

CHAPTER 9

INTRODUCTION TO DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

Sola Osoba

and

Eniayo Sobola

Introduction

There is often an interchange of language and discourse by learners in the linguistic and literary fields in the attempt to account for the use of language in various fields of study. In this chapter, we explicate discourse, discourse analysis, its related fields and approaches to the study in a deep introductory method to expose learners to conceptual clarifications in the field of discourse. Discourse is not restricted to the study in the Department of English and Linguistics alone; it cuts across all the fields of learning. It is language in use. As long as language is used by people in various social fields, there are various types of discourse to be investigated. Therefore, discourse analysts have a wider spectrum of areas to cover to account for how language is used through linguistic and theoretical tools.

Discourse formation

Grammatical study of language is restricted to sentence analysis because sentence is the highest in the grammatical rank-scale. Grammar does not create a room for analysis above sentence. The need to investigate language beyond the level of sentence gives birth to discourse. Discourse has been viewed by different scholars as the organization or unit of language above sentence (Stubbs 1983:1, Schiffrin 1987a: 1, T. Onadeko 2000: 82). The structuralists and formalists are concerned with the linguistic features of universal language- phonology, syntax and semantics, which do not include connected sentences or utterances. Connected sentences are the building blocks of discourse. Schiffrin (1994) asserts that:

Consistent with the definition of discourse as language "above the sentence," many contemporary structural analyses of discourse view the sentence as the unit of which discourse is comprised. (25)

Linguists who found it difficult to give a concise definition of discourse did not find it difficult to agree that discourse is language beyond sentence. It is referred to as language use larger than sentence. Connected sentences in a naturally occurring

utterance play a crucial role in the formation of discourse. Discourse is not just a combination of sentences; it must occur in a particular context unified and convey a social meaning. It is possible to combine sentences together without a cohesive unity. Such combination of sentences cannot be referred to as discourse it does not possess the features that discourse is expected to have. Crystal (1992) explains that, "*Discourse: a continuous stretch of (especially spoken) language larger than a sentence, often constituting a coherent unit such as a sermon, argument, joke, or narrative*" (25). His explanation validates that discourse is not formed by any disjointed stretch of sentences, but coordinated language in a social context. Discourse is found in all fields of learning where language is used for interactive purposes such as law, science, medicine, education, fashion, engineering, sport, politics, media and more. From the above, Crystal as well as other scholars limit discourse to spoken language. We should, therefore, know that discourse can either be spoken or written. Egbe (1996: 72) supports our view when he refers to "*talk and text*" as "*connected speech and continuous writing*" respectively, and contextualizes both as "*a stretch of natural language that is longer than the sentence,*" which is discourse.

Discourse formation, which is organization of language not only beyond the sentence but more than a paragraph, requires skills. We can say that discourse has two major structures: micro and macro. The micro-structure of discourse involves the combination of smaller bits of language to make up the word, the phrase, the clause and the sentence. The macro-structure of language organization is the discourse proper because it helps in the analysis of language beyond the sentence level. At this level of language organization, important factors such as purpose, the topic or subject matter, thesis statement and the audience are to be considered to produce a meaningful discourse. These factors are better discussed in the composition section.

In another stance, discourse is viewed from the social function of language as language in use. Schiffrin (1994: 20) gives a comprehensive meaning of discourse when she explains discourse as "*a particular unit of language (above the sentence), and a particular focus (on language use).*"The explanation covers both perspectives of scholars on discourse as a fragment of language beyond sentence and as language in use. The two perspectives are formalist and functional approaches to discourse. Fasold (1990: 65) is among the scholars who approached discourse from the functional point of view. He says that, "*the study of discourse is the study of any aspect of language use*". Language is not used in a vacuum; it is used in a context by participants to perform certain functions. That is why utterance is situated in a context. Schiffrin (1994) corroborates with this view when she explicates that, "discourse is viewed as a system (a socially and culturally organized way of speaking) through which particular functions are realized" (32). Social functions performed by discourse delineate the communicative role of discourse and the various fields of endeavours to which

discourse belongs.

Discourse is both structural and functional in nature and the best approach to discourse is to explicate it from both structural and functional perspectives to show how language is used in social context, and what it is used to do.

Discourse analysis

Since discourse has been explored as a unit of language above sentence and focus on language use in social context to perform social functions, discourse analysis is the analysis of a unit of language above sentence used in a social context to perform social functions. Brown and Yule (1983: 1) state the core of discourse analysis thus:

the analysis of discourse, is necessarily, the analysis of language in use. As such, it cannot be restricted to the description of linguistic forms independent of the purposes or functions which these forms are designed to serve in human affairs.

The concern of discourse analysts is the study of language in use in social context, that is, what language is used for not the formal properties of language. They are interested in different social contexts of conversation especially its organization and the processes involved in the encoding and decoding of its meaning. The focus of the analyst in the field of discourse is naturally occurring conversation which may be utterances or documented conversation. Onadeko (2000: 83) from the linguistic perspective to discourse gives a unique insight to discourse by saying, "*It is the scientific study of naturally occurring (i.e. spontaneous) conversation (or what is meant to be rendered in written mode) which exists between at least two participants in a social context.*" From his view, discourse analysis encompasses all verbal and non-verbal actions that take place in a conversation in a social setting. Schiffrin (1994: 42) also gives an interesting exposition by explaining that analyses of discourse reveal interdependence between structure and function of language in use. She asserts that structural definition focuses on text while functional definition focuses on context.

There are several functions that language can be used to perform in social context especially interactional conversational interaction. Jakobson (1960) proposes six functions of language which Hymes (1962) also supports. Stubbs (1995: 46) having observed these functions, builds on Jakobson's and Hymes' contributions by making his own proposition on functions of language as expressive or emotive, directive or conative, poetic, contact or phatic, metalinguistic, referential and contextual functions. Halliday (1970: 140-165) has also proposed three broad functions he believes language should perform as ideational, interpersonal and textual functions.

These functions can be performed by language in different genres of discourse. Texts can be taken from various genres of discourse such as family (interaction among family members), classroom (interaction between teacher and students), hospital (interaction between doctor and patient), market (interaction between seller and buyer), political (conversation among political actors on political issues), religious (interaction between priest and congregation), legal (conversation on legal issues either between the judge and the accused or between lawyer and his client). In each of these fields of human operation, the function that language is used to perform can be situated in any of the functions given above, or at times a discourse can perform some of these function if analyzed.

Zellig Harris (1952) is the first scholar to use the term discourse analysis as a method for analysis of connected speech or writing in order to continue descriptive linguistic analysis beyond a single sentence, and also to show correlation between culture and language. He employed distributional technique to discover elements that can co-occur in the same environment to show the pattern of combination of the classes of words in a text (Malmkjær and Anderson 1991: 100), on the other hand to discover the patterns of morphemes, which should be able to distinguish a text from a collection of sentences (Onadeko 2000: 84). He could not do justice to the concept because he only applied the structuralist approach which could not explore semantic import of language analyzed. Halliday (1961, 1967 and 1970) develops what Harris introduced earlier when he discusses the field, the mode and the tenor of discourse. Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) are the first people that made an attempt to produce a structural analysis of naturally occurring conversation in classroom dialogue. They examine spontaneous discourse units and their relation in sequence. Sacks, Schegloff and Jefferson (1974) have paved the ground on which Sinclair and Coulthard achieved their success in discourse analysis. Various scholars have produced several works on the concept.

Discourse features

There are certain features that characterized discourse. These features varies in number, but what makes them important is that they are embedded in the field of discourse and their knowledge makes the analysis of discourse easier for scholars who are not very familiar with discourse. Among all those who have produced literatures on discourse analysis Wale Osisanwo gives simple but comprehensive features of discourse in his introductory book *Introduction to Discourse Analysis and Pragmatics*. These features agree with our perspective and will be explored briefly.

- i. Conversation: this is interaction between people. At two people must be involved in conversation, and one talks after another especially as a response to the first speaker. In some situation, one may use paralinguistic cues as a response such as gesture, nodding or facial expression.
- ii. Discourse participants: these are the people involved in conversation. They are known

as interlocutors; each of them is addressed differently as speaker and addressee.

iii. Opening and closing of discourse: the preliminary exchange that must take place before conversation begins is discourse opening. It may be in form of greeting or summoning. It creates a platform to initiate conversation. Closing of discourse is the concluding remark made by one of the participants to show that conversation has come to an end. The cues such as “bye”, “good bye” or “final” could be used.

iv. Holding floor: this is a situation in which a participant is speaking in a discourse while the other participants wait for him to finish what he has to say. The person speaking is holding floor at that moment.

v. Turn-taking: it is a point at which a speaker stops speaking and another speaker begins to speak. In conversation each participant waits for his turn to avoid overlapping.

vi. Selecting the next speaker: it is the method of choosing who speaks. It is done in two ways: either by calling the next speaker to air his view or by using non-verbal cues such as pointing to the next speaker or simply keeping quiet after speaking if only two participants are involved in discourse.

vii. Overlapping: it is also called interruption. It occurs when another speaker does not allow the first speaker to finish his talk, so that two or more participants are talking at the same time as we experience in football talks.

viii. Topic negotiation: it is a device used by a participant who feels abandoned in conversation and is eager to make his point at all cost. It is done by introducing a new topic.

ix. Discourse markers: these are the devices or cue words used to mark boundary of an utterance in discourse to show relation. They show how a piece of discourse is connected to another piece of discourse, that is, they show connection between what has been said or written and what will be said or written. For example, “mind you”, “still”, “by the way”, “however”, “nevertheless”, “like”.

x. Speech errors: these are mistakes made during conversation or when a turn is going on. It could be factual error or errors of construction. It includes hesitations, repetitions and use of gap fillers such as “em”, “I...”, “You know”, “I mean” etc.

xi. Repair mechanism: this is the method used to correct speech errors. It may be done through restatement or withdrawal of statement, or being corrected by the other participants.

xii. Role sharing: role is allocated to participants in a social set-up based on age, sex, education, achievement, profession or social status. The factors above are used in allocation of turns in human society since it is highly stratified. The binary features of Berry (1987: 51) assign +higher and -higher roles to distinguish the status of the participants in conversation.

xiii. Talk initiation: it is the process of starting conversation. One of the participants starts the conversation while the other listens.

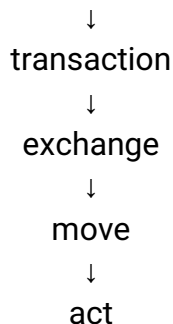
xiv. Elicitation in talk: it is the process of demanding a reaction, response or feedback

(verbal or non-verbal) from an interlocutor by questioning the interlocutor.

xv. Adjacency pairs: when the exchange structures are in pairs, we have adjacency pair. They are always complementary and reciprocity with features such as greeting and response, complaint and apology, question and answer, challenge and reaction.

Discourse rank-scale

The concept of rank-scale is the organization of units in hierarchical order. It means that a larger unit in rank is made up of one or more units of the rank below it. In this case, it implies that the higher unit in rank has structure that can be explored while the lowest unit has no structure. Halliday (1961) divides grammar into morpheme, word, phrase, clause and sentence in grammatical rank-scale. In consonance with his grammatical rank-scale but contrary in context, Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) divides classroom discourse into organizational units in hierarchical order as: lesson



in descending order. Lesson is the highest unit in discourse rank-scale while act is the lowest unit in ascending order.

Act

An act is the smallest unit in discourse hierarchy. It has no structure of its own; therefore, it is not divisible just like morpheme. It can be created by grammatical units such as words, groups, clauses or sentences. It relates to the function of an utterance it was meant to perform which is illocutionary act of Searle (1962). Act always performs actions, and it is categorized according to functions it performs. There are three main types of act. They are informative act, elicitation act and directive act. An informative act gives information to the interlocutor in form of response either positive or negative in verbal utterance or non-verbal communication such as nodding, shaking of head etc.

For example:

Beni: You need to rest.

Teni: Yes. (positive response)

Bola: I will take your bag to the party.

Bala: No, I won't allow you. (negative response)

Charles: You need to be a good girl. You know.

Grace: (Nod) (non-verbal communication)

An elicitation act is used to demand a verbal response from the interlocutor. It comes in form of question with a predicated answer. If the response is delayed, the question is repeated with emphasis or reframed. The response may be accompanied by body language such as nodding, raising or shaking of hand. For example:

Mum: Where is the toy?

John: It is here, mum. (immediate response)

Solomon: Where are you coming from?

Mary: (Silence) (delayed response)

Solomon: I ask again; where are you coming from?

Mary: The club.

A directive act requests an action as a response either for the benefit of the speaker or other people. It may receive either verbal or non-verbal response, or at times both verbal and non-verbal response. For example:

Toni: Let's make it a deal.

Tonia: A deal.

Chukwu: Can you give me a cup of water?

Chinyere: (Coming with a cup of water) Here is it sir.

Dad: Please shut the door.

Titi: (She shut the door.)

Move

A move is a unit of discourse higher than act in rank and lower than exchange. It consists of one or more acts in its structure. A move is simple when it consists of one act, but complex when there are more than one act in its constituent. Unlike act, a move has act in its structure. For example:

Chuks: I need your help. (simple move)

James: What can I do for you?

Chuks: I lost my wallet when I was coming from the Sports Centre. I don't have any money with me, and I need to go home. Please, lend me #500 till next week. (complex move)

James: Okay, take (giving him the money).

Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) have identified five types of move in classroom discourse

which make up exchanges. They are framing move, focusing move, opening move, answering move and follow-up move. The framing move is used to structure lesson, that is, it indicates the end of a lesson or initial task and readiness for another task. The focusing move follows framing move; it is used to attract students' attention to the direction of the lesson or change the direction of the speaker. For example:

Ayo: As soon as I collect my salary, I will change the furniture. (focusing)

Funke: Wait, you must pay your rent first. (framing)

The opening move can be used to supply information, ask a question, make a request, direct an action or elicit a fact (Coulthard 1992: 22). The opening move directs the students to participate in a conversation by starting it off for them to follow. Answering move is a response to the opening. An answering move may have two parts: a head and a post-head. It is the head that will give the response to the opening, and the post-head requires that the initiator of the opening to give a response to it.

Dad: Prepare a cup of tea for me. (opening)

Vero: Yes sir. Do you want it cold or hot? (answering)
(head) (post-head)

Dad: Make it hot. (response to post-head)

The follow-up move takes place after the answering move. It functions as feedback or verdict to confirm whether the answering move is correct or wrong. It is produced by someone who plays a higher role in conversation especially the teacher as a reaction to the student's response, or parent to child.

Supervisor: How do you convince a customer to choose your customer to choose your product instead of other products?

Sales rep.: I will persuade the customer that my product has some benefits that other products do not have, and that it is the best of its kind and latest in the market at the price cheaper than its functions, and let him know that missing my product is a loss to him.

Supervisor: Good, you got it. (follow-up)

Exchange

An exchange is made up of moves. There are two types of exchange in classroom discourse according to Sinclair and Coulthard (1992: 25). They are boundary exchanges and teaching exchanges. Boundary exchanges are initiated by the teacher to signal a transition from one section of lesson to another. Teaching exchanges take place where questions are asked, answered and feedback is given to the answers. Boundary exchange consists of two moves: framing and focusing moves. Teaching exchange consists of three moves: opening, answering and follow-up moves. Sinclair and Coulthard (1992: 3) refer to these moves as initiation, response and feedback in, "A

typical exchange in the classroom consists of an initiation by the teacher, followed by a response from the pupil, followed by feedback to the pupil." Coulthard and Brasil (1992: 65) are in consonance with them by coining the term Initiator, Response and Feedback (IRF).

Sinclair and Coulthard (1992: 26-27) describe three kinds of teaching exchanges as informing, directing and eliciting exchanges. An informing exchange takes place in a situation where the teacher needs to give his or her students new information or facts that they need to know. A directing exchange is meant to get the students to perform an action by doing something, but not speaking. An eliciting exchange is the common exchange in the classroom discourse. It takes place when the teacher asks a question; the student provides an answer, and the teacher gives a follow-up evaluation.

Transaction

Transaction is made up of an exchange or a sequence of exchanges united by a single task. It is the next to lesson in the rank-scale. It is the basic unit of conversation and consists of minimal contribution made by the participants in the discourse. It usually begins with an opening and ends with a closing. There are boundary markers such as "right now", "ok", "well", "right" which indicates the beginning of a new transaction. These markers are called frames.

Lesson

A lesson is the highest unit of classroom discourse. It consists of a set of transactions. It refers to all activities that take place in the classroom from the moment the teacher enters the class till he leaves. It consists of a sequence of interactions.

Spoken discourse

Spoken discourse includes all verbal utterances either formal or informal. It is discourse in verbal or spoken form. Every social activity we get involved in to relate with one another such as causal conversation, interview, sermon, seminar, public lecture, classroom conversation, telephone exchange, political talk and so on is spoken discourse. Though spoken discourse is verbal, it is also accompanied by some non-verbal behaviour such as facial gestures and body movement to aid interpretation of discourse. Casual conversation is the most frequent type of spoken discourse found in human society. Spoken discourse may be face-to-face or distance communication where the speaker is not physically present like telephone conversation, radio and television broadcast.

Certain features characterized spoken discourse which include known or expected audience, instant understanding and feedback, faster than written discourse and varied

in speech, gesture, intonation, rhythm, pitch range and pausing. Its lexical and grammatical compositions encourage the use of short phrases and clauses, attributive adjectives and lexical repetitions.

Spoken discourse may be classified according to the number of participants involved. We have monologue in an uninterrupted speech by only one person. The speaker may be talking to himself or others who do not respond or are not expected to respond. It is mostly used in drama. Dialogue is a conversation between two participants. Multilogue is a conversational situation where many participants are involved in a conversation.

Utterance and communicative acts

Utterance and communicative acts are indispensable concepts in spoken discourse. Utterance is a unit of spoken language in context. Schiffrin (1994: 39-41) describes discourse as utterances. It implies that utterances are small units which made up discourse. Utterances are contextualized sentences, that is, a collection of sentences placed in a particular context just as discourse is defined as language in context. An utterance is different from a sentence because a sentence is decontextualized while an utterance is contextualized sentences. Utterances are used to perform communicative acts. The concept of communicative acts is derived from J. L. Austin lecture of 1955 titled *How to Do Things with Words* where he described every speech as an action. Communicative act is also referred to as speech act. Every utterance made by a speaker is meant to perform an action, that is, changing the reality of the situation in context. It is the performative function of illocutionary act of the speech acts. The outcome of communicative act is the action carried out as a result of the utterance which is illocutionary result. The position of J. R. Searle (1962) is that understanding the utterance which he called illocutionary result is more important. He explains illocutionary act as conventional relation between the utterance and the intention of the speaker. The act of the utterance is the main concern in communicative actions. It may be any of those given by J. R. Searle (1969): assertives, directives, commissives, expressives and declaratives or those given by Jakobson (1960) referential, emotive, phatic, conative, metaphysical and poetic functions. Communicative act is structured according to the three levels of speech act: locutionary act, illocutionary act and perlocutionary act because it is believed that utterance performs action at each level of speech act.

Written discourse

Written discourse is any form of discourse that been graphically represented or documented on a piece of paper or other media means. It encourages documentation of the message conveyed which can be used later for referencing. It is carefully constructed with a room for correction and reconstruction unlike the spoken discourse.

The writer is able to adjust the content of his work. The ideas in written discourse are organized structurally into paragraphs. Each paragraph conveys an idea that can be summarized into one sentence called the topic sentence. Punctuation marks are employed in written discourse to make it meaningful to the reader. The paragraphs are linked one to another by connectives to make the discourse a unified whole. We should note that written discourse can be divided into chapters, verses, sections, units, headings, subheadings etc. The writer is always careful in written discourse because anyone can pick the text up at any time to read. Some of the examples are novel, play, poem, book, editorial in newspaper, article in magazine, letter, report etc (Brown and Yule 1983: 12-26).

Text

The pioneers of systemic functional linguistic (SFL) who develop interest in the study of written discourse refer to the study of written discourse as text linguistics (Halliday and Hasan 1985: 10, Bloor and Bloor 1995: 86). Their view is that written discourse has certain feature which makes it different from spoken discourse, which is actually its textuality.

Text originates from the Latin form *textus* meaning "to weave". It is a continuous piece of writing or an extract from any part of written or printed materials (Daramola 2001: 161). Text is not restricted to written language alone; it is both spoken and written. It is defined by linguists as any language that is functional, that is, either spoken or written language working in a particular context. Halliday and Hasan (1976:1) explain that, "*The word text is used in linguistics to refer to any passage, spoken or written, of whatever length that does form a unified whole.*" It means that a text may be spoken or written, but it must have elements of unity which will enable it to make meaning or sense. It is described as a semantic unit. Daramola (ibid) explains that it has two basic features: a product and a process. It can be constructed and recorded in a systematic way for further assessment as a product. It evolves as a semantic choice, as a process, through a semantic network in a context. Text can be seen as a means of exchange or an interactive event between two speakers of a language.

Texture

Texture is the quality of a text. A text has texture because that is what distinguishes it from other combination of words that is not a text. It is the element that unifies the structure of a text by showing relation between sentences in an environment (Halliday and Hasan 1976:2). Daramola (2001:163) asserts that, "*the texture of a text is a demonstration of some kinds of semantic relations between its components or messages.*" He justifies a text as a semantic unit which has texture as element of its meaning unity.

Context

Context is the social environment in which a text occurs. It is a set of fact around a particular event. Thus, it is everything that surrounds production of an utterance including the situation, the interlocutors and the knowledge of the cultural norms and behaviour. All these external factors constitute context which helps the language speaker to interpret meaning in appropriate manner. Schiffrin (1994) categorically declares that:

Context is thus a world filled with people producing utterances: people who have social, cultural and personal identities, knowledge, beliefs, goals and wants and who interact with one another in various socially and culturally defined situations. (363)

In discourse analysis, we study both text and context. The idea of context is credited to Malinowski's context of situation which refers to the context in which users of any language or participants in discourse found themselves. Context of situation is indispensable in the interpretation and understanding of discourse (Daramola 2005: 67). A text occurs in a context of situation. There are three components of context of situation according to Halliday. They are field, tenor and mode. The three components help us to focus our attention on a particular speech situation by making the features of a text explicit. Each of these components makes the study of discourse explicit. Field of discourse refers to the activity that is going on and the purpose that language is performing in context of the activity. Tenor of discourse refers to the interaction among the participants especially the social relationship among them. Mode of discourse refers to the role of language in communication particularly as a channel or medium of communication. The mode can either be spoken or written.

Cohesion

Cohesion is the relations of meaning which exist within the text and justify it as a text. It is the linguistic means by which a text functions as a single unit (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 4, Osisanwo 2003/2005: 31). There are various elements that are used to tie up various sentences together in a text; these elements are used to achieve cohesion. Cohesion is lexical and grammatical unity within a text. Without cohesion, a text will not make meaning.

The elements that are used to achieve semantic unity in the text are called cohesive devices. Halliday and Hasan (1976) identify five major types of cohesive devices: references, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction and lexical cohesion. Each of these may further be subdivided. Let us briefly look at them.

Reference

Reference is the relation between an element of a text and something else which refers to it for interpretation in a given context. Words used as references do not have their own meaning; we can only infer their meaning by referring to something else in the text. There are four major types of reference. First, anaphoric is making reference to what has been said earlier in the text. Second, cataphoric is the reference made to what will be said later in the text, that is, forward referencing. Third, endophoric is reference within the text; it covers both anaphoric and cataphoric. Fourth, exophoric is the reference to something outside the text.

Substitution

It is the replacing of a word, phrase or clause with a word in the next clause to avoid repetition. For example:

Bunmi: I won scholarship to study in London.

Taju: I know it already.

The cohesive item "it" is used to replace the sentence made by Bunmi to avoid repeating it.

Ellipsis

It is the deletion of certain grammatical elements from a structure for cohesive purpose. Such grammatical elements are referred to as redundant elements, but they can be uniquely recovered. For example:

Janet: Did you see the money I left on the table?

James: No. (^)

Conjunction

Conjunctions are used to show relationship between clauses and sentences. They are cohesive devices used to link two successive clauses or sentences. Halliday and Hasan (1976: 320-322) state four specific conjunctive relations of 'and', 'yet', 'so' and 'then' which may occur either in external or internal context. Other scholars mention additive, temporal, adversative, casual and continuative relations of conjunction (Onadeko 2000:99).

Lexical cohesion

Lexical relationship exists when lexical items have a structural relationship. Lexical items are used as a cohesive device when the features of words and group of words are used to create relationships among the words. There are two types of lexical cohesion: reiteration and collocation. Reiteration simply means doing or saying the same thing several times. It may be done through the use of repetition, synonymy, hyponymy and antonymy. Collocation is the relation of words that always occur together. Once the first item is mentioned, it is easy to mark out what follows. For example: husband and

Coherence

Coherence is what enables a text to make sense to people. It does not exist in language but in people. It is people who determine whether what they read makes sense or not

because they try to arrive at an interpretation which is line with their experience. It is possible for a text to make sense without cohesive ties. Such text has coherence but lacks cohesion.

A: I am hungry.

B: There is no money.

C: I will wait.

The text above still makes sense despite that there are no cohesive ties to join them. Coherence can be achieved through cause and effect, contiguity in time and space, and associatives.

Literary discourse

Literary discourse is a text with literary features. It may be dramatic, prosaic or poetic. Each of the genres of literature has its peculiar stylistic features. Language is used as a vehicle for literature because every literary work is presented in language either in oral or written form, therefore, every literary work is a form of discourse. Stylistics has prepared a ground where language and literature interact. Any literary discourse can be analyzed through any discourse analytical approach to investigate how language is used by the writer in the social context because literary writers write to communicate social, economic, political and religious issues in their community to society as a whole.

Approaches to discourse analysis

There are various approaches which can be applied in doing analysis of discourse. These approaches are both theoretical and methodical. Six of these approaches: pragmatics, speech acts, semiotics, ethnography of communication, conversation analysis and interactional sociolinguistics are examined briefly below.

Pragmatics

Pragmatics is the study of meaning of language use in context. It does not take cognisance of formal properties of language construction which determine its grammaticality, but meaning derived from how utterance is used and its relation and its relation to the social context in which it is used. Origin of pragmatics was traced back to Morris (1938) who defined it as a branch of semiotics (Schiffrin 1994: 191, Osisanwo 2003/2005: 49). Pragmatics is different from semantics which is the study of meaning of language. It looks at the aspect of meaning and language use that is dependent on the speaker and the listener (Wales 1989: 365, Yule 1996: 1). Anyone using pragmatic approach to discourse intends to investigate meaning of language beyond the literal meaning. He looks at the meaning in the context of discourse between the participants, that is, communicative meaning.

Pragmatics has some basic principles that everyone familiar with it must know in order

to apply it. They are explained below.

Utterance and context: Utterance is a unit of discourse or speech. It is made in a context. Context is all physical, social and cultural situations that surround discourse. Utterance must be considered within its context before meaning can be derived.

Implicature: This is meaning or something implied in conversational context which is distinct from what is said.

Entailment: It is logical implication. Entailments are deductions or inferences made from utterances to help us interpret them successfully.

Presupposition: It is the background knowledge or belief shared by the participants in discourse which makes them to understand the appropriate context of discourse.

Deixis: It is the use of reference items in utterances, and such items depend on the context of the utterance. Common deictic words are 'I, you, we, now, here, there, that etc. There are different kinds of deixis which are: discourse deixis, personal deixis, place deixis, time deixis and social deixis.

Speech acts

Speech acts theory began with the Oxford philosopher, J. L. Austin in the 1930s. It was expounded as a series of William James lecture that Austin gave at Harvard University in 1955. The series of the twelve lectures was published in 1962 with title *How to Do Things with Words*. The crux of the theory is that people perform action when they make an utterance. He distinguishes between performative utterances and constative utterances. Performative utterances perform various acts such as declaring, ordering, confirming, denying offering, permitting, advising, promising, thanking, condoling etc. Verbs are the strength of performative clauses. Performative verbs are the verbs that perform the acts stated in the utterances. Some of them are: authorize, order, advise, instruct, accept, name, declare, summon, sentence, sanction, apologize, christen, convict, query, swear, reject etc. In some cases, these verbs go with 'I hereby' to perform the act. For example, "I hereby declare you husband and wife." Constative utterances are those used in making statement or describing the state of affairs. It is believed that these utterances do not perform acts because they are not performatives (Malmkjær and Anderson 1991: 416). He later included that issuing an utterance in a speech situation is the most important factor (Austin 1962: 139).

There are two conditions underlying speech acts according to Austin; they are text (the utterance made to perform an act) and context (what makes an utterance true or appropriate). It is the context that determines whether an utterance is qualified to act in a particular situation. There are certain conditions given to justify truthfulness or falsity of an utterance; they are called felicity condition or truth condition. These conditions are given by J. R. Searle.

i. The speaker must be the person that is qualified to make certain utterance in a

particular occasion for the utterance to have effect. The participants must be appropriate people and the circumstances must be appropriate also.

ii. All the participants must carry out the conventional procedure carefully completely while the listener should carry out the appropriate action after the speech.

iii. All the participants must have what they are required to have by convention before they can perform speech acts.

iv. The participants should be ready to do whatever they are required to do.

If these conditions are fulfilled, speech acts can then take place.

There are three major acts proposed by Austin and Searle: locutionary, illocutionary and perlocutionary acts. Schiffrin (1994) declares that:

All utterances perform speech acts that are comprised of a locutionary act (the production of sounds and words with meanings), an illocutionary act (the issuing of an utterance with conventional communicative force achieved "in saying"), and a perlocutionary act (the actual effect achieved "by saying"). (51)

Kempson (1977) corroborates with them with his view that, "a speaker utters sentences with a particular meaning (locutionary act) and with a particular force (illocutionary act) in order to achieve a certain effect (perlocutionary act) on the hearer" (51). The two of them have a convergent point on the three speech acts performed by the speaker through utterances which are:

Locutionary act: production of a meaningful utterance,

Illocutionary act: an utterance issued with conventional communicative force achieved,

Perlocutionary act: the actual effect achieved by the utterance especially on the hearer.

Semiotics

The term semiotics originated from a Greek word *semeiotikos* which is concerned with the observation signs. The adjective semiotic was coined by the English philosopher, John Locke, in the early seventeenth century (Daramola 2001: 161). Semiotics is a discipline that deals with the study and analysis of signs and symbols found in all forms of communication, that is, language both spoken and written, gestures, clothing, billboards, human and animal behaviour. Charles Sander Pierce and Ferdinand de Saussure contributed to semiotics at its formation stage. The term semiology was coined by de Saussure, which he called the study of life of the sign in society.

Semiotics is the study of communicative power of signs and codes. It is another approach to discourse because human language is a system of signs and codes. Interlocutors often communicate through special codes shared by certain group as a secret from those who are not members of the group. The group members are able to

analyze the codes and interpret the message.

Saussure considers sign relation as dyadic, that is, the relationship between the sign and the concept. This may also be called signifier and signified. The signifier is the sign given while the signified is the referent of the sign. The three objects of semiosis are the sign, its object and its interpretant. The interpretant stands between the sign and its object because he is the one who analyzes the sign to relate it to the appropriate object in the physical entity. Pierce believes that signs can be categorized into three classes in relation to their objects though the relationship is arbitrary (Eco 1984: 136, Hookway 1985, Malmkjær and Anderson 1991: 400). They are iconic, indexical and symbolic relationships.

Iconic relationship is a straight forward relationship between an icon and the object it denotes. An icon is a sign which refers to the object it denotes either in figure, shape, colour, appearance and other characteristics. For example, shape of a man represents human being.

Indexical relationship is when one thing denotes another thing entirely, but there is a relationship of effect between the sign and the object. The gathered cloud is an index of expectation of rain. Smoke is also an index of fire.

Symbolic relationship is purely arbitrary. There is no clear relationship between a symbol and its object in real life. It is purely conventional. Symbols are tokens of types not the exact things.

Traffic light is conventionally related to its meaning where 'red' means 'stop'; 'yellow' means 'ready' and 'green' means 'go'. Symbols are not interpretable in sacrosanct manner. Colour red that means stop in traffic light may mean danger or love in other contexts. Signs are interpretable according to social conventions.

Ethnography of communication

Ethnography is a branch of anthropology which deals with descriptive study of living cultures. It does not work on existing data or based on the outcome of previous researches. It breaks new ground, gets fresh data through participant observations and interviews, and generates new theory to explore how people think, believe and behave with each other in local time and space (*Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics*. Third edition 2002).

It is applicable to linguistic study in the area of language learning and use to refer to the observation and description of naturally occurring language, for example, between mother and child especially where a strong cultural element is involved in the research.

Ethnography of communication is an approach to discourse analysis to study the place of language in culture and society. It was developed by Hyme in his series of papers written in the 1960 and 1970s (Hyme 1974a: 20). It is an approach that is based on

anthropology and linguistics. It aims to analyze patterns of communication as part of cultural behaviour which includes recognition of diversity possibility in communicative practices and realization of such practices as part of our socio-cultural knowledge and behaviour. It creates a unified integrated framework in which communication has a central role in both anthropological and linguistic studies (Schiffrin 1994: 138). It is concerned with the study of ways of speaking in cultural contexts. It is of the opinion that speakers of a language do not only have grammatical competence of their language, but also as cultural members, they have communicative competence. At the same time, they share cultural knowledge of the rules about how to interact appropriately in every situation (van Dijk 1997: 25). The ethnographers of communication analyze communicative patterns by using the method of participant observation in order to discover how members of a culture know how to make, and how to communicate the interpretation of the sense they make in their relationship through language. In a nutshell, ethnography of communication investigates the place of language in culture and society, and reflects the fact that culture itself encompasses totality of knowledge and practices in society.

Conversation analysis

Conversation is oral or spoken discourse which can be recorded for further studies. It is naturally occurring utterances among participants in a social setting which follow the social rules of organizing communication. It is actual social talk. Conversation analysis is an approach to discourse from sociology which seeks to discover the methods that members of a society use to produce a sense of social order, and conversation is a source of much of our social order (Schiffrin 1994: 232). It is also called talk in interaction. It was introduced by Schegloff, Sacks and Jefferson in the early 1970s. It is concerned with the problem of social order, that is, how language creates social context, and how social context creates language. It is an approach to discourse that lays emphasis on context, and the relevance of context is on text. It considers how participants in a conversation construct systematic solutions to recurrent organizational problems of talk, and the solutions come through the close analysis of the sequential progression of talk (Schiffrin 1994: 273). The basic premises of conversation analysis are i. Language is a form of social interaction; ii. conversational structures are rule-governed. It posits that verbal interactions are both structurally organized and contextually oriented. It is the duty of the analysts to elucidate the structures and determine how they are interrelated (Heritage 1984).

There are mechanisms to help in the organization of conversation. One of them is turn-taking, which is the method of allocating floor in conversation. A person speaks at a time in conversation and allows others to speak when his turn is over by giving a cue. It is the basic characteristic of normal conversation which can be done either by

appointing the next speaker or the next speaker just take the floor without being appointed, or the current speaker continues if the next speaker refuses to take the floor (Coulthard 1985: 59, Sacks, Schegloff and Jefferson 1974: 704). Another one is adjacency pair which is a unit of conversation that contains two utterances in adjacent produced by different speakers where they take one turn after another in a sequence. The sequence may contain question and answer pair, greeting and response pair, request and acceptance or rejection pair, apology and acceptance pair and so on. Each sequence of the conversation has an opening, exchange and closing. There is also insertion sequence which is a sequence of turns that intervenes the first and the second parts of the adjacency pair. It is used as a delay tactics when people do not want to provide a direct response to an elicitation until they are sure of what to say. There is also a repair mechanism employed when there is an error in communication. There may also be overlapping which must be avoided.

Interactional sociolinguistics

Interactional sociolinguistics is an interpretative linguistic approach developed by John Gumperz to analyze real time processes in face to face encounters (Gumperz 1982a: vii). He employs contextualization cues which are signalling mechanisms of language and behaviour, both verbal and non-verbal signs, that relate the utterance to the contextual knowledge, which contributes to the presuppositions necessary for the inference of the meaning of the utterance (Gumperz 1984a: 12). The approach focuses on how people from different cultural backgrounds may share grammatical knowledge of a language but contextualize what someone said differently in a way that different messages are produced from it and understood. He views language as a socially and culturally constructed symbol system that is in different ways reflect macro-level of social meaning, that is, group identity and status difference, and create micro-level of social meaning, that is, what a person is saying and doing at a particular moment. Speakers are members of socio-cultural groups. The manner in which we use language reflects our group identity and continues to reveal who we are; what we want to communicate and how we want to communicate (Schiffrin 1994: 102). The focal points of Gumperz are culture, society, language, the self and contextualization cue which relates to another two concepts: contextual presupposition and situated inference.

Erving Goffman is another major contributor to the approach. He focuses on social interaction which complements Gumperz situated inference instead of analysis of language. He describes how language is situated in particular circumstances of social life, and how it affects the circumstances. What he does is that he places language and other communicative sign systems in the same social and interpersonal contexts which provide the presuppositions that Gumperz finds to be a crucial background for the interpretation of meaning.

The point of convergence between the two scholars is that they provide a unity to interactional sociolinguistics by showing the interaction between self and others, and context. Gumperz contribution on the first hand focuses on the critical nature of the interpretation of context to the communication of information, and to another person's understanding of a speaker's intention and discourse strategy. Goffman contribution on the other hand focuses on how the organization of social life provides contexts for both the conduct of self and communication with another person to make sense. The two of them have been able to provide an approach to discourse which focuses on situated meaning.

Discourse analysis has been treated in this chapter to familiarize learners with the meaning of the concept with certain terminologies that relate to it and different approaches to the study of discourse.

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