大氣科學…(0.6)研究方面的那個專家..他們的那個報告…(1.1)然後…(0.3)喔..地質所是那個..台大教授有個地質..地質研究所教授..叫陳文山..搞不好龍井茶認識…(0.9)對

In example (27), the speaker shifts to high density, high formality, and low frequency words such as "*因應*" and "*全球暖化*" to provide the abstract of her narrative. As the abstract is identified, the whole narrative is activated, which reveals that the frame of a narrative is in evidence.

**2. Orientation**

Orientation is that part of a narrative which sketches the time, place, persons, activity or situation of the story and is always placed at the beginning of the narrative. SV is also predicted to be used to identify the orientation of an event as a part of a narrative. Example (28) illustrates this point.

(28)

→..它那個溫度上升很誇張因為…*溫度上升的話主要就是當然是會造成**冰層溶解**啊*..然後可是其實那個冰層不是在***北極圈***…*(0.4)主要是在那個**南極***

In example (28), the speaker shifts to high density words such as "*冰層*," "*溶解*," and "*南極*"to develop the sub-topic of global warming and to identify the place, activity of the sub-topic, providing further information about the theme of the narrative, which in turn, manifest the existence of the frame of the narrative.

**3. Elaboration**

Elaboration is the part that speaker gives more detailed information about the event (and sub-event), the characters involved, and the related setting. SV is also predicted to be able to manifest the elaboration of narrative structure, as presented in example (29).

(29)

F: ……然後…(0.3)喔..地質所是那個..台大教授有個地質..地質研究所教授..叫陳文山..搞不好龍井茶認識…(0.9)對

M: (0)XXX…不知道

→F: *有可能..有..有可能..然後然後就..就可能收集他們**研究報告**..然後也有…(0.3)播放一些他們的那個什麼..**訪問**的影片哪…(0.4)然後就是..在講說..地球大概…(1.1)現在地球不是就是那個..**平均溫度**有**上升**嗎..(0.3)**氣溫**…(1.0)然後其實..本來不知道從...(0.3)兩千零幾年開始算其實…(0.6)到…(0.4)不知道從兩千零幾年開始..然後到二零一五年的樣子…(1.0)這中ch-..到二零一五年..地球…(0.6)還可以si-..**平均溫度**還可以上升的總**quota**其實只剩兩度*

In example (29), the speaker shifts to high density and high formality words such as "*研究報告*," "*訪問*," "*平均溫度*," and "*quota*" to provide further details of the referential focus of global warming. In doing so, the narrative structure is identified and, in turn, the existence of the frame of the narrative is verified.

**4. Evaluation**

Evaluation is the part that the narrator uses subjective view to describe the experience, including narration's subjective judgments toward the activity, the characters, and all the other elements related to the story in the narration. In this study, it is hypothesized that evaluation of the content of a narrative can also be identified through SV. Example (30) illustrates this point.

(30)

F: (0)然後可是因為現在已經兩千零九了…(0.7)然後其實現在地球的溫度已經有在上升所以現在好像..其實再減掉這中間上升的那個溫度那個溫差..其實好像才只剩下一點三的樣子…(0.4)然後如果..兩千..二零一五年後我沒記錯的話啦..二零一五年如果…(0.6)之後…(1.0)你超過那之前兩度的 quota..再繼續上升的話…(0.6)就會整個失控(0.4)然後不知要到幾年的時候…(1.0)地球就會整個滅亡…(0.4)然後

M: (0)我的那個..不知道哪哪邊有個傳說..二零一二年的十二月二十一號是太陽季..世紀末日

→F: *ei 可是我**覺得**…(0.8)那個末日…(0.3)就是那種..末世預言那種傳說..就是*

***很奇怪***..他們…(0.5)這個像是這個是很有根據..可是他們那個只是好像單純預言就說是..是世界末日這樣子

In example (30), the speaker shifts to low density, low formality, and high frequency colloquial such as "*覺得*" and "*很奇怪*"."*覺得*" is a performative verb which indicates that the speaker jumps out of the story to play the role of being a spectator and gives subjective judgment toward the event; "*很奇怪*" is the content of subjective judgment. Such expression of "jumping out of" verifies the existence of the story frame.

In addition, when the speaker gives further elaboration of her evaluation, she shifts to high density, high formality, and low frequency words (such as "*根據*")with complex sentence to strengthen the reliability of her utterance. Again, the existence of frame is implied.

**5. Solution or resolution**

Solution is the consequence or outcome of the story; resolution is the final determination or decision of the story. SV is also predicted to be a tool to identify solution or resolution, which in turn implies the existence of narrative structure.

(31)
M: (0)就把鯨魚跟海豚弄得很燥鬱
F: 喔..天哪..這好像是有聽過
→M: …*所以他們就會****攻擊****..對就會****攻擊船隻***

In example (31), the speaker shifts to high density word "*攻擊*" coincides with the solution of the conflict ("*所以*" can be regarded as marker to announce solution).Such coincidence identifies the existence of the sub-event in the story and the existence of the whole narrative structure and, further, the existence of the story frame.

**6. Coda**

Coda is used to signal that the narrative is finished. In this study, it is hypothesized that coda of a narrative can also be used to identify the existence of a story frame. Example (32) illustrates this point.

(32)

F: ..真的..eh..真的看了之後覺得..不無可能…(1.0)我覺得他們那個佐證…很強烈啊..因為是…(0.3)世界各國的科學家都在擔心的事情..不是擔心..他們覺得一定會發生

M: (0)這本來就是..對啊我也覺得這個..就是

F: 可是因為前幾年..其實大家都還沒有很有感覺

M:這裡..這是 might..是 may 啦

F: 對…所以…不知道耶

→ M: …***這樣***..*算了*

F: …@@..算了

In example (32), the speaker shifts to low density and low formality colloquial"*這樣*," which indicates the narrative is finished, and, thus, verifies the existence of frame.

**3.3.2.1.2. Conversational structure**

In this study, it is hypothesized that SV may serve to identify the components of a conversational structure, which verifies the existence of the frame on meta-thinking level. Basic components of a conversational structure include opening, body, pre-closing, and closing. However, since the data from NCCU Corpus of Spoken Mandarin are all extracted from the middle part of the original tape in order to collect more natural interaction between interlocutors. Therefore, opening, pre-closing, and closing of conversational structure are excluded and are not able to be discussed in this study, and only body of conversation is analyzed.

Body of a conversation is classified into two categories: that for topic continuity and that for topic shifting. Topic continuity includes main topic continuity and relevant sub-topic development. As for topic shifting, it refers to shifting to irrelevant topics or subtopics.

An illustration of SV which manifests body of conversational structure for topic continuity is presented in Example (33).

(33)

F: 對..因為那個南極那邊就有很多那種…(0.7)就是可..啊..火山…(0.4)想起來了..對..就是那種…(2.5)就是他說…(0.9)如果說你冰層溶解的話..然後好像…(0.8)連帶的就會..影響到版塊的活動..然後南極那邊..就是火山活動頻繁的話..又會連帶影響到世界各地的那個板塊帶..所以那個最近印尼才會那個頻繁的發生地震…(1.2)對啊..然後其實我覺得台灣好像…(0.9)不知道..不一定是那種很強的..地震..可是就是那種地震的次數好像有在增加

M: …(0.3)對..小震小震小震一直有震那還好..反正就慢慢釋放能量…(0.4)如果積久了一次來

F: 對啊…然後

M: *而且那個世界環保那個…(0.4)溫度上升真的造成很多的那個…(0.6)*

→ ***衝擊****..就像鯨魚啊..妳之前不是有一個新聞*

F: (0)嗯

M: …(0.3)鯨魚會 si-擱淺..擱擱淺死在那個台南的那個海邊啊

F: ..嗯

M: ..大很大的那種鯨魚唷

In example (33), the speaker shifts from colloquial expression (such as "*一次來*") to a high density, high formality, and low frequency word (such as "*衝擊*") which conducts sub-topic development and indicates body of conversational structure for topic continuity as well as existence of frame. It is in such presentation of topic continuity which identifies the existence of the concept of "topic," a component of a conversation, which implies the existence of the frame of a conversation.

Following the same idea, in this study, it is hypothesized that body of conversational structure can also be identified through topic shifting with SV. Example (34) illustrates this point.

(34)

M2: …我覺得那應該是說..體驗另外一種生活還比較實在..我覺得學英文反而是其次

M1: ...也..也有可能是這樣講啊..體驗另外一種生活...(2.0)只是我覺得如果說...(3.6)他那種感覺是有點特殊情形的生活體驗　不是很...真的是體驗當地的文化..你知道嗎..等於是那種　...(0.8)抱著一種觀光的心態..然後去那住一年..然後這一年裡面都在..玩..打工這樣子但不是說..你真的住在哪裡..然後上班上課然後...(1.1)過著那種..比較規律的那種生活..那兩個的那個..體驗是不一樣的

→M2: @@...(3.3)*那我們來說林博衆的**壞話***

In example (34), the speaker shifts from the topic of working holiday to the use of high density and high formality words (such as "*體驗*" and "*其次*") to the topic of a friend's flow to the use of low density and low formality word (such as "*壞話*"), shifting to an irrelevant topic. In such topic shifting, body of conversational structure is identified, and, further, the existence of the frame of a conversation.

**3.3.2.2. Illocutionary Acts**

As mentioned above, it is assumed that when code-switching serve to identify a certain illocutionary acts, the concept of speech act as an act of "doing" is activated, and, thus, the concept of communicative purpose as a component of communication on meta-thinking level is implied. According to Searle (1979), illocutionary acts include five major categories, including assertives, directives, commissives, expressives, and declaration. However, in the data analyzed, only SVF through assertives, directives, and expressives are found; therefore, only examples for SV for

these three types are given below.

**1. Assertives**

Assertives are speech acts that commit a speaker to the truth of the expressed proposition. The frame of communicative purpose can be realized through SV for assertives. Example (35) is illustrated below.

(35)

F: ....(0.5)然後…(1.3)上個禮拜回家那個什麼…(5.5)就我爸他錄那個節目是那個文茜小妹大

M: ...um

→F: *...然後文茜小妹大就是可能就是**因應**就是最近**全球暖化**的那個問題.然後其實...(0.5)像我說…年底啊..年底其實就是會在哥本哈根 kan-…開一個那種環保會議..然後那種環保會議其實是前幾年每年都有在**召開**的..然後就是在講說就是..**二氧化碳排放量**..就是應該要減低到多少…(0.9)然後可是因為就是富國一直不願意**妥協**啊..然後所以就是…(0.9)一直都沒有辦法**達成共識**...(0.3)然後..所以它其實也有**牽涉**到一些政治的**議題**啊..對所以可能..因為這樣文茜小妹大所以才會..才播…(0.5)然後…(0.7)陳文茜她就是他們那電視台就是去收集就是美國那邊..還有英國那邊..就是..可能是**氣象局**啊..或者是一些科學家他們的那個研究報告…(0.5)然後再加上中研院…(1.5)地質所…(0.5)然後還有..**大氣科學**…(0.6)研究方面的那個**專家**..他們的那個報告…(1.1)然後…(0.3)喔..地質所是那個..台大教授有個地質..地質研究所教授..叫陳文山..搞不好龍井茶認識…(0.9)對*

In example (35), the speaker shifts form colloquial expression (such as "回家") to high density, high formality, and low frequency words (including jargons and technical terms such as "*全球暖化*," "*環保會議*," "*氣象局*," "*中研院*," and "*二氧化碳排放量*") with complex syntactic structure to manifest the assertive act. Illocutionary purpose as part of communicational goal is implied, and, thus, the existence of the frame is implied.

**2. Directives**

Directives are speech acts that are to cause the hearer to take a particular action. SVF which manifests the directive act is presented in example (36).

(36)

M: …22K..超爛

F: …(1.4)我想擤鼻涕耶

M: …(2.4)22Ksucks

→F:..*啊你剛剛**搜尋**的怎樣*..還有看到嗎

In example (36), the speaker shifts from colloquial expression (such as "*擤鼻涕*" and interjection "*耶*") to high density word (such as "*搜尋*") for frame which implies a directive force imposing her interlocutor to do the work of searching for the target information, and, thus, the existence of the frame is implied.

**3. Expressives**

Expressives are speech acts that express the speaker's attitudes and emotions.SVF which manifests the illocutionary force of expressives is presented in example (37).

(37)

→*…ei 可是我**覺得**…(0.8)那個末日…(0.3)就是那種..末世預言那種傳說..就是**很奇怪*..他們…(0.5)這個像是這個是很有根據..可是他們那個只是像單純預言就說是..是世界末日這樣子

In example (37), the speaker shifts to low density colloquial expression "*覺得*" and "*很奇怪*," expressing her personal attitude toward the event, which implies an expressive act.

**3.3.2.3. Cooperative Principle**

As mentioned above in the general statement of section 3.3.2, SV may be used to imply the concept of cooperation between interlocutors as a felicity condition for a successful communication. According to Grice (1975), Cooperative Principle, a systematic description of the content and the method of cooperation in communication, is composed of four major maxims, including maxims of quantity, quality, relevance, and manner. However, not all the submaxims of the four maxims

are found in the data analyzed. Only those emerged are exemplified in below.

**1. Maxim of Quantity**

**a. Make your contribution as informative as is required**

SV which manifests the first submaxim of maxim of quantity of CP is presented in example (38).

(38)

ei 可是我覺得…(0.8)那個末日…(0.3)就是那種..末世預言那種傳說..就很

→奇怪..他們…(0.5)*這個像是這個是很有根據..可是他們那個只是好像**單純***

*預言就說是..是世界末日這樣子*

In example (38), the speaker shifts to high density and high formality word "*單純*" for frame which manifest the maxim of quantity, giving further explanation for her subjective judgment.

**b. Do not make your contribution more informative than is required**

SV which manifests second submaxim of maxim of quantity of CP is presented in example (39).

(39)

M2: ...(0.8)eh 我學妹最近才去啊..結果她就是在華人的那個..農場裡面種豆苗

M1: ...那你覺得真的有學到英文嗎

M2: ..沒有啊..他們每天都在講台語啊..還講中文啊

M1: ..對啊..所以我覺得

→M2*: 而且那個華裔的那個老闆娘..一直想把我學妹**許配**給他的兒子*

M1: ...(1.9)然後..然後不是重點是..重點是.那你就是去當廉價勞工而已啊

In example (39), speaker M2 gives too much unnecessary contribution so that he is reminded by the interlocutor M1 that what he says is not the main point. In this case, this submaxim of Quantity is violated. It is in the violation of this submaxim that manifests the existence of CP, which prescribes the concept of "cooperation" in verbal

communication, which implies the existence of the frame of communication.

**2. Maxim of Quality**

SVF through manifestation of the maxim of quality is presented in example(40).

**a. Do not say what you believe to be false**

(40)

F: [除非你]…除非你做很久..而且你後來..你實務的能力..深深[[超過]]一般

M: [[很強]]

F: …一般..這個執照律師才會[[比較高]]

M: [[身份特殊]]

F: (0)[對啊]

→M: *[還是]**正妹有沒有**加薪*

In example (40), the male speaker shifts to low formality expressions such as "*正妹*" and uses A-not-A question when he is teasing and joking, violating Maxim of Quality: Do not say what you believe to be false.

**3. Maxim of Relevance**

SVF which manifests the maxim of relevance of CP is presented in example (41).

(41)

F: ……(0.7)陳文茜她就是他們那電視台就是去收集就是美國那邊..還有英國那邊..就是..可能是氣象局啊..或者是一些科學家他們的那個研究報告…(0.5)然後再加上中研院…(1.5)地質所…(0.5)然後還有..大氣科學…(0.6)研究方面的那個專家..他們的那個報告…(1.1)然後…(0.3)喔..地質所是那個..台大教授有個地質..地質研究所教授..叫陳文山..搞不好龍井茶認識…(0.9)對

M: (0)XXX…不知道

→F: *有可能..有..有可能..然後然後就..就可能收集他們**研究報告**..然後也有…(0.3)**播放**一些他們的那個什麼..**訪問**的影片哪…(0.4)然後就是..在講說..地球大概…(1.1)現在地球不是就是那個..**平均溫度**有上升嗎...(0.3)氣溫…(1.0)然後其實……*

In example (41), the main topic of which is global warming, when the speaker tries to shift back from the irrelevant topic "*台大有個地質研究所教授叫陳文山..搞不好龍井茶認*

*識*" to the main topic of global warming, she code-switches to high density and high formality words with jargons such as "*研究報告*" and "*平均溫度*," she must have observed the concept of "staying in the line" to be relevant in information exchange. In here, the frame of cooperation is in evidence, which further implies the frame of communication.

**4. Maxim of Manner**

SVF which manifests the maxim of manner is presented in examples (42) to (44). The submaxim of Manner: Avoiding ambiguity is not found in the data.

**a. Avoid obscurity of expression**

(42)

因為牠死掉了..然後..可是鯨魚是…(0.4)哺乳類..它裡面..裡面會..會幹嘛或

→什麼東西..然後…*(0.9)會一直..會分解..**急速分解**..你死掉之後他會在裡面..**急速分解**..然後又起**化學變化**就一直**膨脹***

In example (42), at the beginning, the speaker gives vague contribution such as "*幹嘛*" and "*什麼東西,*" and then when he tries to repair his verbal contribution, he code-switches to high density words and technical terms such as "*急速,*" "*分解,*" "*膨脹,*" and "*化學變化.*" In doing so, a device used to avoid obscurity, which implies the concept of cooperation, which is also a critical element of the concept of communication on meta-thinking level.

**b. Avoid ambiguity**

(43)

M: ..我怎麼知道是誰挑你

F: ..eh

M: 喔

F: ..也就只有一個人挑

M: 我認識的

→F: ..對啊..*也就..也就只有這麼一個人**挑剔**我*

In example (43), the female speaker shifts from ellipsis "*挑*" to a full form "*挑剔*" in order to avoid ambiguity ("挑選" and "挑剔"). In doing so, the submaxim implies the concept of cooperation, and, further, implies the existence of frame.

**c. Be brief (avoid unnecessary prolixity)**

(44)
M: (0)你不知道他的人生規劃
F: (0)我不知道啊
M: (0)那或許也是你的人生規劃
→F: ..*不是我的**人生規劃**啊*

In example (44), the female speaker shifts to a high density word "*人生規劃*," which she omits it in the previous turn, violating the maxim but using for emphasis. Lying behind such intention is the concept of frame.

# Chapter 4

## Data Analysis and Discussions

This chapter presents the data analysis and discussions, which include distributions of linguistic strategies and features for stylistic variation for frame (SVF, hereafter in this chapter) by discourse structure, illocutionary acts, and Cooperative Principles. Also, manifestation of the structure of frame through stylistic variation is discussed at the end of this chapter.

### 4.1. SVF by Linguistic Strategies in General

In this study, seven conversations are analyzed which include 2978 turns. Linguistic strategies for SVF are divided into two types: lexical and syntactic. Results of data analysis for SVF are displayed in Table 1.

Table 1. SVF by linguistic strategies

| Linguistic strategies | Total |
|---|---|
| Lexical devices | 76.0%(923) |
| Syntactic devices | 24.0%(292) |
| Total | 100%(1215) |

According to Table 1, SVF relies far more heavily on lexical devices (76.0%) than on syntactic devices (24.0%). It seems like lexical devices are more frequently adopted than syntactic devices for manifestation of frame through stylistic variation. After all, lexical devices are more efficient than syntactic devices in linguistic processing, both in perception and in production.

### 4.1.1. SVF by Lexical Devices

It is found that lexical devices that can be used to manifest the existence of frame include semantic density, word formality, and word frequency. The results of data analysis are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. SVF by lexical devices

| Shifting of lexical devices | | Total | Total |
|---|---|---|---|
| Semantic density | Low density | 44.2%(174) | 42.7%(394) |
| | High density | 55.8%(220) | |
| | Total | 100%(394) | |
| Word formality | Low formality | 55.7%(166) | 32.3%(298) |
| | High formality | 44.3%(132) | |
| | Total | 100%(298) | |
| Word frequency | Low frequency | 46.3%(107) | 25.0%(231) |
| | Mid frequency | 30.7%(71) | |
| | High frequency | 23.0%(53) | |
| | Total | 100%(231) | |
| Total | | | 100%(923) |

According to Table 2, it is found that semantic density of lexical items (up to 42.7%) is the most prominent lexical device for SVF, followed by word formality (32.3%), and with word frequency (25.0%) being the lexical device least frequently used. It seems that manipulating semantic density of words is more effective for SVF owing to shifting of semantic density is much easier for linguistic processing, both perception and production.

In addition to the general pattern found in the competition of the three types of lexical devices for SVF, there are also patterns located in the distributions of the subtypes of each major type of lexical devices for SVF. First, about SVF through

shifting of semantic density, it is found more frequently adopted in shifting from low density words to high density words (55.8%) than from high to low (44.2%). However, SVF through variation of word formality is more often used in shifting from high formality words to low formality words (55.7%) than from low to high (44.3%).

In addition, it is found that SVF by shifting word frequency is more of the direction shifting from words of high/mid frequency to low frequency words than the other way around.

#### 4.1.1.1. SVF by Shifting Semantic Density of Words

In this study, it is found that SVF depend on shifting the semantic density of lexical items. Table 3 is illustrated below.

Table 3. SVF by shifting semantic density of words

| Shifting of lexical density | Semantic features | Total | Total |
|---|---|---|---|
| Shifting to low semantic density | Pragmatic particle | 46.5%(81) | 44.2% (174) |
| | Pro-form | 25.3%(44) | |
| | Discourse marker | 23.6%(41) | |
| | Ellipsis | 4.6%(8) | |
| Shifting to high semantic density | Technical term & jargon | 92.3%(203) | 55.8% (220) |
| | Syntactic particle | 7.7%(17) | |
| Total | | | 100% (220) |

According to Table 3, for SVF by shifting semantic density of words, it is found that shifting from low density to high density is adopted more frequently than shifting of the opposite direction (55.8% vs. 44.2%).

As Table 3 indicates, shifting from high to low semantic density, pragmatic particle is used most frequently (46.5%), being followed by pro-form (25.3%) and

discourse marker (23.6%), with ellipsis being used the least (4.6%). As for the shifting of the opposite direction (i.e. from low to high semantic density), the use of technical term & jargon dramatically suppresses the use of syntactic particle (92.3% vs. 7.7%).

#### 4.1.1.2. SVF by Shifting Word Formality

In this study, it is also found that SVF depend on shifting the formality of lexical items. Table 4 is illustrated below.

Table 4. SVF by shifting formality of words

| Shifting of lexical formality | Formality features | Total | Total |
|---|---|---|---|
| Shifting to low lexical formality | Vernacular | 53.0%(88) | 55.7% (166) |
| | Pragmatic particle | 19.3%(32) | |
| | Pro-form | 13.3%(22) | |
| | Discourse marker | 12.0%(20) | |
| | Ellipsis | 2.4%(4) | |
| Shifting to high lexical formality | Archaic form | 61.4%(81) | 44.3% (132) |
| | Technical term & jargon | 34.1%(45) | |
| | Syntactic particle | 4.5%(6) | |
| Total | | | 100% (132) |

According to Table 4, for SVF by shifting formality of words, it is found that shifting from high formality to low formality is adopted more frequently than shifting of the opposite direction (55.7% vs. 44.3%).

As Table 4 indicates, shifting from high to low formality, vernacular is used most frequently (53.0%), being followed by pragmatic particle (19.3%), pro-form (13.3%) and discourse marker (12.0%), with ellipsis being used the least (2.4%). As for the shifting of the opposite direction (i.e. from low to high formality), the use of

archaic form is dramatically suppressed the use of technical term & jargon and syntactic particle (61.4% vs. 34.1%, 4.5%).

#### 4.1.1.3. SVF by Shifting Word Frequency

According to Table 2, it is found that SVF by shifting word frequency is more of the direction shifting from words of high/mid frequency to low frequency words than the other way around, particularly technical term & jargon (such as "*冰層*," "*海平面*," and "*辯論*") and archaic form (such as "*捍衛*" and "*小題大作*").

### 4.1.2. SVF by Syntactic Devices

In this study, it is found that SV through syntactic devices based on sentence complexity, sentence completeness, and sentence patterns can help to identify the existence of frame. Results of data analysis are displayed in Table 5.

Table 5. SVF by syntactic devices

| Shifting of syntactic devices | Total |
|---|---|
| Sentence complexity | 77.7%(227) |
| Sentence completeness | 15.4%(45) |
| Sentence patterns | 6.9%(20) |
| Total | 100%(292) |

According to Table 5, it is found that sentence complexity (up to 77.7%) is the most prominent syntactic device for SVF, followed by sentence completeness (15.4%), and with sentence patterns (6.9%) being the syntactic device least frequently used. It seems that manipulating sentence complexity is more effective for SVF.

#### 4.1.2.1. SVF by Shifting Sentence Complexity

In this study, it is found that SVF depend on shifting of sentence complexity. Table 6 is illustrated below.

Table 6. SVF by shifting sentence complexity

| Shifting of sentence complexity | | | Total |
|---|---|---|---|
| Shifting to simple sentence | | | 38.3%(87) |
| Shifting to complex sentence | Embedding sentence | (61) | 61.7%(140) |
| | Coordinate sentence | (39) | |
| | Subordinate sentence | (40) | |
| Total | | | 100%(227) |

According to Table 6, for SVF by shifting sentence complexity, it is found that shifting from simple sentences to complex sentences is adopted more frequently than shifting of the opposite direction (61.7% vs. 38.3%).

As Table 6 indicates, shifting from simple sentences to complex sentences, embedding sentence is used most frequently, being followed by coordinate sentence and subordinate sentence.

#### 4.1.2.2. SVF by Shifting Sentence Completeness

In this study, it is found that SVF depend on shifting of sentence completeness. The results of data analysis are presented in Table 7

Table 7. SVF by shifting sentence completeness

| Shifting of sentence completeness | Total |
|---|---|
| Shifting to fragment | 35.6%(16) |
| Shifting to complete sentence | 64.4%(29) |
| Total | 100%(45) |

According to Table 7, for SVF by shifting sentence completeness, it is found that shifting from fragments to complete sentences is adopted more frequently than shifting of the opposite direction (65.4% vs. 35.6%).

#### 4.1.2.3. SVF by Shifting Sentence Patterns

In this study, it is also found that SVF depend on shifting sentence patterns. The results of data analysis are presented in Table 8

Table 8. SVF by shifting sentence patterns

| Shifting of sentence patterns | | | Total |
|---|---|---|---|
| Voice | Active | (0) | 25.0%(5) |
| | Passive | (5) | |
| Question Form | Question with question marker | (14) | 75.0%(15) |
| | A-not-A question | (1) | |
| Total | | | 100%(20) |

According to Table 8, owing to the data of shifting sentence patterns are insufficient, it is weak to draw conclusion. However, it is found that shifting of question form is adopted more frequently than shifting of syntactic voice (75.0% vs. 25.0%).

### 4.2. SVF for Discourse Structure

In this study, it is found that SV are activated in order to mark the discourse structure. In this section, the ways of SV to imply the concept of discourse structure, both narrative structure and conversational structure, are analyzed.

#### 4.2.1. SVF for Narrative Structure

In this study, it is found that SV can be used to identify the shifting from one part of a narrative structure to another, and it is in such shifting that the concept of

discourse structure, and thus the frame of discourse, is located.

#### 4.2.1.1. SVF for Narrative Structure by Lexical Devices

It is found that lexical devices that can be used to identify narrative structure include semantic density, word formality, and word frequency. The results of data analysis are presented in Table 9.

Table 9. SVF for narrative structure by lexical devices

| Shifting of lexical devices / Narrative structure | Semantic density | Word formality | Word frequency | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Abstract | (12) | (8) | (7) | 2.9% (27) |
| Orientation | (14) | (12) | (7) | 3.6% (33) |
| Elaboration | (306) | (206) | (184) | 75.4% (696) |
| Evaluation | (59) | (68) | (30) | 17.0% (157) |
| Solution /Resolution | (1) | (2) | (1) | 0.4% (4) |
| Coda | (20) | (2) | (2) | 0.7% (6) |
| Total | 42.7% (394) | 32.3% (298) | 25.0% (231) | 100% (923) |

According to Table 9, it is found that narrative structure by lexical devices of SVF, SV is most frequently applied by semantic density of word (42.7%), less by word formality (32.3%), and even less by word frequency (25.0%). In other words, semantic density of word is the most prominent lexical device for narrative structure.

Among the three lexical devices for narrative structure, it is found that SV is largely used to signal elaboration (75.4%), and far less for evaluation (17.0%).

#### 4.2.1.1.1. SVF for Narrative Structure by Shifting Semantic Density of Words

The results of narrative structure by shifting semantic density of lexical items are presented in Table 10.

Table 10. SVF for narrative structure by shifting semantic density of words

| Shifting of lexical density / Narrative structure | Shifting to low semantic density | | | | | Shifting to high semantic density | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Ellipsis | Pro-form | Pragmatic particle | Discourse marker | total | Technical term & jargon | Syntactic particle | total |
| Abstract | (0) | (0) | (0) | (0) | (0) | (11) | (1) | 5.5% (12) |
| Orientation | (0) | (2) | (0) | (0) | 1.1% (2) | (11) | (1) | 5.5% (12) |
| Elaboration | (8) | (36) | (50) | (20) | 65.5% (114) | (177) | (15) | 87.3% (192) |
| Evaluation | (0) | (6) | (31) | (20) | 32.8% (57) | (2) | (0) | 0.9% (2) |
| Solution/Resolution | (0) | (0) | (0) | (0) | (0) | (1) | (0) | 0.4% (1) |
| Coda | (0) | (0) | (0) | (1) | 0.6% (1) | (1) | (0) | 0.4% (1) |
| Total | 4.6%(8) | 25.3%(44) | 46.5%(81) | 23.6%(41) | 100% (174) | 92.3%(203) | 7.7%(17) | 100% (220) |
| TOTAL | 44.2%(174) | | | | | 55.8%(220) | | |

According to Table 10, it is found that SVF for narrative structure by shifting semantic density of words is more of the direction shifting from low density words to high density words.

Furthermore, it is found that among features of low semantic density words for narrative structure, SV is most frequently applied for elaboration (65.5%), and far less for evaluation (32.8%). Pragmatic particle (46.5%) is the most prominent feature among low semantic density words, less are pro-form (25.3%) and discourse marker (23.6%), and far less is ellipsis (4.6%).

In addition, it is found that among features of high semantic density words for narrative structure, SV is most frequently applied for elaboration (87.3%), and far less for abstract (5.5%) and orientation (5.5%). Technical term & jargon is the most prominent feature among high semantic density words, which is up to 92.3%.

**4.2.1.1.2. SVF for Narrative Structure by Shifting Word Formality**

The results of narrative structure by shifting formality of lexical items are presented in Table 11.

Table 11. SVF for narrative structure by shifting formality of words

| Shifting of word formality / Narrative structure | Shifting to low formality | | | | | | Shifting to high formality | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Ellipsis | Pro-form | Pragmatic particle | Discourse marker | Vernacular | total | Technical term & jargon | Syntactic particle | Archaic form | total |
| Abstract | (0) | (0) | (0) | (0) | (1) | 0.6% (1) | (3) | (0) | (4) | 5.3% (7) |
| Orientation | (0) | (0) | (0) | (0) | (0) | (0) | (4) | (1) | (7) | 9.1% (12) |
| Elaboration | (4) | (15) | (17) | (11) | (50) | 58.4% (97) | (37) | (5) | (67) | 82.6% (109) |
| Evaluation | (0) | (7) | (15) | (8) | (36) | 39.8% (66) | (0) | (0) | (2) | 1.5% (2) |
| Solution/Resolution | (0) | (0) | (0) | (0) | (0) | (0) | (1) | (0) | (1) | 1.5% (2) |
| Coda | (0) | (0) | (0) | (1) | (1) | 1.2% (2) | (0) | (0) | (0) | (0) |
| Total | 2.4% (4) | 13.3% (22) | 19.3% (32) | 12.0% (20) | 53.0% (88) | 100% (166) | 34.1% (45) | 4.5% (6) | 61.4% (81) | 100% (132) |
| TOTAL | 55.7%(166) | | | | | | 44.3%(132) | | | |

According to Table 11, it is found that SVF for narrative structure by shifting formality of words is more of the direction shifting from high formality words to low formality words.

Furthermore, it is found that among features of low formality words for narrative structure, SV is most frequently applied for elaboration (58.4%), and less for evaluation (39.8%). Vernacular (53.0%) is the most prominent feature among low formality words, less is pragmatic particle (19.3%), even less are pro-form (13.3%) and discourse marker (12.0%), and far less is ellipsis (2.4%).

In addition, it is found that among features of high formality words for narrative structure, SV is most frequently applied for elaboration (82.6%), and far less for orientation (9.1%) and abstract (5.3%). Archaic form (61.4%) is the most prominent feature among high formality words, less is technical term & jargon (34.1%), and far less is syntactic particle (4.5%).

#### 4.2.1.1.3. SVF for Narrative Structure by Shifting Word Frequency

The results of narrative structure by shifting word frequency are presented in Table 12.

Table 12. SVF for narrative structure by shifting word frequency

| Shifting of word frequency / Narrative structure | Low | Mid | High | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Abstract | (5) | (1) | (1) | 3.0%(7) |
| Orientation | (5) | (1) | (1) | 3.0%(7) |
| Elaboration | (88) | (54) | (42) | 79.7%(184) |
| Evaluation | (7) | (15) | (8) | 13.0%(30) |
| Solution/Resolution | (1) | (0) | (0) | 0.4%(1) |
| Coda | (1) | (0) | (1) | 0.9%(2) |
| Total | 46.3%(107) | 30.7%(71) | 23.0%(53) | 100%(231) |

According to Table 12, it is found that among word frequency for narrative structure, SV is most frequently applied for elaboration (79.7%), and less for evaluation (13.0%), even less for abstract (3.0%) and orientation (3.0%), and seldom for solution/resolution (0.4%) and coda (0.9%). Among elaboration, it is found that SVF by shifting word frequency is more of the direction shifting from high/mid frequency words to low frequency words.

#### 4.2.1.2. SVF for Narrative Structure by Syntactic Devices

It is found that syntactic devices can be used to identify narrative structure include sentence complexity, sentence completeness, and sentence patterns. The results of data analysis are presented in Table 13.

Table 13. SVF for narrative structure by syntactic devices

| Shifting of syntactic devices / Narrative structure | Sentence complexity | Sentence completeness | Sentence patterns | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Abstract | (10) | (1) | (0) | 3.8% (11) |
| Orientation | (11) | (1) | (3) | 5.1% (15) |
| Elaboration | (172) | (40) | (17) | 78.4% (229) |
| Evaluation | (31) | (3) | (0) | 11.6% (34) |
| Solution /Resolution | (2) | (0) | (0) | 0.7% (2) |
| Coda | (1) | (0) | (0) | 0.4% (1) |
| Total | 77.7%(227) | 15.4%(45) | 6.9%(20) | 100% (292) |

According to Table 13, it is found that among syntactic devices, SV is most frequently applied for elaboration (78.4%), and far less for evaluation (11.6%). Sentence complexity (77.7%) is the most prominent device, less is sentence completeness (15.4%), and far less is sentence patterns (6.9%).

#### 4.2.1.2.1. SVF for Narrative Structure by Shifting Sentence Complexity

The results of narrative structure by shifting sentence complexity are presented in Table 14.

Table 14. SVF for narrative structure by shifting sentence complexity

| Shifting of sentence complexity / Narrative structure | Shifting to simple sentence | Shifting to complex sentence | | | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | embedding | coordinate | subordinate | |
| Abstract | (4) | (3) | (1) | (2) | 4.4% (10) |
| Orientation | (3) | (4) | (2) | (2) | 4.8% (11) |
| Elaboration | (62) | (43) | (34) | (33) | 75.8% (172) |
| Evaluation | (17) | (10) | (1) | (3) | 13.7% (31) |
| Solution/Resolution | (0) | (1) | (1) | (0) | 0.9% (2) |
| Coda | (1) | (0) | (0) | (0) | 0.4% (1) |
| Total | 38.3% (87) | 26.9% (61) | 17.2% (39) | 17.6% (40) | 100% (227) |

According to Table 14, it is found that among sentence complexity for narrative structure, SV is most frequently applied for elaboration (75.8%), and less for evaluation (13.7%). Furthermore, it is found that SVF by shifting sentence complexity

is more of the direction shifting from simple sentences (38.3%) to complex sentences (61.7%), especially shifting to embedding sentences.

#### 4.2.1.2.2. SVF for Narrative Structure by Shifting Sentence Completeness

The results of narrative structure by shifting sentence completeness are presented in Table 15.

Table 15. SVF for narrative structure by shifting sentence completeness

| Shifting of sentence completeness / Narrative structure | Shifting to fragment | Shifting to complete sentence | Total |
|---|---|---|---|
| Abstract | (0) | (1) | 2.2% (1) |
| Orientation | (0) | (1) | 2.2% (1) |
| Elaboration | (14) | (26) | 88.9% (40) |
| Evaluation | (2) | (1) | 6.7% (3) |
| Solution/Resolution | (0) | (0) | (0) |
| Coda | (0) | (0) | (0) |
| Total | 35.6% (16) | 64.4% (29) | 100% (45) |

According to Table 15, it is found that among sentence completeness for narrative structure, SV is most frequently applied for elaboration (88.9%), and far less for evaluation (6.7%). Furthermore, it is found that SVF by shifting sentence completeness is more of the direction shifting from fragments (35.6%) to complete sentences (64.4%).

#### 4.2.1.2.3. SVF for Narrative Structure by Shifting Sentence Patterns

The results of narrative structure by shifting sentence patterns are presented in Table 16.

Table 16. SVF for narrative structure by shifting sentence patterns

| Shifting of sentence patterns / Narrative structure | Voice | | | Question form | | | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Active | Passive | total | Question with question marker | A-not-A question | total | |
| Abstract | (0) | (0) | (0) | (0) | (0) | (0) | (0) |
| Orientation | (0) | (0) | (0) | (3) | (0) | 20.0% (3) | 15.0% (3) |
| Elaboration | (0) | (5) | 100% (5) | (11) | (1) | 80.0% (12) | 85.0% (17) |
| Evaluation | (0) | (0) | (0) | (0) | (0) | (0) | (0) |
| Solution /Resolution | (0) | (0) | (0) | (0) | (0) | (0) | (0) |
| Coda | (0) | (0) | (0) | (0) | (0) | (0) | (0) |
| Total | (0) | 100% (5) | 25.0% (5) | 93.3% (14) | 6.7% (1) | 75.0% (15) | 100% (20) |

According to Table 16, it is found that among sentence patterns for narrative structure, SV is most frequently applied for elaboration (85.0%), and far less for orientation (15.0%). Among syntactic voice for narrative structure, SV is used to signal elaboration only. Among question form, SV is used to indicate elaboration (80.0%), and far less for orientation (20.0%).

In addition, it is found that SVF by shifting syntactic voice is more of the direction shifting from active voice to passive voice. Besides, it is found that SVF by shifting question form for narrative structure, question with question marker (93.3%) is largely applied than A-not-A question (6.7%).

**4.2.2. SVF for Conversational Structure**

In this study, it is found that SV can also be used to identify the shifting from one part of a conversational structure to another. However, owing to the nature of the data, opening,

pre-closing, and closing of conversational structure are excluded and are not able to be discussed in this study, and only body of conversation is analyzed.

#### 4.2.2.1. SVF for Conversational Structure by Lexical Devices

It is found that lexical devices can be used to identify conversational structure, and, thus, can help to identify the existence of frame. The results of data analysis are presented in Table 17.

Table 17. SVF for conversational structure by lexical devices

| Shifting of lexical devices / Conversational structure | Semantic density | Word formality | Word frequency | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Topic continuity | (377) | (290) | (225) | 96.6%(892) |
| Topic shifting | (17) | (8) | (6) | 3.4%(31) |
| Total | 42.7%(394) | 32.3%(298) | 25.0%(231) | 100%(923) |

According to Table 17, it is found that among lexical devices for conversational structure, SV is most frequently applied by semantic density of word (42.7%), less by word formality (32.3%), and even less by word frequency (25.0%). In other words, semantic density of word is the most prominent lexical device for conversational structure.

Among the three lexical devices—semantic density of word, word formality, and word frequency, it is found that in a conversation, SV is largely used in body of conversational structure for topic continuity (96.6%).

##### 4.2.2.1.1. SVF for Conversational Structure by Shifting Semantic Density of Words

The results of conversational structure by shifting semantic density of lexical items are presented in Table 18.

Table 18. SVF for conversational structure by shifting semantic density of words

| Shifting of lexical density / Conversational structure | Shifting to low semantic density | | | | | Shifting to high semantic density | | | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Ellipsis | Pro-form | Pragmatic particle | Discourse marker | total | Technical term & jargon | Syntactic particle | total | |
| Topic continuity | (8) | (43) | (81) | (41) | 99.4%(173) | (189) | (15) | 92.7%(204) | 95.7%(377) |
| Topic shifting | (0) | (1) | (0) | (0) | 0.6%(1) | (14) | (2) | 7.3%(16) | 4.3%(17) |
| Total | 4.6%(8) | 25.3%(44) | 46.5%(81) | 23.6%(41) | 100%(174) | 92.3%(203) | 7.3%(17) | 100%(220) | 100%(394) |
| TOTAL | 30.6%(174) | | | | | 69.4%(394) | | | |

According to Table 18, it is found that SVF for conversational structure by shifting semantic density of words is more of the direction shifting from low density words to high density words.

Furthermore, it is found that among features of low semantic density words for conversational structure, SV is most frequently applied for topic continuity (99.4%), and far less for topic shifting (0.6%). Pragmatic particle (46.5%) is the most prominent feature among low semantic density words, less are pro-form (25.3%) and discourse marker (23.6%), and even less is ellipsis (4.6%).

In addition, it is found that among features of high semantic density words for conversational structure, SV is also most frequently applied for topic continuity (92.7%), and far less for topic shifting (7.3%). Technical term & jargon (92.3%) is the most prominent feature among high semantic density words, and far less is syntactic particle (7.7%).

**4.2.2.1.2. SVF for Conversational Structure by Shifting Word Formality**

The results of conversational structure by shifting formality of lexical items are presented in Table 19.

Table 19. SVF for conversational structure by shifting formality of words

| Shifting of word formality / Conversational structure | Shifting to low formality | | | | | | Shifting to high formality | | | | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Ellipsis | Pro-form | Pragmatic particle | Discourse marker | Vernacular | total | Technical term & jargon | Syntactic particle | Archaic form | total | |
| Topic continuity | (4) | (22) | (32) | (20) | (87) | 99.4% (165) | (42) | (5) | (78) | 94.7% (125) | 97.3% (290) |
| Topic shifting | (0) | (0) | (0) | (0) | (1) | 0.6% (1) | (3) | (1) | (3) | 5.3% (7) | 2.7% (8) |
| Total | 2.4% (4) | 13.3% (22) | 19.3% (32) | 12.0% (20) | 53.0% (88) | 100% (166) | 34.1% (45) | 4.5% (6) | 61.4% (81) | 100% (132) | 100% (298) |
| TOTAL | 35.8%(166) | | | | | | 64.2%(298) | | | | |

According to Table 19, it is found that SVF for conversational structure by shifting formality of words is more of the direction shifting from low formality words to high formality words.

Furthermore, it is found that among features of low formality words for conversational structure, SV is most frequently applied for topic continuity (99.4%), and far less for topic shifting (0.6%). Vernacular (53.0%) is the most prominent feature among low formality words, less is pragmatic particle (19.3%), even less is pro-form (13.3%) and discourse marker (12.0%), and far less is ellipsis (2.4%).

In addition, it is found that among features of high formality words for conversational structure, SV is also most frequently applied for topic continuity (94.7%), and far less for topic shifting (5.3%). Archaic form (61.4%) is the most prominent feature among high formality words, less is technical term & jargon (34.1%), and far less is syntactic particle (4.5%).

**4.2.2.1.3. SVF for Conversational Structure by Shifting Word Frequency**

The results of conversational structure by shifting word frequency are presented in Table 20.

Table 20. SVF for conversational structure by shifting word frequency

| Shifting of word frequency / Conversational structure | Low | Mid | High | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Topic continuity | (101) | (71) | (53) | 97.4% (225) |
| Topic shifting | (6) | (0) | (0) | 2.6% (6) |
| Total | 46.3% (107) | 30.7% (71) | 23.0% (53) | 100% (231) |

According to Table 20, it is found that among word frequency for conversational structure, SV is most frequently applied for topic continuity (97.4%), and far less for topic shifting (2.6%). Among topic continuity, it is found that SVF by shifting word frequency is more of the direction shifting from high/mid frequency words to low frequency words.

#### 4.2.2.2. SVF for Conversational Structure by Syntactic Devices

It is found that syntactic devices can be used to identify conversational structure, and, thus, can help to identify the existence of frame. The results of data analysis are presented in Table 21.

Table 21. SVF for conversational structure by syntactic devices

| Shifting of syntactic devices / Conversational structure | Sentence complexity | Sentence completeness | Sentence patterns | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Topic continuity | (214) | (44) | (17) | 94.2% (275) |
| Topic shifting | (13) | (1) | (3) | 5.8% (17) |
| Total | 77.7% (227) | 15.4% (45) | 6.9% (20) | 100% (292) |

According to Table 21, it is found that among syntactic devices, SV is most frequently applied for topic continuity (94.2%), and far less for topic shifting (5.8%). Sentence complexity (77.7%) is the most prominent device, less is sentence completeness (15.4%), and far less is sentence patterns (6.9%).

#### 4.2.2.2.1. SVF for Conversational Structure by Shifting Sentence Complexity

The results of conversational structure by shifting sentence complexity are presented in Table 22.

Table 22. SVF for conversational structure by shifting sentence complexity

| Shifting of sentence complexity / Conversational structure | Shifting to simple sentence | Shifting to complex sentence | | | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Embedding sentence | Coordinate sentence | Subordinate sentence | |
| Topic continuity | (84) | (56) | (38) | (36) | 94.3% (214) |
| Topic shifting | (3) | (5) | (1) | (4) | 5.7% (13) |
| Total | 38.3% (87) | 26.9% (61) | 17.2% (39) | 17.6% (40) | 100% (227) |

According to Table 22, it is found that among sentence complexity for conversational structure, SV is most frequently applied for topic continuity (94.3%), and far less for topic shifting (5.7%). Furthermore, it is found that SVF by shifting sentence complexity is more of the direction shifting from simple sentences (38.3%) to complex sentences (61.7%), especially shifting to embedding sentences.

#### 4.2.2.2.2. SVF for Conversational Structure by Shifting Sentence Completeness

The results of conversational structure by shifting sentence completeness are presented in Table 23.

Table 23. SVF for conversational structure by shifting sentence completeness

| Shifting of sentence completeness / Conversational structure | Shifting to fragment | Shifting to complete sentence | Total |
|---|---|---|---|
| Topic continuity | (16) | (28) | 97.8% (44) |
| Topic shifting | (0) | (1) | 2.2% (1) |
| Total | 35.6% (16) | 64.4% (29) | 100% (45) |

According to Table 23, it is found that among sentence completeness for conversational structure, SV is most frequently applied for topic continuity (97.8%); however, topic shifting (2.2%) is rarely served. It is found that SVF by shifting sentence completeness is more of the direction shifting from fragments (35.6%) to complete sentences (64.4%).

**4.2.2.2.3. SVF for Conversational Structure by Shifting Sentence Patterns**

The results of conversational structure by shifting sentence patterns are presented in Table 24.

Table 24. SVF for conversational structure by shifting sentence patterns

| Shifting of sentence patterns / Conversational structure | Voice | | | Question form | | | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Active | Passive | total | Question with question marker | A-not-A question | total | |
| Topic continuity | (0) | (5) | 100% (5) | (11) | (1) | 80.0% (12) | 85.0% (17) |
| Topic shifting | (0) | (0) | (0) | (3) | (0) | 20.0% (3) | 15.0% (3) |
| Total | (0) | 100% (5) | 25.0% (5) | 93.3% (14) | 6.7% (1) | 75.0% (15) | 100% (20) |

According to Table 24, it is found that among sentence patterns for conversational structure, SV is most frequently applied for topic continuity (85.0%), and far less for topic shifting (15.0%). Among shifting of syntactic voice for conversational structure, SV is used to signal topic continuity only. Among shifting of question form, SV is mainly used to indicated topic continuity (80.0%), and far less for topic shifting (20.0%).

In addition, it is found that SVF by shifting syntactic voice is more of the direction shifting from active voice to passive voice. Also, it is found that SVF by shifting question form for conversational structure, question with question marker is largely applied (93.3%), far more than A-not-A question (6.7%).

### 4.3. SVF for Illocutionary Acts

In this study, it is found that SV are activated in order to mark the pragmatic functions. In this section, SV for illocutionary acts is analyzed.

#### 4.3.1. SVF for Illocutionary Acts by Lexical Devices

It is found that lexical devices can be used to identify illocutionary acts, and, thus, can help to identify the existence of frame. The results of data analysis are presented in Table 25.

Table 25. SVF for illocutionary acts by lexical devices

| Shifting of lexical devices / Illocutionary acts | Semantic density | Word formality | Word frequency | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Assertives | (272) | (190) | (169) | 68.4%(631) |
| Expressives | (59) | (68) | (30) | 17.0%(157) |
| Directives | (63) | (40) | (32) | 14.6%(135) |
| Total | 42.7% (394) | 32.3% (298) | 25.0% (231) | 100%(923) |

According to Table 25, it is found that among lexical devices for illocutionary acts, SV is most frequently applied by semantic density of word (42.7%), less by word formality (32.3%), and even less by word frequency (25.0%). In other words, semantic density of word is the most prominent lexical device for illocutionary acts.

Among the three lexical devices, semantic density of word, word formality, and word frequency, it is found that SV is largely used for assertives (68.4%), far less for expressives (17.0%) and directives (14.6%), and never for commisssives and declaration.

#### 4.3.1.1. SVF for Illocutionary Acts by Shifting Semantic Density of Words

The results of illocutionary acts by shifting semantic density of lexical items are presented in Table 26.

Table 26. SVF for illocutionary acts by shifting semantic density of words

| Shifting of lexical density / Illocutionary acts | Shifting to low semantic density | | | | | Shifting to high semantic density | | | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Ellipsis | Pro-form | Pragmatic particle | Discourse marker | total | Technical term & jargon | Syntactic particle | total | |
| Assertives | (5) | (30) | (45) | (18) | 56.3% (98) | (168) | (6) | 79.1% (174) | 69.0% (272) |
| Expressives | (0) | (6) | (31) | (20) | 32.8% (57) | (2) | (0) | 0.9% (2) | 15.0% (59) |
| Directives | (3) | (8) | (5) | (3) | 10.9% (19) | (33) | (11) | 20.0% (44) | 16.0% (63) |
| Total | 4.6% (8) | 25.3% (44) | 46.5% (81) | 23.6% (41) | 100% (174) | 92.3% (203) | 7.7% (17) | 100% (220) | 100% (394) |
| TOTAL | 30.6%(174) | | | | | 69.4%(394) | | | |

According to Table 26, it is found that SVF for illocutionary acts by shifting semantic density of words is more of the direction shifting from low density words to high density words.

Furthermore, it is found that among features of low semantic density words for illocutionary acts, SV is most frequently applied for assertives (56.3%), less for expressives (32.8%), and even less for directives (10.9%). Pragmatic particle (46.5%) is the most prominent feature among low semantic density words, less are pro-form (25.3%) and discourse marker (23.6%), and even less is ellipsis (4.6%).

In addition, it is found that among features of high semantic density words for illocutionary acts, SV is also most frequently applied for assertives (79.1%), less for directives (20.0%), and far less for expressives (0.9%). Technical term & jargon (92.3%) is the most prominent feature among high semantic density words, and far less is syntactic particle (7.7%).

**4.3.1.2. SVF for Illocutionary Acts by Shifting Word Formality**

The results of illocutionary acts by shifting formality of lexical items are presented in Table 27.

Table 27. SVF for illocutionary acts by shifting formality of words

| Shifting of word formality / Illocutionary acts | Shifting to low formality | | | | | | Shifting to high formality | | | | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Ellipsis | Pro-form | Pragmatic particle | Discourse marker | Vernacular | total | Technical term & jargon | Syntactic particle | Archaic form | total | |
| Assertives | (2) | (12) | (13) | (10) | (42) | 47.6% (79) | (40) | (3) | (68) | 84.1% (111) | 63.8% (190) |
| Expressives | (0) | (7) | (15) | (8) | (36) | 39.7% (66) | (0) | (0) | (2) | 1.5% (2) | 22.8% (68) |
| Directives | (2) | (3) | (4) | (2) | (10) | 12.7% (21) | (5) | (3) | (11) | 14.4% (19) | 13.4% (40) |
| Total | 2.4% (4) | 13.3% (22) | 19.3% (32) | 12.0% (20) | 53.0% (88) | 100% (166) | 34.1% (45) | 4.5% (6) | 61.4% (81) | 100% (132) | 100% (298) |
| TOTAL | 35.8%(166) | | | | | | 64.2%(298) | | | | |

According to Table 27, it is found that SVF for illocutionary acts by shifting formality of word is more of the direction shifting from low formality words to high formality words.

Furthermore, it is found that among features of low formality words for illocutionary acts, SV is most frequently applied for assertives (47.6%), less for expressives (39.7%), and even less for directives (12.7%). Vernacular (53.0%) is the most prominent feature among low formality words, less is pragmatic particle (19.3%), even less are pro-form (13.3%) and discourse marker (12.0%), and far less is ellipsis (2.4%).

In addition, it is found that among features of high formality words for illocutionary acts, SV is most frequently applied for assertives (84.1%), less for direcctives (14.4%), and far less for expressives (1.5%). Archaic form (61.4%) is the most prominent feature among high formality words, less is technical term & jargon (34.1%), and far less is syntactic particle (4.5%).

#### 4.3.1.3. SVF for Illocutionary Acts by Shifting Word Frequency

The results of illocutionary acts by shifting word frequency are presented in Table 28.

Table 28. SVF for illocutionary acts by shifting word frequency

| Shifting of word frequency / Illocutionary acts | Low | Mid | High | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Assertives | (82) | (46) | (41) | 73.2% (169) |
| Expressives | (7) | (15) | (8) | 13.0% (30) |
| Directives | (18) | (10) | (4) | 13.8% (32) |
| Total | 46.3% (107) | 30.7% (71) | 23.0% (53) | 100% (231) |

According to Table 28, it is found that among word frequency for illocutionary acts, SV is most frequently applied for assertives (73.2%), and far less for expressives (13.0%) and directives

(13.8%). Among assertives and directives, it is found that SVF by shifting word frequency is more of the direction shifting from high/mid frequency words to low frequency words.

### 4.3.2. SVF for Illocutionary Acts by Syntactic Devices

It is found that syntactic devices can be used to identify illocutionary acts, and, thus, can help to identify the existence of frame. The results of data analysis are presented in Table 29.

Table 29. SVF for illocutionary acts by syntactic devices

| Shifting of syntactic devices / Illocutionary Acts | Sentence complexity | Sentence completeness | Sentence patterns | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Assertives | (177) | (34) | (11) | 76.0%(222) |
| Expressives | (31) | (3) | (0) | 11.7%(34) |
| Directives | (19) | (8) | (9) | 12.3%(36) |
| Total | 77.7%(227) | 15.4%(45) | 6.9%(20) | 100%(292) |

According to Table 29, it is found that among syntactic devices for illocutionary acts, sentence complexity (77.7%) is the most prominent device, less is sentence completeness (15.4%), and even less is sentence patterns (6.9%). In addition, it is found that among syntactic devices, SV is most frequently applied for assertives (76.0%), and far less for expressives (11.7%) and directives (12.3%).

#### 4.3.2.1. SVF for Illocutionary Acts by Shifting Sentence Complexity

The results of illocutionary acts by shifting sentence complexity are presented in Table 30.

Table 30. SVF for illocutionary acts by shifting sentence complexity

| Shifting of sentence complexity / Illocutionary acts | Shifting to simple sentence | Shifting to complex sentence | | | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Embedding sentence | Coordinate sentence | Subordinate sentence | |
| Assertives | (63) | (45) | (36) | (33) | 78.0%(177) |
| Expressives | (17) | (10) | (1) | (3) | 13.6%(31) |
| Directives | (7) | (6) | (2) | (4) | 8.4%(19) |
| Total | 38.3%(87) | 26.9%(61) | 17.2%(39) | 17.6%(40) | 100%(227) |

According to Table 30, it is found that SVF by shifting sentence complexity is more of the direction shifting from simple sentences (38.3%) to complex sentences (61.7%), especially shifting to embedding sentences.

In addition, it is found that among sentence complexity for illocutionary acts, SV is most frequently applied for assertives (78.0%), less for expressives (13.6%), and even less for directives (8.4%).To signal assertives, it is found that SV shifting from simple sentences to complex sentences is largely applied.

#### 4.3.2.2. SVF for Illocutionary Acts by Shifting Sentence Completeness

The results of illocutionary acts by shifting sentence completeness are presented in Table 31.

Table 31. SVF for illocutionary acts by shifting sentence completeness

| Shifting of sentence completeness / Illocutionary acts | Shifting to fragment | Shifting to complete sentence | Total |
|---|---|---|---|
| Assertives | (11) | (23) | 75.6%(34) |
| Expressives | (2) | (1) | 6.6%(3) |
| Directives | (3) | (5) | 17.8%(8) |
| Total | 35.6%(16) | 64.4%(29) | 100%(45) |

According to Table 31, it is found that SVF by shifting sentence completeness is more of the direction shifting from fragments (35.6%) to complete sentences (64.4%).

In addition, it is found that among sentence completeness for illocutionary acts, SV is most frequently applied for assertives (75.6%), less for directives (17.8%), and even less for expressives (6.6%). To signal assertive, it is found that SV shifting from fragments to complete sentences is applied.

#### 4.3.2.3. SVF for Illocutionary Acts by Shifting Sentence Patterns

The results of illocutionary acts by shifting sentence patterns are presented in Table 32.

Table 32. SVF for illocutionary acts by shifting sentence patterns

| Shifting of sentence patterns / Illocutionary acts | Voice | | | Question form | | | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Active | Passive | total | Question with question marker | A-not-A question | total | |
| Assertives | (0) | (5) | 100% (5) | (5) | (1) | 40.0% (6) | 55.0% (11) |
| Expressives | (0) | (0) | (0) | (0) | (0) | (0) | (0) |
| Directives | (0) | (0) | (0) | (9) | (0) | 60.0% (9) | 45.0% (9) |
| Total | (0) | 100% (5) | 25.0% (5) | 93.3% (14) | 6.7% (1) | 75.0% (15) | 100% (20) |

According to Table 32, it is found that among sentence patterns for illocutionary acts, SV is most frequently applied for assertives (55%), less for directives (45.0%), and never for expressives. Among syntactic voice for illocutionary acts, SV is used to signal assertives only. Among question form, SV is mainly used to indicated directive (60.0%), and less for assertives (40.0%).

In addition, it is found that SVF by shifting syntactic voice is more of the direction shifting from active voice to passive voice. Besides, it is found that SVF by shifting question form for illocutionary acts, question with question marker (93.3%) is largely applied than A-not-A question (6.7%).

### 4.4. SVF for CP

In this section, SV for Cooperative Principles is analyzed. Submaxim of Quality: do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence and submaxim of Manner: be orderly have found no related data in this study.

#### 4.4.1. SVF for CP by Lexical Devices

It is found that lexical devices can be used to identify CP, and, thus, can help to identify the existence of frame. Table 33 presents the result of data analysis.

Table 33. SVF for CP by lexical devices

| CP \ Shifting of lexical devices | | | Semantic density | total | Word formality | total | Word frequency | total | Total | TOTAL |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Quantity | Be informative as required | + | (78) | 45.3%(120) | (58) | 41.2%(81) | (37) | 43.8%(60) | 28.8%(173) | 43.5% (261) |
| | | — | (31) | | (18) | | (14) | | 10.5%(63) | |
| | Don’t be over-informative | + | (4) | | (1) | | (3) | | 1.3%(8) | |
| | | — | (7) | | (4) | | (6) | | 2.8%(17) | |
| Quality | Do not say what you believe to be false | + | (10) | 7.2%(19) | (5) | 8.1%(16) | (5) | 7.3%(10) | 3.4%(20) | 7.5% (45) |
| | | — | (9) | | (11) | | (5) | | 4.2%(25) | |
| Relevance | Be relevant | + | (7) | 8.3%(22) | (5) | 6.5%(13) | (3) | 7.3%(10) | 2.5%(15) | 7.5% (45) |
| | | — | (15) | | (8) | | (7) | | 5.0%(30) | |
| Manner | Avoid obscurity | + | (57) | 39.2%(104) | (44) | 44.2%(88) | (26) | 41.6%(57) | 21.2%(127) | 41.5% (249) |
| | | — | (35) | | (22) | | (18) | | 12.5%(75) | |
| | Avoid ambiguity | + | (2) | | (0) | | (0) | | 0.3%(2) | |
| | | — | (0) | | (0) | | (0) | | (0) | |
| | Be brief | + | (5) | | (16) | | (11) | | 5.3%(32) | |
| | | — | (5) | | (6) | | (2) | | 2.2%(13) | |
| Total | | | 44.2% (265) | 100%(265) | 33.0% (198) | 100%(198) | 22.8% (137) | 100%(137) | 100%(600) | 100% (600) |

According to Table 33, it is found that among lexical devices for CP, SV is most frequently applied by semantic density of word (44.2%), less by word formality (33.0%), and even less by word frequency (22.8%). In other words, semantic density of word is the most prominent lexical device for CP.

Among the three lexical devices: semantic density of word, word formality, and word frequency, it is found that SV is largely used to signal Maxim of Quantity (43.5%) and Maxim of Manner (41.5%). As for Maxims of Relevance (7.5%) and Maxim of Quality (7.5%), both are being signaled significantly less often.

In addition, among the three lexical devices, SVF is applied most frequently for submaxim +Maxim of Quantity: be informative as required, less for +Maxim of Manner: avoid obscurity, and even less for －Maxim of Manner: avoid obscurity and －Maxim of Quantity: be informative as required.

#### 4.4.1.1. SVF for CP by Shifting Semantic Density of Words

The results of CP by shifting semantic density of lexical item are presented in Table 34 and Table 35.

Table 34. SVF for CP by shifting to low semantic density lexical items

| CP \ Shifting to low semantic density | | | Ellipsis | total | Pro-form | total | Pragmatic particle | total | Discourse marker | total | Total | TOTAL |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Quantity | Be informative as required | + | (2) | (5) | (1) | (17) | (5) | (16) | (1) | (5) | 8.6%(9) | 41.0% (43) |
| | | — | (3) | | (15) | | (9) | | (4) | | 29.5%(31) | |
| | Don’t be over-informative | + | (0) | | (0) | | (2) | | (0) | | 1.9%(2) | |
| | | — | (0) | | (1) | | (0) | | (0) | | 1.0%(1) | |
| Quality | Do not say what you believe to be false | + | (0) | (1) | (1) | (2) | (2) | (3) | (1) | (2) | 3.8%(4) | 7.6% (8) |
| | | — | (1) | | (1) | | (1) | | (1) | | 3.8%(4) | |
| Relevance | Be relevant | + | (1) | (1) | (0) | (1) | (2) | (2) | (1) | (2) | 3.8%(4) | 5.7% (6) |
| | | — | (0) | | (1) | | (0) | | (1) | | 1.9%(2) | |
| Manner | Avoid obscurity | + | (2) | (5) | (0) | (17) | (5) | (17) | (2) | (9) | 8.6%(9) | 45.7% (48) |
| | | — | (3) | | (17) | | (10) | | (5) | | 33.3%(35) | |
| | Avoid ambiguity | + | (0) | | (0) | | (0) | | (0) | | (0) | |
| | | — | (0) | | (0) | | (0) | | (0) | | (0) | |
| | Be brief | + | (0) | | (0) | | (0) | | (0) | | (0) | |
| | | — | (0) | | (0) | | (2) | | (2) | | 3.8%(4) | |
| Total | | | 11.4% (12) | (12) | 35.2% (37) | (37) | 36.2% (38) | (38) | 17.2% (18) | (18) | 100%(105) | 100% (105) |

According to Table 34, it is found that among features of low semantic density words for CP, pro-forms (35.2%) and pragmatic particle (36.2%) are the prominent features for SVF, less are discourse marker (17.2%) and ellipsis (11.4%).

Among features of low semantic density words, SVF is applied most frequently for submaxim －Maxim of Manner: avoid obscurity (33.3%) and －Maxim of Quantity: be informative as required (29.5%); as for the other submaxims, either one is used significantly less often.

To mark the two prominent submaxims among low density words, －Maxim of Quantity: be informative as required and －Maxim of Manner: avoid obscurity, pro-form and pragmatic particle are prominent features.

Table 35. SVF for CP by shifting to high semantic density lexical items

| CP \ Shifting to high semantic density | | | Technical term & jargon | total | Syntactic particle | total | Total | TOTAL |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Quantity | Be informative as required | + | (61) | (69) | (8) | (8) | 43.1%(69) | 48.1% (77) |
| | | — | (0) | | (0) | | (0) | |
| | Don’t be over-informative | + | (2) | | (0) | | 1.3%(2) | |
| | | — | (6) | | (0) | | 3.8%(6) | |
| Quality | Do not say what you believe to be false | + | (5) | (10) | (1) | (1) | 3.8%(6) | 6.9% (11) |
| | | — | (5) | | (0) | | 3.1%(5) | |
| Relevance | Be relevant | + | (3) | (15) | (0) | (1) | 1.9%(3) | 10.0% (16) |
| | | — | (12) | | (1) | | 8.1%(13) | |
| Manner | Avoid obscurity | + | (43) | (50) | (5) | (6) | 30.0%(48) | 35.0% (56) |
| | | — | (0) | | (0) | | (0) | |
| | Avoid ambiguity | + | (1) | | (1) | | 1.3%(2) | |
| | | — | (0) | | (0) | | (0) | |
| | Be brief | + | (5) | | (0) | | 3.1%(5) | |
| | | — | (1) | | (0) | | 0.6%(1) | |
| Total | | | 90.0% (144) | (144) | 10.0% (16) | (16) | 100%(160) | 100% (160) |

According to Table 35, it is found that among features of high semantic density words for CP, technical terms & jargons (90.0%) is the most prominent feature for SVF.

Among features of high semantic density words, SVF is applied most frequently for submaxim +Maxim of Quantity: be informative as required (43.1%), less for +Maxim of Manner: avoid obscurity (30.0%); as for the other submaxims, either one is used significantly less often.

To mark the two prominent submaxims among high density words, +Maxim of Quantity: be informative as required and +Maxim of Manner: avoid obscurity, technical term & jargon is the most frequently used feature. In addition, technical term & jargon is also an effective feature to signal －Maxim of Relevance.

**4.4.1.2. SVF for CP by Shifting Word Formality**

The results of CP by shifting formality of lexical items are presented in Table 36 and Table 37.

Table 36. SVF for CP by shifting to low formality lexical items

| CP \ Shifting to low formality | | | Ellipsis | total | Pro-form | total | Pragmatic particle | total | Discourse marker | total | Vernacular | total | Total | TOTAL |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Quantity | Be informative as required | + | (2) | (2) | (0) | (4) | (2) | (4) | (1) | (3) | (4) | (15) | 10.8%(9) | 33.7% (28) |
| | | — | (0) | | (4) | | (2) | | (2) | | (9) | | 20.5%(17) | |
| | Don't be over-informative | + | (0) | | (0) | | (0) | | (0) | | (0) | | (0) | |
| | | — | (0) | | (0) | | (0) | | (0) | | (2) | | 2.4%(2) | |
| Quality | Do not say what you believe to be false | + | (0) | (0) | (0) | (1) | (0) | (3) | (0) | (0) | (0) | (7) | (0) | 13.3% (11) |
| | | — | (0) | | (1) | | (3) | | (0) | | (7) | | 13.3%(11) | |
| Relevance | Be relevant | + | (0) | (0) | (1) | (1) | (0) | (0) | (0) | (1) | (1) | (3) | 2.4%(2) | 6.0% (5) |
| | | — | (0) | | (0) | | (0) | | (1) | | (2) | | 3.6%(3) | |
| Manner | Avoid obscurity | + | (2) | (2) | (1) | (6) | (3) | (7) | (1) | (4) | (5) | (20) | 14.5%(12) | 47.0 (39) |
| | | — | (0) | | (5) | | (3) | | (2) | | (11) | | 25.3%(21) | |
| | Avoid ambiguity | + | (0) | | (0) | | (0) | | (0) | | (0) | | (0) | |
| | | — | (0) | | (0) | | (0) | | (0) | | (0) | | (0) | |
| | Be brief | + | (0) | | (0) | | (0) | | (0) | | (0) | | (0) | |
| | | — | (0) | | (0) | | (1) | | (1) | | (4) | | 7.2%(6) | |
| Total | | | 4.8% (4) | (4) | 14.5% (12) | (12) | 16.9% (14) | (14) | 9.6% (8) | (8) | 54.2% (45) | (45) | 100%(83) | 100% (83) |

According to Table 36, it is found that among features of low formality words for CP, vernacular (54.2%) is the most prominent feature for SVF, less are pragmatic particle (16.9%) and pro-form (14.5%), even less is discourse marker (9.6%), and far less is ellipsis (4.8%).

Among features of low formality words, SVF is applied most frequently for submaxim —Maxim of Manner: avoid obscurity (25.3%) and —Maxim of Quantity: be informative as required (20.5%).

To mark the two prominent submaxims among low formality words, —Maxim of Quantity: be informative as required and —Maxim of Manner: avoid obscurity, vernacular is the most frequently used feature; as for the other features, either one is used significantly less often. In addition, vernaculars is also an effective feature to signal submaxim —Maxim of Quality: do not say what you believe to be false.

Table 37. SVF for CP by shifting to high formality lexical items

| CP \ Shifting to high formality | | | Technical term & jargon | total | Syntactic particle | total | Archaic form | total | Total | TOTAL |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Quantity | Be informative as required | + | (19) | (20) | (3) | (3) | (27) | (30) | 42.6%(49) | 46.1% (53) |
| | | — | (0) | | (0) | | (1) | | 0.9%(1) | |
| | Don’t be over-informative | + | (0) | | (0) | | (1) | | 0.9%(1) | |
| | | — | (1) | | (0) | | (1) | | 1.8%(2) | |
| Quality | Do not say what you believe to be false | + | (2) | (2) | (0) | (0) | (3) | (3) | 4.3%(5) | 4.3% (5) |
| | | — | (0) | | (0) | | (0) | | (0) | |
| Relevance | Be relevant | + | (1) | (3) | (0) | (0) | (2) | (5) | 2.6%(3) | 7.0% (8) |
| | | — | (2) | | (0) | | (3) | | 4.3%(5) | |
| Manner | Avoid obscurity | + | (14) | (16) | (2) | (2) | (16) | (31) | 27.8%(32) | 42.6% (49) |
| | | — | (0) | | (0) | | (1) | | 0.9%(1) | |
| | Avoid ambiguity | + | (0) | | (0) | | (0) | | (0) | |
| | | — | (0) | | (0) | | (0) | | (0) | |
| | Be brief | + | (2) | | (0) | | (14) | | 13.9%(16) | |
| | | — | (0) | | (0) | | (0) | | (0) | |
| Total | | | 35.7% (41) | (41) | 4.3% (5) | (5) | 60.0% (69) | (69) | 100%(115) | 100% (115) |

According to Table 37, it is found that among features of high formality words for CP, archaic form (60.0%) is the most prominent feature, less is technical terms & jargons (35.7%), and far less is syntactic particles (4.3%).

Among features of high formality words, SVF is applied most frequently for submaxim +Maxim of Quantity: be informative as required (42.6%), and less for +Maxim of Manner: avoid obscurity (27.8%).

To mark the two prominent submaxims among high formality words, +Maxim of Quantity: be informative as required and +Maxim of Manner: avoid obscurity, archaic form and technical term & jargon are effective features. Besides, archaic form is an effective feature to mark the submaxim +Manner: be brief.

#### 4.4.1.3. SVF for CP by Shifting Word Frequency

The results of CP by shifting word frequency are presented in Table 38.

Table 38. SVF for CP by shifting word frequency

| CP \ Shifting of word frequency | | | Low | total | Mid | total | High | total | Total | TOTAL |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Quantity | Be informative as required | + | (29) | (35) | (5) | (12) | (3) | (13) | 27.0% (37) | 43.8% (60) |
| | | — | (1) | | (6) | | (7) | | 10.2% (14) | |
| | Don’t be over-informative | + | (2) | | (1) | | (0) | | 2.2% (3) | |
| | | — | (3) | | (0) | | (3) | | 4.4% (6) | |
| Quality | Do not say what you believe to be false | + | (3) | (6) | (2) | (4) | (0) | (0) | 3.6% (5) | 7.3% (10) |
| | | — | (3) | | (2) | | (0) | | 3.6% (5) | |
| Relevance | Be relevant | + | (2) | (7) | (1) | (3) | (0) | (0) | 2.2% (3) | 7.3% (10) |
| | | — | (5) | | (2) | | (0) | | 5.1% (7) | |
| Manner | Avoid obscurity | + | (21) | (30) | (4) | (16) | (1) | (11) | 19.0% (26) | 41.6% (57) |
| | | — | (0) | | (9) | | (9) | | 13.1% (18) | |
| | Avoid ambiguity | + | (0) | | (0) | | (0) | | (0) | |
| | | — | (0) | | (0) | | (0) | | (0) | |
| | Be brief | + | (9) | | (2) | | (0) | | 8.0% (11) | |
| | | — | (0) | | (1) | | (1) | | 1.5% (2) | |
| Total | | | 57.0% (78) | (78) | 25.5% (35) | (35) | 17.5% (24) | (24) | 100% (137) | 100% (137) |

According to Table 38, it is found that SVF by shifting word frequency is more of the direction shifting from high (17.5%) /mid (25.5%) frequency words to low frequency words (57.0%).

In addition, among word frequency, SVF is applied most frequently for submaxim +Maxim of Quantity: be informative as required (27.0%), less for +Maxim of Manner: avoid obscurity (19.0%).

To mark the two prominent submaxims among word frequency, +Maxim of Quantity: be informative as required and +Maxim of Manner: avoid obscurity, it is found that SVF by shifting word frequency is more of the direction shifting from high/mid frequency words to low frequency words. In contrast, to mark submaxims －Maxim of Quantity: be informative as required and －Maxim of Manner: avoid obscurity, it is found that SVF by shifting word frequency is more of the direction shifting from low frequency words to mid/high frequency words. Besides, shifting to low frequency words can signal the submaxim: +Manner: be brief.

**4.4.2. SVF for CP by Syntactic Devices**

It is found that syntactic devices can be used to identify CP, and, thus, can help to identify the existence of frame. Table 39 presents the result of data analysis.

Table 39. SVF for CP by syntactic devices

| CP \ Shifting of syntactic devices | | | Sentence complexity | total | Sentence completeness | total | Sentence patterns | total | Total | TOTAL |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Quantity | Be informative as required | + | (44) | (66) | (8) | (12) | (7) | (10) | 27.3%(59) | 40.7% (88) |
| | | — | (14) | | (4) | | (1) | | 8.8%(19) | |
| | Don’t be over-informative | + | (5) | | (0) | | (1) | | 2.8%(6) | |
| | | — | (3) | | (0) | | (1) | | 1.9%(4) | |
| Quality | Do not say what you believe to be false | + | (5) | (12) | (0) | (0) | (1) | (4) | 2.8%(6) | 7.4% (16) |
| | | — | (7) | | (0) | | (3) | | 4.6%(10) | |
| Relevance | Be relevant | + | (6) | (16) | (3) | (4) | (1) | (4) | 4.6%(10) | 11.1% (24) |
| | | — | (10) | | (1) | | (3) | | 6.5%(14) | |
| Manner | Avoid obscurity | + | (29) | (62) | (6) | (18) | (5) | (8) | 18.5%(40) | 40.8% (88) |
| | | — | (18) | | (9) | | (3) | | 13.9%(30) | |
| | Avoid ambiguity | + | (0) | | (0) | | (0) | | (0) | |
| | | — | (0) | | (0) | | (0) | | (0) | |
| | Be brief | + | (11) | | (2) | | (0) | | 6.0%(13) | |
| | | — | (4) | | (1) | | (0) | | 2.3%(5) | |
| Total | | | 72.2% (156) | (156) | 15.8% (34) | (34) | 12.0% (26) | (26) | 100%(216) | 100% (216) |

According to Table 39, it is found that among syntactic devices for CP, sentence complexity (72.2%) is the most prominent device for SVF. As for the other two syntactic devices, sentence completeness (15.8%) and sentence patterns (12.0%), either one is used significantly less often.

In addition, among the three syntactic devices, it is found that SV is largely used to signal Maxim of Quantity (40.7%) and Maxim of Manner (40.8%). As for Maxims of Relevance (11.1%) and Maxim of Quality (7.4%), both are being signaled significantly less often.

Among syntactic devices, SVF is applied most frequently for submaxim +Maxim of Quantity: be informative as required (27.3%), and less for +Maxim of Manner: avoid obscurity (18.5%).

To mark the two prominent submaxims among syntactic devices, +Maxim of Quantity: be informative as required and +Maxim of Manner: avoid obscurity, sentence complexity is an effective feature.

#### 4.4.2.1. SVF for CP by Shifting Sentence Complexity

The results of CP by shifting sentence complexity are presented in Table 40.

Table 40. SVF for CP by shifting sentence complexity

| Shifting of sentence complexity / CP | | | Shifting to simple sentence | | Shifting to complex sentence | | | | Total | TOTAL |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | total | Embedding sentence | Coordinate sentence | Subordinate sentence | total | | |
| Quantity | Be informative as required | + | (12) | (22) | (8) | (14) | (10) | (44) | 28.2%(44) | 42.3% (66) |
| | | — | (5) | | (5) | (2) | (2) | | 9.0%(14) | |
| | Don't be over-informative | + | (3) | | (1) | (1) | (0) | | 3.2%(5) | |
| | | — | (2) | | (0) | (1) | (0) | | 1.9%(3) | |
| Quality | Do not say what you believe to be false | + | (1) | (4) | (2) | (0) | (2) | (8) | 3.2%(5) | 7.7% (12) |
| | | — | (3) | | (1) | (1) | (2) | | 4.5%(7) | |
| Relevance | Be relevant | + | (3) | (6) | (1) | (1) | (1) | (10) | 3.8%(6) | 10.3% (16) |
| | | — | (3) | | (3) | (1) | (3) | | 6.4%(10) | |
| Manner | Avoid obscurity | + | (10) | (24) | (5) | (6) | (8) | (38) | 18.6%(29) | 39.7% (62) |
| | | — | (8) | | (4) | (3) | (3) | | 11.5%(18) | |
| | Avoid ambiguity | + | (0) | | (0) | (0) | (0) | | (0) | |
| | | — | (0) | | (0) | (0) | (0) | | (0) | |
| | Be brief | + | (4) | | (2) | (3) | (2) | | 7.1%(11) | |
| | | — | (2) | | (1) | (1) | (0) | | 2.6%(4) | |
| Total | | | (56) | 35.9% (56) | (33) | (34) | (33) | 64.1% (100) | 100%(156) | 100% (156) |

According to Table 40, it is found that SVF by shifting sentence complexity is more of the direction shifting from simple sentences (35.9%) to complex sentences (64.1%).

In addition, among sentence complexity, SVF is applied most frequently for submaxim +Maxim of Quantity: be informative as required (28.2%), and less for +Maxim of Manner: avoid obscurity (18.6%).

To mark the two prominent submaxims among word frequency, +Maxim of Quantity: be informative as required and +Maxim of Manner: avoid obscurity, it is found that SVF by sentence complexity is more of the direction shifting from simple sentences to complex sentences.

#### 4.4.2.2. SVF for CP by Shifting Sentence Completeness

The results of CP by shifting sentence completeness are presented in Table 41.

Table 41. SVF for CP by shifting sentence completeness

| CP \ Shifting of sentence completeness | | | Shifting to fragment | total | Shifting to complete sentence | total | Total | TOTAL |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Quantity | Be informative as required | + | (2) | (5) | (6) | (7) | 23.5%(8) | 35.3% (12) |
| | | — | (3) | | (1) | | 11.8%(4) | |
| | Don’t be over-informative | + | (0) | | (0) | | (0) | |
| | | — | (0) | | (0) | | (0) | |
| Quality | Do not say what you believe to be false | + | (0) | (0) | (0) | (0) | (0) | (0) |
| | | — | (0) | | (0) | | (0) | |
| Relevance | Be relevant | + | (1) | (1) | (2) | (3) | 8.8%(3) | 11.8% (4) |
| | | — | (0) | | (1) | | 2.9%(1) | |
| Manner | Avoid obscurity | + | (1) | (6) | (5) | (12) | 17.7%(6) | 52.9% (18) |
| | | — | (5) | | (4) | | 26.5%(9) | |
| | Avoid ambiguity | + | (0) | | (0) | | (0) | |
| | | — | (0) | | (0) | | (0) | |
| | Be brief | + | (0) | | (2) | | 5.9%(2) | |
| | | — | (0) | | (1) | | 2.9%(1) | |
| Total | | | 35.3% (12) | (12) | 64.7% (22) | (22) | 100%(34) | 100% (34) |

According to Table 41, it is found that SVF by shifting sentence completeness is more frequently shifting from fragments (35.3%) to complete sentences (64.7%).

In addition, among sentence completeness, SVF is applied most frequently for submaxims －Maxim of Manner: avoid obscurity (26.5%) and +Maxim of Quantity: be informative as required (23.5%).

#### 4.4.2.3. SVF for CP by Shifting Sentence Patterns

The results of CP by shifting sentence patterns are presented in Table 42.

Table 42. SVF for CP by shifting sentence patterns

| CP \ Shifting of sentence patterns | | | Voice | | | | | Question form | | | | | Total | TOTAL |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | Active | total | Passive | total | Total | Question with question marker | total | A-not-A question | total | Total | | |
| Quantity | Be informative as required | + | (0) | (0) | (3) | (4) | (4) | (6) | (7) | (0) | (0) | (7) | (9) | 52.4% (11) |
| | | — | (0) | | (0) | | | (1) | | (0) | | | (1) | |
| | Don't be over-informative | + | (0) | | (0) | | | (0) | | (0) | | | (0) | |
| | | — | (0) | | (1) | | | (0) | | (0) | | | (1) | |
| Quality | Do not say what you believe to be false | + | (0) | (0) | (0) | (0) | (0) | (1) | (1) | (0) | (1) | (2) | (1) | 9.5% (2) |
| | | — | (0) | | (0) | | | (0) | | (1) | | | (1) | |
| Relevance | Be relevant | + | (0) | (0) | (0) | (0) | (0) | (0) | (1) | (0) | (0) | (1) | (0) | 4.8% (1) |
| | | — | (0) | | (0) | | | (1) | | (0) | | | (1) | |
| Manner | Avoid obscurity | + | (0) | (0) | (2) | (2) | (2) | (4) | (5) | (0) | (0) | (5) | (6) | 33.3% (7) |
| | | — | (0) | | (0) | | | (1) | | (0) | | | (1) | |
| | Avoid ambiguity | + | (0) | | (0) | | | (0) | | (0) | | | (0) | |
| | | — | (0) | | (0) | | | (0) | | (0) | | | (0) | |
| | Be brief | + | (0) | | (0) | | | (0) | | (0) | | | (0) | |
| | | — | (0) | | (0) | | | (0) | | (0) | | | (0) | |
| Total | | | (0) | (0) | 100% (6) | (6) | 28.6% (6) | 93.3% (14) | (14) | 6.7% (1) | (1) | 71.4% (15) | 100% (21) | 100% (21) |

According to Table 42, among features of sentence patterns, shifting of question form (71.4%) is more frequently applied than shifting of syntactic voice (28.6%).

Among sentence patterns, SVF is applied most frequently for submaxim +Maxim of Quantity: be informative as required, and less for +Maxim of Manner: avoid obscurity.

### 4.5. SV for Structure of Frame

#### 1. Hierarchical relationship among frames in discourse structure

Tannen (1993) suggests that in one speech event, there may be more than one frame intertwined or overlapped with each other. She also points out that frames have levels. Tannen's (1993) theory is confirmed in this study.

In discourse structure, it includes conversational structure and narrative structures. Narratives are embedded in conversation; event is embedded in narrative frame. In one of the data analyzed in this study, it is found that at least three narrative frames are embedded in the conversational frame. Example (45) is illustrated below.

(45)

F: ...然後文茜小妹大就是可能就是因應就是最近**全球暖化**的那個問題.然後其實...(0.5)像我說…年底啊..年底其實就是會在哥本哈根 kan-…開一個那種環保會議..然後那種環保會議其實是前幾年每年都有在召開的..然後就是在講說就是..二氧化碳排放量..就是應該要減低到多少…(0.9)然後可是因為就是富國一直不願意妥協啊..然後所以就是…(0.9)一直都沒有辦法達成共識...(0.3)然後..所以它其實也有牽涉到一些政治的議題啊..對所以可能..因為這樣文茜小妹大所以才會..才播…(0.5)然後…(0.7)陳文茜她就是他們那電視台就是去收集就是美國那邊..還有英國那邊..就是..可能是氣象局啊..或者是一些科學家他們的那個研究報告…(0.5)然後再加上中研院…(1.5)地質所…(0.5)然後還有..大氣科學…(0.6)研究方面的那個專家..他們的那個報告…(1.1)然後…(0.3)喔..地質所是那個..台大教授有個地質..地質研究所教授..叫陳文山..搞不好龍井茶認識…(0.9)對

M: (0)XXX…不知道……

M: ..像會計他們也是 X..沒有考**會計師**..他們好像也是當四年..副理經理協理也是滿賺多啊

F: …那是會計……

M: …對就是那種走路會甩一甩的..他就是..他**辯論比賽**啊

F: ..嗯

M: ..他那組就是..完全都抽籤的..然後他大概…讓自己被當..自己當組長啊……

These narratives include topics about global warming, job, and debate. SV is applied for constructions of these frames. The illustration of hierarchical relationship among frames in discourse structure is showed in Figure 2.

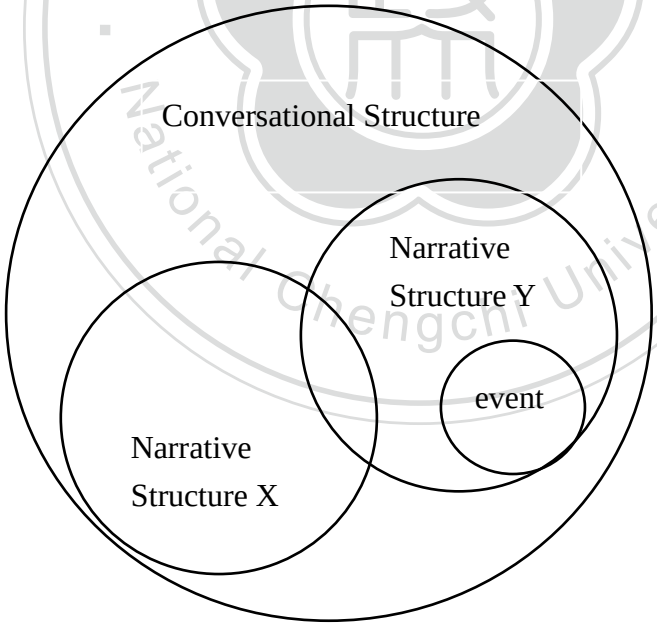


Figure 2. Hierarchical relationship among frames in discourse structure

**2. Hierarchical and horizontal structure of frames**

According to Tannen (1993), frames have levels. In the study, it is found that frames involve hierarchical and horizontal structures. Hierarchical structure of frames include subordinate denotative level, metalinguistic level, and dominant metacommunicative level. The illustration of hierarchical structure of frame is presented in Figure 3.

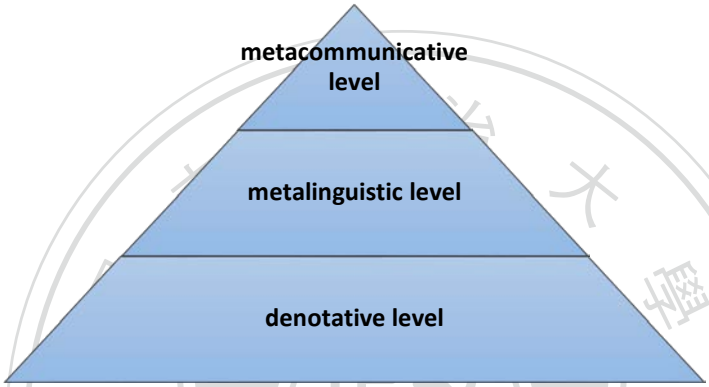


Figure 3. Hierarchical structure of frame

Example (46) illustrates using SV as linguistic device for construction of hierarchical frames.

(46)

→*ei 可是我**覺得**…(0.8)那個末日…(0.3)就是那種..末世預言那種傳說..就是**很奇怪**..他們…(0.5)這個像是這個是很有根據..可是他們那個只是好像單純預言就說是..是世界末日這樣子*

In example (46), the speaker shifts to low density and low formality colloquial forms such as "*覺得*" and "*很奇怪*." In this example, the literal meaning represents the denotative phase of frame. On metalinguistic level, it is disagreement that is the underlying purpose the speaker intends to convey. On metacommunicative level,

solidarity is concerned explains why the speaker encodes the message in a euphemistic way.

Frames also include horizontal structure. In one of the data analyzed in this study, it is found that at least three narrative frames are embedded in the conversational frame. The three narratives include topics about global warming, job, and debate.

**3. The Homonymy of frames**

In some cases, although the linguistic devices applied are the same, they serve for different functional purposes. Example (46) illustrates this point.

(47)

→*ei 可是我**覺得**…(0.8)那個末日…(0.3)就是那種..末世預言那種傳說..就是**很奇怪**..*他們…(0.5)這個像是這個是很有根據..可是他們那個只是好像單純預言就說是..是世界末日這樣子

In example (46), the speaker shifts to low formality and low density colloquial such as "*覺得*" and "*很奇怪*"which indicates evaluation of narrative structure and also implies an expressives act, displaying the homonymy of frames.

# Chapter 5

# Conclusion

## 5.1. Summary of the Major Findings

In this study, major patterns are found as below.

### 1. Linguistic strategies

In this study, it is found that frame can be identified through shifting of lexical choices based on semantic density, word formality, and word frequency, as well as through shifting of syntactic devices which include sentence complexity, sentence completeness, and sentence patterns. However, lexical devices are more functional than syntactic devices. It is purposed that SV on lexical level is using as the main linguistic device for manifestation of frame owing to lexical devices are much efficient and effective for people to manipulate and to perceive than syntactic devices.

In addition, on lexical level, it is found that change of semantic density is the most prominent lexical device for SVF, less is word formality, and even less is word frequency. In addition, on syntactic level, it is found that change of sentence complexity is the most prominent devices for SVF, less is sentence completeness, and even less is sentence patterns.

Among low semantic density words, pragmatic particle is the most prominent feature, and less are pro-form and discourse marker; among high semantic density words, the prominent feature is technical term & jargon. However, among low formality words, the most prominent feature is vernacular, and less is pragmatic

particle; among high formality word, the most prominent feature is archaic form, and less is technical term & jargon.

Among sentence complexity, shifting from simple sentence to complex sentence is the most prominent feature; among sentence completeness, shifting from fragment to complete sentence is mainly used.

**2. Discourse structure**

On discourse level in a narrative, SV is most frequently used to signal elaboration, less is evaluation. It seems that speakers tend to use SV (especially lexical shifting to low density/ low formality/ mid frequency words) to signal that they are offering subjective judgments to the contents of an event. However, when speakers elaborate their evaluation, they choose the opposite way, shifting to words of high density, high formality, low frequency, and complex sentences.

In addition, it is found that speakers tend to use SV (especially lexical shifting to high density/ high formality/ low frequency words) to signal abstract and orientation of narrative.

In conversational structure, SVF is largely used in body for topic continuity; both lexical devices and syntactic devices are prominent.

In addition, it is found that speakers tend to use SV (especially lexical shifting to high density/ high formality/ low frequency words and complex sentences) to signal topic shifting.

**3. Illocutionary acts**

Among the five types of illocutionary acts, SV is applied most frequently for assertives, less for expressives and directives, and never for commisssives and declaration.

In addition, it is found that speakers tend to use SV (especially lexical shifting to low density/ low formality) to signal expressives; and speakers tend to use SV (especially lexical shifting to high density/ low frequency) to signal directives.

**4. CP**

Among CP, SV is applied most frequently for Maxim of Quantity and Maxim of manner, especially the submaxims +Maxim of Quantity: be informative as required and +Maxim of Manner: avoid obscurity. It seems that speakers tend to use SV (especially shifting to high density/ high formality/ low frequency words and complex sentences) when dealing with the two submaxims.

**5. Embedding and hierarchical structure of frame**

The embedded relationship of frame is found in this study. In discourse structure, the overriding frame is conversational structure, while there are still narrative structures embedded in it. Also, hierarchical structure of frames, including subordinate denotative level, metalinguistic level, and dominant metacommunicative level, are verified in this study.

## 5.2 Conclusions

First of all, frame can be identified through stylistic variation. Linguistic devices applicable include lexical choices (based on semantic density, word formality, and word frequency) and syntactic selections (based on sentence complexity, sentence completeness, and sentence patterns).

Second, frame on pragmatic level—including discourse structure, illocutionary acts, and Cooperative Principle—can be manifested by stylistic variation. The distributions between linguistic choices (of both strategies and features) and selection of functional strategies for surface representation of frame can be patternized.

Last, frame does have hierarchical structure, the existence of which can be verified by stylistic variation.

## 5.3. Limitations and Suggestions

First of all, only the goals of SV are counted and categorized; the interaction between the source and the goal of SV are ignored in this study. Therefore, it is suggested that future studies analyze both sources and goals of SVF. Second, components of a conversational structure include opening, body, pre-closing, and closing; however, owing to the nature of the data adopted, only body of conversation is analyzed in this study. Therefore, it is suggested that data of complete structure of conversations should be analyzed. In addition, SVF patterns for other pragmatic principles (such as Politeness Principle), which are excluded this time, should be examined in future studies. Last, although phonological aspect is not discussed in this study, variation of phonological devices for frame is also worth investigating.

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