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Discourse Analysis

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ESTABLISHMENT

HELLO EVERYONE!

Today, we will read from the file entitled *"Discourse"*.

Discourse is the term we have been discussing from the beginning of the term.

What is discourse?

Most of the available definitions of discourse fall into three central categories:

1- Discourse is anything beyond the sentence.

2- Discourse means language use. (The study of discourse refers to the study of the different aspects of language use).

3- Discourse means a social practice that includes nonlinguistic instances of language.

What are the types of discourse?

The term "**discourse**" covers different **types** of discourses such as written, spoken, visual languages, as well as multimodal/ multimedia forms of communication.

We mean by **visual languages** (body language, sign language, symbols, etc.).

Discourse, text, and context

What is the difference between discourse and text? Are they the same?

Discourse and **text** are two different terms.

Traditionally, *discourse* had been treated as "a continuous stretch of (especially spoken) language larger than a sentence"; whereas, *text* had been viewed as written language.

Text refers to "a stretch of language interpreted formally, without **context**".

How we can interpret a text without a context? Is it possible? For example, if you have a short story or poem, can it be interpreted without context? Can it be analysed without reading the background information?

Of course you can read a text without a context; you look at the words, and how they come together to communicate a message. Regardless of the fact whether we have autobiographical elements; so we read a text without a context you are basically focusing on how words and the language come together; regardless of the views of the writer, and his is from.

When I say **text**, I mean the written. Whereas **discourse** means beyond the language, starting with the utterance, the context, and the producers and receivers.

> **Discourse** "brings together language, the individuals producing the language, and the **context** within which the language is used".

So, we have language together with context.

> **Text** refers to a written or taped record of a piece of communication, whereas **discourse** refers to the piece of communication in context.

If you, for example, tweeted a spoken text, we think of the oral language or spoken language, we mean by this text, the taped or scripted piece of communication.

So, when you read a text without a context, we call this a linguistics **stylistics**; it is an approach in which we focus on words, and how words and sentences and paragraphs come together to communicate a message, regardless the background and context. In **literary criticism** (النقد الأدبي), we call this approach **formalism** (الشكلية). So, we are not interested in psychology, we are not interested in the personality of the writer or his/ her political or religious views.

> **Discourse** is not produced without context and cannot be understood without taking context into consideration.
>
> Discourses are always connected to other discourses, which were produced earlier, as well as those, which are produced synchronically and subsequently.

What do we mean by discourses which were produced earlier?
It is words that we know before that related to specific situation.
How did we agree about this language?
We have received and learned it in our society and families.
- (Subsequently) means what comes after/ later, means one word lead to another.
- (Synchronically) means what is produced at the same time, or what is produced earlier, which means pre-existing discourses, pre-existing knowledge, or what we called at a previous lecture *Repertoire of scripts.*

Repertoire of scripts means our knowledge of previous texts, common knowledge, and lists of history, society, economy, politics. So, all this comes under the umbrella of *Synchronically.*

> Text is viewed as part of discourse.

> Discourse is the biggest umbrella, and text is under it.

> To illustrate the differences between the two notions, the following simple sentence is analyzed: *"Yeah I loved it."*

We do not know the context here. *How said it?* And we do not know the addressee and what is meant by **it**.

> If one considers this sentence as a text, then you can analyze it syntactically,

phonologically, grammatically, etc. Yet, the exact meaning and intention of the given sentence and the speaker including the cultural aspects is not examined.

When we think about the speaker, addressee, why it is said, and in what context, then we are discussing discourse. While if you study it grammatically, syntactically, etc. this is just a text.

When you consider the intention, rhyme, or speaker and listener, you consider the context we are speaking of.

Who uses discourse analysis? In which sciences is discourse analysis used?

It is for linguistics, translation, media, politics, and all fields of study are included in discourse analysis.

Discourse analysis has been taken up in a variety of disciplines in the humanities and social sciences, including linguistics, social work, sociology, cultural studies, international relations, communication studies, public relations, and translation studies.

So, discourse analysis is part of many fields of sciences.

In textual analysis, the real meaning and intention are overlooked, because the context is excluded.

*What is the meaning of "**overlooked**"?* It means (ignored).

When you do textual analysis, the intention of the speaker and why the text is produced are not exact because the context is excluded.

On the other hand, if the same sentence is examined as a discourse, then it is plausible to uncover the meaning, the intention of the speaker, and its effect on the hearer, as the analysis examines the context of the sentence. That is, the analyst will take into consideration the speaker, the addressee, the cultural aspects, etc.

So, when we are looking at *"who said this?"* *"who is listening?"* or *"who are the addresser and addressee?"*, when we consider the cultural aspects, when we look at the intention of the speaker, when we look at the context and the meaning, **we are doing discourse analysis**.

The notion of **context** should be highlighted here.

The word **context** is derived from the Latin words *con* (meaning together) and *texere* (meaning to weave). The raw meaning of context is therefore *"weaving together"*.

In this sense, discourse is "more than *just* language use: It is language use seen as a type of social practice". It takes place within a given context.

Discourse is not just language use, but how to use language; here come the connection and describing language as a social practice because you say certain things a specific context, this is discourse.

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Discourse as a social practice

What is the starting point to examine language?

What factors you put in your mind when you examine language?

Students: Understand the general idea of the text, how words were put together, and cultural aspects.

Professor: According to *Fairclough*, he is a professor of linguistics, "Language is a form of social practice".

Why is language important? To communicate.

Why language is considered as a form of social practice? To express ourselves (emotions and feelings), and to break the bridge between us and other people making relationships.

What is the meaning of social practice?

Fairclough explains the meaning of social practice in three points:

1- **Language is not an external entity**; rather, language is part of society.

2- Language is **a social process**. In this sense, the line can be drawn between discourse and text.

Text, both written and spoken, is a **product** (of the process of text production) not a process.

Discourse is "the whole **process** of social interaction of which a text is just one part", hence, **text** is an essential part of discourse.

In both processes, the process of **text production** as well as the process of **text interpretation**, text is considered as a resource *only*.

3- Language is **a socially conditioned process** (of both production and interpretation) by other nonlinguistic part of society (or parts of society).

These nonlinguistic parts are referred to as *members' resources* by Fairclough.

The term Members' resources refers to what "people have in their heads and draw upon when they produce or interpret texts, including their knowledge of language, representations of the natural and social world they inhabit, values, beliefs, culture, assumptions, and so on".

I referred to this earlier as **Repertoire of scripts.**

In short, discourse might be viewed as "socially **constitutive** as well as socially **conditioned**, it constitutes situations, objects of knowledge, and the social identities of and relationships between people and groups of people".

What is the difference between socially constitutive and socially conditioned?

(Constitute) means to compose, to make up, and to form. So, *Socially constitutive* means it is a product of society. And *Socially conditioned* means it is defined by society.

Yet, in order to (re) construct and represent any social reality, **discursive**

practices are needed.

(Discursive) is the adjective from (Discourse).

Basically, *discursive practices* shape our life, whether they are available in the media, newspapers, TV, etc.

Discursive practices

Discursive practices are essential, because they are the practices discourse analysts seek to uncover and reveal, in order to pinpoint the different versions of reality.

What we understand by this that we have different forms and types of discursive practices, and they are important; if we want to analyse language, if we want to uncover or reveal the meaning, or if we want to understand the different versions of reality, **we have to learn the discursive practices**.

One of language's functions is to "*do* things". "Language-in-use is about saying, doing, and being".

This is the difference between language in function and language in use. Language in function is about to do things, while language in use means discourse analysis (saying, doing, and being).

What are discursive practices?

They are an identifiable set of (non) linguistic elements and tools that usually go together to achieve a specific goal. (e.g., anger, happiness, etc.)

What do we mean by (identifiable)?

It is from (identify), from (identity); this means something common; and what we all know and recognise. For example, when somebody is angry or sad, without even speaking.

These tools are utilized to construct discourse that can (re) construct reality.

Discourse is insuperable from reality because discourse defines language as a social practice.

Example: Media has its own discursive practices to manipulate people (or at least represent their own reality in accordance with their ideology), e.g. metaphors, rhetorical styles, euphemism, colours, font size, etc.

For example, in politics, they use metaphors, and rhetorical styles.

Topics of interest

What are topics of interest for discourse analysis?

Topics of interest for discourse analysis include genres of discourse (various types of discourse in politics, the media, education, science, business, etc.), the relations between text (discourse) and context, the relations between discourse and power, the relations between discourse and interaction, and the relations

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between discourse and cognition and memory.

So, these discourse types are inseparable from context, power, interaction, and memory.

Discourse structure (hierarchy of discourse)

Discourse is neither flat nor linear in its organization; it is **hierarchical**.

Hierarchy means in any relationship, there is someone in the top who has the power over the other.

An example on **Hierarchy**, at Damascus University, we have hierarchy, we have the president of Damascus University, we have different deans, in every department, we have chairman or chairwoman of the department, we have doctors, and finally we have the students. So, this is *Hierarchy*.

Why is the nature of discourse hierarchical?

When I think about a text or when I interpret a text, when I think about hierarchy, I think about ranks, power relationships.
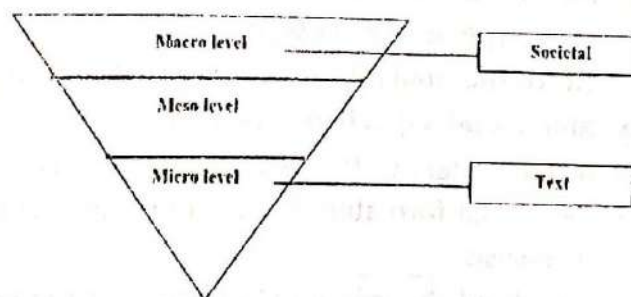
Is this the same when it comes to discourse structure? Is there a kind of power relationships when we interpret a text?

Who has power over the text? Is it the writer, speaker, or the interpreter?

What is a hierarchy?

A hierarchy "is a word conventionally used to denote a series of structured levels (or ranks) of progressively increasing size, each level having its own characteristic structure in relation to levels above and below".

This hierarchical structure enables us to view and/ or approach discourse in two ways: top-down and/ or bottom-up. They are best described by the inverted pyramid below.

Can you explain *what is the Macro, and what is the Micro when it comes to discourse?*

The Macro: refers to the society, the world outside, it refers to cultural context of the text or cultural aspects in a text, and could refer to believes, values. So, the Macro refers to any cultural values, or pre-existing knowledge in the text.

The Micro: is the text itself.

This hierarchy of discourse .is known as the three levels of discourse analysis.

> These three levels, namely *micro*, *meso*, and *macro*, constitute discourse. The tapering lower portion can be purely linguistics. However, the higher a person goes, the more discoursal and social (societal) the analysis and interpretation will be.

The lower level is linguistic because it relates to the text.

The more people go up, the more discourse becomes social.

> **1- Micro level** is "building blocks of the paragraph", they usually consist of one or two utterances, but can have more.

The Micro level is building of words, and how words come together to form sentences, and how these sentences comes together to form paragraphs, then the text itself.

> At the micro level, a text can be seen as a syntagma of grammatically defined units, the largest of which are generated by the syntactic component of grammar: clauses, clause complexes and – in written language – sentences.

What is Syntagma?

A Syntagma is a linguistic unite consisting of a set of linguistic forms, such as words, phrases, clauses, etc. They come together and have sequential relationships between one another.

So, at the micro level, the **text** works as group of linguistic units; and these units are generated by grammar.

> "Vocabulary, grammar and text structure are categorized in this scope". Simply put, the analysis of discourse at this level is a mere textual analysis, because it lacks the social aspects of discourse.

At the level of Micro, the analysis is pure textual and linguistic because it lacks the context and social aspects of discourse.

> **2- Macro level** (societal) refers to the texts as a whole, as one receives them. At this level, "the wider social formation is taken into account to interpret the findings of the textual analysis".

Here we are talking about the relationship between the text itself and the society outside, the cultural aspects of the text itself.

So, at the Macro level, we are interested in society, in the bigger picture; we are interested in how a text is produced and why.

> In essence, this level is what makes analysts deals with the text as being a discourse.

When we move up to the Marco level, we become dealing with

discourse analysis, but at the Micro level, we are speaking of textual analysis.

What is the Meso level?

What do you expect (Meso level) is about?

Student: The prior knowledge about the context.

Professor: It comes between the Macro and the Micro levels. At this level, researchers examine groups including teams, units, and organizations. It also refers to analysis that is specifically designed to reveals connection between Macro and Micro levels. It is sometimes refers to as a mid-range (حقل وسطي) especially in sociology.

Examples of Meso level units of analysis include the following: clan, community, village, town, city, state, country.

So, the Meso level is like the bridge between the Macro and Micro levels. And it is very important to sociology because at the Meso level of analysis, they look at the components of a town; they look at the relationships of people, geography, demography, population, etc.

Discourse analysis

What is discourse analysis?

> Linguistically, discourse analysis as the analysis of 'texts' in a broad sense, including written texts, spoken interaction, the multi-media texts of television and the internet, etc.
>
> "The analysis of discourse is the analysis of language in use. As such, it cannot be restricted to the description of linguistic forms independent from the purposes or functions which these forms are designed to serve in human affairs".

As we said earlier that the text is a group of linguistic units. When we look at a text, we look at the form and structure; we look at the grammar and syntax; and how a sentence is put together. However, when we think about discourse, we think about the relation between this group of linguistic units with the purposes and functions. So, we think about the why, how, and for what purpose.

The meaning of discourse is language in use, they are in this quotation explain the meaning of language in use.

What is the meaning of "language in use"?

We should differentiate between discourse analysis and textual analysis. Textual analysis is restricted to the description of linguistic forms, but discourse, which is the analysis of language in use, cannot be.

So, as a discourse analysts, our job is to examine the relationship between language, those who produce the text and those who receive the text, *how the language is produced? How the text is produced? And what*

are the purposes? What they serve? What are their functions?

For discourse analysts, there is no separation between linguistic forms and the context, the text production and the process of text production, as well as the context. So, there is an intimate relationship between them.

Practically speaking, Jansen points out that the process of analyzing discourse is concerned with the interaction of three elements, namely text, context, and the functions of discourse itself.

To sum up, discourse analysis is an approach to language or text that takes into consideration the use of language in a given society where context is considered as the focal point for interpretation and analysis.

If you remember, in the first lecture I showed you a picture of a very old Egyptian language, which we cannot understand. You told me that this language could mean something for some people but not for us. So, a language, when you think about discourse analysis, has to mean something to a group of people, and has to serve a certain function.

What do we mean by focal point? A focus point, or central point.

Hence, discourse analysis is unlike other approaches to language, which examines and analyzes naturally occurring texts or utterances without focusing on the context of a given text.

From the above discussions, the agreed-upon understanding of discourse analysis can be encapsulated in the following **points**:

What is the meaning of (encapsulated)? To enclose in or as if in a capsule

1- With reference to linguistics, discourse analysis is a linguistic approach to speech and communication that attempts to probe how the selected words in a given context can 'construct' a social reality.

2- Thus, the focal point of analysis is language and its function in a given context.

3- One of the principles of discourse analysis is that language does things at the macro level of discourse, i.e., the societal level.

4- Only through discourse and its (discursive) practices, speaker can do things using language. Of course, each type of discourse has its own discursive practices.

Basically, without discourse we cannot use language; if we do not know what we are saying, we will not say anything. So, the tools of discourse analysis for sociologists are very different from the tools of discourse analysis for a translator, or for a media user, even in politics.

Thank You

HELLO EVERYONE!

The job of the analyst of discourse is to know what language is used for; this is our purpose as discourse analysts.

We have two major functions of language: **Transactional** and **Interactional**.

The functions of language

- The analysis of discourse is, necessarily, the analysis of language in use.
- The discourse analyst is committed to what the language is used for.

It used to communicate, inform, entertain, advise, warn, etc.

- In order to describe <u>the major functions of language</u>, two terms are adopted:

The function which language serves in the expression of "content" is **transactional**, and the one involved in expressing social relations and personal attitudes is **interactional**.

What do you understand by Transactional and Interactional functions of language?

Transactional is to give/ deliver and receive a message, while Interactional is about interacting and building a relationship.

The transactional view

Linguists and linguistic philosophers make the general assumption that the most important function is **the communication of information**. Thus, Lyons observes that the notion of communication is readily used "of feelings, moods and attitudes" but suggests that he will be primarily interested in "the intentional transmission of factual, or propositional, information".

It is to communicate our feelings, express our mood and attitudes, and transmission of facts and opinions.

Similarly, Bennett remarks "**it seems likely that communication is primarily a matter of a speaker's seeking either to inform a hearer of something or to enjoin some action upon him**".

(To enjoin some action upon someone) means to instruct someone to do something.

So, according to *Bennett* is either to inform or to instruct somebody to do something.

The language, which is used to convey "factual or, propositional information", is **primarily transactional language**.

In primarily **transactional language**, we assume that what the speaker (or writer) has primarily in mind is the efficient transference of information. Language used in such a situation is primarily "message oriented".

Here, the writer defining for us the meaning of transactional language.

This what we said at the beginning that the transactional view of language is about delivering and receiving a message, so it is message oriented.

It is important that the recipient gets the informative detail correct. Thus, if a policeman gives directions to a traveler, or a doctor tells a nurse how to administer medicine to a patient, in each case it matters that the speaker should make what he says (or-writes) clear.

It is an example of transactional language.

The interactional view

Whereas linguists, philosophers of language and psycho-linguists have, in general, paid particular attention to the use of language for the transmission of "factual or propositional information", **sociologists and sociolinguists have been particularly concerned with the use of language to establish and maintain social relationships**.

- (Propositional information) means opinions, suggestions, and judgments.

So, for sociologists and psycho-linguists, they focus on the interactional view of language rather than the transactional view of language.

Conversational analysts have been particularly concerned with the use of language to negotiate role-relations, peer-solidarity, the exchange of turns in a conversation, the saving of face of both speaker and hearer.

- (Role-relations): It means power relationships as well as the role of relationships; who has power.
- (Peer-solidarity): Is when you give support to your colleague or people who are parts of conversation.

It is clearly the case that a great deal of everyday human interaction is characterized by the primarily interpersonal rather than the primarily transactional use of language.

- (Interpersonal) means our connections and our relationships.

The interactional view of language is more dominant than the transactional view of language because sometimes when you think about conversation, you make a conversation sometimes not to deliver a message, just to talk and just to build a relationship.

Let us consider the following examples:
- When two strangers are standing shivering at a bus stop in an icy wind and

one turns to the other and says "**My goodness, it's cold**", it is difficult to suppose that the primary intention of the speaker is to convey information. It seems much more reasonable to suggest that the speaker is indicating a readiness to be friendly and to talk.

So, the purpose of "*My goodness, it's cold*" in this situation is not to convey information, but to build a relationship, to interact.

- A great deal of ordinary everyday conversation appears to consist of one individual commenting on something, which is present to both him and his listener.

- A woman on a bus describing the way a mutual friend has been behaving, getting out of bed too soon after an operation, concludes her turn in the conversation by saying: **Aye, she's an awfy woman**. (awfy = awful).

This might be taken as an informative summary. Her neighbor then says reflectively (having been supportively uttering **aye, aye** throughout the first speaker's turn): **Aye, she's an awfy woman**.

Pirsig remarks of such a conversation: "**the conversation's pace** intrigues me. It isn't intended to go anywhere, just fill the time of day... on and on and on with no point or purpose other than to fill the time, like the rocking of a chair."

Sometimes we with other people not to transmit any knowledge or information, but to build a relationship.

Brown & Levinson point out the importance for social relationships of establishing common ground and agreeing on points of view, and illustrate the lengths to which speakers in different cultures will go to maintain an appearance of agreement, and they remark "**agreement may also be stressed by; repeating part or all of what the preceding speaker has said**".

In order to show appearance of agreement in a conversation or remark an agreement, we simply do that by repeating a part of what the speaker had said.

Written language is, in general, used for primarily transactional purposes, it is possible to find written genres whose purpose is not primarily to inform but to maintain social relationships, e.g. "thank you" letters, love letters, games of consequences, etc.

The purpose of written language is to deliver a message.

When you say a "*thank you*" letter, you are not informing, you are making a connection, building a relationship, and trying to be friendly.

Another example is (love letters), they are written texts, and their purpose is not to transmit information but to make the relationship stronger.

The other example is (games of consequences), they are board games,

and they are a fun way to introduce or reinforce the idea that there is a consequence for all actions and behaviour. Each card has an everyday task or behaviour that results in a forward or backwards move.

Can you think of a game of consequences? UNO.

The idea here is not really to transmit information because the information becomes obvious for the players that actually **to play.**

The purpose or view of some written text might be interactional rather than transactional.

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Spoken and written language

What is the difference between Spoken and written language?

Manner of production

What is the manner of production for spoken language? It could be a microphone, conversation, speech, phone call, WhatsApp call, etc.

Spoken and written language makes somewhat different demands on language producers. The speaker has available to him/ her the full range of "voice quality" effects (as well as facial expression, postural and gestural systems).

- (Postural): it is basically the way we pertaining to the posture or position of the body, the attitude or carriage of the body as a whole, or the position of the limbs (the arms and legs).

When we are talking about spoken language, for you as a speakers and listeners, it is obvious for you the voice, and quality, you comprehended because you are presenting and listening. And what is available for you is the facial expressions, the postural of the speaker, the body language, as well as the gestures.

Example:
The speaker who says "I'd really like to", leaning forward, smiling, with a "warm, breathy" voice quality, is much more likely to be interpreted as meaning what he says, than another speaker uttering the same words, leaning away, brow puckered, with a "sneering, nasal" voice quality.

These are postural systems; and from these postural systems, we get the information about the person we are talking to.
We call these cues "Paralinguistic cues".

These paralinguistic cues are denied to the writer.

By *Paralinguistic cues,* we mean the tone, gestures, facial expressions, voice quality, etc. they are relative to the speaker and listener, but they are denied to the writer.

> Not only is the speaker controlling the production of communicative systems which are different from those controlled by the writer, s/he is also processing that production under circumstances which are considerably more demanding.

They are saying that the communicative system in the written text is very different from spoken text. The speaker, who is involved in a conversation, is part of the production of the process of communication. So, you have to be attended, you have to be present, and listening. Otherwise, you will miss the message and conversation. But the situation is very different for the writer.

> The speaker must monitor what it is that S/ he has just said, and determine whether it matches her/ his intentions, while s/he is uttering her/his current phrase and monitoring that, and simultaneously planning his next utterance and fitting that into the overall pattern of what S/ he wants to say and monitoring. Moreover, not only her/ his own performance but its reception by her/ his hearer.

Not only you need to monitor what to say, but you really need to watch out how other people are listening to your information. *Is my information delivered clearly? Do the listeners understand what I said?* If they do not understand, I have to clarify myself.

So, there is so much pressure when you are making a conversation, you have to be aware, and intensive. Unlike the process of writing.

> **The writer**, on the contrary, may look over what s/ he has already written, **pause** between each word with no fear of her/ his interlocutor interrupting her/ him, **take her/ his time** in choosing a particular word, even looking it up in the dictionary if necessary, **check her/his progress** with her/ his notes, **reorder** what s/he has written, and **even change** her/ his mind about what s/ he wants to say.

Writing a text is totally different from speaking; unlike the nature and structure of conversation.

> Whereas the speaker is under considerable pressure to keep on talking during the period allotted to him, the writer is **characteristically under no such pressure**. Whereas the speaker knows that any words which pass his lips will be heard by his interlocutor and, if they are not what he intends, he will have to undertake active, public "repair", the writer can cross out and rewrite in the privacy of his study.

They are comparing the production of a spoken text to the production of a written one. The nature and process of producing a written text is very different from being part of a conversation; a writer can cross out any irrelevant piece of information, but in a conversation you have to apologise.

The speaker can observe their interlocutor and, if they wish to, modify what they are saying to make it more accessible or acceptable to their hearer. **The writer has no access** to immediate feedback and simply has to imagine the reader's reaction.

Whereas in a spoken interaction the speaker has the advantage of being able to monitor their listener's minute-by-minute reaction to what they say, they also suffer from the disadvantage of exposing their own feelings, and of having to speak clearly and concisely and make immediate response to whichever way their interlocutor reacts.

Basically, a conversation is process of action and interaction, but in the written text the write does not have this immediate response or feedback.

So, when we make a conversation, we might not aware of all this because we think it is obvious and natural but it is quite complicated.

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The representation of discourse: texts
Written texts

In the study of literature, "text" is a printed record.

A "text" may be differently presented in different editions, with different typeface, on different sizes of paper, in one or two columns, and we still assume, from one edition to the next, that the different presentations all represent the same "text".

- (Typeface): is the design of lettering that can include variations in size, weight (e.g. bold), slope (e.g. italic), width (e.g. condensed), etc.

When you read a novel or any book, they were different editions of the same book. We assume, as readers, that the changes between edition /1/ and /2/ or /7/ are really minor.

Consider the following extract of dialogue from *Pride and Prejudice*:
"Mr. Bennet, how can you abuse your own children in such away? You take delight in vexing me. You have no compassion on my poor nerves. "You mistake me, my dear. I have a high respect for your nerves. They are my old friends. I have heard you mention them with consideration these twenty years at least."

Is there anything interesting or wrong in this text? There is a mistake, which is 'the inverted commas'. We have two quotations by two different people.

How do you comprehend it is the end of conversation number 1? How do you know it is the end of the speech by speaker number 1? How do we know that we have two speakers?

Yes, we have two speakers; we know that from the meaning. There is

some mistakes with the inverted commas, there is some of them missing. But we know from the change of the meaning.

Let us see the analysis.

> It is clear that more than simply reproducing the words in their correct order is required. It is necessary to replicate punctuation conventions, as well as the lineation, which indicates the change of speaker.

- (Lineation) is the action or process of drawing lines.

There is some change here, they need to have a separation between conversation number 1 (the speaker) and 2 (the receiver), the first speaker part has to be separated from the second speaker, not only by conventional lines but also they have to be some spacing between the two speakers' speeches.

> An adequate representation of a text must assign speeches to the correct characters, sentences to the correct paragraphs, and paragraphs to the correct chapters. The author's organization and staging of his work must be preserved.

That is why we usually have different editions of the same book, to clarify a certain speech or specific meaning.

> The notion of "text" reaches beyond the reproduction of printed material in some further printed form.
>
> **Example:**
> Queen Victoria's use of underlining in her handwritten journal is represented by her publishers in the printed version with an italic typeface to represent the emphasis she wishes to indicate when writing of Lord Melbourne:
> He gave me **such** a kind, and I may say, **fatherly** look
> (Thursday, 28 June 1838)

The use of *italic* typeface used by Queen Victoria in place of underlining is to emphasis.

> Where the writer is deliberately exploiting the resources of the written medium, it seems reasonable to suggest that that manipulation constitutes part of the text. The individual reproducing the text in a printed version has to make a considerable effort of interpretation to assign a value to some of the less legible words.

Here, the writers, editors, or the publishers of the queen's speech or journal made an extra effort to the written text that was used already by the queen herself, and they made an extra addition, and this addition is justify, is not in terms of conventional science as in capitalization or inverted commas but it is in use of italic.

The use of *italic* here is not to emphasis certain words.

So, sometimes this *interveinal* in the text is needed in part of a culture

because it adds values to the written text.

Spoken texts

What do we do as discourse analysts when we want to analyse a spoken text? We know the nature of spoken text is different from the one of written text.

A tape-recording of a communicative act will preserve the "text". The tape-recording may also preserve a good deal that may be extraneous to the text, such as coughing, chairs creaking, buses going past, the scratch of a match lighting a cigarette. We shall insist that these events do not constitute part of the text.

The question raised here is *"How do we preserve the spoken text?"*; by tape-recording of the conversation.

So, when you have a tape-recording text, any noise around the conversation may interrupt it, and you analyse this text differently because the extra additions.

In general, **the discourse analyst works with a tape recording of an event**, from which S/he then makes a written transcript annotated according to his interests on a particular occasion.

In general, analysts represent speech using normal orthographic conventions. Most speakers constantly simplify words phonetically in the stream of speech.

By (Orthography), we mean a set of conventions for writing a language. It includes the rules and standards/ norms for spelling, hyphenation, capitalization, word breaks, emphasis, and punctuation. Such as the speech we read earlier by the queen, we had the *italic*.

Problems with representing the segmental record of the words spoken pale into insignificance compared with the problems of representing the super segmental records (details of intonation and rhythm).

What is the problem or challenging facing the discourse analysts when they analyse a spoken text?

How to represent the spoken words is a lessen problem compered to how to represent intonation and rhyme.

How can we represent it in a written text? If you are transforming a spoken text into a written text, how can you transform and keep preserve the intonation and rhyme?

That is the problem or challenging facing the discourse analysts.

We have no standard conventions for representing the **paralinguistic** features of the utterance which are summarized as **"voice quality"**, yet the effect of an utterance being said kindly and sympathetically is clearly very different from the effect if it is said brutally and harshly.

We do not have a code or convention or paralinguistic features to preserve the voice quality of the speaker. So, the intonation is very important.

Similarly it is usually possible to determine from a speaker's voice his or her sex, approximate age and educational status, as well as some aspects of state of health and personality.

It is not customary to find any detail relating to these indexical features of the speaker in transcriptions by discourse analysts. In general, too, rhythmic and temporal features of speech are ignored in transcriptions.

It seems reasonable to suggest, though, that these variables, together with pause and intonation, perform the functions in speech that punctuation, capitalization, italicization, paragraphing etc. perform in written language. If they constitute part of the textual record in written language, they should be included as part of the textual record in spoken language.

This is the challenge from a discourse analyst when they transcript the conversation, is to include the things that we cannot see, such as the pause and intonation.

The response of most analysts to this complex problem is to present their transcriptions of the spoken text using the conventions of the written language. Thus Cicourel reproduce utterances recorded in a classroom in the following way:

1. Ci: Like this?
2.T: **Okay**, yeah, all right, now...
3. Ri: *Now* what are we going to do?

This is a spoken language example, a conversation in a classroom. This is a transparent.

What do you think the added features are in your opinion? The punctuations, some words are in **Bold** and others in *italic*, such as (*NOW*), and sometime the use of question mark, such as (Like this?), it is not a question but the question mark was added in the transcription for the analyst to understand that this a question.

In 1 and 3, we have to assume that the **?** indicates that the utterance function as a question whether it is formally marked by, for stance, rising intonation in the case of 1.

What must be clear in a transcript of this kind is that a great deal of interpretation by the analyst has gone on before the reader encounters this "data".

Before you get the transcript, the analyst may interfere in this spoken text, and add features form the written language, to help us understand

what is missing in this spoken dialogue.

> If the analyst chooses to italicise a word in his transcription to indicate, for example, the speaker's high pitch and increased loudness, s/he has performed an interpretation on the acoustic signal, an interpretation which, s/he has decided, is in effect equivalent to a writer's underlining of a word to indicate emphasis.

Italic in the transcript of spoken language equals the underlining in the written language. So, this italic that we saw in the previous spoken example, such as (*Now*) indicates emphasis on this word.

أي إن محلل الخطاب، وفي تحديداً المحادثة، قبل أن يصل الـ (transcript) لنا مكتوباً، يكون هذا المحلل قد قام بعملية طويلة من التفسير المختلفة والإضافات على النص. على سبيل المثال (الخط المائل) الذي يدل ليس فقط على التأكيد بل الصوت المرتفع أو فجأة شخص رفع صوته، فبذلك كان قد قام بتفسيرات بما يخص الإشارة الصوتية والأصوات التي كان يسمعها أثناء تسجيل المحادثة.

> There is a sense, then, in which the analyst is creating the text which others will read. In this creation of the written version of the spoken text s/he makes appeal to conventional modes of interpretation which, s/he believes, are shared by other speakers of the language.

Before we read, somebody else interprets the text for us.

> We assume what Schutz has called 'the reciprocity of perspective', whereby we take it for granted that readers of a text or listeners to a text share the same experience.

This discourse analyst is adding this addition to the spoken language because they assume that there is something called **"The reciprocity of perspective"** that is share common knowledge by which we understand spoken language. That is why we add these written conventions or conventions from the written language.

> It seems fair to suggest that discourse analysis of spoken language is particularly prone to over-analysis. **A** text frequently has a much wider variety of interpretations imposed upon it by analysts studying it at their leisure, than would ever have been possible for the participants in the communicative interaction which gives rise to the 'text'.

If we are discussing something, as quite a spoken text, we think in a moment of speech what we are going to say, but we do not over analyse it. Whereas the job of the analysts is different, they over analyse/ deep analyse what we have already said.

الخوف أو الخطر الذي يواجه المحلل أثناء تحليل النص الشفهي وتحويله لنص كتابي، هو (over-analysis) لدرجة أن المحلل يمكن أن يبدل المعنى.

*****

The relationship between speech and writing

Written language and spoken language serve, in general, quite different functions in society.

What are these two functions?

Goody suggests that <u>written language has two main functions:</u>
The first is the storage function which permits communication over time and space, and the second is that which 'shifts language from the oral to the visual domain' and permits words and sentences to be examined out of their original contexts, 'where they appear in a very different and highly "abstract" context'.

The first is meaning **storing information**; this is the advantage of written text that you do not lose the information when they are written. While the second purpose of written text is **to transform the oral to the visual**, and by doing so, we observed.

It seems reasonable to suggest that, whereas in daily life in a literate culture, we use **speech** largely for the establishment and maintenance of human relationships (primarily interactional use), we use **written language** largely for the working out of and transference of information (primarily transactional use).

This the main differences between speech and written language. So, **speech** is interactional to use human relationships, while **written language** is to preserve and deliver a message, i.e. it is transactional.

<u>However, there are occasions when speech is used for the detailed transmission of factual information.</u> It is noteworthy, then, that the recipient often writes down the details that s/he is told. So a doctor writes down his patient's symptoms, an architect writes down his client's requirements.

Sometimes in a certain occasion, speech can take the role of written language, and it can take the role of transactional use.

When the recipient is not expected to write down the details, it is often the case that the speaker repeats them sometimes several times over.

Such as doctors, they give you the information, then write the transcript, and then they repeat it again, so you can remember it.

There is a general expectation that people will not remember detailed facts correctly if they are only exposed to them in the spoken mode, especially if they are required to remember them over an extended period of time. This aspect of communication is obviously what written language is supremely good at.

The major differences between speech and writing derive from the fact that one is essentially transitory and the other is designed to be permanent.

Of course, the permanent is the written language, and the transitory is the speech.

*****

Differences in form between written and spoken language

Clearly there are dialectal differences, accent differences, as well as register differences depending on variables like the topic of discussion and the roles of the participants.

What do we mean by dialect and accent? What is the difference between dialect and accent? And what do we mean by register?

When we say **Accent**, we mean pronunciation. how to pronounce the words. Whereas **Dialect** is not pronunciation but also a general vocabulary and grammar.

For example, In the Arab world, we think of different accents, we have Lebanese, Syrian, Palestinian accents. etc. they are different in pronunciation, but when we think in dialect, I think of the dialect in Damascus and the one in Aleppo, they are not only different in pronunciation but also in vocabulary.

Another example, in USA, somebody would tell you *"Would you like some tea?"*, while a British person would say *"Fancy a cuppa?"*. Basically, both of them are speaking English, whether they say *"Would you like some tea?"* or *"Fancy a cuppa?"*, and they are expressing the exact same idea. But not only would the pronunciation (the accent) be different, the choice of vocabulary and the grammar behind both sentences is clearly distinct. So, here we have accent difference, as well as the dialect.

Within any given language, both dialect and accent will vary because both largely a product of geography/ regionality.

Now, *what do we mean by Register?*

A variation of a language that is determined by use i.e. a situation or context.

The distinction between the speech of those whose language is highly influenced by long and constant immersion in written language forms, and the speech of those whose language is relatively uninfluenced by written forms of language.

This is another feature, another difference between the form of written language and the spoken language, whether you are educated or non-educated.

For the majority of the population, even of a 'literate' country, spoken language will have very much less in common with the written language.

How do written languages differ from spoken ones?

We discussed some of the differences in the manner of production of speech and writing, differences which often contribute significantly to characteristic

forms in written language as against characteristic forms in speech.

The overall effect is to produce speech which is less richly organized than written language, containing less densely packed information, but containing more interactive markers and planning 'fillers'.

This is also one of the differences between the form of spoken language and the form of written language. Spoken language/ speech is less organized comparing to written language, less packed with information, and containing interactive markers and fillers.

What are the fillers/ conversation fillers? What are the interactive markers?

The fillers are, for example: "Really!", "Right", "Sure?", "Oh no!", these are conversation fillers, or it could be non-words, for example, "mmm!", "aha!".

Some of these fillers are used while we are listening, for example: "Really!", "Right", "Sure?", "Oh no!", "aha!". Some are used while we are speaking, for example, people use "Well", "Ok!", "So,", "I mean", "I guess", "I think", "You know what I mean", "Back to our topic!".

*****

Features of Spoken Language

Some (by no means all) features which characterize spoken language:

(a) The syntax of spoken language is typically much less structured than that of written language.

I. Spoken language contains many incomplete sentences, often simply sequences of phrases.

II. Spoken language typically contains rather little subordination.

III. In conversational speech, where sentential syntax can be observed, active declarative forms are normally found.

What is the meaning of (sentential)?

It is the adjective of (sentence); it means something related to a sentence.

So, *what are the features that characterize spoken language?*

1- Incomplete sentences.

2- Little subordination, for example: In spoken language, we rarely use (which, that, why, when, where).

3- Active declarative forms are normally found. By "*Declarative forms*" we mean, for example: "*Pizza is the best*", "*It is a nice day*". These are declarative forms.

In over 50 hours of recorded conversational speech, Brown, Currie and Kenworthy found **very few examples of passives**, it-clefts or wh-clefts. Crystal

also presents some of the problems encountered in attempting to analyze spontaneous speech in terms of categories like **sentence** and **clause**.

In spoken English, we really use the passive voice.

Example:

> It's quite nice the Grassmarket since + it's always had the antique shops but they're looking + they're sort of + em + become a bit nicer +

What characteristics of spoken speech can you find in this example? What does it lack? What does it have?

It has conversation fillers, such as "*em*", it is quite declarative, it is not connected together, the structure of sentences is very simple and sometimes is not complete, and there are many interruptions.

> As a brief example, notice how this speaker pauses and begins each new 'sentence' before formally completing the previous one.
>
> (b) In **written language** an extensive set of metalingual markers exists to mark relationships between clauses (*that* complementisers, *when / while* temporal markers, so-called 'logical connectors' like *besides, moreover, however, in spite of*, etc.), in **spoken language** the largely paratactically organized chunks are related by *and, but, then* and, more rarely, *if*. The speaker is typically less explicit than the writer: *I'm so tired* (because) *I had to walk all the way home*.

Example on **that complementisers**, "*Mary believes that it is raining*". (*that it is raining*) is a complementiser. So, it is a word that produces a clause, especially a supporting clause, such as *that*.

Another example, "*I believe that they have eaten lunch*".

These forms we see often in written language.

The mentioned example of spoken language. The speaker would say "*I'm so tired, I had to walk all the way home*", but in written language the writer would say it "*I'm so tired because I had to walk all the way home.*".

> (c) In **written language**, rather heavily premodified noun phrases (like that one) are quite common - it is rare in spoken language to find more than two premodifying adjectives and there is a strong tendency to structure the short chunks of speech so that only one predicate is attached to a given referent at a time (simple case-frame or one-place predicate) as in:
>
> *It's a biggish cat + tabby + with torn ears*, or in: *old man McArthur + he was a wee chap + oh very small + and eh a beard + and he was pretty stooped.*

What do you notice about the structure of this spoken language? What features and characteristics do you find in these sentences?

The structure of the sentences is very simple (subject pronoun, verb, and object), it lacks cohesion and coherence, there are no connectors, there are many interruptions, and it does not follow the grammatical rules.

In the second sentence "*old man McArthur*", they mention the name of the person, and they repeated the subject pronoun (he) in "*he was a wee chap*".

After (and), we have a conversation filler (*eh*).

So, this speech is not only simple, but also fragmented.

> The packaging of information related to a particular referent can, in the written language, be very concentrated, as in the following news item:
>
> *A man who turned into a human torch ten days ago after*
> *snoozing in his locked car while smoking his pipe has died*
> *in hospital.*
> (Evening News (Edinburgh), 22 April 1982

What is the huge difference between written and spoken language?

In this example, the sentence is complex, and the writer relies on the subordinator and connectors, such as while, and who.

> (d) Whereas **written language sentences are generally structured in subject-predicate** form, in spoken language it is quite common to find what Givón calls topic comment structure, as in *the cats + did you let them out.*

In the **topic comment structure**, you mention the topic, and then you make a comment.

In this example, (the cats) is the topic, and (did you let them out) is the comment.

> (e) In informal speech, the occurrence of passive constructions is relatively infrequent. **That use of the passive in written language which allows non-attribution of agency is typically absent from conversational speech.** Instead, active constructions with indeterminate group agents are noticeable, as in:
>
> *Oh everything they do in Edinburgh + they do it far too slowly*

Here in this spoken example, we see the use of active constructions/ active voice, and the group agents are not defined, we referred to them as they. Instead of saying "it is done very slowly", they are using the active voice. Of course we understand "*Oh everything they do in Edinburgh*", it means the people who lives there.

> (f) In chat about the immediate environment, the speaker may rely on (e.g.) gaze direction to supply a referent: *(looking at the rain) frightful isn't it.*

We can say "*How cold!*" but we do not have to mention the rain because it is clear, the people around me will understand.

> (g) **The speaker may replace or refine expressions** as he goes along: *this man + this chap she was going out with* got, do, thing, nice, stuff, place and things like that.

In this example, we said (this man), then we redefine (this chap she was going out with got, do, thing, nice, stuff, place and things like that).

So, as I speak, I redefine the terms I am using. This is quite common in spoken language.

> (h) The speaker typically uses a good deal of rather generalized vocabulary: *a lot of*
>
> (i) The speaker frequently **repeats the same syntactic form several times over**, as
>
> *are available + I look at electric cables what + are they properly earthed + are they properly covered this fairground inspector does: I look at fire extinguishers + I look at fire exits + I look at what gangways*

Basically, there is a lot of *Wh* repetition / clefts. There is also a repetition of (*I look at*).

> (j) The speaker may produce a large number of prefabricated 'fillers': *well, e m, I think, you know, if you see what I mean, of course, and so on.*

These are the common features of the spoken language.

*****

Sentence and utterance

> It might seem reasonable to propose that the features of spoken language outlined in the preceding section should be considered as features of utterances, and those features typical of written language as characteristic of sentences. In this convenient distinction, we can say, in a fairly non-technical way, that utterances are spoken and sentences are written.

What is the difference between the grammarians (those who produce rules of grammar) and discourse analysts? Are the both jobs different or the same? If different, how different?

The job of grammarian is to create specific rules, and which we use when we write or speak language. However, the discourse analyst looks beyond grammar, where the grammarian is not interesting, such as culture, the message, relationship between speaker and receiver, context, common knowledge.

The Grammarian vs. the Discourse Analyst

> **Grammarian** will concentrate on a particular body of data and attempt to produce an exhaustive but economical set of rules which will account for all and only the acceptable sentences in his data.
>
> The **Grammarian** will **not** normally seek to account for the mental processes involved in any language-user's production of those sentences, nor to describe the physical or social contexts in which those sentences occur. On each of these issues, concerning 'data', 'rules', 'processes' and 'contexts', the discourse analyst

will take a different view.

So, the grammarian is not interesting in cognition or perception, or how we preserve the words, but in the structure and how words work together to form a sentence or paragraph.

When we talk about contexts, processes, and language use, this this the job of discourse analyst.

On 'data'

The grammarian's 'data' is inevitably the single sentence, or a set of single sentences illustrating a particular feature of the language being studied. It is also typically the case that the grammarian will have constructed the sentence or sentences s/he uses as examples.

The grammarian is interested in a single sentence or group of sentences.

In contrast, **the analysis of discourse**, as undertaken and exemplified in this book, is typically based on the linguistic output of someone other than the analyst.

We interesting in the message being delivered, how it is delivered, the medium of delivery, and the relationship between the speaker and the addressee, the writer and audience. So, it is not more than a group of fixed rules.

More typically, the discourse analyst's 'data' is taken from written texts or tape-recordings. It is rarely in the form of a single sentence. This type of linguistic material is sometimes described as **'performance data'** and may contain features such as hesitations, slips, and non-standard forms which a linguist like Chomsky believed that should not have to be accounted for in the grammar of a language.

Written texts in the case of written language. **Tape-recordings** in case of spoken language.

When Chomsky studied language, he ignored nonstandard forms of language, but for the discourse analyst it is quite important, and it is going to be ignored.

Rules versus regularities

What is the difference between Rules and Regularities?

Rules are fixed, while Regularities are changeable.

A corollary to the restricted data approach found in much of Chomskyan linguistics is the importance placed on writing rules of grammar which are fixed and true 100% of the time. Just as the grammarian's 'data' cannot contain any variable phenomena, so the grammar must have categorial rules, and not 'rules' which are true only some of the time.

- (Variable) means voice quality, contexts, relationship between the

speaker and addressee. The grammarians are not interested in these elements.

For the grammarian, this rule is just for all time. They give you exceptions to the rule but even the exceptions are fixed. For example, think of singular and plural English, we have a fixed rule that we add (s) to the singular nouns to make it plural. The exceptions, such as man – men, child – children, woman – women.

In this sense, **the 'rules' of grammar** appear to be treated in the same way as 'laws' in the physical sciences. This restricts the applicability of such rules since it renders them unavailable to any linguist interested in diachronic change or synchronic variation in a language.

- (Synchronic) means concerned with something, especially a language, as it exists at one point in time.
- (Diachronic) means concerned with the way in which something, especially a language, has developed and evolved through time.

In other words, since we have rules of grammar, since they are laws and 100% true for most of the time, the grammarian is not really interested in the process of development of the features of language, as if he was a discourse analyst.

S/he may wish to discuss, not 'rules' but regularities, simply because his data constantly exemplifies noncategorial phenomena. The regularities which the analyst describes are based on the frequency with which a particular linguistic feature occurs under certain conditions in his discourse data.

The (regularities) are changeable.

So, the difference between rules and regularities, is the fact that rules are fixed, while regularities are changeable and noncategorial.

How is this linguistic feature use? In what purpose? How often? This is what a discourse analyst is interesting in.

The discourse analyst, like the experimental psychologist, is mainly interested in the level of frequency which reaches significance in perceptual terms. Thus, a regularity in discourse is a linguistic feature which occurs in a definable environment with a significant frequency.

This is the definition of **Regularity**. It is a linguistic feature, which occurs in a definable specific environment with a significant repetition of frequency.

The discourse analyst will typically adopt the traditional methodology of descriptive linguistics. He will attempt to describe the linguistic forms which occur in his/her data, relative to the environments in which they occur. In this sense, discourse analysis is, like descriptive linguistics, a way of studying

language.

*****

Product versus process

What is the difference between Product and Process?
The Product the final result, while Process is the whole journey.

> The regularities which the discourse analyst describes will normally be expressed in **dynamic, not static, terms.** Since the data investigated is the result of 'ordinary language behaviour', it is likely to contain evidence of the 'behaviour' element.

- (Dynamic) means that they are the relationships that involves different factors environment, society and people.

The rules of the grammarians are static, whereas the regularities dynamic and changeable. So, discourse analyst is interested in the regularities being dynamic, not static.

> The sentence-grammarian does not in general take account of this, since his/her data is **not** connected to behaviour. His/her data consists of a set of objects called **'the well-formed sentences of a language'**, which can exist independently of any individual speaker of that language.

So, the grammarian is not interesting in behaviour recognitions, mental processes, or the psychological processes. A grammarian is interesting in the structure and function of the sentence.

The speaker is excluded from the context of grammar.

> We shall characterise such a view as the sentence-as-object view, and note that such sentence-objects have no producers and no receivers. Moreover, they need not be considered in terms of function, as evidenced in this statement by Chomsky:

In the sentence-as-object view, as it is called, the focus on the sentence, the object is the sentence.

The grammarian is not interesting in the producers and receivers.

> If we hope to understand human language and the psychological capacities on which it rests, we must first ask what it is, not how or for what purposes it is used.

Here we can see a clear distinguishing between the job of the grammarian, such as Chomsky, and the job of the discourse analyst. So, he may be not interesting in *what it is the language? What is the sentence?*

> A less extreme, but certainly related, view of natural language sentences can also be found elsewhere in the literature which relates to **discourse analysis**. In this view, there are producers and receivers of sentences, or extended texts, but the analysis concentrates solely on the product, that is, the words-on-the-page.

Much of the analytic work undertaken in 'Textlinguistics' is of this type.

This is the difference between discourse analysis and grammar. Grammar is interesting in words-on-the-page, and that is why we use sentence as sentence-as-object view. Whereas the discourse analysts they look beyond the sentence.

Typical of such an approach is the 'cohesion' view of the relationships between sentences in a printed text. In this view, cohesive ties exist between elements in connected sentences of a text in such a way that one word or phrase is linked to other words or phrases. Thus, an anaphoric element such as a pronoun is treated as a word which substitutes for, or refers back to, another word or words.

Here we are talking about how sentences work together to deliver something.

Each pronoun and each word used might refer to something else previously.

The analysis of the 'product', i.e. the printed text itself, does not involve any consideration of how the product is produced or how it is received. We shall describe such an approach as deriving from a **text-as product** view.

In contrast to these two broadly defined approaches, the view taken in this book is best characterised as a **discourse-as-process view**.

The distinction between treating discourse as 'product' or 'process' has already been made by Widdowson.

We shall consider words, phrases and sentences which appear in the textual record of a discourse to be evidence of an attempt by a producer (speaker / writer) to communicate his message to a recipient (hearer / reader).

Here, again we talk about the job of discourse analysts.

We shall be particularly interested in discussing how a recipient might come to comprehend the producer's intended message on a particular occasion, and how the requirements of the particular recipient (s), in definable circumstances, influence the organisation of the producer's discourse.

Here we are talking about discourse as a process.

This is clearly an approach which takes the communicative function of language as its primary area of investigation and consequently seeks to describe linguistic form, not as a static object, but as a dynamic means of expressing intended meaning. There are several arguments against the static concept of language to be found in both the **'sentence-as-object'** and **'text- as product'** approaches.

In the course of describing how a **sentence-as-object approach**, based exclusively on syntactic descriptions, fails to account for a variety of sentential

structures.

- (Sentential) means it is relating to the structure and nature of the sentence.

The discourse analyst, then, is interested in the function or purpose of a piece of linguistic data and also in how that data is processed, both by the producer and by the receiver.

What is the purpose of this linguistic data? And how it is processed both by the producer and receiver?

It also follows that the work of those sociolinguists and ethnographers who attempt to discuss language in terms of user's purposes will also be of interest.

- (Ethnographers) is the branch of anthropology that scientifically describes specific human culture and society.

*****

On 'context'

We have constantly referred to the **'environment', 'circumstances'** or **context** in which language is used.

The idea that a linguistic string (a sentence) can be fully analysed without taking 'context' into account has been seriously questioned.

It is been questioned by of course by discourse analysts.

If the sentence grammarian wishes to make claims about the 'acceptability' of a sentence in determining whether the strings produced by his/her grammar are correct sentences of the language, s/he is implicitly appealing to contextual considerations.

We are going beyond the level of grammar into the level of discourse analysis. When they start to question whether the strings produced by his/her grammar are correct sentences of the language, they are moving beyond the sentence into the context or context consideration.

Therefore, the grammarian's approach is incomplete.

Naturally, we set about constructing some circumstances (i.e. a 'context') in which the sentence could be acceptably used?

Any analytic approach in linguistics which involves contextual considerations, necessarily belongs to that area of language study called **pragmatics**.

'Doing discourse analysis' certainly involves 'doing syntax and semantics', but it primarily consists of 'doing pragmatics'.

So, they are not only interested in the meaning, sentence, or language use, but they are also interested in how sentence is inseparable from the context.

Morris's definition of pragmatics as 'the relations of signs to interpreters', the connection becomes quite clear. In discourse analysis, as in pragmatics, we are

concerned with what people using language are doing, and accounting for the linguistic features in the discourse as the means employed in what they are doing.

In summary, the discourse analyst treats his/her data as **the record (text) of a dynamic process** in which language was used as an instrument of communication in a context by a speaker / writer to express meanings and achieve intentions (discourse).

This is the definition of *Discourse*.

The discourse analyst is interested in language as a dynamic process that involves the relationship between a group of people inseparable from context or a situation; inseparable from delivering meanings and intentions.

Working from this data, the analyst seeks to describe regularities in the linguistic realizations used by people to communicate those meanings and intentions.
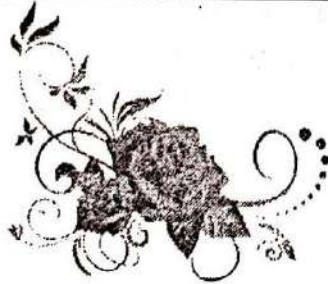
Thank You

...