
CHAPTER - I

DISCOURSE ANALYSIS : A BRIEF HISTORY

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In the late 1960s and the 1970s initially in France, certain shifts took place in the ways of considering how meanings are constructed. The resulting work on discourses and the questions posed by that work have radical implications not only for the disciplines of the humanities, literary studies and the human sciences, but for all knowledge.

1.1 What is Discourse?

Dialogue is a primary condition of discourse: all speech and writing is social. Within and across countries, discourses differ. Discourses differ with the kinds of institutions and social practices in which they take shape, and with the positions of those who speak and those whom they address. However the field of discourse is not homogeneous. Discourse is social. The statement made, the words used and the meanings of the words used depend on where and against what the statement is made: in the alternating lines of a dialogue, the same word may figure in two mutually clashing contexts. Actually, any real utterance, in one way or another or to one degree or another, makes a statement or agreement with or a negation of something.

A 'discourse', as a particular area of language use, may be identified by the institutions to which it relates and by the position from which it marks out for the speaker. That position does not exist by itself, however, it may be understood as a stand point taken up by the discourse through its relation to another, ultimately an

opposing discourse. Managerial discourse spoken to workers can act against them; spoken to managers it may still in the end act against workers; and in such ways, a discourse takes effect indirectly or directly through its relation to, its address to another discourse. Any discourse concerns itself with certain objects and puts forward certain concepts at the expense of others. Different discourses elaborate different concepts and categories. Sometimes concepts elaborated within one discourse may be taken up and rethought within another, but often this is not the case.

1.2 Definitions of Discourse

1. A discourse is a serious talk or piece of writing which is intended to teach or explain something.
2. A discourse is a spoken or written communication between people especially serious conversation about a particular subject.

(both of these definitions are taken from Collins Cobuild English Language Dictionary)

3. A discourse is a long and serious treatment of a subject in speech or writing.

(Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English).

4. The Chamber's Twentieth Century Dictionary defines discourse as follows:

n. Speech or language generally; conversation; the reasoning faculty; a treatise; a speech ; a sermon --- v.i. to talk or to converse; to reason; to treat formally ...
v.t. to utter or to give forth.

5. Richards Jack, John Plath and Heidi Weber in Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics define discourse and discourse analysis as follows:

a general term for examples of language use, i.e. language which has been produced as the result of an act of communication. Where as grammar

refers to the rules of language uses to form grammatical units such as **CLAUSE**, **PHRASE** and **SENTENCE**, discourse refers to larger units of language such as paragraphs, conversations and interviews.

Sometimes the study of both written and spoken discourse is known as discourse analysis, some researchers however use discourse analysis to refer to the study of spoken discourse and text linguistics to refer to the study of written discourse.

Discourse Analysis.

Discourse analysis is defined as the study of how sentences in spoken and written language form larger meaningful units such as paragraphs, conversations, interviews etc. For example discourse analysis deals with :

- a. how the choice of articles, pronouns and tense affects the structure of the discourse.
- b. the relationship between utterances in discourse
- c. the moves made by the speakers to introduce a new topic, change the topic or assert a higher role relationship to the other participants.

Analysis of spoken discourse is sometimes called conversational analysis.

6. Discourse, according to Abercrombie, Hill and Turner, is a domain of language use, structured as a unit by common assumptions. There may be competing discourses, and discourses will change over time. For example, Michael Foucault ... describes the existence of discourse of madness ... which has changed over the centuries. He also suggests that there may well be similarities between discourses at any time. The discourse of political economy in the eighteenth and nineteenth

centuries, for instance, take the same form as that of natural history. (Dictionary of Sociology)

7. As van Dijk (1985) points out that modern linguistic conception of discourse (as language use) owes much to the ancient distinction between grammar and rhetoric.

8. The Encyclopedia of Language and Linguistics (1994) has the following definition of discourse :It is 'language use' or 'language-in-use'. Discourse in its rather strict linguistic sense, refers to connected speech or writing occurring at suprasentential level (at levels greater than the single sentence). According to the editors Harris (1952) pioneered this approach to discourse, arguing that the methods of formal linguistics could be used to understand how sentences are connected and not simply the formal structure which exists within the sentence itself.

After looking into the above mentioned definitions, one can say that discourse is a coherent and complete stretch of language. And the native speaker's abilities reflect his aspect which is 'discourse competence'.

1.3 What is discourse analysis ?

Michael Stubbs in his Discourse Analysis (1983) says that any study which is (a) not dealing with single sentences, (b) contrived study by the linguist, (c) out of context, may be called discourse analysis. It attempts to study the organisation of language above the sentence or above the clause and therefore it is supposed to study large linguistic units, such as conversational exchanges or written texts. It follows that discourse analysis is also concerned with language in use in social contexts and in particular with interaction or dialogue between speakers. Discourse analysis is such a vast and ambiguous field, that no analysis is a complete one as Stubbs says :

“ No one is in a position to write a comprehensive account of discourse analysis. The subject is at once too vast and too lacking in focus and

consensus... Anything at all that is written on discourse analysis is partial and controversial.” (1983:12)

Brown and Yule in Discourse Analysis (1983) state that :

“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 term discourse itself has been used in many varying ways. Some researchers take discourse to mean all forms of talk and writing. Others take the term to apply only to the way talk is meshed together. While at the other extreme, some continental discourse analysts such as Foucault take ‘discourse’ to refer to much broader historically developing, linguistic practices. Some researchers make a contrast between discourse analysis and conversation analysis on the basis of different theoretical and methodological strategies, while others want to make a very different contrast between discourse analysis and text analysis with the aim of separating the study of underlying theoretical structures from actual linguistic performance (Halliday). However, discourse analysis is relatively a new approach in social psychology and it has its roots in a variety of more established perspectives in philosophy, sociology and literary theory.

1.4 Linguistics and Discourse Analysis

Much of the fascination of discourse analysis is derived from the realization that the boundaries of linguistics are being redrawn. Linguistics has become a progressively more accurate and flexible tool for the analysis of both language and literature. However, a coherent view of language is possible with discourse phenomena. The grammatical, structural units of a clause or a sentence are not

necessarily either the most important units for language study, or the biggest, although the clause will probably remain basic as a unit of syntax, of proposed information, and as a potential realization of a speech act. However there are grounds for arguing that discourse units such as lecture, conversation, speech and story are the upper limits of structural organization. Such units are culturally recognizable units, since completeness at this level is recognizable.

1.4.1 Discourse Analysis and Sociolinguistics

It is worthwhile making explicit the implications of discourse analysis for sociolinguistic theory. Sociolinguistics will ultimately have to be based, at least partly, on analysis of how people actually talk to each other in everyday settings, such as streets, pubs, shops, restaurants, buses, trains, schools, factories and homes. Therefore, sociolinguistics will have to incorporate analysis of how conversation works: that is, how talk between people is organized; what makes it coherent and understandable; how people introduce and change topics; how they interrupt, ask questions, and give and evade answers; and in general, how the conversational flow is maintained or disrupted. It is principally through conversational interaction, the give and take of everyday multiparty discourse, that social roles are recognized and sustained.

Sociolinguistics requires different kinds of analysis. It requires, for example, correlational studies which relate linguistic features to large scale socio-economic variables, and also general ethnographic description of cultural norms of speech behaviour. However, isolated phonological and grammatical variables, which can be correlated with the social class satisfaction are plucked out of a conversational context. A functional account of language requires a study of the range of functions served by language from utterances to discourses. There is no use of language which

is not embedded in the culture. Culture is 'what everyone knows', and part of this knowledge is conversational competence.

From the point of view of linguistics and sociolinguistics, Austin's (1962:147) moral has a considerable force: 'The total speech act in a total speech situation is the only actual phenomenon which, in the last resort, we are engaged in elucidating'. Here at this point one has to be very clear as to what are the different concepts that converge into discourse in a complex phenomenon of language function and suprasentential structure.

1.4.2 Text and Discourse

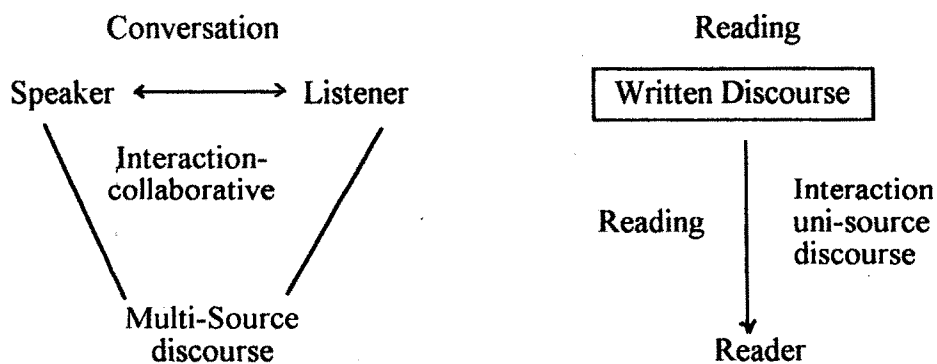
The distinction between text and discourse is very subtle. van Dijk (1977) uses the term text to refer to an abstract theoretical construct which is realized as discourse. Halliday (1978) talks of language being actualized as in text. Widdowson (1979) distinguishes between 'sentence in combination' (text) and 'sentence in use' (discourse). He distinguishes textual cohesion, recognizable in surface lexis, grammar and prepositional development, from discourse coherence which operates between underlying speech acts. In the Beaugrande's (1980) frame work 'the naturally occurring manifestation of language is text' while a set of mutually relevant text constitutes discourse. here the focus is on conversational discourse. For Brown and Yule (1983) text is a technical term that refers to the 'verbal record of communicative act'; the dynamic process of creating the data (i.e. text) becomes discourse. According to Roland Barthes (1971/1977) the text is methodological field and that it exists only as discourse; it is experienced only in an activity, a production. According to Jacques Derrida (1974) 'the text is a gas' and 'it is not a finished corpus of writing, some content enclosed in a book or its margins, but a different network, a fabric of traces referring endlessly to something other than itself, to other differential traces.

After looking into the above opinions it is proper to say that generally a text refers to the linguistic entity and discourse to the dynamic processes and procedures. In other words, a text is the actualized linguistic entity and 'discourse' the actualization process. Therefore the focus in discourse analysis is on process of meaning making and its analysis, where as in text linguistics it is on the production and interpretation of texts. In this sense all rhetoric, in the classical sense, will be text linguistics since it is about the production and interpretation of texts. The difference can be exemplified as follows:

A sign board with the utterance SLOW CHILDREN AT PLAY kept in a painter's shop with many other sign boards will be an instance of a text; the same sign board placed in front of a school building i.e. in its appropriate context, becomes a piece of discourse, since it communicates a message to the fast drivers to slow down.

1.4.3 Oral and Written Discourse

When discourse is defined in terms of meaning making process and communicative functions, it implies interaction. Krishnamurthy in his Modern Applied Linguistics says that reading a piece of written discourse and participating in conversation have to be differentiated. The difference between reading and conversation can be represented as follows:



(Krishnaswamy et. al. :103)

1.5 Discourse Analysis and Literature

The term 'discourse analysis' is both ambiguous and controversial. Various groups of linguists, literary and film theoreticians, cultural historians and semioticians all argue that their work is centrally concerned with the analysis of discourse. Even in linguistic circles, discourse analysis is used as an umbrella term which covers a range of disciplines including pragmatics, speech act theory, conversation analysis and the 'Birmingham' approach (Sinclair and Coulthard's Towards an Analysis of Discourse (1975)) which proposed a model (for teacher-pupil interaction within the classroom) for spoken discourse. Nevertheless these approaches are united insofar as they share a common interest in analysing naturally occurring connected language. Furthermore, unlike other branches of linguistic inquiry, discourse analysis examines the organization of language 'above' the level of sentence and in doing so explores the ways in which spoken and written texts are developed. Literature is becoming increasingly popular as a topic for analysis - to the extent that the term 'discourse stylistics' has been developed specially to refer to the practice of using techniques in discourse analysis in the study of literary texts.

Bronislaw Malinowski (1923, 1935)

It is argued by Malinowski (1923,1935) that there was a theory of context before there was a theory of text. He put forward the theory of the context of situation. He undertook research in a group of islands of the South Pacific known as the Trobriand Islands. He introduced the two notions that he called the context of situation and the context of culture; and both of these, he considered, were necessary for the adequate understanding of the text. Malinowski was not primarily a linguist. He was not mainly concerned with explaining the Kiriwinian language or language in

general, although he has some very perceptive things to say about language. He was an ethnographer, concerned to explain the culture. But in the course of his work, he became deeply interested in language as an object of study in its own right.

J.R. Firth (1935)

The first professor of general linguistics in a British University, J.R. Firth, was interested in the cultural background of language. He took over Malinowski's notion of context of situation and built it into his own linguistic theory. In Firth's view (1935) all linguistics is the study of meaning and all meaning is function in a context. Firth found that Malinowski's concept of the context of situation is not quite adequate for formulating a linguistic theory, as it is not general enough. He, therefore, set up a framework for the description of the context of situation which can be used for the study of texts as part of a general linguistic theory. His description of context of situation comprised of the following:

- the participants in the situation: what Firth referred to as persons and personalities, corresponding more or less to what sociologists would regard as the statuses and roles of the participants.
- the action of the participants: what they are doing - verbal and non-verbal action.
- other relevant features of the situation: the surrounding objects and events, in so far as they have some bearing on what is going on.
- the effects of the verbal action: what changes were brought about by what the participants in the situation had to say.

Firth also introduced the notion of 'system' to define the linguistic units in terms of meaning as function in context. The contexts of such choices appear in two sets namely, syntagmatic and paradigmatic. He has applied Malinowski's notion of meaning as function in context to describe all linguistic units. So far Firth's semantics

is not at all a separate field of linguistics. The function of linguistic items, according to him, in their context itself was their meaning. Therefore, his main contribution to linguistic theory is his concept of 'context of situation'. He recognizes the interlocking of language and meaning. He proposes certain levels to explain the language meaning complexity. These levels are: phonic, situational and semantic. This analysis in levels, he assumes, is the analysis of meaning as expressed in all these levels.

According to Gunther Kress (1976) Firth's theory is not a fully worked out one and not systematic. His theoretical statements are not presented as full-fledged models any where. Moreover Firth has not provided "a set of terms or categories which could systematically relate all the descriptive statements on levels to each other (Kress 1976:XV)".

Zellig S. Harris (1952)

Discourse in its strict linguistic sense refers to connected speech or writing occurring at supra-sentential levels (at levels greater than the single sentence). Harris pioneered this approach arguing that the methods of formal linguistics could be used to understand how sentences are connected and not simply the formal structure which exists within the sentence itself. He recognized the need to extend linguistic investigation of language study beyond the sentence. He analysed the discourse in terms of structural equivalence and distribution of sentences in combination. His procedures show that 'discourse' is structural and formal unit at a higher level and the sentence at a lower level of language organisation. He started with the formal distribution of sentences without reference to meaning.

Definite patterns may be discovered for particular texts, or for particular persons, styles, or subject-matters. In some cases, formal conclusions can

be drawn from the particular pattern of morpheme distribution in a text. And after it is possible to show consistent differences of structure between the discourses of different persons or in different styles, or about different subject matters. (Harris 1970:313).

Harris suggests two types of approaches to discourse analysis. One is continuing descriptive linguistics beyond the limits of a single sentence at a time. The other is correlating 'culture' and language (i.e. non-linguistic and linguistic behavior).

Harris's method

Elements in identical environment: The setting up of detailed statements of the distribution of each element within the discourse is done, just as in descriptive linguistics we could set up individual statements summarizing all the environments of each element in various sentences of the language.

Elements in equivalent environment: In the much more frequent case where two elements occur in environments which are almost but not quite identical, we may be able to collect them into one distributional class by setting up a chain of equivalencies connecting the two almost identical environments. This is done in descriptive linguistics. Suppose the text contains the following four sentences:

1. The trees turn here about the middle of autumn.
2. The trees turn here about the end of October.
3. The first frost comes after the middle of autumn.
4. We start heating after the end of October.

We may say that the middle of autumn and the end of October are equivalent because they occur in the same environment (The tree turn here about-), and this equivalence is carried over into the latter two sentences. On that basis we may say further that

the first frost comes and we start heating occur in equivalent environments. More generally if we find the sequences AM and AN in our text, we say that M is equivalent to N or that M and N occur in the identical environment A. or that M and N both appear as the environment of the identical element A; and we write $M=N$.

Equivalence classes : After discovering which sequences occur in equivalent environments, one can group all of them together into one equivalence class. One can set up equivalence classes of all sequences which have equivalent environments, i.e. the same equivalence classes on the same side within the text.

Sentence order : In descriptive linguistics order comes into consideration only as the relative position of various sections of a sequence. The order of successive sentences is not generally relevant to descriptive linguistics, because its distributional statements are not normally valid within only one sentence at a time. Harris puts forward the method of studying the sentence order in the discourse.

Malcolm Coulthard (1977) comments on Harris' method and says that although his article has the promising title, 'Discourse Analysis',⁴ is in fact disappointing. Working within the Bloomfieldin tradition he sets out to produce a formal method 'for the analysis of connected speech or writing' which does not 'depend on the analyst's knowledge of the particular meaning of each morpheme.' He observes that in grammar it is possible to set up word classes distributionally and produce a class of adjectives A which occur before a class of noun N; such a statement captures a powerful generalization, even though it is possible to show that a particular member of class A, 'voluntary' may never occur before a particular member of the class N 'subjugation'. (3)

Coulthard goes on to say that Harris points out that in evaluating his approach the only relevant questions are 'whether the method is usable and whether it leads to valid

and interesting results'. His method seem to be neglected perhaps they were not interesting. It may well be that any purely formal analysis above the rank of sentence is impossible. Coulthard also feels that Harris himself has felt that it is impossible to describe the structure of paragraphs in terms of sequences of sentences of particular types because the constraints regarding description above the sentence are stylistic not grammatical, and organisation and sequence can only be described in semantic terms. (4)

Roman Jakobson (1956)

Roman Jakobson proposed a functional model of six parameters and six functions to explain the act of communication. The six functions are as follows:

	Informative	
Emotive	Poetic	Directive
	Metalingual	
	Phatic	
They are related to verbal communication as in		
	Context (Informative)	
Addresser (emotive)	Texts/Utterances (Poetic)	Addressee (directive)
	Language/Code (metalingual)	
	Contact (phatic)	

- Addresser** : Typically the first person and sometimes the third person:
 I request you to come and meet me.
 Come to mummy.
- Addressee** : Typically the second person :
 Are you listening?

Elements of context : persons, animals and things other than the addresser and addressee.

An utterance that is spoken/uttered or a text that is written is a particular structure (the actualized instance) of the vast complex system out of which utterances and texts are built. The virtual system of the language is called code.

Metalanguage is the language used to talk about language; terms like noun, verb, sign, etc.

Contact for Jakobson involves the 'physical channel' and a 'psychological connection', the most obvious being 'Hey', 'Good morning', etc.

Pike (1967)

Pike, a student of Harris, insisted that certain chunks of human behaviour can be taken actually as they are. The participants in discourse recognize them and even the non participants who know the cultural system involved recognize them. The tagmemic theory here studies language as a part of man's total behaviour. According to this theory linguistics describes the patterns of language. Language patterns and pattern-points which are called as 'syntagmemes' and 'tagmemes' respectively are the primary points of linguistic theory and they are correlative concepts. A tagmeme is a functional point which relates a grammatical unit with its function. Syntagmemes are constructions in language and tagmemes are elements of a construction.

J.L. Austin (1962)

The William James lectures of J.L. Austin which he delivered at Harvard University in 1955 are published in 1962 entitled How to Do Things with Words. In his work he attempts a functional study of language. He disagrees with the assumption of philosophers that, 'the business of a 'statement' can only be to describe some state of affairs or to 'state some fact', which it must do either truly or

falsely. He concentrates on referential meaning and the truth and falsehood of statements which led him away from the question of 'what do sentences mean' towards the question 'what sort of act do we perform in uttering a sentence'. This he calls the 'illocutionary force' of an utterance and distinguishes it from the 'locutionary meaning'. In a sense, social meaning can conclude, what has been called the ILLOCUTIONARY FORCE of an utterance. For example, whether it is to be interrelated as a request, as an assertion, as an apology, as a threat, etc.. The function of an utterance may be only indirectly related to its conceptual meaning. The sentence 'I am hungry' has the form and meaning of an assertion and yet in social reality it can readily take on the force of a request such as 'Please give me some food.' Some sentences, which look like statements, or as Austin prefers to call them constatives, are not intended to record or impart information about facts. He focuses on one group of such sentences, which he labels as performatives, in which the saying of the words constitutes the performing of an action :

'I name this ship the Mr. Stalin' - as uttered when smashing the bottle against stern.

'I do' (sc. take this woman to be my lawful wedded wife) as uttered in the course of a marriage ceremony. Performatives are utterances which themselves describe the speech act which they perform. Performatives look like statements syntactically, but they differ from most statements in that they cannot be declared as false. The following are the characteristic syntactic markers of a performative sentence:

1. The subject is in the first person ('I' or 'We')
2. The verb is in the simple present tense (state, ask, pardon, etc.)
3. The indirect object, if one is present, is 'you'.
4. It is possible to insert the adverb 'hereby'
5. The sentence is not negative.

All these characteristics are realized in the following sentence :

'I hereby declare to you my innocence.'

It is possible to find one or more performative equivalents. The only difference between 'I order you to go', and 'Go!' is that the former is explicitly performative, while the latter is implicitly so. The performative sentence 'I give and bequeath my car to my sister (in a will)' 'presupposes' that the speaker has a sister, it implies that the speaker has a car which he intends to give to his sister, if the speaker has no sister the utterance becomes void. If the speaker has no car then we can say the utterance is abused.

In saying 'I name this ship the Mr. Stalin' the speaker is not describing what he is doing, nor stating that he is doing it, but actually performing the action of naming the ship, from that moment the ship is named. Austin stresses the conventional nature of the performative act and the fact that an agreed procedure must be followed. There are four conditions which must be satisfied if the performative act is not to misfire:

1. There must exist an accepted conventional procedure, have a certain conventional effect, the procedure to include the uttering of certain words by certain persons in certain circumstances. By this condition Austin draws attention to the fact that there is a limited number of performative acts and one can not arbitrarily adapt a procedure to perform what appears to be a similar act- there is a procedure for christening babies but not dogs. For some act procedures differ in different countries - no one, what ever his religion, can divorce his wife in England by saying 'I divorce you; I divorce you; I divorce you'; some acts are possible in one language community but not in another.

2. The particular persons and circumstances in a given case must be appropriate for the invocation of the particular procedure involved.
3. This condition emphasises the fact that the uttering of the correct and appropriate words is insufficient to achieve the successful performance of the act: the words must be uttered by the appropriate person - one of the umpires in the Test match when Leonard Hutton scored his record 364 claimed later that Hutton was technically out lbw at 332, but, as no one on the fielding side appealed, the umpire was unable to pronounce him out.
4. The procedure must be executed by all participants both correctly
5. and completely.

These conditions cover misfires which occur despite the existence of a conventional procedure and the presence of the appropriate circumstances. The problems must be verbal and non-verbal. The marriage ceremony includes yes/no questions, 'Do you take this woman to be your lawful wedded wife?' but 'Yes' is not an acceptable answer. Saying a performative utterance under the above conditions is doing a speech act. Austin noted that the concept of performative utterance, of doing something by saying something, had a more general application, for in saying 'I promise', 'I apologise', 'I warn you' one actually performs the act of promising, apologising and warning. Thus these utterances also are performatives. The utterances such as the following, according to Austin, can be said to be explicit performatives and constatives (while the status of those in the middle column is doubtful) :

Explicit Performatives		Constatives
I apologize	I am sorry	I repent
I criticise you	I blame you	I am shocked by you
I approve x	I welcome you	I feel approval of x
	I approve x	

Austin suggests four tests for deciding which way utterances in the middle column are being used :

1. Does the saying of the words constitute the performing of an act? This can be tested by asking 'did he really' of a particular utterance. Did he really apologise when he said 'I apologize.'? The answer is dependent on the classification of the utterance.
2. Could the action be performed without uttering the words? One can be sorry just as one can repent without saying anything; one cannot apologise silently.
3. Is the action something that can be done deliberately and voluntarily? 'One can be willing to apologise' but not 'willing to be sorry' - one is either sorry or not, though one can be willing to say that one is sorry.
4. Can the utterance be literally false? Austin sees this as a crucial distinction between constatives which can be true or false and performatives which can only be happy or unhappy. Despite saying 'I am sorry' it need not be true that one is sorry; if one says 'I apologize', however, it cannot be false that one has apologised - the apology may be insincere and the speaker may have abused.

Austin reconsiders the senses in which 'to say something may be to do something'.

He says in 'issuing an utterance' a speaker can perform three acts simultaneously:

1. a 'locutionary act' which is the act of saying something in the full sense of 'say'
2. an 'illocutionary act' which is an act performed in saying something, the act identified by the explicit performative
3. a 'perlocutionary act', which is performed by saying something or as a result of saying something.

The following examples will explain the above acts clearly :

Act A or Locution:

'He said to me 'shoot her' meaning by 'shoot' and referring by 'her' to her.

Act B or Illocution :

'He urged (or advised, ordered etc.) me to shoot her'

Act C or Perlocution :

He got me to (or made me, etc.) shoot her.

It is not Austin's intention to suggest that in speaking one has the option of performing one or another of these types of speech act; in fact one normally performs all the three acts simultaneously, but it is useful for analytic purposes to isolate them. Austin first distinguishes locutionary and illocutionary acts; while the interpretation of the locutionary act is concerned with meaning, the interpretation of illocutionary act with force.

Many utterances are the simultaneous performance of locutionary, illocutionary and perlocutionary acts and Austin observes that 'it is the distinction between illocutionary and perlocutionary which seems likeliest to give trouble' (p)

Basically an illocutionary act is a linguistic act performed in uttering certain words in a given context, a perlocutionary act is a non-linguistic act performed as a consequence of the locutionary and illocutionary acts. The illocutionary act being achieved through the uttering of certain words, is potentially under the control of the speaker; provided he uses the correct explicit performative in the appropriate circumstances he can be certain that the act will be happy - no one can prevent some one from warning or advising them except by refusing to listen. Austin attaches considerable importance to speaker's intention. Working not with conversations but with isolated invented sentences, he observes that 'illocutionary force' is inextricably bound up with speaker's intention. Austin's work has aroused a great deal of interest and criticism among philosophers. The locutionary / illocutionary/ perlocutionary

distinctions, despite all criticisms and difficulties with definition remain useful and suggestive concepts in any discussion of speech acts.

Danes (1964, 1974)

Danes proposed in his 1964 model that the syntax can be approached in three levels. He has distinguished the place of FSP in the system of syntax. Those three levels are :

1. the semantic level.
2. the grammatical level.
3. the level of FSP.

In other words, it can be said that a sentence has three simultaneous and distinct patterns:

1. the semantic sentence pattern (SSP)
2. the grammatical sentence pattern (GSP)
3. and the utterance or FSP or communicative sentence pattern (CSP) (Danes 1968:55-69).

This can be illustrated by the following example:

e.g. Hari painted the wall.

SSP: Agent - Action - Goal

GSP: Subject - Verb - Object

FSP: Theme - Transition - Rheme.

We find in Danes (1974) an FSP oriented text analysis in terms of thematic progression (TP hereafter) a term he introduces for this purpose. Danes (1974) refers to the following three important aspects of FSP:

1. given (or known) information and new information.
2. theme (T) and rheme (R)
3. different degrees of communicative dynamism (CD)

Danes remarks that much of the discussion of these three aspects has limited itself to given (or known) information and theme but nothing has been said about the relationship between new information and rheme. The distinction between given - new information and theme-rheme is essential because there are sentences where theme does not convey known or given information (107-108). Danes further writes that even the relationship between given information and theme-rheme have been defined in relative and broad terms. Danes distinguishes two kinds of function of the theme. These are as follows:

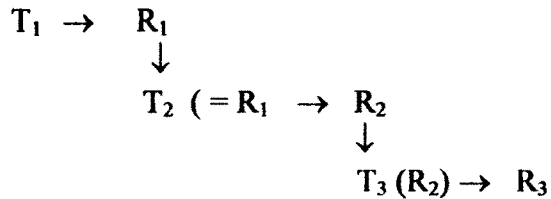
1. the progressive function, from the static point of view which regards the text as a completed whole, and
2. the prospective function from a dynamic point of view, where the theme serves as a point of departure for further textual development (113).

The concept of 'thematic progression' is based on the prospective function. Textual thematic organization is usually referred to as 'text coherence' or 'text contextity'. This is represented by 'thematic progression'. He explains 'thematic progression' as 'the choice of ordering of utterance themes, their mutual concatenation and hierarchy, as well as their relationship to the hyperthemes of the superior texts (such as paragraph, chapter etc.) to the whole text and to the situation' (p.114). Danes distinguished three main types of thematic progression (TP):

1. Simple linear TP: It is the most elementary and basic T.P. In this the rheme (R) of the first or the preceding utterance becomes the theme of the following utterance.

e.g. The first of the antibiotics was discovered by Alexander Flemming in 1928. He was busy at the time investigating a certain species of germ which is responsible for boils and other troubles.

This is shown in a formula as:



(Symbols - T.R. nexuses)

Diagram: Simple linear TP in Danes (1974)

2. TP with a continuous (or constant) T : In this TP one and the same T appears in a series of utterances to different Rs. It is illustrated with the following diagram:

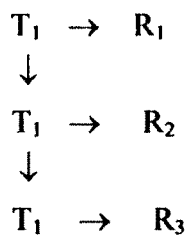


Diagram: TP with continuous T in Danes (1974).

3. TP with derived TS: In this TP the themes of Individual utterances are derived from a 'hypertheme' of a paragraph or other text section. The following diagram shows it:

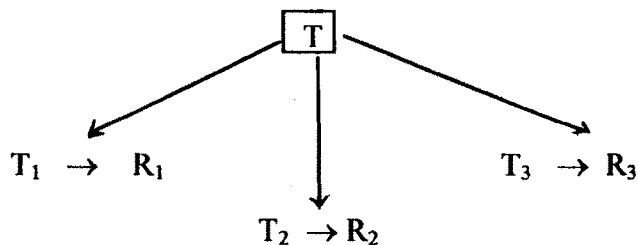


Diagram: TP with derived T_s in Danes (1974)

These three TPs may appear in different combinations. Of these the combination 1 and 2, according to Danes, is very frequent where we find a split rheme. A certain R is explicitly or implicitly doubled (R'+R'') or multiplied

Longacre was interested largely in classifying the discourse patterns with an attempt to include semantics with tagmemic tradition of surface grammars. Longacre and Stephen Levingsohn published a paper in which they distinguish between the deep and surface structures.

Deep structure:

1. Participants:
 1. Major Participants
 2. Minor Participants
 3. Participants of equal rank
 4. Participants of unequal rank.

2. Author view-point
 1. Event line
 2. Agent line
 3. Repartee line
 4. Focal intention

For participants and author view-point, no surface structure correspondence is given.

For cohesion, however, following are identified as surface structure devices:

Surface structure cohesive devices:

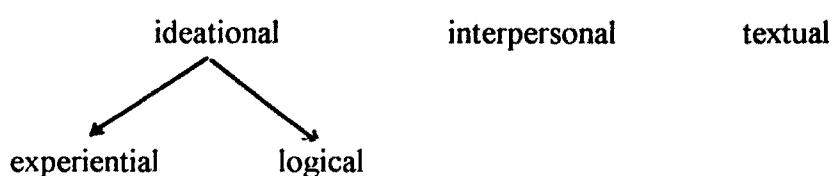
- (i) tense (ii) aspect (iii) particles and affixes (iv) participant anaphora
- (v) dietetics (vi) lexical ties (vii) paraphrase summary and review
- (viii) conjunctions and introducers (ix) backbone.

It must be noted that though Longacre devoted to the study of grammatical structure he has not made the grammatical-lexical distinction very clear.

Halliday (1964...)

Halliday employs the notion of 'register' to handle the functional or situational role of language. Under what is known as 'institutional linguistics' as opposed to 'descriptive linguistics', Halliday et al. attempt to specify in terms of 'register' the social situations in which language is used. According to their hypothesis register can

be defined by the formal properties namely, the 'field' of discourse, the 'mode' of discourse and the 'style' of discourse- 'field' refers to the subject matter or the topic (e.g. technical, non-technical etc.); 'mode' is the medium (e.g. spoken or written) and 'style' refers to the relationship among the participants (e.g. formal or informal). The authors observe that the notion of register, however cannot be used with much advantage because "a great deal of grammatical and lexical material is common to many of registers of a given language and some perhaps to all (p.21)", and the terms 'field', 'mode' and 'style' are imprecise and intersecting. For instance, these three will overlap if we try to define the 'language of literature'. In Halliday (1977:pp. 201-202) 'literature' and 'literary genre' appear under 'field' and 'mode' both. In Halliday and Hasan (1976:p.23) it is stated that registral consistency is necessary for discourse 'coherence'. However, no descriptive apparatus is suggested to characterize this type of coherence. Halliday (1977: pp.176-225) presents an elaborate discussion of 'text' as 'semantic choice in social contexts'. In this paper he discusses interpersonal, and textual analysis of James Thurber's **The Lover and his Lass**. These can be shown as below:



The lexicogrammatical system is organized by rank: each rank is the locus of structural configurations, the place where structures from the different components are mapped on to each other. The 'rank scale' for the lexicogrammar of English is:

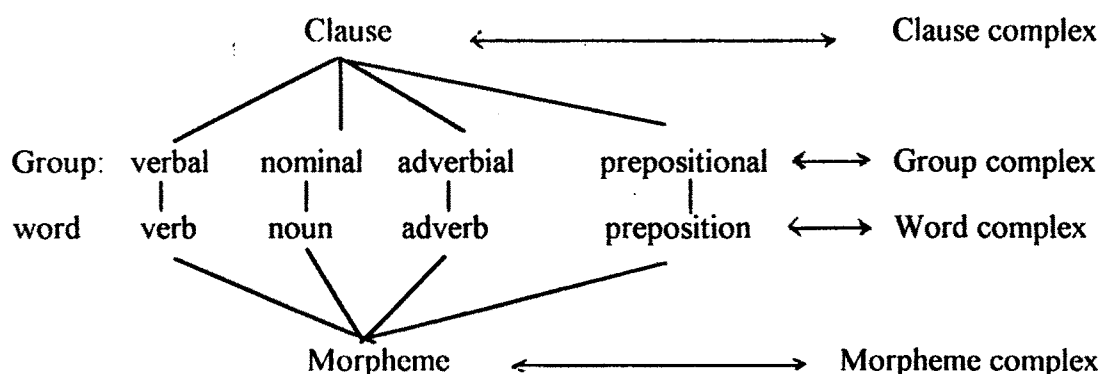


Diagram : Halliday (1978:129)

A sentence is defined as a clause complex. Then he comments on clause. A clause has a structure formed out of elements such as agent, process, extent; this structure derives from the system of transitivity, which is part of the experiential component, Simultaneously it has a structure formed out of the elements modal and proposition this derives from the system of mood, which is part of the interpersonal component. It has also a third structure composed of elements theme and rheme, deriving from the theme system, which is part of the textual component. This can be put as follows: in terms of the systems of spoken language the text informing component, thematic systems, information systems, the systems of 'key', referential, substitutive and elliptical cohesion. He also talks about text as a semantic unit, as projection of meanings of a higher level (i.e. in terms of 'perspective' and 'foregrounding') and as a socio-semiotic process. He discusses the role of situation as a determining environment in terms of 'field', 'tenor' and 'mode', under text and situation. Halliday finally examines the situational complex in the sample text. This is followed by a systemic analysis of a sentence from a text in terms of Logical, Experimental, Interpersonal and Textual components and their systems. The following sentence from the text is taken:

“I would soon live with a pair of unoled garder shears” said he inamorato. The analysis of this sentence runs into 12 pages (208-220). The analysis is presented in terms of different systemic networks at the clause and the group levels. In the book **Language as Social Semiotic** in Chapter 7: ‘The sociosemiotic nature of discourse’, Halliday comments on many aspects of language. According to him there are three systems of language:

- 1 Semantic (the meaning)
- 2 Lexicogrammatical (the wording, i.e. syntax, morphology and lexis)
- 3 Phonological (the sound).

Further he says that semantic system consists of the following functional components:

experiential: (transitivity)	The Grays medium	retired Process	to their beds Location: Locative
Interpersonal: (mood)	Modal	Prepositional	
Textual: (theme)	Theme	Rheme	

There is not the case that the same constituent structure holds throughout, with only the labels differing. Halliday in the book **Language, Context and Text : Aspects of Language in a Social-semiotic Perspective** defines text by saying that it is language that is functional. By functional, he simply means language that is doing some job in some context, as opposed to isolated words or sentences. Any instance of living language that is playing some part in a **context of situation** is a text. A text is a

semantic unit. Text is the product of a process. Text is a social exchange of meaning.

Then Halliday gives the three features of the context of situation:

1. The field of discourse refers to what is happening, to the nature of the social action that is taking place; what is it that the participants are engaged in, in which the language figures as some essential component.
2. The tenor of discourse refers to who is taking part, to the nature of the participants, their status and roles; what kinds of role relationship obtain among the participants, including permanent and temporary relationships of one kind or another, both the types of speech role that they are taking on in the dialogue and the whole cluster of socially significant relationships in which they are involved.
3. The mode of discourse refers to what part of language is playing, what it is that the participants are expecting the language to do for them in that situation: the symbolic organisation of text, the status that it has, channel (is it spoken or written or some combination of the two?) and also the rhetorical mode, what is being achieved by the text in terms of such categories as persuasive, expository, didactic and the like.

John Searle (1965, 1968)

Since the death of Austin the most significant work in speech act philosophy has been that of John Searle, who attempted to detail some of the rules which govern the effective production of certain speech acts. While Austin suggested four conditions governing the 'happy' production of ritual or archetypal performatives, he suggested no conditions or rules for other performances. Searle (1965) attempts by a detailed discussion of one non-conventional illocutionary act, 'promise', and says that to explicate the notion of illocutionary act by stating a set of necessary and sufficient conditions for the performance of a particular kind of illocutionary act and extracting from it a set of semantic rules for the use of expression (or syntactic device) which marks the utterance as an illocutionary act of that kind.

Searle, while accepting the notion of illocutionary act, does not accept the locutionary act, but instead proposes the existence of the propositional act which carried the content of an utterance. He maintains that a locutionary act refers to the 'meaning' or the 'sense of reference' of a given sentence. An illocutionary act, according to him, refers to the force with which the sentence is uttered. Searle (1968:420) proposes distinct kinds of acts performed in the uttering of a sentence as follows:

1. utterance of acts : e.g. the uttering of words, morphemes, sentences,
2. ~~prepositional~~ acts: e.g. referring, predicating
3. illocutionary acts: e.g. stating, questioning, commanding.
4. Perlocutionary acts: e.g. persuading, convincing.

According to Searle, Austin's 'constatives' draw our attention to the propositional content and his 'performatives' to illocutionary force. He says : 'Speaking a language is engaging in a (highly complex) rule governed form of behaviour.' To learn a language is to learn and to have mastered the rules. Therefore gives a list of underlying rules for illocutionary acts. He also gives a general initial condition for it. 'Normal input and output conditions obtain.' To illustrate he formulates sets of conditions for the analysis of the illocutionary act of requesting and that of promising.

I Requesting :

1. Propositional content condition :

The proposition specifies a future act to be performed by the hearer.

2. Preparatory condition :

The hearer is able to do the act. The speaker believes that the hearer is able to do the act. It is not obvious to both the speaker and the hearer that the hearer will do the act in the normal course of events. This condition concerns what needs to be the state of the world prior to the utterance.

3. Sincerity condition :

The speaker wants the hearer to do the act. This condition refers to the psychological state of the speaker.

4. Essential condition :

The utterance counts as an attempt to get the hearer to do the act. Searle says: "In general the essential conditions determines the others. For example, since the essential rule for requesting is that the utterance counts as an attempt to get H (the hearer) to do something, then the propositional content rule has to involve future behaviour of H."

II Promising :

Given that a speaker S utters a sentence T in the presence of a hearer H, then, in the literal utterance of T, S sincerely and non-defectively promises that S to H if and only if the following conditions are obtained

(Searle 1969: 57)

- 1 Normal input and output conditions obtain.
 - A. Propositional content conditions:
 - 2 S expresses the proposition that P in the utterance of T.
 - 3 In expressing that P, S predicates a future act A of S.
 - 4 H would prefer S's doing A to his not doing A and S believes H would prefer his doing A to his not doing A.
 - B. Preparatory conditions:
 - 5 It is not obvious to both S and H that S will do A in the normal course of events.
 - C. Sincerity condition:
 - 6 S intends to do A.
 - D. Essential conditions:

- 7 S intends that the utterance of T will place him under an obligation to do A.
- 8 S intends (i-I) to produce in H the knowledge (K) about the utterance of T is to count as placing S under an obligation to do A. S intends to produce K by means of recognition of i-I, and he intends i-I to be recognized in virtue of (by means of) H's knowledge of the meaning of T.
- 9 The semantical rules of the dialect spoken by S and H are such that T is correctly and sincerely uttered if and only if conditions 1-8 are obtained.

Types of illocutionary act

	<i>Request</i>	<i>Assert, state (that) affirm</i>	<i>Question'</i>	
Types of rule	Propositional content	Future act A of H.	Any proposition or propositional function.	
	Preparatory	1. H is able to do A. S believes H is able to do A. 2. It is not obvious to both S and H that H will do A in the normal course of events of his own accord.	1. S has evidence (reasons, etc.) for the truth of p. 2. It is not obvious to both S and H that H knows (does not need to be reminded of, etc.) p.	1. S does not know 'the answer', i.e., does not know if the proposition is true, or, in the case of the propositional function, does not know the information needed to complete the proposition truly (but see comment below). 2. It is not obvious to both S and H that H will provide the information at that time without being asked.
	Sincerity	S wants H to do A.	S believes p.	S wants this information.
	Essential	Counts as an attempt to get H to do A.	Counts as an undertaking to the effect that p represents an actual state of affairs.	Counts as an attempt to elicit this information from H.
	Comments:	Order and command have the additional preparatory rule that S must be in a position of authority over H. Command probably does not have the 'pragmatic' condition requiring non-obviousness. Furthermore in both, the authority relationship infects the essential condition because the utterance counts as an attempt to get H to do A in virtue of the authority of S over H.	Unlike argue these do not seem to be essentially tied to attempting to convince. Thus "I am simply stating that p and not attempting to convince you" is acceptable, but "I am arguing that p and not attempting to convince you" sounds inconsistent.	There are two kinds of questions, (a) real questions, (b) exam questions. In real questions S wants to know (find out the answer; in exam questions, S wants to know if H knows.

	<i>Thank (for)</i>	<i>Advice</i>	<i>Warn</i>	
Types of rule	Propositional content	Past act A done by H.	Future act A of H.	Future event or state, etc. E.
	Preparatory	A benefits S and S believes A benefits S.	1. H has some reason to believe A will benefit H. 2. It is not obvious to both S and H that H will do A in the normal course of events.	1. H has reason to believe E will occur and is not in H's interest. 2. It is not obvious to both S and H that E will occur.
	Sincerity	S feels grateful or appreciative for A. ↓	S believes A will benefit H.	S believes E is not in H's best interest.
	Essential	Counts as an expression of gratitude or appreciation.	Counts as an undertaking to the effect at A is in H's best interest.	Counts as an undertaking to the effect that E is not in H's best interest.
Comments:	Sincerity and essential rules overlap. Thanking is just expressing gratitude in a way that, e.g., promising is not just expressing an intention.	Contrary to what one might suppose advice is not a species of requesting. It is interesting to compare "advise" with "urge", "advocate" and "recommend". Advising you is not trying to get you to do something in the sense that requesting is. Advising is more like telling you what is best for you.	Warning is like advising, rather than requesting. It is not, I think, necessarily an attempt to get you to take evasive action. Notice that the above account is of categorical not hypothetical warnings. Most warnings are probably hypothetical: "If you do not do X then Y will occur."	

	<i>Greet</i>	<i>Congratulate</i>	
Types of rule	Propositional content	None	Some event, act, etc., E related to H.
	Preparatory	S has just encountered (or been introduced to, etc.) H.	E is in H's interest and S believes E is in H's interest.
	Sincerity	None.	S is pleased at E. ↓
	Essential	Counts as courteous recognition of H by S.	counts as an expression of pleasure at E.
Comments:		"Congratulate" is similar to 'thank' in that it is an expression of its sincerity condition.	

1. In the sense of "ask a question" not in the sense of "doubt".

(Searle 1969: 66-67)

Searle suggests that an utterance consists of two parts - a proposition and a function indicating device which marks the 'illocutionary force'. He observes that function-indicating devices in English include word order, stress, intonation contour, punctuation, the mood of the verb and finally the set of so-called performative verbs.

(Coulthard 1977:22)

In each of the following utterances Searle suggests, the speaker expresses the proposition that John will leave the room, that is he predicates the action of leaving the room of John, though only in the second does the perform the illocutionary act of 'asserting'.

1. Will John leave the room?
2. John will leave the room.
3. John, leave the room!
4. If John will leave the room I will leave also.

Searle discusses and distinguishes the two major types of rule, regulative and constitutive. Regulative rules regulate antecedently existing forms of behaviour; for example, the rules of etiquette regulate interpersonal relationships. Regulative rules characteristically take the form of or can be paraphrased as imperatives, e.g. 'When cutting food hold the knife in the right hand'. Constitutive rules do not merely regulate but create or define new forms of behaviour. For example, the rules of football do not merely regulate the game of football but as it were create the possibility of or define that activity. Football has no existence apart from these rules. In study of language use both sets of rules are important. All interactions have regulative rules, usually not explicitly stated, which govern greetings, choice of topic, interruption and so on. Constitutive rules in speech are those which control the ways in which a given utterance of a given form is heard as releasing a given illocutionary act.

While Searle's early work is concerned with isolating the conditions governing the happiness of explicit performative utterances, his later works (1975) tackle the much knottier problem of how listeners interpret primary performatives correctly. He prefers to call this, 'indirect speech act'. He suggests that the possible realizations can be usually grouped into six categories:

- | | | |
|----|---|--|
| 1. | Sentences concerning hearer's ability; | Can you pass the salt? |
| 2. | Sentences concerning hearer's future action; | Will you }
Are you going to } pass the salt? |
| 3. | Sentences concerning speaker's wish or want; | I would like (you to pass) the salt. |
| 4. | Sentences concerning hearer's desire or willingness; | Would you mind passing the salt? |
| 5. | Sentences concerning reasons for action; | It might help you if you passed the salt.
I don't think that you salted the potatoes. |
| 6. | Sentences embedding either one of the above or an explicit performative (therefore not really a separate class) | Can I ask you to pass the salt? |

The influence of Austin on Searle is evident in all aspects and research into spoken discourse. Workers in a whole variety of disciplines- anthropology, sociology, linguistics, psycholinguistics, applied linguistics - have adapted and modified the concept of a speech act in their research into adequate analytic categories.

Labov (1970, 1972)

Labov argues that the first and most important step is to distinguish 'What is said and what is done,' and stresses that the unit of analysis is not the grammatically defined clause or sentence but a functional unit, which may of course be realized by a single clause or sentence. Any attempt to characterise discourse structure in terms of functional units must confront the problem of grammatical realisation - how do the four major clause types, 'declarative', 'interrogative', 'imperative' and 'moodless' realise a multiplicity of different functions and how can a hearer correctly interpret which function is intended. He focuses on answers and sketches out a series of

interpretive rules to explain how a second utterance comes to be heard as an answer to a preceding one. The simplest relationship is between a question and an elliptical answer,

A: Are you going to work tomorrow?

B: Yes.

Here a simple rule can account for the relation.

If A utters a question of the form $Q-S_1$ and B responds with an existential E (including yes, no, probably, may be etc.) then B is heard as answering A with a statement $E-S_1$.

A more complex relationship holds the speakers of the following pair of utterances:

A: Are you going to work tomorrow?

B: I am on jury duty.

To account for this type of relationship Labov proposes the following rule:

If A makes a request of B of the form $Q(S_1)$, and B responds with a statement S_2 ; and there exists no rule of ellipsis which would expand S_2 to include S_1 , then B is heard as asserting that there exists a proposition known to both A and B, of the form

If S_2 then $(E)S_1$ where (E) is an existential operator, and from this proposition there is an inferred answer to A's request: $(E)S_1$.

This rule makes clear the crucial importance of shared knowledge in conversation not only in interpreting linguistic items, but also of the shared knowledge of the world, to which a speaker can allude or appeal. Labov notes that this rule is invariant: A must inspect B's utterance to see if he can detect an underlying proposition and 'failure to locate such proposition may reflect a real incompetence':

Linus : Do you want to play with me, Violet?
 Violet : You are younger than me (shuts the door)
 Linus : (puzzled) She didn't answer my question.

Linus does not share the knowledge to which Violet appeals and therefore is unable to hear her utterance as an answer to his question. These rules are concerned with explaining how utterances following questions come to be heard and interpreted as answers. Labov also discusses how some utterances, declarative in form, come to be heard as questions. He presents the following extract from a therapy session :

Therapist : Oh, so she told you.

Patient : Yes.

Therapist : She didn't say for you

Patient : No.

Therapist : And it never occurred to her to prepare dinner.

Patient : No.

He further observes that it consists of a series of pairs where the first utterance is a statement and the second is "yes" or "no" and it seems that the statement is functioning as a yes-no question. It is, of course, certainly not the case that any statement can be followed by 'yes' or 'no'.

A: I don't like the way you said that.

B: Yes

A: I feel hot today.

B: No

Labov suggests that the statements in the therapy extract are acting as requests for conformation and have the same compelling force as requests are made in question form. Another major group of speech acts comprises commands or requests for action. Labov argues that in analysing these one must take account of sociological concepts; 'notions of role, rights, duties and obligations associated with social rules.' Labov formalizes the pre-requisites for an utterance imperative in form to be heard as a valid request for action:

If A addresses B an imperative specifying an action X at a time T_1 and B believes that A believes that

- 1(a) X should be done for a purpose Y (need for the action)
- (b) b would not do X in the absence of the request (need for the request)
2. B has the ability to do X
3. B has the obligation to do X or is willing to do it.
4. A has the right to tell B to do X.

then A is heard as making a valid request for action. Imperative utterances which fail to satisfy one or more of these pre-conditions are, in Austin's terms, infelicitous, and may be variously interpreted as cheeky, insulting, joking or simply irrelevant. The rule so far only covers those utterances in which there is a close fit between intended function and formal realization, that is imperative commands, but as Labov and Fanshel admit these are the minority of cases. They therefore offer a role for indirect requests, which can instructively be compared to Searle's suggestions and which demonstrate how a valid request can be made without resorting to the imperative mood.

If A makes to B a request for information or an assertion to B about

- a. the existential status of an action X,
- b. the time T_1 that an action X might be performed.
- c. any of the preconditions for a valid request for X as given in the Rule for Requests and all other preconditions are in effect, then A is heard as making a valid request of B for the action X.

Labov (1972) stresses the need and significance of the study of sociolinguistic data for any linguistic investigation.

Dell Hymes (1972)

The exposition of speech acts both in Austin (1962) and Scarle (1968, 1969 and 1972) does not point out how the notions of speech acts are related to discourse analysis. Their primary concern was meaning but not discourse. One finds a more useful approach to speech events and speech acts in ethnomethodology of Hymes. In ethnography of communication, Dell Hymes (1967) proposed a set of concepts for describing the context of situation, which were in many ways similar to those of Firth. In the opinion of Hymes (1972:22) the following factors are involved in a speech event.

1. Participants: Traditionally speech has been described in terms of two participants, a speaker who transmits a message and a listener who receives it. There are some speech events which have only one human participant - e.g. prayers.
2. Purpose: Hymes observes that 'the purpose of an event from a community standpoint may not be identical to the purposes of those engaged in it. At every level of language individuals can exploit the system for personal or social reasons or artistic effects.
3. Key : Within this the 'tone, manner or spirit' in which an act or event is performed. He suggests that acts otherwise identical in setting, participants, message, form, etc. may differ in key as between mock and serious perfunctory and painstaking/
4. Setting: All speech events occur of necessity in time and space - sometimes it is one of the defining criteria of an event that it occurs at a specific time or a specific place. Hymes stresses that the ethnographer must also take note of the 'psychological setting' of an event - the cultural definition of an occasion as formal or informal, serious or festive.

5. Channels : The description concerns itself with the choice of oral, written, telegraphic, or other mediums of transmission of speech. The development of radio and television has created a situation in which some speech events have enormous unseen and unheard audiences, which subtly affect the character of the event. The channel itself has even allowed the creation of new speech events, the sports commentary and the quiz show, with their own highly distinctive stylistic mode and structural prescribed participants, typical setting and key.
6. Message content: Hymes suggests that 'content enters analysis first of all perhaps as a question of topic, and change of topic.' For many events and acts topic is fully predetermined and invariable, particularly conversation, topic is relatively unconstrained. Hymes says:

'Discourse may be viewed in terms of acts both syntagmatically and paradigmatically; i.e., both as a sequence of speech acts and in terms of classes of speech act among which choices can be considered to have been made and as a sequence of such choices or such sets of possible choices.'

(Hymes 1974:55)

It is noticeable that Hymes' work led to a renewal of interest in different ways in which language is used in different cultures - the value placed on speech, the various rhetorical modes, that are recognised.

van Dijk (1972...)

Text grammar studies were started in Europe while structural approach was regarded as important in America. Text grammarians differ from structuralists in their attempt to account for literary as well as non literary texts. Text grammars are influenced by Transformational Generative Grammar and its Theory. van Dijk is the

major contributor to text grammar. He works methodically and gives empirical arguments to support the theory of text grammar. He suggests that a sentence-oriented grammar cannot explain native speaker's abilities satisfactorily. He feels that discourse should be made the natural domain of the grammar. He is sure that text grammar will account for co-referentiality, pronominalization, tense and time reference, local reference, semantic relations between sentences, topic and comment etc. According to Dijk certain local restrictions determine the coherence between sentences within a sentence sequence.

These local restrictions can be found, for example, on pronouns, pro-adverbs and connectives. Dijk calls these restrictions as micro restrictions or micro-structures. There are still other restrictions which are determined by the primary and secondary topics of given discourse. These can be called as global restrictions. Dijk calls them as macro-restrictions or macro-structures. According to him the tasks of an adequate text grammar are as follows:

1. A T-Grammar formally enumerates all and only a grammatical text of a language;
2. a T-Grammar assigns structural description to each of the generated texts and to a set of semi-grammatical texts not generated by the grammar;
3. more specifically, a T-Grammar formulates the rules and conditions at all levels of grammatical description for the well formed concatenation of pairs, triples ... n-tuples of sentences in a linearly ordered sequence, that is it will make explicit those properties of sentences which are functions of inter-sentential relations;
4. a T-Grammar must especially formulate rules describing macro-structures of texts, and the rules relating such macro-structures with sentential (sequential) structures of the text; and
5. the global task of the T-Grammar is thus the formulation of the rules forming and relating semantic structures with phonological structures of all the well formed texts of a language.

From the above description of van Dijk's T-Grammar it becomes clear that the description of the sentence is to be given. So he concentrates on the discourse properties of the sentence.

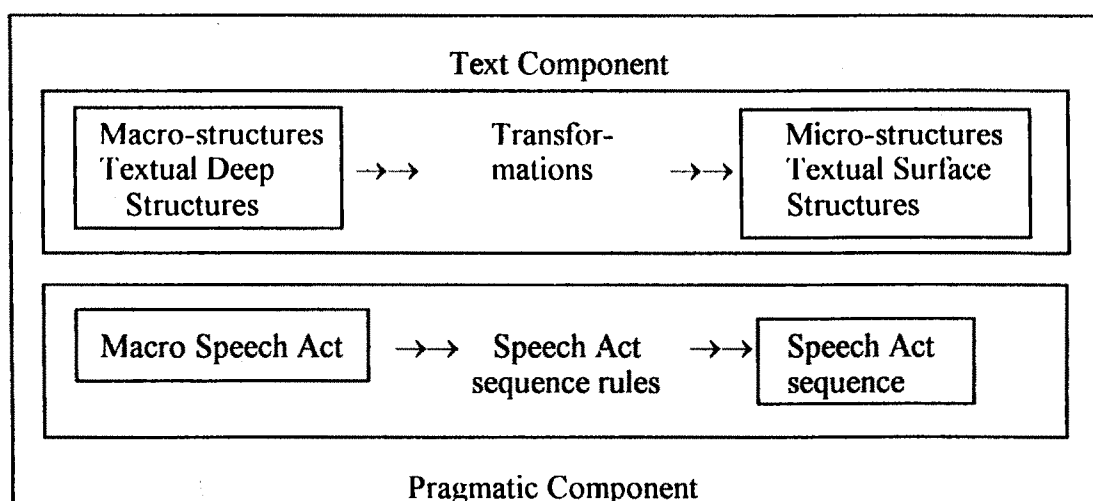


Diagram van Dijk's Text-Grammar

In the above diagram the pragmatic component indicates that discourse organization is determined by a number of categories coming from the pragmatic component. The macro component gives rules which derive the textual macro-structures. In other words, this component consists of the global semantic representations which define the meaning of a text as a complete whole.

Dijk describes the surface relations between sentences in terms of noun-phrases and indefinite descriptions, pronominalization, verb-phrases/predicates, tense/time, place adverbials and the topological logic of texts. He describes the semantic relations between sentences in terms of the relations between lexical elements, presupposition and entailment and other semantic relations such as topic and comment. Dijk has illustrated this by a specimen description of the beginning of an essay in French by Barthes from his *Mythologies*, entitled "Critique muette at aveugle" (Barthes 1957:120-124). It must be noted here that the analysis of the first few sentences runs to two full pages. Dijk himself says that the full analysis of two

pages will make a book upto 342 or 375 pages (Dijk 1972:120). Textual deep structures can be described in terms of plans. These plans lie under the series of sentential semantic representations. Dijk hypothesises that these global plans (or macro-structural) account for the productive and receptive abilities of a native speaker (p.133). Dijk's observations are noteworthy. They show that the memorizing of text necessarily depends on realizing its deep structure which is apparently being stored in long term memory. The native speakers abilities of abstracting, paraphrasing, commenting etc. of a text can be seen in this perspective. These global plans have a grand character. Dijk draws upon traditional rhetoric and literary theory and also upon the work done in linguistics to support his macro-structure hypothesis. He has observed the functional models for narrative texts that are specified by Greimas (1966) and Labov and Waletzky (1967).

Greimas	Labov and Waletzky
Functional Models	Functional Constituents
i) Description of a state of equilibrium	i) Orientation
ii) Arrival and mission of the hero	ii) Complication
iii) Trial of the hero	iii) Evaluation
iv) Task accomplished by the hero	iv) Resolution
v) Original state re-established, hero recomposed	

[van Dijk 1972:136-137]

van Dijk notes that the investigation and comparison of such macro-structure functions (or plans) may lead to an understanding of what may be called Narrative Universals.

Discussing 'metaphorization' Dijk offers an interesting insight. Metaphorization is lexical change which is relational in character. Two or more lexical terms are incompatible in a metaphorical context. For example, in a sentence like,

John is a lion

'lion' keeps only such relevant features as (+Strength) or (+Courage) and not (+Animal) (260). In the absence of context, according to Dijk, a sentence such as

The lion roared

may mean either 'The fierce animal cried loudly' (non-metaphorical) or 'the courageous man cried loudly' (metaphorical). The context of the text will solve this ambiguity. In part III of his work (1972:313-342) Dijk discusses the importance of pragmatic categories in text-grammar analysis. In this place he observes the speech act theory as proposed by Austin (1962), Grice (1969) and Searle (1969,1971) and he also draws upon the socio-linguistic parameters proposed by Labov (1970). The following are the tentative categories of pragmatics:

1. Utterance
2. Hearer (H)
3. Speaker (S)
4. Speech Act (production)
5. Hearing Act (perception)
6. Time of Speech Act
7. Time of Hearing Act
8. Place of Speech Act and
9. Place of Hearing Act

van Dijk (1977) in Part I, Chapter 3 of his book Text and Context Explorations in the Semantics and Pragmatics of Discourse discusses the basic issues in the semantics of discourse, the properties of natural connectors (e.g. and) and the coherence of sentence sequences. His arguments suggest that coherence can also be independent at the micro-structure level at which the theme or topic of the entire discourse comes into play. Dijk is of the opinion that 'global' structures of meaning play an important role in comprehension and recall. In part II he looks for the pragmatic relations between text and communicative context. He analyses discourse in terms of sequence of speech acts. At this level and at the semantic level the coherence expresses

relations between speech acts rather than semantic relations between propositions (p.211). Here Dijk introduces the notion of **macro speech act** which can explain the overall coherence of discourse and conversation.

In collaboration with Walter Kintch, van Dijk (1978) discusses certain psychological aspects of his concept of macro-structures. The formal reconstruction of content or information of a discourse can be called as semantic structure of discourse. In discourse there are two different levels of meaning. One is the meaning between the actual sentences and sequences of sentences. The other is the meaning of parts of discourse or of the discourse as a whole. The latter kind of meaning is named as 'macro structures' (p.67). Dijk and Kintch have mentioned four kinds of macro rules:

1. Deletion :

e.g. [Mary played with a ball. The ball was blue]

⇒ [Mary played with a blue ball.]

2. Generalization :

e.g. [Mary played with a doll. Mary played with blocks]

⇒ [Mary played with toys.]

3. Selection :

e.g. [I went to Paris. So I went to the station, bought a ticket,
took the train]

⇒ [I went to Paris (by train).]

4. Construction:

e.g. [I went to the station, bought a ticket]

⇒ [I travelled (to Paris) by train.]

Thomas Paul Klammer (1973)

Klammer has studied written discourse in English. He assumes that dialogue is the primary mode of all discourse. He distinguishes Dramatic discourse from Narrative discourse in terms of Dialogue paragraphs that are the basic units. These units are Dramatic Dialogue Paragraph (DDP) and Narrative Dialogue Paragraph (NDP). According to him a DDP is resolved if one of the two speakers respond verbally to the remark made by the other. A DDP is unresolved if this response is non-verbal. He distinguishes three types of DDPs: (1) simple DDP (2) Complex DDP (3) Compound DDP.

The system of NDPs is similar in outline to that of DDPs. The difference is only that there is a narrator in Narrative discourse. Therefore, speech-tagmemes in NDPs are manifested by reported speech. An NDP differs from a DDP in many other aspects. When an NDP is used for non-nuclear tagmemes for introduction, setting, etc., it is distinguished from a DDP. However, Klammer's claim that dialogue is primary to discourse is not much convincing. Longacre, on the other hand, says that "drama is essentially a narrative whose surface structure form proceeds by means of dialogue." (Dressler 1978:104).

Widdowson (1973)

Widdowson (1973) observes that in written, as in spoken texts it is impossible to establish the rhetorical nature of an utterance by reference to the occurrence of certain linguistic elements; each of the illocution must be defined in terms of the communicative act it performs. As an illustration he focuses on 'the most common or element' type of 'explanation', in which one event or state of affairs is represented as accounting for another, and in which what is to be accounted for is in some sense known:

John stopped because his brakes had jammed.

Under no circumstances, however, this is a scientific explanation; for the scientist the concern is 'not so much with accounting for an event or state of affairs by reference to another, as with accounting for an event or state of affairs as a particular instance of a general rule.'

Thus scientific explanation consists of two distinct sentences or locations, one being an observation or prediction, the other a generalization. For the scientist there are two explanatory procedures, inductive, when he proceeds from observation to generalization and deductive when the generalization leads to prediction. In discourse terms the only difference is sequence .

Widdowson assumes the approach suggested by Harris (1952/1970) for the analysis of discourse as "text analysis". He does so because it is concerned with the analysis of formal properties of "sentence in combination." Because the notion 'discourse analysis' for Widdowson means "the investigation into the way sentences put to communicative use in the performing of social action." Discourse is defined, hence, "the use of sentences." Widdowson maintains that the notion of 'cohesion' is textual property. While 'coherence' is a discourse property. He illustrates this distinction with the following pairs of texts:

Text 1:

A: Can you go to Edinburgh tomorrow?

B: Yes I can.

Text 2:

A: Can you go to Edinburgh tomorrow?

B: B.E.A. pilots are on strike.

(Widdowson 1973:72)

In text 1 there is elliptical cohesion whereas in text 2 there is no cohesion. It means that text 2 becomes text not through any 'cohesion' but through what Widdowson calls 'rhetorical connection' or 'coherence'. Following Austin, Searle and Labov, Widdowson attempts to account for 'rhetorical connection' or 'coherence.' He stresses the need to know "what conditions must obtain for an utterance to count as a particular communicative act" (Widdowson 1973:74). He proposes for scientific prose such acts as "definition, classification, generalisation, qualification and so on," which enter into combinations constituting "larger communicative units like explanations, descriptions and reports" which in turn, "reflect the actual methodology of scientific enquiry." Widdowson summarizes the distinction between text analysis and discourse analysis as follows:

One way sees it (language) as a text, a collection of formal objects held together by patterns of equivalences or frequencies or by cohesive devices. The other way sees language as discourse, a use of sentences to perform acts of communication which cohere into larger communicative units, ultimately establishing a rhetorical pattern which characterizes the piece of language as a whole as a kind of communication. (74)

In his opinion both these approaches are complementary to each other and as such they have a great pedagogical value.

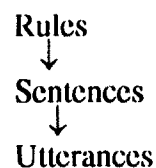
Widdowson (1973b) proposes a model for the kind of discourse analysis based on the functional or communicative approach to language. He shows how the information orientation to language can make way to the development of teaching materials. His approach is only an exercise in applied linguistics and therefore it is considered as 'speculative language teaching pedagogy'. Widdowson's important contribution is his

notion of rhetorical value and that transformations are rhetorical devices. He establishes clearly the distinctions between the following:

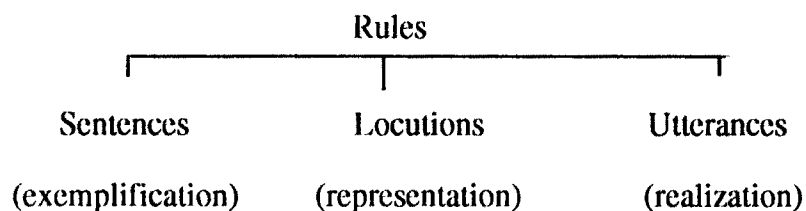
1. Text analysis and discourse analysis
2. Cohesion achieved by formal or grammatical devices for textual unity and coherence constituting rhetorical connection or contextual appropriateness.
3. Signification (i.e. referential or denotative meaning) and value (i.e. rhetorical or contextual meaning) of linguistic elements
4. Sentence, locution and utterance.

He discusses the relationship between speech factors and speech functions proposed by Hymes (1962) and attempts to formulate discourse rules on the basis of the notion of speech acts. He rejects the generative grammarians' view that these rules yield sentences and that utterances are derived from these sentences. He draws a clear distinction between sentences, locutions and utterances. He presents the following two diagrams to show the difference:

The Generative Grammarians' approach



Widdowson's approach



He maintains that a grammarian invents isolated sentences for the purposes of illustration, where the native speaker "has no knowledge of the sentences as such at all. He has a knowledge of the rules and he composes his utterances by direct reference to them and by reference to sentences." While describing 'value' in literary discourse he

points out how the generative grammarian's notions of deviation and ungrammaticality are inadequate to interpret. His notion of 'value' by suppletion is similar to that of the 'lexical cohesion' proposed by Halliday and Hasan (1976). Widdowson tries to show how value is realized through locutions in creating different illocutionary acts in a discourse and discusses the locutionary act of 'explanation' in scientific prose.

It must be noted that Widdowson calls his approach as 'speculative' in character. He offers no descriptive apparatus for the analysis of discourse. Because the main concern seems to be interpretative. He looks at discourse from the reader's point of view. It can be said that his approach corresponds to the decoding process of language. He has given several theoretical insights such as text-analysis versus discourse analysis in terms of cohesion and coherence, differential prominence and rhetorical value by communicative acts which help to establish that communicative aspect should be considered as an essential base for any theory of discourse.

Firbas (1974)

Firbas talks about a new concept known as Communicative Dynamism (hereafter CD). He points out that Mathesius' theory of FSP does not explain the sentence like *A girl came into the room*, because it has rhem-transition-theme sequence. So this sentence must be treated as marked and *Into the room came a girl* must be treated as normal or unmarked. He further proposes the criteria the context of dependence and the developmental role of an element in communication. This, in other words, means that each element in the sentence contributes to the further development of communication. The elements may have varying degrees.

A girl : CD4
 the room : CD3
 came : CD2
 into : CD1

4 and 1 indicate respectively the highest and the lowest degrees of CD because “in terms of degrees of communicative dynamism, the subject carries the highest, the adverbial elements the lowest degree of CD, the verb ranking between them.” He defines a degree of CD carried by a linguistic element thus “the extent to which the element contributes towards the development of communication” FSP, according to Firbas, is the result of an interplay of different means such as the grammatical structure, semantic content, contextual dependence, word order principles, rhythmical and prosodic features. One notices the modified version of Mathesius’s notion of FSP to which he includes listener’s point of view. To support the listener’s point of view he cites a question sentence which performs double function: the speaker’s need for some information from the listener; listener’s requirement provides this information.

Mountford (1975)

Mountford analyzes written discourse in English for the purpose of simplification of reading materials. Building on the work of Widdowson, Mountford (1975a) characterizes twelve scientifically relevant illocutions - ‘assert’, ‘generalize’, ‘infer’, ‘explicate’, ‘interpret’, ‘define’, ‘exemplify’, ‘illustrate’, ‘describe’, ‘report’, ‘observe’ and ‘predict’ as Searle (1965) calls them as essential condition. However, Mountford’s approach is greatly influenced by Widdowson’s principle of rhetorical value. He presents simplification as a mode of intra-lingual translation which employs procedures like adaptation, abridgment and condensation involving language uses like paraphrase, precise and summary. Mountford proposes a theoretical framework for discourse from the philosophical and ethnomethodological points of view, in terms of ‘speech act’ and ‘illocutionary act’ and ‘speech functions’ and ‘speech factors’. In his model a ‘communicative act’ is the basic unit of discourse. He begins with the illocutionary and propositional acts proposed by Searle (1969) and he expands the scope of discourse unit.

He defines a unit of discourse consisting of "...a communicative act which is some illocutionary force." A communicative act, according to him, reflects both hierarchical structuring achieved by 'illocutionary acts' and 'prepositional acts' while the linear structuring is brought about by 'interactive acts'.

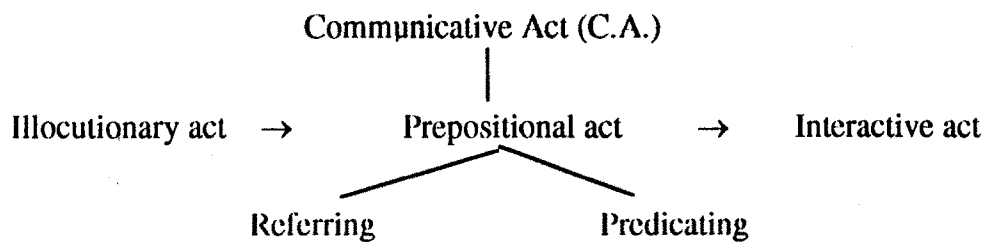
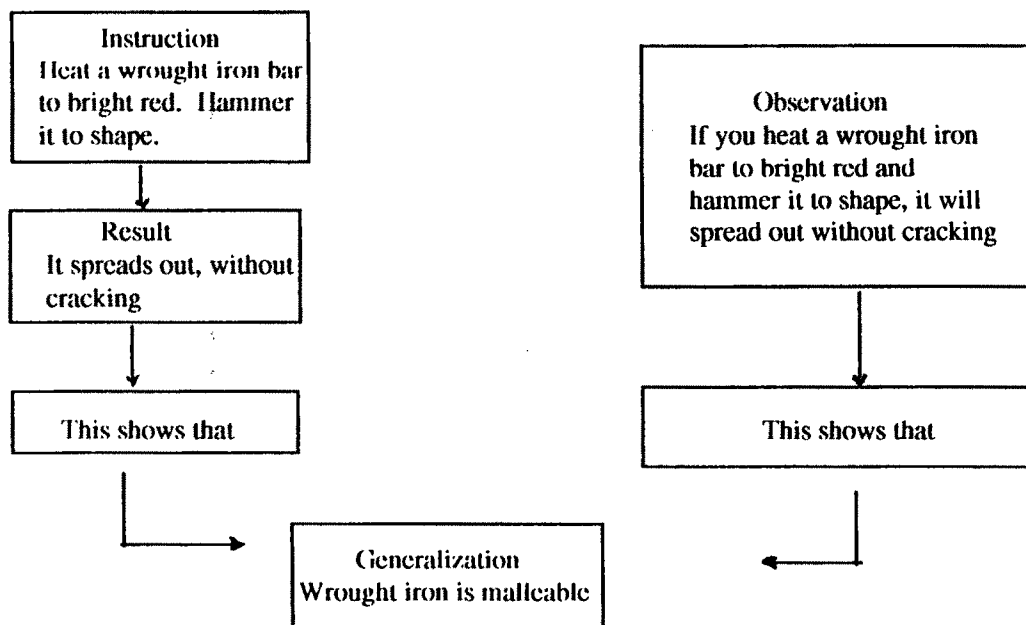


Diagram : The Structure of Communicative Act in Mountford (1975a)

Mountford (1975b) introduces students to **inductive explanations** with the following diagram which also indicates the relationship of observations to instructions and results:



The students are first given practice in the conversion of instructions and results to observations and then in different ways of linking observations and generalizations. Finally they learn the relationship between inductions and deductions. Mountford starts with an applied orientation and ends up with an interpretative speculation. His main purpose is to suggest a programme for the strategies of simplifying teaching materials.

Sinclair and Coulthard (1975)

Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) in their work Towards an Analysis of Discourse give a model for discourse analysis. They base their model on the data of the English language used by teacher and pupils in the classroom. They are interested in such questions as: what function does a given utterance have- is it a statement, question command or response - and how do the participants know; what type of utterance can appropriately follow what; how and by whom are topics introduced and how are they developed. how are 'turns' to speak distributed and do speakers have differing rights to speak? They offer a rank-scale or hierarchical structure for discourse consisting of five units: 1. Lesson, 2. Transaction, 3. Exchange, 4. Move, and 5. Act. This structure is related at the highest levels (i.e. at the levels of Lesson and Transaction) closely to non-linguistic or communicative situation. At the lower levels (i.e. at the levels of Move and Act) it is related to grammar. "Exchange" is purely discorsal unit that has no overlapping. This is shown as follows:

Non-linguistic organization	Discourse	Grammar
course period topic	LESSON TRANSACTION EXCHANGE MOVE ACT	sentence clause group word morpheme

Non-linguistic, Discoursal and Grammatical levels in
Sinclair and Coulthard (1975:24)

Their research has been very much text-based. They begin with very few preconceptions and the descriptive system has grown and been modified to cope with problems thrown up by the data. The system they have produced is hierarchical and their method of presentation is closely modelled on Halliday's **Categories of Theory of Grammar** (Word 17, 1961, 241-92). All the terms used - structure, system, rank, level, delicacy, realization, marked, unmarked - are Halliday's. To permit readers to gain an over-all impression, the whole system is first presented at primary delicacy and then given a much more discursive treatment. An act is the nominal unit which is a function having structural realization only at the level of the sentence, the clause, the group, the word and so on. A gesture like a nod or 'mm' is also taken as an act. Marker, starter, elicitation, check, directive, reply, react, answer these are some acts. Acts may be either free or bound. Bound acts are expressed by words such as well, now, and acts like nomination are free acts. A move is made up of two or more acts. Framing, Focusing, Opening, Answering, Follow-up these are some of the moves. An Exchange consists of two or

more moves. Some of the exchanges are: Teacher Elicit, Pupil Elicit, Teacher Inform, Pupil Inform, Reimitation, Reinforce, Repeat. Exchange is considered as the basic unit because it has a purely discourse status. A lesson develops in terms of teaching exchanges. I is an obligatory move in the exchange structure. It is the opening move because a lesson is teacher-dominated. Either R (i.e. responding or answering moves by the pupils) or F (i.e. follow-up or feedback from the teacher) is optional move. Different possible combinations of these moves yield different exchange patterns as follows:

(Here, brackets indicate the optional occurrence of a move)

I(R)	Teacher Inform
IR(F)	Teacher Direct/Teacher Check
IRF	Teacher Elicit
IR	Pupil Elicit
IF	Pupil Inform

A transaction is made up of two or more exchanges and its structure is determined non-linguistically by a topic. Transaction is the second highest unit in the discourse level.

Sinclair and Coulthard recognize three major types of transaction. They are:

1. Informing Transaction : Here the pupils do nothing except acknowledging
2. Directing Transaction : Here the pupils are requested to do some work on their own
3. Eliciting Transaction : here the teacher asks a question and the pupils respond verbally

The limits of transactions are marked by boundary exchanges that consist of 'frame' and 'focus'. Frame refers to a small set of words such as well, right, now, okay, good, etc.. It indicates the end of one stage and the beginning of another stage in the discourse. Focus has a unique quality in the sense that it is teacher - dominated referring to some hints on what the following transaction is about. A lesson is a set of transactions which is isomorphic with a 'period' in the non-linguistic or communicative level. Some of these lessons make a course in terms of periods. It must be noted here that Sinclair and

Coulthard (1975) model is applicable only to spoken discourse that too is restricted to a classroom. This model does not adequately account for written discourse or spoken discourse in general.

Keith Jones (1976)

In his paper 'The Role of Discourse Analysis in Devising Undergraduate Reading Programmes in EST' (1976), Keith Jones analyses prose by using more or less a similar rank-scale of functional units as in Sinclair and Coulthard (1975). The passage which he analyses is taken from Tabriz teaching materials in Geography. Jones sets up for analysis the units Plan, Stages, Moves, Acts. A plan is made up of two or more stages covering the whole text on a particular topic. The stages can be such as Problem Identification and Solution Presentation. A stage comprises two or more moves like Contrastive Analysis, Problem Deduction and Problem Amplification. A move consists of acts such as Ascription, Exemplification, Differentiation and Justification.

Werlich (1976)

In his book A Text Grammar of English (1976) Werlich attempts to establish a relationship between sentence-structure (or syntactic) units such as Morpheme, Word, Group, Clause and Sentence on the one hand and text-structure units such as Sentence, Sequence, Paragraph, Section and Chapter and Book on the other hand. This relationship is observed in terms of four levels: (i) the level of substance (ii) the level of form (iii) the level of context and (iv) the level of text. A text as opposed to a non-text, according to Werlich, is marked by 1. Coherence 2. Completion. Coherence is semantic in nature and depends on what Werlich calls the "thematic text base unit". The completion which is a structural matter is marked by 'initiation' and 'termination', which signal linear progression of a text. A Thematic text base unit "is a text initial linguistic

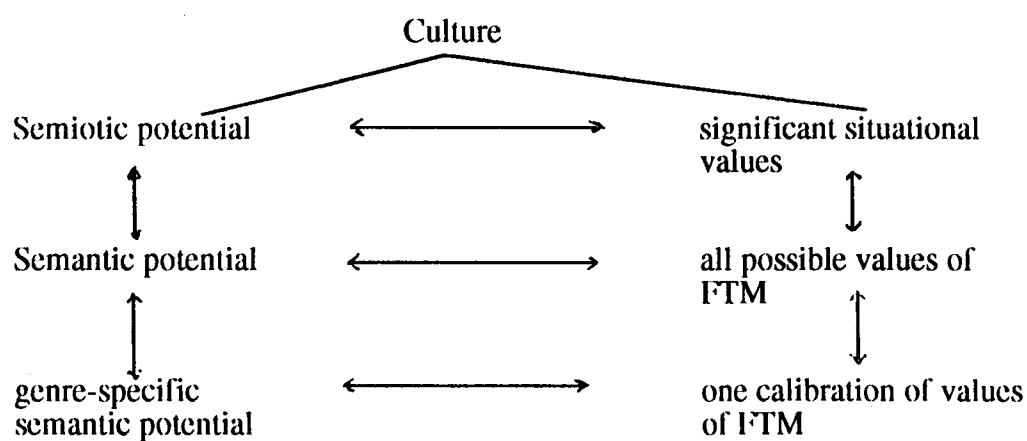
unit which both structurally and semantically permits expansion into a text by sequence of coherent and completed linguistic units" (27). Werlich examines that textual coherence and completion are created by "sequences" which are recurring "linguistic elements in successive text units'. He sets up different types of these sequences on the basis of six semantic components. Those are: Contextual Direction, Contextual Dependence, Reference, Range, Connection and Focus (157-177).

Hasan (1976 ...)

Hasan uses the notion of contextual configuration to account for the functional or situational dimension of the text. According to her a text has two dimensions: texture and structure. Texture is analyzable by cohesive devices (as proposed in Halliday and Hasan 1976) and structure is accounted in terms of context. For this purpose she introduces the nature of the 'structural formula'. This formula is a correlation between context variables (viz. field, tenor, model) and the values of these variables in a given text. She stresses on the context as well as defined category. She asserts that the model of language requires context for the specification of structural formulae for distinct genres of discourse. She takes the terms 'register' and 'genre' as synonymous and maintains that certain factors in extralinguistic situation can be brought together under three labels: 'field', 'tenor' and 'mode' of discourse as suggested in Halliday (1975 and 1976). 'Field' refers to the interpersonal relationship and the social distance of the interactants. 'Mode' refers to the medium, spoken or written and whether it is '+' or '-' visual contact. Under 'tenor' Hasan distinguishes three types of roles. These are for the interactants of the verbal exchange (Textual roles: Speaker and Hearer; social roles: teacher/pupil etc., and participants roles: initiator/respondent). Hasan claims that these three variables constitute the 'contextual construct' of a given text. These variables are

highly generalized in nature and they are represented by different values in different texts. 'Contextual Configuration(CC)' is the totality of values of these variables of a given text. According to Hasan context is a determining factor for arriving at structural formula of a text. That is, "... the values within a contextual configuration determine what elements may occur in what configuration (231)." As an illustration, Hasan gives the values of the variables (CC_1) of an imaginary text (T_1). The situation of the text is that a person (i.e. patient-applicant) telephones the receptionist at a doctor's clinic to fix a medical appointment. The context of culture for this CC, is the standard European type-, producing a verbal interaction which is both complete and appropriate. The elements of the structural formula of this text (T_1), says Hasan, are determined by its CC (contextual configuration) in terms of the values of these variables ('field', 'tenor', 'mode'). She observes that some of these elements are obligatory and some others are optional. The elements with the absence of one or more of which renders the text incomplete and/or inappropriate are the obligatory elements. The elements which may be deleted without affecting the completeness and/or the appropriateness of the text are the optional elements. Hasan shows that there is a close relationship between the functional components namely the experimental, the interpersonal, the textual and the logical components at the semantic level and lexicogrammar and context. However she does not point out how this relationship is to be realized. For this reason it is not possible to evaluate her notion of 'contextual configuration (CC)' and the associated notion of 'structural formula'. In her concluding remarks Hasan says that the scheme proposed in her paper is not suited to texts in verbal art such as Middlemarch and War and Peace. It is suited only "to small self-contained verbal interaction" such as doctor-patient consultation (224). In chapter 5 of the book Language, Context, and Text: Aspects of Language in Social-Semiotic Perspective, she writes about the texture of the text. She says that texture, like structure, can be shown to be ultimately related to the context of

situation. Texture is a matter of meaning relations. The most significant term she specifies is **cohesion**. She says that semantic relations are the basis of cohesion. She identifies the terms like co-referentiality, co-classification, co-extension, cohesive devices, implicit devices, cohesive tie etc.. Further she comments on culture, situation and contextual configuration.



Note: F = Field; T = tenor; M = mode

Diagram: Culture, Meaning and Situation, Hasan (1985:100)

In the diagram culture is shown as the highest abstraction; the left and the right columns are related to it as a realization is to the category it realizes. The slanting arrows indicate this relation. So culture is itself more specifically describable as an integrated body of the total set of meanings available to community; its semiotic potential. Any meaning system is part of this resource.

de Beaugrande and Dressler (1981)

Robert-Alain de Beaugrande and Wolfgang Ulrich Dressler published their Introduction to Text Linguistics in 1981. In the first chapter of the book they discuss the

basic notions such as Text, Coherence, Cohesion and Textuality. They define text as a communicative occurrence which meets seven standards of textuality. These seven standards are as follows:

1. Cohesion
2. Coherence
3. Intentionality
4. Acceptability
5. Informativity
6. Situationality
7. Intertextuality.

Cohesion and coherence are text-centred notions, designating operations directed at the text materials. Intentionality concerns the text producers attitude that the set of occurrences should constitute a cohesive and coherent text instrumental in fulfilling the producer's intentions, e.g. to distribute knowledge or to attain a goal specified in a plan. To some degree cohesion and coherence could themselves be regarded as operational goals without whose attainment other discourse goals may be blocked. The acceptability of the text concerns with the text receiver's attitude that the set of occurrences should constitute a cohesive and coherent text having some use or relevance for the receiver, e.g. to acquire knowledge or provide co-operation in a plan. This attitude is responsive to such factors as text type, social or cultural setting, and the desirability of goals. If acceptability is restricted, communication can be diverted. It is accordingly taken as a signal of non-cooperation if a text receiver raises questions about acceptability when the text producer's intentionality is obviously in effect. Text producers often speculate on the receivers' attitude of acceptability and present texts that require important contributions in order to make sense. The fifth standard of textuality is called informativity. It concerns the extent to which the occurrences of the presented text are expected vs. unexpected or known vs. unknown/certain. Every text is at least

informative; no matter how predictable form and content may be, there will always be a few variable occurrences that cannot be entirely foreseen. Particularly low informativity is likely to be disturbing, causing boredom or even rejection of the text. The sixth standard of textuality can be designated situationality and concerns the factors which make a text relevant to a situation of occurrence. One might treat the road sign

SLOW
CHILDREN
AT PLAY

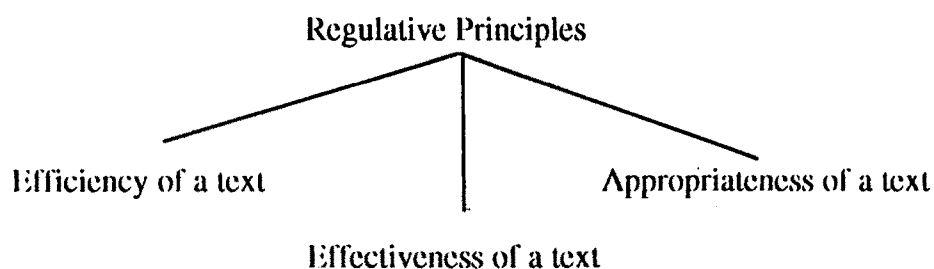
in different ways, but that the most probable intended use was obvious. The ease with which people can decide such an issue is due to the influence of the situation where the text is presented. In the case of this example, the sign is placed in a location where a certain class of receivers, namely motorists, are likely to be asked for a particular action. It is far more reasonable to assume that 'slow' is a request to reduce speed rather than an announcement of the children's mental or physical capacities. Pedestrians can tell that the text is not relevant for themselves because their speeds would not endanger anyone. The sense and use of the text are decided via situation. The seventh standard of textuality is called intertextuality and concerns the factors which make the utilization of one text dependent upon knowledge of one or more previously encountered texts. A driver who has seen road sign

SLOW
CHILDREN
AT PLAY

is likely to see another sign further down the road such as :

RESUME SPEED

One cannot resume something unless one was doing it at an earlier time and then stopped it for some reason. Intertextuality is in a general fashion, responsible for the evolution, of text type as classes of texts with typical patterns of characteristics. Within a particular type, reliance on inter-textuality may be more or less prominent. In types like parodies, critical reviews, rebuttals, or reports, the text producer must consult the prior text continually, and the text receivers will usually need some familiarity with the latter. These standards of textuality function as constitutive principles that control textual communication rather than define it. According to them there are three regulative principles. These can be shown as follows:



- The efficiency of a text depends on its use in communicating with a minimum expenditure of effort by the participants.
- The effectiveness of a text depends on its leaving a strong impression and creating favourable conditions for attaining a goal.
- The appropriateness of a text is the agreement between its setting and the ways in which the standards of textuality are upheld.

Leech G.N. and Short M.H. (1981)

Leech and Short (1981) in their book Style in Fiction, Chapter 7, 'The rhetoric of text' write,

"It is now time to extend our view of language to include what Halliday calls the interpersonal and textual functions of language. But we shall conceive of them rather differently from Halliday, as matters of pragmatics [the study of the relation between language and its users (speakers and hearers)] and rhetoric (principles or maxims of linguistic behaviour), that is as ways in which users implement the cognitive or ideational code of language for communicative ends" (209).

According to them Discourse is linguistic communication seen as transaction between speaker and hearer, an interpersonal activity whose form is determined by its social purpose. Here they distinguish discourse from text. Text is linguistic communication (either spoken or written) seen simply as a message coded in its auditory or usual medium. Therefore text or utterance is 'a linear pattern of sound waves' which in writing, is 'a linear sequence of visible marks on paper' and when read out is 'a linear pattern of sound waves'. They affirm that text is not a random sequence of noises or marks and the following diagram shows the distinction between text and discourse.

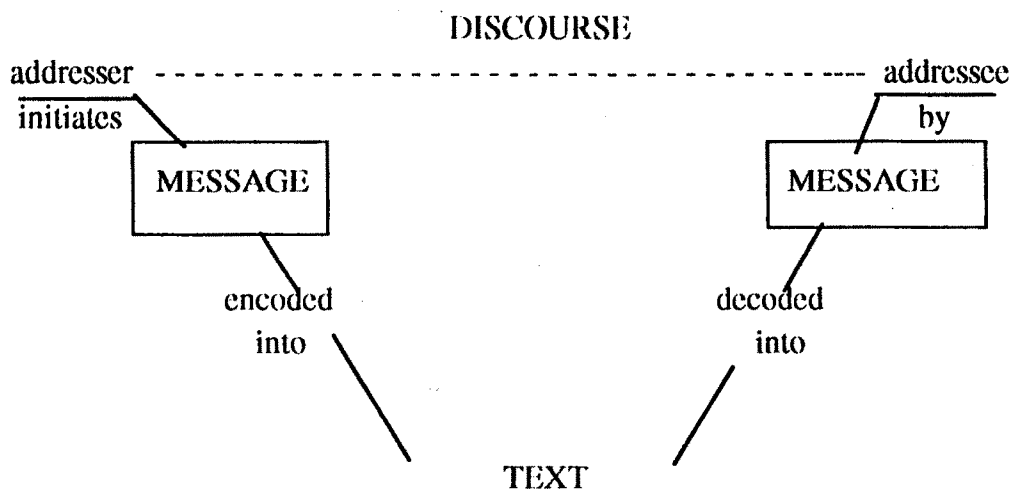


Diagram : The rhetoric of Text and Discourse in Leech and Short (1981:210)

It is seen that if the communication is successful on an ideational plane, then the message on the right of the diagram (as stored in the addressee's model of reality) is more or less identical to that which appears on the left of the diagram. The term 'Rhetoric' in the traditional sense 'art or skill of effective communication' becomes "the set of principles for achieving communicative ends" at the levels of text and discourse. They further discuss the factors of rhetoric of text such as linearity of text, the principle of end focus, segmentation, coordination and subordination, addresser-based rhetoric etc.

While discussing the Discourse Situation of Literature they consider language as a vehicle of communication whereby one person conveys messages to another for a variety of different purposes, e.g. informing, ordering, persuading, reassuring. The way the message is used to achieve such ends may, in ordinary speech situations, be called 'the rhetoric of discourse'. But in a novel or a short story, the rhetoric of discourse has a rather different implication. Here the writer has the goal of 'informing' the reader about a particular fictional world. but also he needs to achieve a rapport with his readers, an identity of viewpoint whereby the contents of the fiction will be interpreted and evaluated in an appropriate way. However, when a spoken utterance takes place in a discourse situation containing the following factors :



SITUATIONAL CONTEXT IN WHICH DISCOURSE OCCURS

Addresser → Message → Addressee

Fig. Leech and Short (1981: 257)

The figure implies the production and reception of a spoken message which normally take place within a single context of time and space. But this is not true of a written discourse such as a letter. Further, the addresser and addressee in a discourse situation are normally distinct; but they need not be. If you write a shopping list to remind yourself what to buy, the addresser and addressee are the same. For all published texts, on the other hand, there is usually one addresser but a large number of addressees, the vast majority of whom the writer never met. Although the author of a novel is in the dark about his readers from many points of view, he can of course assume that he shares with his readers a common fund of knowledge and experience. A lot of general background knowledge of the world about us is needed to interpret even the simplest of sentences in a novel. These are prerequisites, when Fielding wrote Shamela he could assume that his readers would be well acquainted with Richardson's Pamela. If the modern reader has not read Pamela he will have to read it in order to put himself in the position of Fielding's assumed reader and to be able to appreciate the satire. We usually do not know the opinion of the real author except by inference from what he writes; and there will often be no practical need for us to distinguish between the reader and the implied reader because we, as readers, happen to have the requisite knowledge, beliefs and preconceptions. Because of this and for terminological ease, Leech and Short refer to as

author and reader. But they maintain that it should always be borne in mind that author means implied author and reader means implied reader.

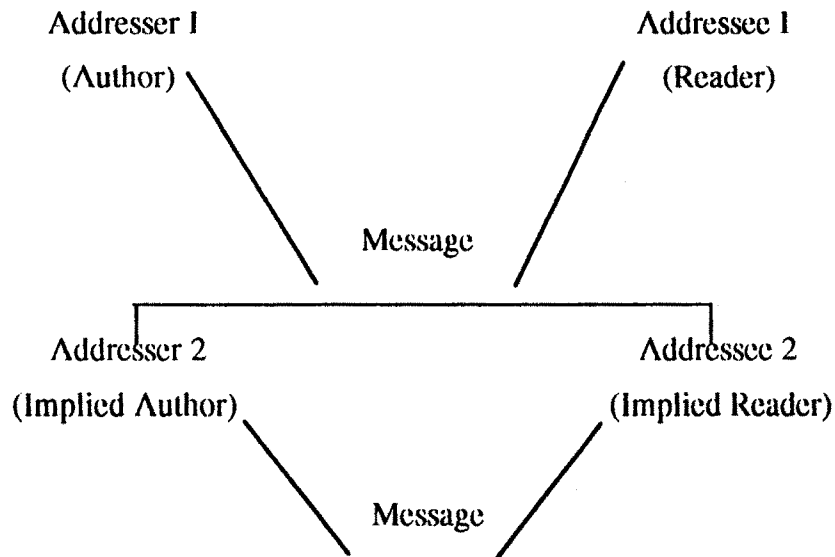


Diagram : Leech and Short (1981: 262)

Literary discourse can function simultaneously on many levels. Authors and readers are not the only figures involved in the discourse situation of the novel. Critics have for a long time distinguished between the author and the narrator, and the narrator may well be talking to someone distinct from the reader. Leech and Short give here the example of Emily Bronte's Wuthering Heights. The novel is in the form of a diary which Mr. Lockwood writes to himself. There is a long passage reporting Nellie Dean's narration of the events of the story to Mr. Lockwood. The discourse structure of Nellie Dean's narration is illustrated by Leech and Short as follows:

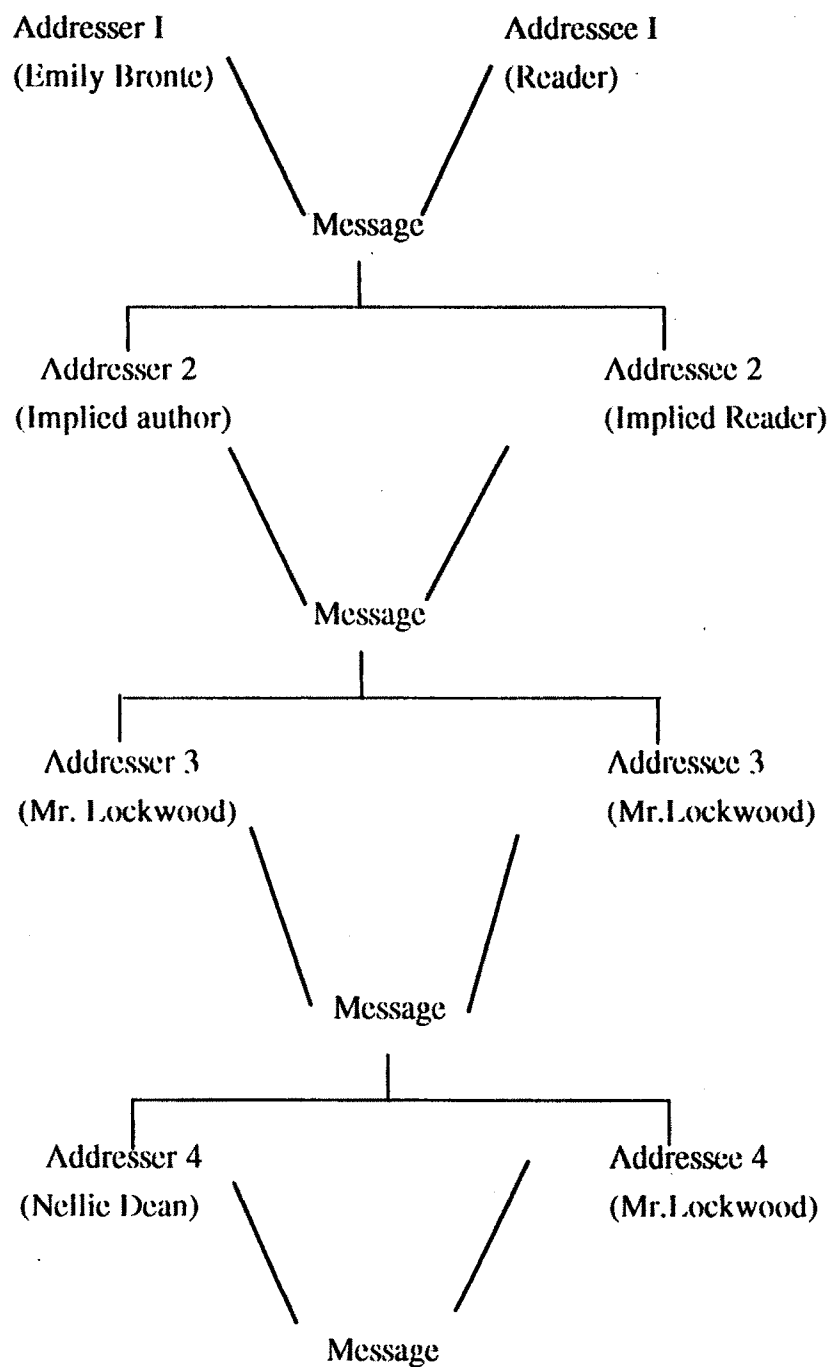


Diagram:Leech and Short (1981: 263)

Willis Edmondson (1981)

Willis Edmondson wrote Spoken Discourse : A Model for Analysis in 1981. The first chapter of the book is brief and preliminary, and introduces some basic terms and distinctions. The second chapter addresses the question as to how far text- grammars as currently conceived and expounded provide an analytic framework for the analysis of spoken discourse, and begins to explore the relationship between spoken and written discourse. In Chapter 3 the sense in which that which is done when something is said may be termed an illocutionary act is discussed, as the relationship between the 'saying' and the 'doing'. The fourth chapter reviews some aspects of social, interactional significance of language use, and discusses the work of the ethnomethodologists on the analysis of conversation. The position is then adopted that in spoken discourse a significant conversational unit - let us say an utterance - is both 'illocutionary' and 'interactional' in its significance, and that we therefore require a model in which the approaches evidenced in chapter 3 and 4 are combined and reconciled. In chapter 5 several familiar approaches to the analysis of discourse are reviewed in the light of this position and found deficient. In so far as the analysis developed in Chapter 6 concentrate on the use of language in conversation, the study may be deemed linguistic in its orientation. According to Edmondson semantic meaning will be referred to as the **logical sense** of an utterance, determined crudely by the content of the proposition expressed in that utterance, and by its **locutionary force** derived from the grammatical mood of the sentence used in that utterance. By using the binary distinctions a {±} suprasentential and {±} use he sets up the following simplistic matrix:

[- suprasentential], [-use] = the sentence

[+ suprasentential], [-use] = the text

[- suprasentential], [+use] = the utterance

[+ suprasentential], [+use] = the discourse.

He presents the distinction between Textlinguistik and Discourse Analysis as follows:

Textlinguistik	V.	Discourse Analysis
model Centred	V.	data centred
theoretical	V.	descriptive
type data	V.	token data
competence data	V.	performance data
written language	V.	spoken language

While re-interpreting speech-act theory, Edmondson proposes an alternative to Searle's theory of indirect speech acts, and thereby clarifies the relationship between a locutionary and illocutionary act. He summarizes the discussion as follows:

1. If an illocutionary act is viewed as an utterance by means of which a speaker communicates his feelings, attitudes, beliefs or intentions with respect to some event or state of affairs, it is necessary to find appropriate technical terms to describe such acts....
2. An H-supportive maxim has been proposed as in part affecting our perfection and evaluation of member's behaviour in spoken discourse.
3. We need to distinguish between a locutionary and illocutionary act, and reject the notion of co-occurrent direct and indirect illocutionary acts. If the

notion of illocutionary act is applicable to the analysis of spoken discourse, it is clearly necessary to suggest one value for any utterance assigned an illocutionary force if possible.

4. In many instances illocutionary force is 'strategically indeterminate' - i.e. a matter of negotiation.

John Gumperz et.al. (1982)

In their article 'Thematic structure and progression in discourse', John J. Gumperz, Gurinder Aulakh and Hannah Kaltman discuss the Indian English discourse and they show how it appears to Westerners to be disconnected and is hard to follow. They examine what is odd in discourse or deviant from standard and at the same time consider what involvement in discourse continuity these oddities might have, doing so from two points of view: 1. what problems of understanding these oddities might present and 2. what we can infer about the speaker's intentions, to which these might be related, by looking at longer examples. These examples come from a recorded discussion about mortgages in an Adult Education class for Indian immigrants in a London industrial suburb. Indian speakers of English frequently, and apparently systematically which differs from native speaker's, in the devices they use to signal 'communicative intent' through lexicalization, syntax and prosody. Further they have commented in detail how Indian English discourse is different from that of native speakers: The main reasons they have given are Word Order, the Verb System, Emphatic Particles, Question Particles, Conjunctions, Deixis and Referencing. Repetition and Reduplication used in Hindi discourse influence the Indian speakers English and it makes Indian English discourse quite difficult to understand for the native speakers of English.

Brown and Yule (1983)

Brown and Yule in their book Discourse Analysis (1983) have the linguistic approach to the analysis of discourse. They examine how humans use language to communicate and, in particular, how addresser construct linguistic messages for addressees and how addressees work on linguistic messages in order to interpret them. Their primary interest is the traditional concern of the descriptive linguistics, to give an account of how forms of language are used in communication. They deal only with English discourse, in order to be able to make direct appeal to the reader's ability to interpret the texts they present, as well as to well described and relatively well understood features of English syntax and phonology. Throughout the book they have insisted on the view which puts the speaker/writer at the centre of the process of communication and it is people who communicate and interpret. It is speakers/writers who have topics, presuppositions, who assign information structure and who make reference. It is hearers/readers who interpret and who draw inferences. This view is opposed to the study of these issues in terms of sentences considered in isolation from communicative contexts. According to Brown and Yule the analysis of discourse is, necessarily, the analysis of language in use. It cannot be restricted to the description of linguistic forms independent of the purposes or functions which those forms are designed to serve in human affairs. They further distinguish the terms like the **transactional view** and **interactional view**. They further comment on 'data'. According to them the grammarian's 'data' is inevitably the single sentence, or a set of single sentences illustrating a particular feature of the language being studied. In contrast, the analyst of discourse studies the language not in isolation but in group. Brown and Yule comment on the terms like reference, presupposition, implicature and inference which are discourse topics. In an attempt to distinguish their notion of topic from the

grammarians' sentential topic, Keenan and Schieffelin (1976) used the term discourse topic. By doing so they emphasize that 'discourse topic' is not a single NP, but a proposition (about which some claim is made or elicited). Brown and Yule discuss the terms like topic framework, speaker's topic, theme, thematisation and staging. They reinstated the term Information Structure within texts which was instituted by scholars of the Prague School before the Second World War. They studied what they called 'the communicative dynamism' of the elements contributing to a sentence, within the framework of 'functional sentence perspective'. They also considered information as consisting of two categories: **new information** which is information that the addresser believes is not known to the addressee and **given information** which the addresser believes is known to the addressee.

Michael Stubbs (1984)

Michael Stubbs published his Discourse Analysis : The Sociolinguistic Analysis of Natural Language in the year 1984. In the very first chapter he says that the term **discourse analysis** is ambiguous and he uses it in his book to refer to the linguistic analysis of naturally occurring connected spoken or written discourse. It also attempts to study the organisation of language above the sentence or the clause. He further says that language and situation are inseparable. Chapters 2, 3 and 4 introduce three different approaches to discourse analysis, which have considerable use and are with insights into written and spoken discourse. Chapter 2 takes an extract of a transcribed conversational data and examines it very closely, which reveals many features of spoken discourse which is of much interest in linguistic description. However, it also has the limitations of any study which is restricted to a single text. Chapter 3 focuses on language use in a particular social setting. It is based on field-work observations of the functions served by utterances in a particular type of speech event: classroom teaching. The insights

available are of both practical and theoretical interest, while it has the limitations of observational and ethnographic work. Chapter 4 discusses some of the limitations of traditional linguistic descriptions of language, which are restricted to the semantics and syntax of sentences. It provides a further discussion of a different kind of data, the kinds of argument which can be based on data. Together, chapters 2,3 and 4 raise many of the descriptive and theoretical problems which discourse analyses may tackle.

Richard Warner (1985)

Discourse connectives found by Richard Warner in his thesis entitled Discourse Connectives in English are as follows :

Semantic class	Discourse connective
Conjunctions: Simple	and also too nor more than that, not only that, not ... either
Adversative	but yet though whereas on the other hand still at the same time although however, even though only, but then again
Causation	so because/cause consequently therefore whereas
Example	like where, for one thing example, for instance

Alternation	
Inclusive	or
Exclusive	or else
Conditional Exclusion	otherwise unless
Hedge	at least anyway in fact
Comparison	like

(23)

Deborah Schiffrin (1987)

Deborah Schiffrin in Discourse Markers (1987) comments on various discourse markers while distinguishing assumptions of discourse analysis. The key assumptions about language are taken to be central to discourse analysis concerned with context and communication. Broadly, these assumptions are :

1. Language always occurs in context
2. Language is context sensitive
3. Language is always communicative
4. Language is designed for communication

Along with these properties of discourse are also mentioned

1. structure - discourse forms structures
2. meaning - discourse conveys meanings
3. action - discourse accomplishes actions.

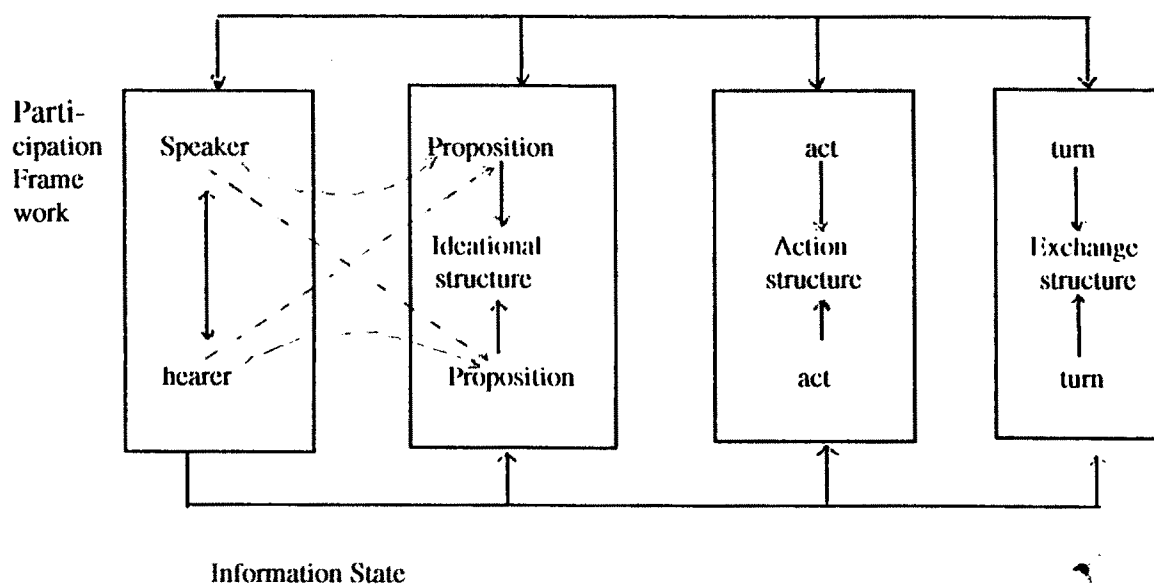


Diagram : A Discourse Model (1987:25).

Schiffrin in his model distinguishes three structures :

1. ideational structure 2. action structure 3. exchange structure. The top part in every structure is from an initial speaker, the bottom part is from a next speaker. In contrast to exchange and action structures the units within **ideational structure** are semantic, they are propositions or what he just calls ideas. Three different relations between ideas contribute to the overall configuration of idea structures: cohesive relations, topic relations and functional relations. He uses the term **action structure** to indicate that speech acts are situated - not only in terms of speaker's identities and social setting, but in terms of what action precedes, what action is intended, what action is intended to follow, and what action actually does follow. The units of talk in an **exchange structure** are the sequentially defined units attended to by ethnomethodologists. He labels them as turns but they include conditionally relevant adjacency - pair parts - in other words, questions and answers, greetings. In general, then, exchange structures are the outcome of the decision procedures by which speakers alternate sequential roles and define those alternations in relation to each other. Further he comments on discourse markers. The analysis of discourse markers is part of the more general analysis of discourse coherence - how speakers and hearers jointly integrate forms, meanings and actions to make overall sense out of what is said. Within this very general domain of analysis, however, there are several more specific issues to which are also addressed through the study of discourse markers. Then he gives the account of why are discourse markers used, they add anything to discourse, why use one marker instead of another, He treats Oh! as marker of information management. Oh! is traditionally viewed as an exclamation or interjection. When used alone, without the syntactic support of a sentence, Oh is said to indicate strong emotional stages, e.g. surprise, fear or pain.

Jack : Was that a serious picture?

Freda: Oh:! Gosh yes !

Schiffrrin treats **well** as marker of response. Like *Oh*, use of **well** is not based on semantic meaning or grammatical status. Although *well* sometimes is a noun, an adverb, or a degree word, its use in utterance initial position is difficult to characterise in terms based on any of these classes. Rather it has been labelled interjection, filler, particle, hesitator and initiator. **Well** also figures in particular conversational moves. Schiffrrin further discusses discourse connectives such as - *and*, *but*, *or*. *And* has two roles in talk; it coordinates idea units and it continues a speaker's action. Although *and* has these roles simultaneously it is easier to demonstrate them by describing them separately. Although *but* is a discourse coordinator, it has a very different pragmatic effect; *but* marks an upcoming unit as a contrasting action. Because this effect is based on its contrastive meaning, the range of ideational uses of *but* is considerably narrower than that of *and*. *Or* is used as an option marker in discourse. It differs from *and* and *but* not only in meaning, but because it is more hearer-directed; whereas *and* marks a speaker's continuation, and *but* a speaker's return to a point, *or* marks speaker's provision of options to a hearer. Further Schiffrrin comments on *so* and *because* and treats them as markers of **cause** and **result**. He categorizes *now* and *then* as temporal adverbs. He further says that **Y'know** and **I mean** are the markers whose literal meanings directly influence their discourse use. **Y'know** marks transitions in information state which are relevant for participation frameworks, and **I mean** marks speaker orientation toward own talk, i.e. modification of ideas and intentions. Both markers also have uses which are less directly related to their literal meanings : **Y'know** gains attention from the hearer to open an interactive focus on speaker- provided information and **I mean** maintains attention on the speaker. The functions of these two markers are complementary and both are socially sanctioned.

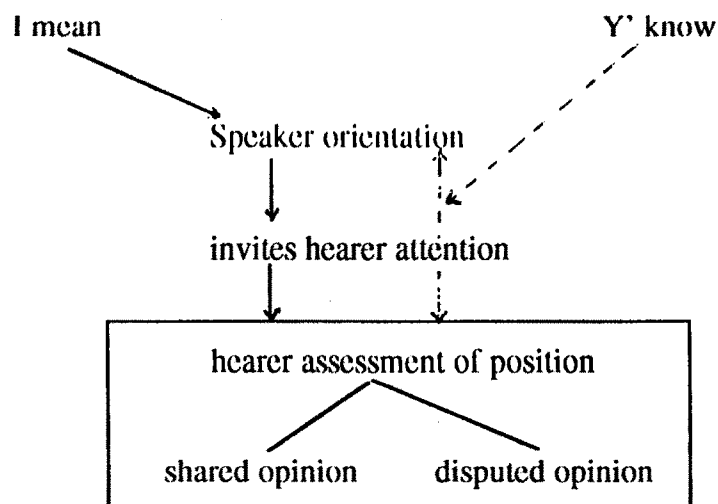


Diagram : I mean and Y'know in arguments (1987: 310).

Further Schiffrin summarizes properties of discourse as follows:

Planes of talk on which markers function

Information state	Participation framework	Ideational structure	Action structure	Exchange structure
oh well	oh well	well and but or	oh well and but	well and but or so
so because	so	so because	so because	
then	now	now then	then	
I mean Y'know	I mean Y'know	I mean Y'know		Y'know

Table : Schiffrin (1987: 316)

Kress and Hodge (1988)

Kress and Hodge in chapter five of their book Social Semiotic discuss utterances in discourse. They are of the opinion that minimal classification of utterance is very important and significant on the part of speaker. The classification system of a language

is prior to any individual utterance, providing the speaker with words, hierarchies of categories, models and structures, as the raw material of communication. However, some classification operations must be performed on every utterance by the speaker himself. These minimal obligatory classifications are the speaker's indication of generality, truth and validity and range of applicability to the whole and to its individual parts. The term they use for this is **modality**. It indicates the mode within which an utterance is presented as true, reliable and authoritative. Modality has traditionally been regarded as parts of verb system, where the term described the set of modal verbs. *He may come* has a different status from *he should come*: the first is about possibility in general sense, the second is about obligation. (The speaker of the second sentence may of course not be telling the truth. The auxiliary makes a claim, it is not a proof.) However, modality pervades every part of an utterance; it is not restricted to the verb alone. If a speaker does not classify his utterance and its parts in the required ways, he will produce a sentence whose meaning is sufficiently clear, but which will seem glaringly ungrammatical and unacceptable. The speaker will be regarded as (intellectually) incompetent because he has not classified his own utterance. For instance, the direct realization of the transitive model would be a sentence of the form *Milkman bring cream*. This is ungrammatical in English. An acceptable form is *The milkman brings the cream*.

Schematically we can represent this as follows :

Nominal determiner + noun + number	Process	Nominal
	verb + tense	Determiner + noun
the	milkman	bring s
		the cream.

Further they state that the classificatory operations are interdependent. For instance a is impossible with plural noun; there is agreement in number between subject and verb;

and tenses agree with other indicators of time in an utterance. This interdependence is not formal. To prove the modal effect of determiners he gives the following sentences:

- (i) Man is rational.
- (ii) The man is rational.
- (iii) A man is rational.

All three sentences are in the present tense. The first is offered as absolutely general and universal, true of all men (indeed of all men and women) at all times. The second sentence is also in the present, so it too implies a general truth, but the effect of **the** is to limit this claim to one instance. About this one man, the statement is offered as universally true. The determiner also implies certainty about the identity of this man, who is by this classification assumed to be known to both speaker and hearer. **A** in *A man is rational*, however, has two interpretations. One is universal, making it equivalent to *Man is rational*. Here **a** stands for any man at all, and hence all. The other interpretation is that the man is unknown. Further they say that the speech model organizes aspect of modality. The speech model occurs in three forms: question, statement and command. There is non-matching relation between the model and the surface form. The neutral form of a statement is a declarative; the neutral form of a command is an imperative; and the neutral form of a question is an interrogative. They show this in tabular form as follows:

Semantic category	Surface form
Statement	declarative
Command	imperative
Question	interrogative

Any semantic category may be realized by any one of the surface forms on the right. Each one of the three forms involves a specific role relation between speaker and hearer. In the statement, the speaker is giver of information, the hearer is recipient of

information. In question the speaker is seeker of information, the hearer the possible provider of the information. In the command, the speaker is commander, the hearer is the commanded.

Gunther Kress (1989)

Gunther Kress in his book entitled Linguistic Process in Sociocultural Practice (1989) writes about discourse. He is of the opinion that the individual must be understood primarily as a social agent, located in a network of social relations. The terms 'speech community', 'speech event' and 'code switching' have all been variously associated with different traditions of socio-linguistic research. Further he quotes Michael Foucault and says that Discourse is systematically organized modes of talking. Discourses are systematically organised sets of statements which give expression to the meanings and values of an institution. Beyond that, they define, describe and delimit what is possible to say and not possible to say with respect to the area of concern of that institution, whether marginally or centrally. A discourse provides a set of possible statements about a given area, and organises and gives structure to the manner in which a particular topic, object, process is to be talked about. In that it provides descriptions, rules, permissions and prohibitions of social and individual actions.

Norman Fairclough (1989)

Norman Fairclough in his work entitled Language and Power (1989) treats 'language as a form of social practice.' Language is a part of society, and not somehow external to it. Secondly language is a social process. And thirdly, that language is a socially conditioned process, conditioned that is by other (non-linguistic) aspects of society. Discourse involves social conditions, which can be specified as social conditions of production and social conditions of interpretation. These social conditions, moreover, relate to three different 'levels' of social organization : the level of the social situation,

or the immediate social environment in which the discourse occurs; the level of the social institution which constitutes a wider matrix for the discourse; and the level of the society as a whole.

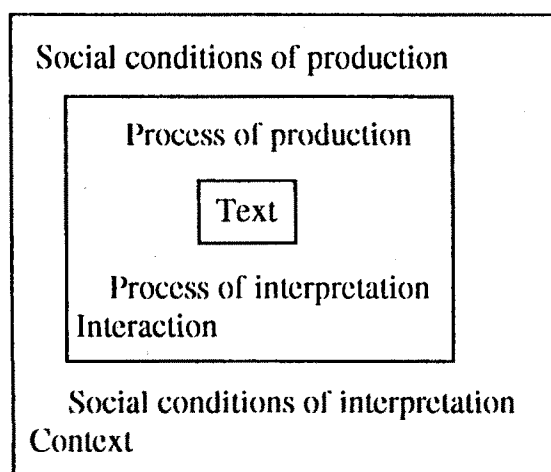


Diagram : Discourse as Text, Interaction and Context, Fairclough (1989: 25).

So, in seeing language as discourse, and as social practice, one is committing oneself not just to analysing texts, nor just to analysing processes of production and interpretation, but to analysing the relationship between texts, processes and their social conditions, both the immediate conditions of the situational context and the more remote conditions of institutional and social structures. It is the study of the relationship between texts, interactions and contexts. Fairclough calls his study as critical discourse analysis. He distinguishes three dimensions, or stages, of critical discourse analysis:

1. Description - is the stage which is concerned with formal properties of the text.
2. Interpretation - is concerned with the relationship between text and interaction - with seeing the text as the product of the process of production, and as a resource in the process of interpretation.

3. Explanation - is concerned with the relationship between interaction and social context with the social determination of the process of production and interpretation, and their social effects.

Discourse and practice are constrained not by various independent types of discourse and practice, but by interdependent networks which we can call 'orders'- orders of discourse and social order.

Social order	Order of discourse
Types of practice	Types of discourse
Actual practices	Actual discourse

Diagram : Social orders and orders of discourse (1989: 29)

The social order is the more general of the two. The idea of 'power behind discourse' is that the whole social order of discourse is put together and held together as the hidden effect of power. Fairclough in Chapter 6 of Language and Power talks of interpretation, explanation and the position of the analyst. He uses the term interpretation both as the name of a stage in a procedure, and for the interpretation of text by discourse participants.

In the right hand column of the diagram, under the heading Interpreting, Fairclough has listed six major domains of interpretation. The two in the upper section of the diagram relate to interpretation of context, while those in the lower section relate to four levels of interpretation of text. In the left hand column are listed major elements of MR (member's resources) which function as interpretative procedures. Each element of MR is specifically associated with the level of interpretation which occurs on the same line of

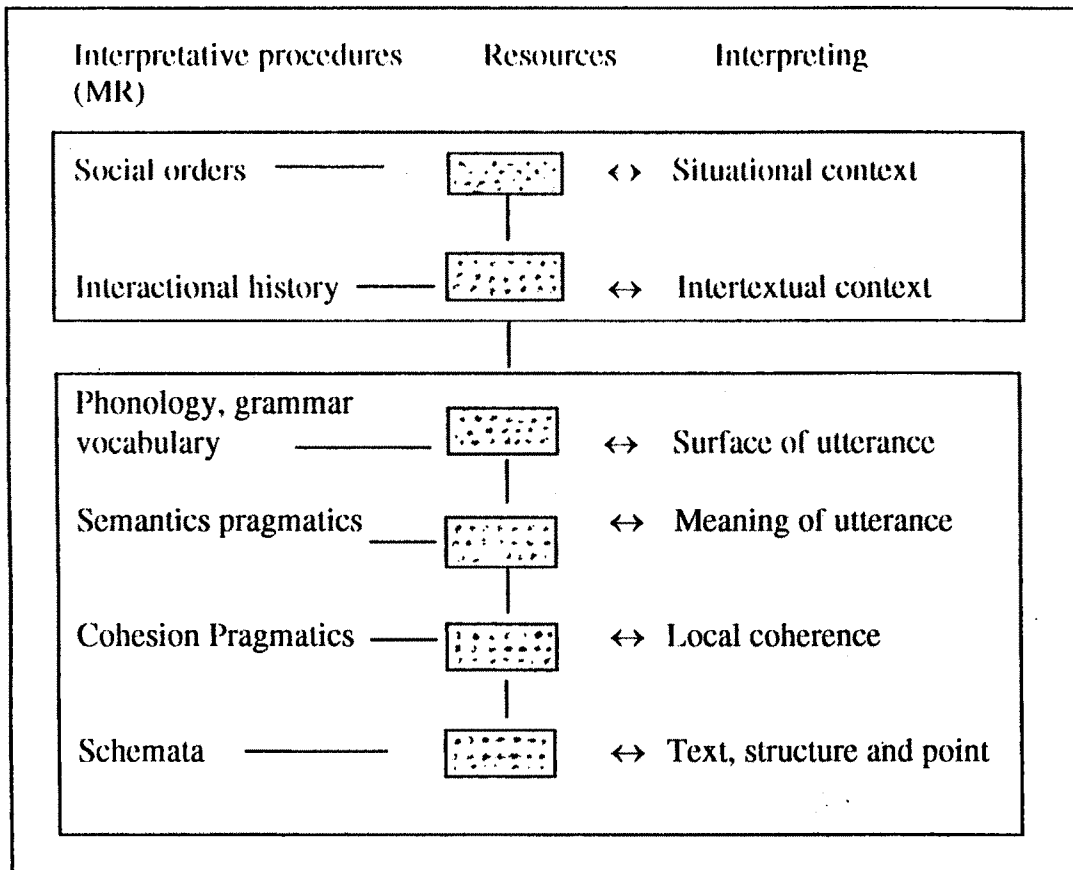


Diagram - Interpretation (1989:142)

diagram. The central column identifies the range of Resources which are drawn upon for each of the domains of interpretation on the right. In each case these resources include more than the interpretative procedure on the left : there are either three or four 'inputs' to each 'box'. Further Fairclough discusses Explanation.

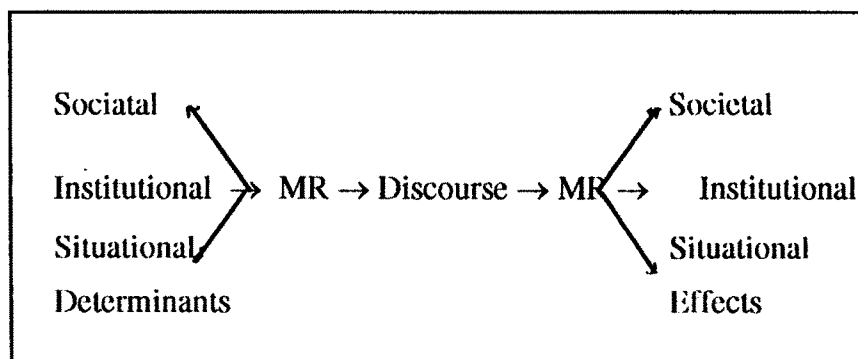


Diagram : Explanation (1989: 164).

We can make the transition from the stage of interpretation to the stage of explanation by noting that, when aspects of MR are drawn upon as interpretative procedures in the production and interpretation of texts, they are thereby reproduced. The objective of the stage of explanation is to portray a discourse as part of a social process, as a social practice, showing how it is determined by social structures, and what reproductive effects discourses can cumulatively have on those structures, sustaining them or changing them. In terms of the three levels of social organisation there are different ways of seeing the same discourse according to whether we are focusing upon it as situational, institutional, or social practice.

It is noticed in the research of Discourse analysis that from 1960s to 1990s it was in full swing. Many linguists as well as philosophers tried to look at language and were dissatisfied with the use of language as such. Recently Indian scholars Krishnaswamy N., S.K. Verma and M.Nagarajan in their book Modern Applied Linguistics (1992) have tried to describe the studies connected with discourse under five broad headings:

1. Text and Discourse
2. Discourse : The Social Interaction Approach
3. Discourse : The Mental Model Approach
4. Discourse and Notion of Textuality
5. Discourse Processing and Reading.

While discussing various aspects of discourse they mention a very significant point that Traditional linguistics has concentrated on sentence centred analysis but the study of language as it is used by a community of people cannot be divorced from the social network of relations and the psychological process that underlie such uses of language. This is the motivation for analysing language use in terms of two interrelated notions; text and discourse (1992: 100-132). Throughout their discussion on discourse and related fields of study they briefly mention the contributions of Zellig Harris, Michael Stubbs,

van Dijk, Beaugrande, Brown and Yule, Barthes, Derrida, Searle, Grice, Johnson-Laird, Carrell, Widdowson, Devine, Wolf and Walters, the period covering 1952 to 1988. Their study also raises very interesting questions at the end of each section.