

Exclusive and Inclusive Uses of Persian First Person Plural: Science vs. Art

Sara Mohammadi Dehcheshmeh (Corresponding author)

English Department, Khorasgan (Isfahan) Branch

Islamic Azad University, Isfahan, Iran

E-mail: sara2009m@gmail.com

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Abstract

The present study has been designed to investigate the exclusive and inclusive uses of deixis 'ma' in artistic and scientific texts. It intends to indicate the communicative role of this pronoun, i.e., the way in which it is applied by authors to communicate with their readers. The analysis is based on qualitative and quantitative perspectives by using a Persian monolingual corpus. In the present study, 35 random scientific texts and 35 random artistic texts were chosen for the analysis. In this corpus, all first person plural pronouns were analyzed based on the functions they perform in their contexts. The results show that exclusive and inclusive 'ma' is used more frequently in scientific texts than in artistic texts inasmuch as there is neither inclusive nor exclusive 'ma' in artistic texts. This indicates authors' power to communicate with their readers strongly in scientific texts.

Keywords: Deixis, Discourse, Inclusive, Exclusive, Corpus, Monolingual corpus

1. Introduction

In the world of technology, new areas of research have been appeared due to the advent of computerized version of every branch of science such as computational biology, computational musicology, computational archaeology, and the like. Computational study of the relation between utterances and context is termed as computational pragmatics (Jurafsky, 2006). “Computational pragmatics is concerned with indexicality, the relation between utterances and action, the relation between utterances and discourse, and the relationship between utterances and the place, time, and environmental context of their being uttered” (Jurafsky, 2006, p.578).

Since natural language is a main part of our lives and a tool to communicate and record information, computer systems are able to generate and interpret a natural language. Computational linguistics is divided into two parts: language analysis and language generation. Natural language systems can analyze and generate a language. Language analysis is divided into two parts: sentence analysis and discourse and dialog structure. The analysis of discourse structure is the analysis of the meaning of individual sentences but sentence analysis specifies what a sentence means (Grishman, 1986).

Computers can collect textual data (books, journals, newspapers) and can make it easier for researchers to access computer-stored data. Recently, researchers can perform their research easily and quickly with the help of electronic corpora. Corpus linguistics can show what is or is not present in the corpus. This new system in linguistics is used to gain correct data and to evaluate them in different languages. In the present study, a monolingual corpus is utilized to study exclusive and inclusive uses of personal deixis ‘ma’ in Persian. Here, technology helps the researcher to achieve more precise results.

2. Related Work

According to Scheibman research, inclusive and exclusive patterning of the English first person plural has been investigated. She concluded that considerations of inclusive and exclusive first person plural markers are implemented in two broad areas of language study: “1) typological examinations of personal pronoun systems, and 2) analyses of the social and rhetorical uses of ‘we’ in diverse spoken and written discourse genres” (Scheibman, 2004 , p.394).

Fontaine (2006) studied linguistic inclusion and exclusion in a virtual community. She concluded that intercultural discourse contrasts its own culture. Her research aimed to explore of the group’s uses of ‘we’ given its complicated composition.

Adetunji (2006) considered inclusion and exclusion in political discourse. He utilized two thematically and contextually diverse speeches of Nigeria president Olusegun Obasanjo and indicated how politicians can associate with and disassociate from actions taken by them or their officers at diverse times. He concluded by locating some of the antics of political leaders to conscript their subjects into accepting their views on controversial issues or positions.

Rawal (2008) investigated social inclusion and exclusion. This concept which had first emerged in Europe as a response to the crisis of the welfare state has now obtained noticeable currency over the last five years in both official and development discourses in Nepal. He came to this conclusion that social exclusion/inclusion is debatable term. In addition, given the diversities in Nepal, with its own social, cultural, historical realities, the concept requires more consideration, and it needs to demonstrate the realities of Nepal going beyond popular discourse and emotive appeal for a part of the population.

Harwood (2005) considered inclusive and exclusive pronouns in academic writing. His quantitative analysis indicated that all instances of 'we' are inclusive in the Business and Management articles, while one of the instances of 'we' is inclusive in the Economic articles and a third of the instances and fewer than 10 percent of the instances are inclusive in the Computing articles and the Physics articles respectively. He concluded that inclusive pronouns can be applied as positive politeness devices by delineate and/or critiquing common disciplinary practices, and explaining debates on behalf of the community. Inclusive pronouns can organize a text and advertise the writer's pretensions and data from the start, as well as draw the structure of an article for the readers.

Romaine (1992) studied the inclusive and exclusive distinction in Tok Pisin. She came to this conclusion that the reference of 'yumi' (we) is now unclear in certain areas of Papua New Guinea where people speak Tok Pisin if communication contains urban and rural speakers. There are diversities of Tok Pisin spoken in Erima and other rural areas dividing up the same semantic space differently from urban areas such as Lae.

Lapolla (2005) considered the inclusive-exclusive distinction in Tibeto-Burman languages. His survey of 170 Tibeto-Burman languages indicated 69 with a distinction between inclusive and exclusive first-person plural pronouns and 18 of which indicate inclusive-exclusive in 1 dual. He concluded that only the Kiranti languages and some Chin languages contain inclusive-exclusive in person marking. Among the forms of the pronouns, the exclusive form is considered as a less marked form and is created prior to the inclusive form. In the Kiranti group, there is the marking of distinction that can reconstruct Kiranti to the proto level and this is indicated in the person-marking system.

Bickel and Nichols (2005) investigated inclusive-exclusive as person vs. number categories worldwide. They utilized a balanced sample of 293 languages and suggested a new classification of kinds of inclusive-exclusive oppositions. This classification was based on how the inclusive-exclusive opposition was worked in person-number categories, and they traced their geography and likely history. They came to this conclusion that inclusive-exclusive oppositions in the large Circum-Pacific linguistic area are more frequent than the ones in the south. They believed that the early population movement around Pacific and likely changes from type to type of inclusive-exclusive systems can be salutary to explain this worldwide geographical distribution.

Cysouw (2005) considered the possibility of using clusivity in honorific contexts. He believed that many languages contain pronouns which are applied with specific meanings in honorific contexts. Using a plural pronoun indicates respect. He utilized different sets of

examples that were taken from languages throughout the world. He concluded that there are many various honorific contexts in which an inclusive or exclusive pronoun can be utilized. According to Cysouw research, using an inclusive pronoun with a polite connotation, which is regarded as the most common variant, indicates a social distance.

3. What is Corpus?

The term ‘corpus’ derived from the Latin word *corpus* meaning body indicates two different descendants in modern English: corpse (it is derived from Old French cors) and corps (it is derived from Modern French corps) (Dash, 2007). In the thirteenth century, the term corpse entered into English in the form of cors and in the fourteenth century, original Latin ‘p’ was reinserted into the word. In the thirteenth century, it meant ‘body’, while by the end of fourteenth century, it meant ‘dead body’ (Ayto, 1990). Corpus, as a systematic text collection (which includes both written and spoken language), contains different types of texts which belong to a certain time frame. Systematic refers to extralinguistic principles which are followed by the structure and content of the corpus (Nesselhauf, 2005).

4. Corpus Typology

Various kinds of analyses can be performed by many types of corpora (Kennedy, 1998, cited in Nesselhauf, 2005). According to Nesselhauf (2005) and Hunston (2006), some examples of corpus types are as follows:

- General/ reference corpora (vs. specialized corpora)

The aim of general corpora is to represent a language or variety including both spoken and written language and various types of texts (e.g. BNC = British National Corpus, or Bank of English) (Nesselhauf, 2005). On the other hand, general corpora indicate a special language or variety in all its contexts of use (e.g. the American National Corpus), while the aim of specialized corpora is to focus on special contexts and users (e.g. Michigan Corpus of Academic Spoken English) (Mosavi Miangah & Mohammadi Dehcheshmeh, 2007).

Finally, general corpora contain different types of texts (written or spoken variety of subjects). Another name of these corpora is “reference corpora” regarding their functional reference material for language learning, translation, and the like. British National Corpus (BNC) and the Bank of English contain 100-million words and 400-million words respectively. The Bank of English Corpus, along with many main applications, was designed for creating dictionaries. In addition, parts of this corpus were employed as the basis of the BBC English Dictionary. The aim of this dictionary is to indicate the kind of vocabulary employed in news broadcasts (Sinclair, 1992, cited in Meyer, 2002).

Bank of English Corpus was employed as the basis of a general dictionary (e.g. the Collins COBUILD English Dictionary) and the other dictionaries containing topics such as idioms and phrasal verbs (Meyer, 2002).

Specialized corpora contain a specific kind of texts. The most famous specialized corpora are these: Cambridge and Nottingham Corpus of Discourse in English (CANCODE) and Corpus of Academic Spoken English (MICASE) (Hunston, 2006).

- Historical/diachronic corpora (vs. corpora of present- day language)

The aim of historical corpora is to show an earlier stage or earlier stages of a language (e.g. Helsinki Corpus, ARCHER) (Nesselhauf, 2005). Historical corpora contain texts which present the development of language over a particular timeframe. The Helsinki Corpus, as the best-known corpus, includes 1.5 million words (Hunston, 2006).

- Regional corpora (vs. corpora containing more than one variety)

The aim of regional corpora is to represent one regional variety of a language (e.g. WCNZE = Wellington Corpus of Written New Zealand English (Nesselhauf, 2005).

- Learner corpora (vs. native speaker corpora)

The aim of learner corpora is to display the language produced by learners of a language (e.g. ICLE = International Corpus of Learner English) (Nesselhauf, 2005). The texts produced by learners of a language are taken into account as learner corpora (Hunston, 2006).

The difference between texts produced by learners and texts produced by native speakers are characterized by these corpora. The International Corpus of Learner English, as a well-known learner corpus, contains 20,000 words (Hunston, 2006).

- Comparable corpora (vs. parallel corpora)

In comparable corpora, there is the same content of texts in various languages (such as legal contracts in English and French). The International Corpus of English, as a comparable corpus, includes one-million words with various types of English (Hunston, 2006). Parallel corpora contain two types of texts: original language of production and its translation (Lawson, 2001). It means that “each text collected is a translation of another” (Lawson, 2001, p.279).

Parallel corpora contain various translations of the original text (Lawson, 2001). “The comparison between large numbers of texts and their acknowledged translations can show how equivalence has been established by translators under certain circumstances and provide examples of translation strategies” (Zanettin, 1998, p.617).

- Multilingual corpora (vs. monolingual corpora)

The aim of multilingual corpora is to represent various languages with the same text types (Nesselhauf, 2005). “Monolingual corpora contain samples of only one language. Multilingual corpora are of two types: comparable and parallel” (Mosavi Miangah & Mohammadi Dehcheshmeh, 2007, p.29). In monolingual corpora, “translators can opt for natural, native-like turns of phrase, appropriate to the communicative situation in which the target text will be operating” (Bernardini, Stewart, & Zanettin, 2003, p.6).

- Spoken corpora (vs. written vs. mixed corpora)

The aim of spoken corpora is to show spoken language (e.g. LLC = London- Lund Corpus of Spoken English) (Nesselhauf, 2005).

- Annotated corpora (vs. orthographic corpora)

The aim of annotated corpora is to perform some kind of linguistic analysis on the texts such as sentence analysis or word class classification (Nesselhauf, 2005).

- Pedagogic corpora

A learner has been exposed to all texts incorporated in these corpora (Hunston, 2006). The samples of texts incorporated in these corpora may include course books, readers and the like. In the texts of these corpora, there are many words and phrases which learners encounter in

various contexts to aggrandize their knowledge of language (Mohammadi Dehcheshmeh, 2007).

– Monitor corpora

These corpora contain texts of the same type to find the mutations in the language, although they should be enriched annually, monthly, and even daily (Mohammadi Dehcheshmeh, 2007).

Finally, the difference among corpus types is not on the basis of the text but is contingent upon the way in which these texts have been treated (Nesselhauf, 2005).

5. Deixis and Different Types of Deictics

The most common definition of deixis in actual written texts is that “most deictics do not refer to the extralinguistic context but to the context built up by the text itself” (Ehlich, 2007, cited in Becher, 2010, pp.10-13). Based on Ehlich theory of deixis, there is a difference between deictic and anaphoric expressions regarding the cognitive processes. This difference is very important to describe the use of deictics in a written discourse. Anaphoric expressions do not refer directly to the world. There are six types of deictics: Personal, Object, Quality, Temporal, Spatial, and Composite (Becher, 2010).

6. Inclusive and Exclusive ‘we’

“The inclusive/exclusive parameter is also relevant in person deixis” (Grenoble, 1998). There are two mechanisms to satisfy the human needs for creating groups. The first mechanism is called ‘integration’ and the second ‘segregation’. ‘Integration’ means sharing material in order to create one group, whereas ‘segregation’ means the rejection of particular people in group membership (Koole, ten Thije, 1994, cited in Fontaine, 2006). Halliday and Hasan (1976) believe that “‘we’ does not normally refer to the text at all; (its) referents are defined by the speech roles of [a] speaker and hearer, and hence are normally interpreted exophorically by reference to the situation” (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p.48). “Person deixis [is concerned with] the encoding of the role of participants in the speech event in which the utterances in question are delivered” (Levinson, 1983, p.62). When a hearer is known to be involved in the reference, ‘we’ will be accounted as inclusive-‘we’ and when a hearer is known not to be involved, it will be accounted as exclusive-‘we’ (Fontaine, 2006).

7. The Term “Discourse” and “Pragmatics” in Linguistics

According to Jucker et al. (2009), Pragmatics refers to the use of language in actual situations (Jucker, Schreier, & Hundt, 2009). “It is concerned with the ways in which speakers and hearers cooperate to negotiate meaning” (Jucker, Schreier, & Hundt, 2009, p.3). The term discourse generates a somewhat various research focus (Jucker, Schreier, & Hundt, 2009). According to Stubbs (1983), discourse refers to “language above the sentence or above the clause” (Stubbs, 1983, p.1). In linguistics, the development of discourse as a paramount object of consideration has occurred in two sub-disciplines: the conversation analysis and the written text analysis. Thus, at least two definitions of discourse have been presented. Discourse is observed as: “1) Language above the sentence level that is the extended chunks of text; 2) Language in use” (Koteyko, 2006, p.133).

8. The Term “Discourse” in Corpus Linguistics

“Corpus research started out as a methodological approach based on collecting and documenting real-life language data” (Koteyko, 2006, p.144). Studying patterns of real language use in linguistic research is very important for corpus linguists. An analysis of language based on a large series of authentic texts is gaining momentum. Corpora are employed to obtain empirical knowledge about language that can complement information from reference sources and introspection (Koteyko, 2006). For corpus linguists, discourse refers to a series of texts uttered by a community of language users who recognize themselves as members of a social group based on the commonality of their world views (Teubert, 2005).

9. Methodology

9.1 Description of the Type of Research

Since the aim of present study is to gain an idea of possible differences in exclusive and inclusive uses of personal deixis ‘ma’ in two kinds of Persian texts, it is qualitative, quantitative, and corpus-based. The personal deixis ‘ma’ will be measured in terms of exclusive and inclusive degrees, then these numbers will be compared in two kinds of texts for indicating whether there is a main difference in terms of exclusion and inclusion in artistic and scientific texts.

9.2 Instruments

In the present study, our Persian monolingual corpus involves a variety of genres for instance politics, medicine, technology, poetry, sport, literature, art, idioms and proverbs, religion, science, culture, history, economics, and miscellaneous. These texts have been mainly extracted from books, journals, interviews, reports, written news, etc. A monolingual corpus of Persian texts consists of over 120 million words. Based on the text type, this corpus has been prepared so as to be searchable separately. The present corpus plays a main role as a monolingual concordance. When the user searches a query, all sentences in which the query is applied will emerge and the query itself is discriminated from the other words in the same sentence. This corpus is able to indicate the whole texts to which the query belongs. In spite of observing the frequency of each word or a combination of words in a sentence, the user can view the number of times each word or a combination of words happens in the corpus. This corpus is considered as a valuable tool for written discourse analysis.

9.3 Procedures

35 random scientific texts (including culture, history, economics, science, medicine, politics, and technology) and 35 random artistic texts (including literature, art, poetry, idioms and proverbs) were selected for analysis. Moreover, the structure of the corpus of texts has been outlined in table 1.

Table 1. The Structure of the Corpus of Texts

Scientific texts	Artistic texts
35 texts	35 texts
34421 words	34311 words

9.4 Data Collection and Recording

The data in this study were collected from a Persian monolingual corpus. Texts were chosen of two distinct genres (Science– Art) to gain confidence and maximum comparability. Here, the numbers gained from these texts by using the monolingual corpus have been compared.

9.5 Data Processing and Analysis

According to the frequencies gained from two texts, precise and accurate analyses can be performed to show authentic results. The number of texts is the same for evaluating exclusive and inclusive uses of Persian first person plural. The frequency of exclusive, inclusive, and neither inclusive nor exclusive ‘ma’ will be indicated in the table 2. Moreover, a chart will be drawn for showing percentages of exclusive, inclusive, and neither inclusive nor exclusive ‘ma’.

10. Results and Discussion

Table 2. The Inclusive and Exclusive Frequency of Personal Deixis ‘ma’

	Scientific texts	Artistic texts
inclusive	40 (31%)	23(18%)
exclusive	87(69%)	62(48%)
neither inclusive nor exclusive	0	44(34%)
TOTAL	127(100%)	129(100%)

The deictics were categorized based on the referent type, where a wide distinction can be made between reader-exclusive and reader-inclusive uses (cf. Harwood, 2005). The term “rhetorical” can be a suitable label for the uses of inclusive ‘ma’ found in the corpus. By utilizing the inclusive deixis, authors follow the rhetoric purpose of highlighting the relevance of their findings to the reader of the article in general who is included in the “global” reference of inclusive ‘ma’. In the corpus, authors utilize exclusive ‘ma’ to refer to

themselves and their team. On the other hand, there is another deixis 'ma' that is neither inclusive nor exclusive. This deixis has been just observed in artistic texts.

The following chart shows the percentage differences between exclusive, inclusive, and neither inclusive nor exclusive uses in scientific and artistic texts.

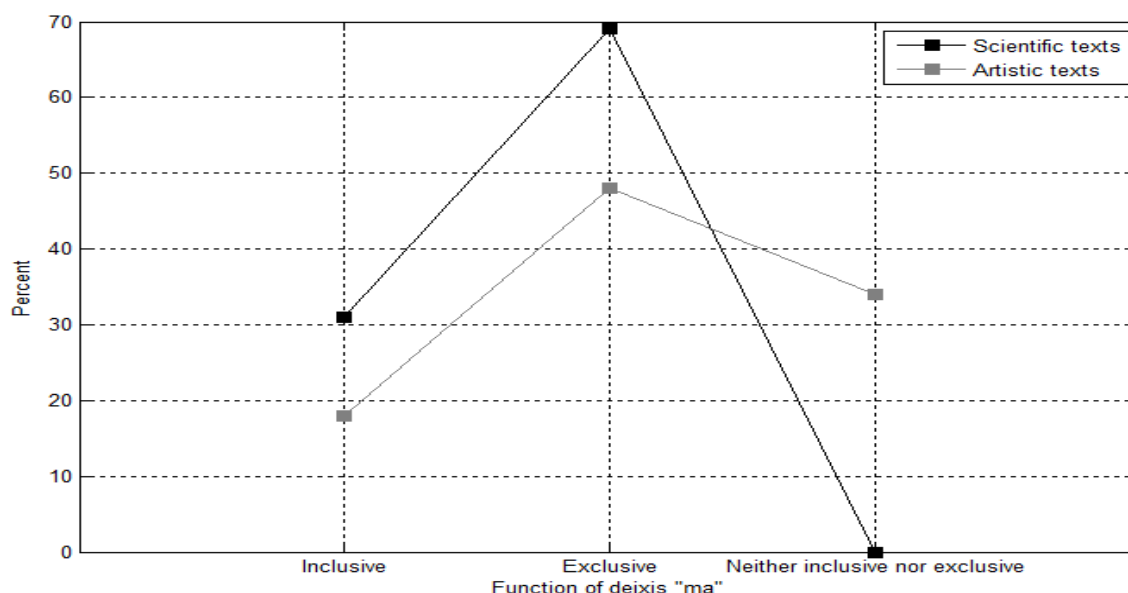


Figure 1. The Percentages of Deixis 'ma' in Scientific and Artistic Texts

Authors applied 69 percent of deixis 'ma' exclusively, while they used 31 percent of deixis 'ma' inclusively in the scientific texts. These findings indicate that authors try to exclude the readers and include themselves and their team.

On the other hand, 48 percent of deixis 'ma' has been utilized exclusively by authors in the artistic texts. In these texts, authors establish less rapport with their readers by applying 'ma' inclusively. Moreover, 34 percent of deixis 'ma' refer to characters who play a role in these texts and authors speak about them. In fact, an author, as a narrator, tells a story for readers and does not play a role in that story.

In a nutshell, it is apparent that both scientific and artistic texts are author-oriented inasmuch as high percentage of exclusive 'ma' is used in both texts. In contrast, the distinction between two texts is due to utilizing neither inclusive nor exclusive 'ma' in artistic texts. Sometimes, authors and readers do not have any role to be included in artistic texts. This shows that scientific texts are more author-oriented and reader-oriented than artistic texts inasmuch as authors have further power to create social distance between themselves and readers and to establish rapport with their readers in scientific texts. Thus, this can lead to more effects on readers and attract readers to study scientific texts.

11. Conclusion

On the whole, the exclusive and inclusive uses of deixis 'ma' indicate the communicative

role of authors with their readers in artistic and scientific texts. Considering the monolingual corpus, the findings show that authors pay more attention to themselves and their team in both texts, but using neither inclusive nor exclusive 'ma' in artistic texts is considered as the main difference between artistic and scientific texts. This indicates that authors have more power to communicate with their readers in scientific texts than in artistic texts. The findings of the present study have main implications for linguistics. Linguistic students can recognize the ability of authors to communicate with their readers. In future investigations, inclusive and exclusive uses of Persian first person plural can be studied in scientific and political texts. This information can help authors to use more inclusive and exclusive 'ma' in their texts to attract more readers. Moreover, the principal choice of the authors in using specific deixis can be indicative of their strategy to ascribe different roles to themselves and their readers throughout a text.

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