

## Context in Oral Communication: What would be the Pedagogic Implications?

Kamal Kumar Poudel<sup>1</sup>, Hom Prasad Acharya<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Tribhuvan University, Department of English Education, Mahendra Ratna Campus, Tahachal, Kathmandu, Nepal.

<sup>2</sup>Cornell University, Department of Asian Studies, Nepali Language Program, Ithaca, New York, United States.  
[kkpoudel2023@gmail.com](mailto:kkpoudel2023@gmail.com)

**Abstract:** *Context is one of the fundamental concepts in functional linguistics. Functional linguists consider context as a pivot to linguistic analysis as well as language teaching and learning. The present study sets out to analyze data comprised in a corpus of 8000 words derived from business-situated oral Nepali (BSON). Starting with the BSON data, the study progresses through the analysis of the data in line with the guidelines permitted by grounded theory. Three themes of analysis were explored from the data: meaning, appropriacy and function. These themes were applied as the bases for further coding and categorizing the data. The most salient data have been illustrated under five Extracts, and interpreted and discussed against the relevant literature. Consequently, it was established that natural communication occurs as a result of the interplay between linguistic forms and context of different kinds. Finally, some language-based pedagogic implications have been derived and recommended for language teaching and learning practitioners and policy makers.*

**Keywords:** *Context of situation; interlocutor; communication; business-situated oral Nepali; framework; appropriacy*

### I. Introduction

One facility in defining the notion of ‘context’ is the internal structure of the word itself: *con-text*. The prefix ‘con’ as it is used in a set of words in English is suggestive of something coming along with something else. For example, the word ‘consequence’ meaning ‘result’ or ‘effect’ can be understood in terms of ‘con’ (coming with) and ‘sequence’, that is, something that comes after another thing in a sequence. We can somehow guess the meanings of words like ‘continuity’ ‘connect’ ‘concord’ and so on by analyzing their internal structure. However, this facility may not be available all the times we need to interpret the meanings of language elements. Therefore, a broader understanding of context is necessary. According to Cutting (2008), the knowledge of what is socially and psychologically true about the interlocutors, including when and where they are communicating is equally important while accounting for context in communication. To quote her, context is “parts of meaning that can be explained by knowledge of the physical and social world, and the sociopsychological factors influencing communication, as well as the knowledge of the time and place in which the words are uttered or written” (p. 2).

In fact, it would sometimes be too simplistic to attempt to interpret the sense of words and longer units like the sentence or utterance on the basis of their form or internal structure or even independent of what is present around in what Malinowski (1923, as mentioned in Firth, 1973) calls ‘context of situation’ which is the complete account of what is present in the ‘immediate environment’. In reality, linguistic symbols, which are arbitrarily fixed, are nothing unless we create meaning out of them. On the basic level, external, physical and visible things present in the environment in which a text (oral or written) exists create the

---

<sup>1</sup> Poudel, the principal author, Associate Professor in English Education

<sup>2</sup> Acharya, the corresponding author, Lecturer in the Nepali language

context for the text. Yet, the immediate environment is not the only thing that always scaffolds the understanding of meaning. Language displaces such context present in the outside and connects things together as a function of the human brain. Different kinds of connection constitute context which in turn contributes to the meaning of what is said. Therefore, context is a kind of inner-outer interaction or a cognitive process (Gold, 2016) causing communication between interlocutors.

Like meaning, the appropriacy aspect of language is also highly dependent on context. Linguists argue that language needs to be correct as well as appropriate in terms of the topic, participants and the subject of speaking (Halliday, 1989). If these constructs are neglected by the speaker, his/her intention may either fail to hit the target at all or may do so in a wrong way. As a result, miscommunication is very likely to happen. For example, as a rule of thumb, it will be appropriate for the teacher to command or directly ask a question to the student(s) but the reverse is not generally true. Normally, a professor does not speak in his/her family in the way he/she speaks in the college or university classroom.

Context also shapes the way the speaker intends to express his/her purpose of speaking, that is, the communicative function of language. For instance, a single form can have multiple interpretations depending on such factors as who the speaker and the hearer are; where, why, when and about what they are speaking and so on. For example, the form “Do you know where the nearest ATM is?” can have multiple interpretations, of which a few may be a *request* such as a stranger to a local inhabitant in a city, *asking/testing* such as a teacher to his/her students, *irritation* such as a father to his child insisting on money to buy a ball instantly and on the spot late in the evening, and so on.

With data taken from business-situated oral Nepali (BSON), we examine how context determines the way people interact while transacting in business in its real communicative settings. Finally, on the basis of the findings, we will draw and recommend some implications for language pedagogy.

## II. Literature Review

The role of context in communication is found to have been recognized by scholars and researchers since 1923, when Malinowski talked about ‘context of situation’ (as mentioned in Firth, 1973). Henceforth, scholars and researchers in language and social sciences have devoted much thought and research to the nature and study of context. For our convenience of presentation we pull together such thoughts and studies under two headings: context as a socio-physical process and context as a cognitive process. Then, as an implication of the review, we briefly examine the role of context in oral communication from the functional perspective.

### 2.1 Context as a socio-physical process

Scholars and researchers in this camp advocate that context is external to the speaker. Visible objects and things (including the interlocutors) and invisible phenomena and ideas (including culture and social norms/rules of speaking) create a forum for context. A few frameworks have been proposed under this alignment. The principal ones are highlighted in this review.

As has already been stated, the reference of context was first instigated by Malinowski (1923) who introduced context and explained what constitutes it. He presented the following framework of categories:

A. The relevant features of participants: persons, personalities,

- The verbal action of the participants,
- The non-verbal action of the participants,

B. The relevant objects,

C. The effect of the verbal action.(Firth, 1973)

This framework reveals that the speaker-hearer's role-relationships including their personalities are the key to the construction of 'context of situation'. In other words, 'context of situation' determines the reason for, the content of and the way of the participants' speaking, plus their non-verbal behavior. Besides, what is present in the immediate environment and what effect(s) the speaking has on the hearer are also important aspects of the 'context of situation'.

According to Halliday (1989), Malinowski's framework was too narrow to be used as a general linguistic theory chiefly because it was based on certain events he observed about the Kiriwinian language spoken by the Trobriland Islanders in the South Pacific. As Halliday points out, Malinowski distinguished between the immediate situation and the functional or creative situation. He notes that the immediate situation exists with highly pragmatic texts whereas the functional or creative situation occurs when the situation does not so directly relate itself to the pragmatic existence of the text. An example of the latter kind would be the narration of a story in which the situation usually gets created by the text itself.

Firth, who worked with Malinowski, was not very satisfied with Malinowski's framework. Later, he amended it and proposed a slightly different framework (Halliday, 1989, p. 6). The framework is presented below<sup>3</sup>:

- The PARTICIPANTS in the situation: what Firth referred to as person and personalities, corresponding more or less to what sociolinguists would regard as the statuses and the roles of the participants;
- The ACTION of the participants: what they are doing, including both their VERBAL ACTION AND THEIR NON-VERBAL ACTION;
- OTHER RELEVANT FEATURES OF THE SITUATION: the surrounding objects and events, in so far as they have some bearing on what is going on;
- The EFFECTS of the verbal action: what changes were brought about by what the participants in the situation had to say.

If we compare Firth's framework with Malinowski's, it stands out that although Firth's framework fundamentally builds on Malinowski's, Firth's is broader than Malinowski's. In 1962, Hymes proposed a framework popularly called the 'ethnography of speaking' which was later called the 'ethnography of communication'. This framework is very close to the idea that context is a social process. As this framework assumes, human society consists of related linguistic patterns and behaviors. The 'ethnography of speaking' comprises the following components (adapted from Holmes, 2008, pp. 365-366):

- *Genre* or type of events: e. g. phone call, conversation, business meeting, interview, etc.
- *Topic* or what people are talking about: e. g. holidays, sport, politics, etc.
- *Purpose* or function: the reason(s) for the talk, e. g. to plan an event, to persuade someone to help you, etc.
- *Setting*: where the talk takes place: e. g. at home, in the classroom, in an office, etc.
- *Key* or emotional tone, e. g. serious, jocular, sarcastic, etc.

---

<sup>3</sup> The capitals are the original emphasis

- *Participants*: characteristics of those present and their relationships: sex, age, social status, role and role relationship, e. g. mother-daughter, teacher-pupil, etc.
- *Message form*, code and/or channel, e. g. telephone, letter, email, non-verbal message, etc.
- *Message content* or specific details of what the communication is about, e. g. organizing a time for a football match, describing how a tap works, etc.
- *Act sequence* or ordering of speech acts: e. g. greetings, meeting turn-taking rules, etc.
- *Rules for interaction* or prescribed orders of speaking, e. g. who must speak first, who does a business meeting, etc.
- *Norms for interpretation* of what is going on: the common knowledge and shared understandings of the relevant cultural presuppositions: what we need to know to interpret what is going on, e. g. 'how are you?' does not require a detailed response in English-speaking societies.

As this framework stands out, the rules of speaking may differ from culture to culture, and should be properly taken into account as the components of context while analyzing conversations *in situ*.

Halliday (1989), defines 'context of situation' as "the context in which the text unfolds" (p. 10), and proposes his own conceptual framework which, as he claims, "serves to interpret the social context of a text, the environment in which meanings are being exchanged". He organizes his framework under three headings: FIELD, TENOR and MODE.

- The FIELD OF DISCOURSE refers to what is happening, to the the nature of the social action that is taking place, what is it that the participants are engaged in, in which the language figures as some essential component?
- The TENOR OF DISCOURSE accounts for who is taking part, the nature of the participants, the participants' statuses and roles which may be permanent and temporary relationships of one kind or another, both types of speech role that they are taking on in the dialogue and the whole cluster of socially significant relationships in which they are involved.
- The MODE OF DISCOURSE refers to what part the language is playing, what it is that the participants are expecting to do for them in the situation: the symbolic organization of the text, the status that it has, and its function in the context, including the channel (is it spoken or written or some combination of the two?), and also the rhetorical mode, what is being achieved by the text in terms of such categories as persuasive, expository, didactic, and the like.

As it stands out, Halliday's framework seems to be very specific and the most comprehensive of the those which are reviewed in this article, perhaps, the most operative one for a researcher analyzing field-based oral linguistic data although at the same time it is intentionally eclectic in an attempt to overcome the drawbacks inherited by the previous ones.

## 2.2 Context as a cognitive process

A fundamentally different framework explaining context is provided by Gold (2016). His framework is a cognitive one, rather than social. As he observes, context is something we "feel"□something constructed when the speaker's inside and outside worlds interact with each other. Differently, he characterizes context in terms of the functioning of the human brain as it responds to the stimuli present in the immediate environment (pragmatic cues and clues). As he believes, the primary function of the brain is to form different kinds of connection. He

argues that it is impossible to live without making such connections. He also believes that it is the brain's "wish" that we connect things whereby the connections are facilitated by the "paths" and "joins", like the webs in a cobweb, dwelling in the brain with the effect that memory is activated. This is why, an event occurring in the past gets connected with the one occurring at present and, in turn, in the future. This is how associations construct context.

### **2.3 The role of context in oral communication: the functional perspective**

While analyzing linguistic data from the functional perspective, the role of context appears paramount. As Halliday (1989, p. 45) views, "All use of language has a context". Likewise, in Hasan's (2009) view, context prepares an interface between linguistic form and semantics (the meaning aspect). It is commonly noticeable that in the spoken discourse, meanings of utterances as well as their appropriacy of function considerably depend on the context they are used in. Similarly, in the actual context of communication it is common to observe that the communicative function of a linguistic form is largely determined by contextual variables such as the supra-segmental features (tone, pitch etc.), the body language, and many other pragmatic and discourse characteristics. Therefore, it would not be otherwise to argue that, as Gold (2016) does, avoiding context from content is what a reductionist does, and doing this leads detrimentally to either a partial interpretation or a total misinterpretation. With this argument in mind, the key contextual features have been profoundly considered while analyzing the data in the present study.

## **III. Methodology**

This section devotes itself to the *what*, *how*, and *why* aspects of the present study, chiefly highlighting the underpinning paradigm, philosophy and approach, the research design, the data collection methods, and the methods of data analysis.

### **3.1 Underpinning paradigm, philosophy and approach**

The study is based on the interpretivist worldview which is based on the ontological assumption that "social reality is seen by multiple people and these multiple people interpret events differently leaving multiple perspectives of an incident" (Mack, 2010). The pragmatist philosophy, which this study underpins, assumes that meaning comes from actions applied to solving problems by people (human beings) who are naturally active and creative (Charmaz, 2006). Similarly, the study basically aligns with the qualitative approach to inquiry and analysis in which "the presence of the researcher will be influential in what the data looks like and the way it is interpreted" (Holliday, 2015, p. 49). During data collection and analysis, the subjective realities were verified and interpreted in line with different dynamics of context in oral communication, and thus, made objectively trustworthy.

### **3.2 Research design: grounded theory**

The study mostly derives from the characteristics of grounded theory. In this study, grounded theory is conceived as "a method of conducting qualitative research that focuses on creating ... theories through building inductive analysis. Hence the analytic categories are directly 'grounded' in the data", and in which "The method favors analysis over description, fresh categories over preconceived ideas and extant theories..." (Carmaz, 2006, p. 187). In harmony with the core essence of the grounded theory method, the research process began with the data collection process.

### 3.3 Methods of data collection

The data were gathered from three business ‘sites’ – Ilam, Dharan and Kathmandu – and 12 ‘hubs’ located within the ‘sites’. Using a recording device, a field-based corpus of 8000 words of the Nepali language used for oral business transactions was recorded during the actual business transactions. In each case, an informed consent was received from the interlocutors either in advance or as a post-recording requirement. Because this was a microstudy piloted for another mega research project to be conducted by the researcher (principal author) himself, data saturation (as a preliminary glance) was considered more significant than the sample and population to be included.

The researchers, as the data collectors, carried out their job in two modes: direct and indirect. In some cases, records were made *indirectly* whereby even the seller did not know that he/she was being observed/recorded. In some other instances, the data were collected *directly* whereupon the researcher(s) either acted or carried his role as a customer. Considering the ethicality of research, consent was obtained in advance or after the process. Hence, attempts were made to minimize the ‘observer’s paradox’ (Labov, 1972).

### 2.4 Methods of data analysis

The analysis process followed the application of three types of coding: initial, axial and focused (Charmaz, 2006). Thus, no theoretical or conceptual lenses were applied up to this phase, and the literature review was ‘delayed’ (although, as the general convention, it precedes the ‘Results and discussion’ section in the article).

Three types of coding were applied to the analysis process: initial, axial and focused (Charmaz, 2006). The word-by-word, line-by-line, and incident-to-incident strategies were initially applied. Consequently, three categories were explored from the data – meaning, appropriacy and function – each in close relationships with context. Each was further categorized and discussed in line with the most outstanding illustration(s) derived from the data. Thus, no theoretical or conceptual lenses were applied up to this phase. The literature review was ‘delayed’ to be a post-analysis process and was used to interpret and discuss the data.

In this article, either the entire conversations or their parts have been presented as the instances of each of the categories mentioned above, so that the category would be illuminated in context. Thus, the conversation analysis has been guided by the commonly articulated principle of “separating wheat from chaff”. For achieving this end, some notational conventions were developed and used.

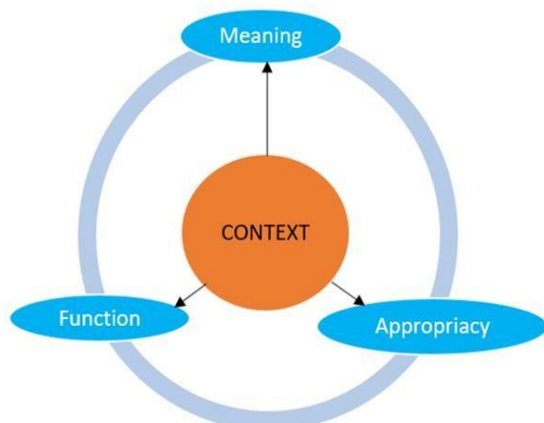
Transcribing the data was not the central objective of the data analysis task. Nonetheless, a precise interpretation of the data necessitated transcribing certain features of them. Therefore, the open – not closed – type of notational conventions (Jenks, 2011) was developed and applied to the presentation of the data to ensure the preservation of the context of context. Table 1 displays the conventions used to represent the variables.

**Table 1.** Notational symbols used for data presentation

Contextual variable	Symbol/example
□ Only action is now taking place as a result of what had verbally taken place previously	{statement of what is happening}
□ English word(s) elided in their nearNepali[word/s] translation	
□ Researcher's clarification of word/phrase meaning and grammatical features in the Extract	(word/phrase meaning)
□ Pauses	..(0.3), i.e. a pause of 3 seconds (short) ... (5.0) i.e. a pause of 5 minutes(long)
□ Word(s) truncation	[. w/ws (3)] i.e.one or three words truncated
□ Sentence(s) truncation	[..s/ss (2) ] i.e. one or two sentences truncated
□ Automatic sense inference from co-text	[auto sense:]
□ Laughter	hahaha!
□ Linguistic-cultural note (alongside the Extract)	((note))
□ Key exponent(s) in the Extract	(10, (2), (3), etc.
□ Meaning defined as footnote	Footnote 1, 2, 3 etc.
□ Speaker indication	S (seller), B(buyer)

## IV. Results and Discussion

Three context-dependent categories grounding in the BSON data were explored: meaning, appropriacy and function (Figure 1). In other words, context was identified as the source of these three categories. This section is devoted to bringing these categories into light and making sense out of the data by applying, as lenses, the relevant literatures.



**Figure 1.** Context as the source of meaning, appropriacy and function

### 4.1 Context as the source of meaning

It was observed in the BSON data that both lexis (words) and utterances are animated with their meanings by context. The relationships of context with lexical meaning and utterance meaning are separately highlighted below.

#### A. Context and lexical meaning

Meaning is the image formed in the language user's mind as a result of language itself as a symbolic system. Most often, it is transferred from the speaker to the hearer during communication. Generally, words and utterances have a reserved meaning, that is, the most generally predictable image that a word or utterance produces as we encounter it. Such reserved meaning is superficially predictable by the speakers of a language within a test frame like "... means ..." However, as the BSON data indicate, the reserved meaning is sometimes modified into a secondary meaning in context. Let us examine the phenomenon from our data (Extract 1).

#### Extract 1

Specific context: On the buyer's (B's) query, the seller (S) describes the features of the butter she has for sale at the Road Festival in Dharan. [..s (1)]

S: *This*..(0.2) 750. (1)

B: Does [it] remain the same [amount] after the *clarification*? (2)

S: [It] Remains the same [amount]. [It] Becomes clear. Dregs do not form.  
[..s (1)]

Source: Field record, 2018

The meaning of *This* (1) would not stand out from the deixis itself as a linguistic form. It could be anything that can be seen in the immediate context—a sack of rice, a jeans and so on that is on sale. Yet, S and B know what *This* refers to here because of its presence in the



‘immediate environment’. As the text progresses, the meaning of the deixis becomes somehow clearer because it comes in the linguistic context (co-text) constructed by the presence of other linguistic clues such as ‘clear’ and ‘dregs’ in the last line.

To our interest, Extract 1 also illustrates the context-constructed meaning of the word *clarification* (2). As defined by Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary, the first meaning of this linguistic form is ‘making something clearer or easier to understand’ (Clarify, 2010, p. 266). However, the meaning of this form, here, is far from the prioritized dictionary meaning. Rather, the image that the form renders in the co-text is ‘the process of making butter clearer by heating’. Thus, in this context (co-text) the closer synonym of *clarification* would be *purification*. Now the penny drops further: the deixis *This* (1) refers to *butter* in this context. These examples allow arguing that the dictionary attempts to define meaning but context pragmatically exists as the source of meaning in actual communication.

## B. Context and utterance meaning

Generally, the sentence and the utterance are synonymously used. However, Sthapit (2000) distinguishes between the sentence and the utterance as units having different shades of meaning. According to him, sentence meaning is what the sentence in isolation conveys as the language code but utterance meaning, in addition, includes shades of meaning such as information about the speaker’s personality, information about his/her mental or emotional state of being and information about his/her beliefs and attitudes. Thus, utterance meaning includes the speaker’s meaning. Let us observe the data in Extract 2.

### Extract 2

Specific context: Having taken a bus ticket for 225 rupees, a passenger, B, pays with a 500 rupees note. S has no change to return B the remaining sum. [...ss (3)]

S: Now [...w], what shall [I] do? I don’t have. [Please] Give [auto sense: the exact fare]. B: [...s] *Give the money here* (1). *Having brought oranges, I will bring for you* (2).  
[...s]

Source: Field record, 2018

In isolation, or as the sentence meaning, S is the giver of the money (1) and recipient of the oranges (2) and, in return, B is the recipient of the money (1) and giver of the oranges (2). One might rationally guess that S is some sort of disabled and is humbly requesting B to give something to him. However, the story in the backdrop of the actual setting of communication is just reverse: S is the recipient of the money and B is the recipient of the oranges! In fact, S is a clerk at a bus ticket counter and B is a ticket buyer. Having bought a ticket for 225 rupees, B gives S a 500-rupee note. S does not have the necessary change to return to B. So, S expresses his obligation. Finally, B decides that he will buy some oranges so that he can give S the exact fare! Here, the meaning is just reverse because the linguistic clues used for invigorating the actual meaning of the utterances (1 and 2) have been truncated from the text. What this suggests is that the entire sentence, too (not only words) anticipates semantic vigor from context (co-text in Extract 2) to be an utterance.

## 4.2 Context as the source of appropriacy

Functional linguists emphasize the role of communicative appropriacy over grammatical accuracy. That is to say, linguistic forms which are grammatically correct may not always be appropriate for all communicative contexts. This suggestion is further consolidated by the BSON data. Let us consider Extract 3.

### Extract 3

Specific context: A familiar B calls at S's to get a packet of the thicker-than-usual milk. B and S talk and transact.

B: Give me *a milk* [please] (1). The green *one* (2) if there is.

S: *The green one* (3)? Yes, *today* [auto sense: we have](4).

{S gives the packet of milk. B pays and sets out. }

(Source: Adapted from Poudel, 2017)

If we analyze the language used in Extract 3 from the grammatical perspective, we might explore a number of errors. The most noticeable cases in point are grammatical number (1, 2 and 3) ('milk' is an uncountable noun), and fragmentedness, i.e. verblessness (4). Moreover, the text is also semantically erroneous (2) (no milk is green!). Despite these 'errors', the business transaction is naturally taking place in the pragmatics of communication since both of the interlocutors share the common background knowledge that the thicker-than-usual milk is packed in a green packet and that it is customary (cultural) to call it 'green milk'. In this situation, the so-called grammatically (and also semantically) 'incorrect' forms are very appropriately applied as the 'rules of speaking' (in Hymes' sense as mentioned in Holmes, 2008) to oral communication against the grammarian's prescriptions. This indicates that contextual appropriacy is a closer companion to the actual oral communication than formal, prescribed rules of grammar and semantics. The BSON data also reveal substantial examples showing that the role-relationships between interlocutors is a significant factor shaping language use in oral communication, particularly determining who should or should not say something to whom. Extract 4 exemplifies this phenomenon.

### Extract 4

Specific context: A bus conductor (C) strongly regulates the helper's (H) hard (rude?) dealing with the potential passengers seeking to go from Dharan to Kakadbhitta.

H: (→ Driver/D): O, *brother!* Let's not put<sup>1</sup> [them], not put (1).

D: *They always go* (2).

H: No, you know, one should obey what is told! C: *Oi- oi! Stop* (3). *You need not speak, oi* (4)! *Oi, listen here* (5).

C (→ Passengers): Where up to?

(Source: Field record, 2018)

Extract 4 illustrates that H is rather strict about not letting the passengers get on the bus but D and C seem quite liberal in this regard (2). When H insists on his point, C directly makes him shut up (2, 3 and 4). In addition to the choice of the non-honorific verb forms (3, 4 and 5) the vocative 'Oi' seemingly indicates that C is the superordinate and H is the subordinate. For this reason, here, C is permitted to use such so-perceived 'disrespectful' language forms to regulate H but not vice-versa. This superordinate-subordinate notion is marked as different degrees of (non)honorifics chiefly through the forms of verbs, pronouns, vocatives and kin terms (1) and is a key consideration while analyzing the Nepali language—both oral and written MODEs (Halliday, 1989). Besides, this tendency is closely consistent with Halliday's notion of TENOR.

### 4.3 Context as the source of communicative function

Functional linguistic theory maintains that language enables the speaker to bring out some kind of purpose stemming out of his/her mind. By a communicative function we mean the purpose for which the speaker (or language user) uses the language. Most simply, a

communicative function is “what we use language for” (Finch, 2003, p. 21), that is, the ‘whyaspect’ of language. To name a few, asking, requesting, offering, inviting, and prompting are communicative functions of language. Such functions manifest themselves in the form of language forms—the ‘with what-aspect’. For example, asking and prompting are often (but not always) associated with the interrogative and imperative forms respectively.

Context highly determines what form to use to convey a given function in a given communicative situation. Of course, at the first look, no speaker of any language may regard ‘*I will kill you, if not*’ as a friendly remark. However, as in the context of Extract 5 derived from the BSON data, this utterance may also convey a functional appeal of warm affection.

#### Extract 5

Specific context: B and S, both young ladies and intimate friends, talk at a fancy store which has just recently been started at Ilam Chowk Bajar.

B ((Hugging expressively with S)): How nice you have done! It has done nice to us, too. Feeling very happy. Best wishes!.. (0.2).The place also seems very good for business- [it] seems selling occurs well.

S: [It] seems so, now just started [you know]. I finally decided this. It was so boring staying and yawning at home- no work also (1). Nor could be seen any money [staying at home unemployed] (2). Let's see, you are with me.

B: Sure. Count on me. Why go elsewhere now [for shopping]? Feeling happy, friend!

S: Oh, by the way, do come tomorrow. There is an opening party- just sweet and tea, hahaha! (3). At three.

B: Tomorrow at three o'clock. What? Ummm.. (0.3) (4).

S: What ummm?! *I'll kill you* [auto sense: if you don't come] (5), you know!

B: Well, well, I will.

(Source: Field record, 2018)

As a matter of fact, S and B had been very close classmates at the local college a couple of years before. B has passed a Government service job and goes to office but S has been getting bored with unemployment (1 and 2) and so, she has started the fancy store now. On this occasion, S invites B to attend a ‘sweet-and-tea’ party she is having the next day (3) but B hesitates (4). S responds with a very hard sounding ‘*I'll kill you*’ (5) as an emphatic compeller used among intimates in the Nepalese linguistic culture. Quite incredibly, the form conveys love and affection, not a threat, in this context of invitation. Needless to mention, Halliday’s (1989) concept of TENOR, which accounts for the role-relationships between interlocutors, serves as the correct lens for the interpretation of this text, too.

Now we conclude the section. As signaled earlier, the data and their discussions are limited because the data were collected as part (pilot study) of a mega project. The Extracts are, therefore, simply representative—only a few outstanding examples. As a future direction, some richer data are likely to embrace more categories requiring further treatments which might display a different picture of the result.

## V. Conclusion

This section is conceived as possessing two components: concluding remarks and pedagogic implications. So, in the present study, three dimensions of language analysis grounded in the BSON data were explored: meaning, appropriacy and function.

As the BSON data elucidate, linguistic symbols and context continually co-exist and closely collaborate with each other to carry out meaning (at both lexis and utterance levels), appropriacy and function. Differently stated, the realities grounded in the actual oral communication can not be fully understood and analyzed on the basis of the linguistic symbols alone, which are merely tools constituting the skeleton (structure) of the given language. The tools or skeleton themselves function properly only when they are put into the actual context of practice: context is the force that drives them into action. Therefore, for the fullest understanding of the natural oral communicative use of language, the analysis should locate *in situ* which, in addition to language structure, essentially involves the socio-physical as well as cognitive context of the language use grounded in the field.

## References

- Charmaz, K. (2006). *Constructing grounded theory*. London: Sage Publications.
- Clarify. (2010). In *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary* (p. 266). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Cutting, J. (2008). *Pragmatics and discourse* (2nd ed.). New York: Routledge.
- Finch, G. (2003). *How to study linguistics* (2nd ed.). New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Firth, J. R. (1973). Personality and language in society. In *The Edinburgh course in applied linguistics: Readings for applied linguistics* (Vol. 1, pp. 15-21). London: Oxford University Press.
- Gold, L. G. (2016). The cobweb of context. *Pragmatics & Cognition* 23:3, 23(3), 376–389. doi: doi 10.1075/pc.23.3.03gol
- Halliday, M. A. (1989). Context of situation. In M. A. Halliday, & R. Hasan, *Language, context and text: aspects of language in a social-semiotic perspective* (pp. 3-12). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Hasan, R. (2009). The place of context in a systemic functional model. In M. A. Halliday, & J. J. Webster (Eds.), *Continuum companion to systemic functional linguistics* (pp. 166-189). New York: Continuum Companion Publishing Group.
- Holliday, A. (2015). Qualitative research and analysis. In B. Paltridge, & A. Phakiti (Eds.), *Research methods in applied linguistics* (pp. 49-62). London: Bloomsbury Academic.
- Jenks, C. J. (2011). *Transcribing Talk and Interaction*. Amsterdam : John Benjamins Publishing Company .
- Labov, W. (1972). Some principles of linguistic methodology. *Language in Society*, 1(1), 97-120.
- Mack, L. (2010). The philosophical underpinnings of educational research. *Polyglossia*, 19, 5-11. Retrieved from <https://www.academia.edu/31608830/>
- Poudel, K. K. (2017). The metapedagogic function of language: Language for language teaching (Cases from the Nepalese context). *Research in Pedagogy*, 7(2), 239-253. doi:DOI: 10.17810/2015.62
- Sthapit, S. K. (2000). Distinctions in meaning. *Nepalese Linguistics*, 17, 91-98.