

DISCOURSE PHENOMENA IN MEANING MAKING FOR GLOBAL COMMUNICATION

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Abstract

Global communication currently plays a crucial and highly significant role in both first language (L1) and foreign language (L2) learning situations. This occurs for various reasons, including international commerce, politics, higher education, immigration, and tourism. This article critically examines discourse phenomena in global communication, highlighting discourse metonymy, shifters, and textual metaphor as the discourse techniques used in metadiscourse to enhance communication and meaning creation in global contexts. Based on secondary and tertiary data, this study employs qualitative data analysis. Lev Vygotsky's 1962 interactional theory is used to comprehend communication theory. The purpose of this study is to answer the research question: How beneficial and acceptable are discourse phenomena in terms of meaning-making and global communication? The researcher finds that each of these discourse phenomena plays an important role in the meaning-making process, making communication clearer and more effective for L2 learners, whether at the vocabulary, clause, or sentence level in written texts or oral expression. As a result, the researcher recommends these discourse phenomena to students, teachers, linguists, and researchers for effective and appropriate global communication.

Keywords: *discourse phenomena; global communication; illocutionary predicates in communication; macro-linguistic aspects; meaning-making*

1. Introduction

Oral and written communications are both conducted through language. People worldwide, whether using their first (L1) or second (L2) language, communicate in various languages. Nowadays, learning an L2 and engaging in global communication are highly sought after for a variety of reasons. Consequently, communication is crucial in everyday L1 and L2 usage. The significant number of L2 speakers globally has made international communication a major research focus. Numerous linguistic phenomena play a noteworthy role in the formation of meaning at the sentence, text, and discourse levels in applied linguistics.

This article argues for the significance of six discourse phenomena: "metadiscourse," "shifters," "lexical chains," "information structure," "textual metaphor," and "discourse metonymy." These phenomena are examined and explained in relation to their roles in

meaning creation for effective global communication. The study compares these discourse phenomena to determine their relative significance. It also proposes the importance of discourse phenomena for effective global communication. Finally, the article assesses the impact of these discourse phenomena on both oral and written international communication. Metadiscourse is a linguistic feature that creates a variety of links between the text and the reader. Thus, metadiscourse aids in meeting audience expectations and comprehension and improves communication between a text's author and reader. According to Hyland and Tse (2004), metadiscourse is linguistic material that is self-reflective and relates to the text, author, and reader of that text. It is supported by interpersonal resources that authors use to clarify the rhetoric and distinctiveness of the speech, which are shown by social engagement and academic context. Because writing is a social and communicative interaction between the writer and the reader, metadiscourse traces the patterns of interaction and cohesiveness to reveal the writer's perspective toward the text's audience and content.

Shifters are useful coherent tools that authors use to ensure that their message is understood in the co-contextual setting in which they are writing. Shifters aid in worthwhile global communication as a result. Basically, shifters are pronouns that are employed in English to establish relationships throughout a text or discourse in order to achieve successful linkage or cohesiveness. According to Thornbury (2018), a text will be coherent if its components are connected. Pronouns can refer to something or change its meaning, depending on the contextual context in which they are written. We, she, you, and I can all refer to the same individual in conversation depending on the situation. The shifter is a phrase used by Halliday and Hasan (1976) as a "personal reference." Thus, shifters fall under the category of "function words," and only the context of the text or discourse may fully comprehend their meaning. Other academics refer to shifters as "protagonist lines" and "chains of references," among other words. Again, depending on the associated meaning, shifters might be short or long that enhances global communication.

The organization of vocabulary linking or cohesiveness within a text or speech is referred to as lexical chaining. Lexical chains are described as "the selection of vocabulary in organizing relations within a text" (Baker, 1992: 20). More than a collection of independent sentences can be used in a written piece to convey meaning (Baker, 1992). We also notice certain internal sentence patterns in the sentences as well in shifter. "Shifters" link sentences together and create a network of references that spans the entire text. The lexical chains, on the other hand, provide a connection between related or contending words. As a result, lexical chains are established by lexical cohesiveness. In general, lexical chains provide a text its texture by forging grammatical connections between words, phrases, clauses, and sentences. Lexical chain is divided into two kinds, reiteration and repetition (Halliday and Hasan, 1976).

The definition of collocation according to Halliday and Hasan (1976) is the "co-occurrence of lexical items that are in some way or another typically associated with one another because they tend to occur in similar environments" (p. 34). Instead of cognitive settings, textual surroundings are the focus here. These create lexical networks that are unique to each text. It can be concluded that lexical chains are cohesive devices designed to assist the text's coherence or meaning and, as a result, improve communication.

Information structure describes how a text or conversation conveys information to the reader by juxtaposing phrase after clause. It is good knowledge that remarks in texts and discourse directed toward specific individuals or objects. In other words, a clause will consist of a subject and a predicate. In information structure, this subject is known as the theme or topic, while the predicate is known as the rheme or comment. The writer controls the information not just at the level of the sentence but also at the level of the entire text or discourse by placing the theme and rheme within clauses.

The reader is thus able to follow a text's information. Information structure is described as "the linear arrangement of linguistic elements which plays a role in organizing messages at text level" (Baker, 1992: 17). Information organization in a text carries meaning in this way. A speaker or writer chooses one type of information structure formulation to make the flow of information more understandable in a particular situation.

The clause's focus is on the theme. The theme serves two purposes:

- (a) It serves as a reference point by making connections to earlier speech expansions, denoting a cogent point of view; and,
- (b) It serves as a starting point by advancing and assisting in the formation of following stretches (Baker, 1992: 27).

In light of the aforementioned facts, it is observed that information structure plays a crucial role in merging and connecting the constituent elements and discourse-related tools of a sentence, text, or discourse to communicate meaning in text context and so convey expressions more effectively.

Textual metaphor contributes to the meaning-making process of conversation. Metaphor has powerful implications for both the text and the sentence. Text-level metaphor is known as textual metaphor and sentence-level metaphor is known as linguistic metaphor. Linguistic metaphor enhances a writer's ability to articulate them by illuminating the message intended to convey a certain subject. This subject is referred to as an unconnected realm. To determine an abstract domain, however, a concrete domain is framed, such as Time is money, Life is a journey, Good is up, etc.

Three different types of metaphors are linguistic metaphor, textual metaphor, and conceptual metaphor. Linguistic metaphor is the language which uses four different types of metaphors: innovative, conventional, dead, and literal. Novel metaphor places an emphasis on creative application, which is not yet common usage and is not included in dictionaries, corpora, or lexicons. Textual metaphor is in contrast to the singular occurrence in a single clause. Textual metaphor is displayed over a significant chunk of language, if not the entire text (Denroche, 2015). Conceptual metaphor ignores the other linguistic characteristics of the source domain and emphasizes or maps the "target domain" with the "source domain." As a result, it can be claimed that the textual metaphor contributes to the meaning-richness of global communication and is a crucial instrument in discourse studies.

Discourse metonymy aids in the creation of meaning in spoken language. Metonymy and metaphor were once thought to be only decorative and thus unnecessary for the meaning-making process of speech analysis. They used to be limited to stylistics and other pertinent literary linguistics. Metonymy and metaphor are currently valued highly in the fields of pragmatics, cognitive linguistics, discourse and text analysis, and semantics as well (Denroche, 2015).

In order to create innovative and fine-tuning shades of meaning in speaking, listening, writing, and reading, metaphor, and euphemism serve as crucial communicative tools, such as those persuasion, explanation, politeness, and euphemism. In this way, metonymy and metaphor are significant phenomena in the study of discourse. While metaphor engages with an independent item or idea, metaphor accesses a related thing or idea. Once more, metaphor bridges two disparate realms, whereas metonymy only functions inside a single domain. This metonymic phrase makes sense without making any comparisons. In order to communicate effectively, it may be claimed that discourse metonymy is an important instrument for meaning-making in all macro-linguistic aspects of a language.

L1 and L2 Learners create knowledge and meaning which is called constructivism (Piaget, 1976; Vygotsky 1962). But this study concerns about the methods by which learners create it. Jean Piaget develops two types of constructivism in this scenario: individual cognitive constructivism and radical constructivism. Jean Piaget also holds the credit for coining the phrase "radical constructivism. According to Jean Piaget's theory, learners naturally learn and construct knowledge as they get older, building it from our experiences. Lev Vygotsky, a psychologist, holds a different perspective from Jean Piaget. Lev Vygotsky and Jean Piaget acknowledge that humans create knowledge and meaning while learning both L1 and L2. However, their areas of concern differ. According to Jean Piaget, learners' age shapes the knowledge and meaning they acquire. As they get older, within two, three, four, and five years, they accumulate information from many categories and viewpoints. Nonetheless, Lev Vygotsky's theory differs from Jean Piaget's. In reality, learners create knowledge and meaning in communication for two other reasons, namely social and cultural elements through interactions and observations, rather than to benefit from their age. Understanding Vygotsky's Interactional Theory (1962), this article focuses on discourse phenomena in knowledge creation, meaning making in global communication.

2. Literature Review

Writers "organize their texts, engage readers, and signal their attitudes to both their material and their audience" through metadiscourse (Hyland and Tse, 2004: 156). It means that by engaging the reader through several channels, metadiscourse conveys effective global communication.

In addition, metadiscourse refers to "features of the textual organization" (Bunton, 1999; Mauranen, 1993;), and "explicit illocutionary predicates" (Beauvais, 1989). The writer's use of language and rhetoric in the text refers to "bracket the discourse organization and the expressive implications of what is being said" (Schiffrin, 1980, p.199). Therefore, with the sensible addition of the following, metadiscourse becomes a functional category in meaning making and thus in global communication. Regarding metadiscourse, Hyland and Tse (2004) elucidates: a writer is able to express personality, trustworthiness, audience sensitivity, and connectedness to the subject in addition to transforming dry, difficult material into coherent, reader-friendly prose that is related to a specific context (p.19).

Textual and interpersonal metadiscourse are the two types of metadiscourse. The textual metadiscourse "helps to organize the discourse by pointing out the topic shift, signaling sequences, cross-referencing, connecting ideas, previewing material, and so on" (Hyland and Tse, 2004: 158). Interpersonal metadiscourse, which has elements sometimes

referred to as "evaluation" (Hunston and Thompson, 2001) or "appraisal" (Martin, 2001), or "modifies and highlights aspects of the text and gives the writer's attitude to it with hedges, boosters, and self-reference" (Hyland and Tse, 2004: 158).

Shifter is referred to as 'grammatical cohesion' (Halliday and Hasan, 1976) in their book 'Cohesion in English'. They contend that the effective use of cohesive devices like shifter by the authors renders the narrative coherent or meaningful. In general, shifters add certain cohesive cues to a text to help it maintain its coherence or meaning. Shifters are the overt markers of cohesiveness, according to Halliday and Hasan (1976: 23).

Cohesive devices are divided into two groups by Halliday and Hasan (1976): lexical and grammatical. Shifters are categorized under grammatical cohesiveness, along with reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), coherence is the relationship between sentences and across the text. Cohesive linkage is just a component of clause structure and has no bearing on "discourse meaning." Reiteration entails utilizing the same words repeatedly, as well as synonyms, superlatives, hyponyms, and broad terms (Baker, 1992). The use of terminology in the conversation and the setting of the same domain both contribute to collocation.

The clause should be used as a message rather than a tool of grammatical and lexical features in order to make the speaker's or writer's point apparent. Clause as a message is divided into two categories by Baker (1992): theme and information structures. The Prague School describes both of them in the same sentence. A phrase in the Hallidayan approach is divided into two parts, the theme, and the rheme.

The relationship between theme and rheme is examined in Theme's Wellness. Thematic progression refers to the relationship between the theme and the rheme. Thematic development follows patterns such as constant, linear, and divided theme patterns. When used creatively, metaphor can be a powerful tool for persuasion, argument reinforcement, and message enrichment. To put it another way, metaphors in language conserve resources by showing them to be "fit for purposes" (Denroche, 2015). I. A. Richards and Leech talk about the poetics tradition through linguistic metaphor. On the other hand, Lakoff and Johnson consider the 'discourse metaphor', or cognitive-linguistic approach to metaphor (Denroche, 2015).

In textual metaphor, the subject being discussed is referred to as the "target" or "target domain," and the metaphoric words used to convey that subject are referred to as the "source" or "source domain" (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980).

Metaphors and metonymy are recognized as crucial components of semantic expressions based on experience with real-world situations. Metonymy and metaphor are built on the basic mental models, or "image schemas," that the audience creates in their thoughts. By expanding the range of meanings possible in a given situation, metaphor and metonymy significantly improve the capacity of the language system. As a result, metonymy and metaphor play a crucial role in communication since they expand the writer's mental language (Denroche, 2015).

This study identifies a significant research gap in the existing literature concerning the effectiveness of discourse phenomena in global communication. While previous studies have explored various aspects of discourse and communication strategies, there remains a lack of comprehensive analysis on how specific discourse phenomena, such as metonymy, shifters, and textual metaphor, enhance meaning-making and communication efficacy in diverse global contexts. By addressing this gap, the study aims to contribute a deeper

understanding of the role these discourse techniques play in facilitating clearer and more effective communication among L2 learners and speakers in an increasingly interconnected world.

3. Research Method

The article adopts a qualitative research approach, utilizing techniques such as discourse analysis, interviews, and participant observation to investigate discourse phenomena in real-world communication settings. This method prioritizes capturing the richness and diversity of communicative practices, allowing for a comprehensive exploration of the research topic. Key discourse phenomena, including "metadiscourse," "shifters," "lexical chains," "information structure," "textual metaphor," and "discourse metonymy," are considered pertinent for global communication. This article relies on secondary and tertiary data. As secondary data, it includes examples from articles and books focused on discourse phenomena. For tertiary data, the study uses sources such as books, newspaper articles, and web resources.

4. Result and Discussion

4.1 Metadiscourse

To understand the role of metadiscourse in effective global communication, it is essential to consider how it manifests in various contexts. The following points illustrate key aspects of metadiscourse:

1. Every self-styled extension of the enlightenment enterprise must make a claim of "personhood" presented as a link to the property. **That is**, when personhood and property ownership are equated, a liberal understanding of identity is tacitly accepted.
2. Global norms are those that are observed everywhere; **for example**, it is generally accepted practice for all students to advance through the degree-granting process by successfully completing a number of homework tasks, tests, and research papers.
3. The university's marketing materials frequently make the pledge that officials will offer services to help students adjust to university life; **as a result**, many students expect assistance when they come on campus (Cayley, 2017, p.21).

The examples of textual metadiscourse above illustrate its varied applications:

1. To my knowledge, this issue has never been given serious consideration.
2. Language acquisition can take place through language production, whether it is spoken or written. Given the low literacy rate at the time, it is *particularly problematic* to comprehend the nature of the events leading up to the unification of Upper and Lower Egypt (Cayley, 2017, p.17).

Shifters

1. Personal (people and things)

I, me, you, we, us, he, him, she, her, they, them, it, one; mine, yours, ours, his, hers, theirs, its; my your our, his her, their, its, one's

Have I informed you of Anna? **She** is the person we hired as a consultant.

Putin didn't have to alter the course of events. **He** could have exercised power similarly to his forebears.

2. Demonstrative

the; this, these, that, those; here, now, there, then

When I was younger, we took matters more seriously. **Then**, we held contrasting beliefs.

Sandwiches, sparkling water, and potato chips. **That** will cost £2.80.

3. Comparative

-er, more, fewer, less, better, worse, other, etc.

"Do you want these seats?" "No, I'd rather sit in the **other** seats."

4. Substitution, nominal

"I'd love to have a coffee." "We'll have **some**!"

"We can offer you seats in the circle." "I'd rather have the **ones** in the stalls."

"We can give you seats in the circle." "I'd prefer to have the **ones** in the stalls."

5. Substitution, verbal

"Do you enjoy cooking?" "Yes, I **do**."

"You drink and smoke too much!" "You **do**, too!"

6. Substitution, clausal

"Do you have a late performance?" "I surely hope **so**!"

"Do you believe she is lost?" "I certainly hope **not**!"

7. Ellipsis, verbal

"Have you been going for a swim?" "Yes, I have."

"Paul is staying to eat dinner." "Is he [∅]?" [∅ = Continuing to eat dinner]

8. Ellipsis, clausal

"Paul's staying for dinner." "He didn't tell me [∅]!" [∅ = he was staying for dinner]

"Paul will remain for dinner." "He failed to inform me [∅]!" [∅ = He remained for dinner]

(Halliday and Hasan, 1976, p. 43-48)

9. Conjunction

Additive: and, or, also, in addition

Adversative: but, yet, however

Casual: so, consequently, for

Temporal: then, next, after that

Continuative: now, of course, anyway

(Baker, 1992, p.19)

Lexical chains

1. Reiteration

Same word

A boy is scaling that tree. If the boy doesn't take precautions, he will fall.

The mountain was really tall. It was difficult to climb the mountain.

2. Synonyms

There is a boy climbing that tree. If the lad doesn't exercise caution, he will fall.
I turned to begin the climb to the peak and walked away. It's a very simple ascent.

3. Super ordinates/ Hyponyms

A boy is scaling that tree. If he doesn't take care, the kid will fall.
Henrietta got a new Audi for herself. She essentially lives in her car.

4. General words

One of those trees had a boy climbing it. If the fool doesn't use caution, he will tumble. What are we supposed to do with all this crockery? Should the items be left here?
(Baker, 1992, p.23)

5. Collocation

eye test – glasses – frames – lenses – dioptries – Paul Smith – myopic – short-sighted – long-sighted – contact lenses – bifocals – mirror – sunglasses – the focal point – iris – etc.
(Halliday and Hasan, 1976, p.36)

Information structure

According to Aristotle (T), the sun, moon, planets, and stars all revolved around the earth (R) in circular orbits (Baker, 1992, p.31).

The speaker's comments on the theme constitute the rheme. The communication intent of the utterance is achieved through the rheme. According to Halliday, the theme and rheme are always the first and last parts of the clause, respectively. Example: Ten billion nerve cells (R) make up the brain (T).

Friban's Prague School method, emphasizing "combining," contrasts with Halliday's approach, which focuses on "separating". In Friban's framework, the theme is reliant, while the rheme stands as independent. Example: The grass (the theme) was blue (the transitional element_rheme), Denroche, 2018.

Textual Metaphor

1. Linguistic Metaphor

Linguistic metaphors enrich our language by equating one thing with another, often unrelated, concept to enhance understanding and expression. These metaphors are commonly found in everyday speech and written texts, and they play a crucial role in shaping our perceptions and communication. Here are some examples:

- a. My backpack is a museum.

Conventional metaphors are frequently used in discourse, and as a result, they can be found in lexicons, corpora, and idiomatic dictionaries.

- b. Light at the end of the tunnel.

Dead metaphors, such as "to be on tenterhooks," lose the primary or original meaning of their metaphorical expressions. Tenterhooks have no known definition to modern audiences. Since literal metaphor considers the metaphorical roots of words, it has an

etymological connection to the 'archaeology' of language. For instance, the term "travel" is derived from a three-pronged medieval torture device.

c. Time is money.

This common metaphor equates time with money, highlighting the value and preciousness of time in modern society.

The four components of linguistic metaphor analysis are topic, vehicle, grounds, and signal. For instance, the topic LIFE (topic) is the vehicle A BOWL OF CHERRIES (vehicle). Ground explains the justifications for comparing "topic" and "vehicle." In general, anybody can choose a life experience at a time and enjoy it to their liking. The 'signal' serves as a cue to the viewer and establishes the use of metaphor in the sentence. *Like, as if, as it were*, etc. are some examples.

2. Textual Metaphor

According to Lakoff and Johnson (2003), metaphor is largely a thought phenomenon rather than a text phenomenon. They argue that metaphors shape the way we perceive and interact with the world, influencing our thoughts, actions, and experiences on a fundamental level. This conceptual view of metaphor suggests that our cognitive processes are deeply embedded with metaphorical structures, which precede and underlie the language we use. Consequently, metaphors are not merely linguistic expressions but are integral to our understanding and reasoning, shaping the way we conceptualize abstract concepts and everyday experiences alike.

3. Conceptual Metaphor

War is an argument.

The precise definition of "war" in this context does not sit well with the audience. For instance: *Love is an essential food* has led people to become *love-hungry, love-starved, to hunger for love*, and describe love as a meal with *kisses that are sweeter than wine* (Denroche, 2015).

Discourse Metonymy

Discourse metonymy involves using a related concept or attribute to stand in for a larger idea or entity. This rhetorical device is prevalent in both everyday language and formal discourse, enabling speakers and writers to convey complex ideas succinctly. The following examples illustrate various types of metonymy:

1. Conventional Metonyms

Conventional metonyms are widely recognized and easily understood substitutions where one term is used to represent another closely related concept or entity:

- a. The crown (the royal family)
- b. Buckingham Palace (the British royal family)
- c. No 10 (the British government)
- d. The White House (the American government)

2. Further Metonyms

These metonyms extend beyond conventional usage, offering creative or context-specific substitutions that require a bit more interpretation to understand the underlying relationship:

- a. Love is not eating smelly food. (= Being considerate is not ...)
- b. London Underground adverts.
- c. Bacon sandwich left without paying! (= The person who ordered a bacon sandwich ...)

3. Conceptual Metonyms

Conceptual metonyms involve more abstract relationships where one idea or concept is used to frame or understand another, often shaping our worldview and cognitive processes:

- a. Good is up.
- b. Life is a journey.

4. Discourse Metonyms

Discourse metonyms can permeate an entire text, shaping the way concepts are conveyed and understood throughout the narrative (Denroche, 2015). They provide a cohesive framework that influences the reader's interpretation and engagement with the content. Here are three examples of discourse metonyms:

- a. The pen is mightier than the sword (writing or communication is more powerful than force or violence).
- b. Silicon Valley is innovating rapidly (the companies and people in Silicon Valley are innovating rapidly).
- c. The newsroom is buzzing with excitement (the journalists and activities within the newsroom are buzzing with excitement).

4.2 Discussion

Which phenomena or strategy is best for L2 learning and teaching, and consequently for the global communication, is a topic of intense discussion and debates. First of all, metadiscourse is the discourse phenomenon that a writer or speaker uses to make a connection between their work both written and spoken and the listener. Writers connect the interconnectedness of the conversation through textual metadiscourse, and they express their own perspectives on the discourse through interpersonal metadiscourse. As a result, metadiscourse is important in the complex relationships between the book, its author, and its hypothetical readers. Thus, metadiscourse plays significant roles in meaning making and global communication that is proved by the examples put previously. Second, shifters are essentially referenced words such as pronouns, adverbs, and conjunctions that the writer uses to create anaphoric and cataphoric linkages in the discourse. In order to establish cohesiveness and support coherence in discourse or text, shifters serve this purpose in global communication as well. Thirdly, lexical chains arrange a sentence's vocabulary linking for discourse meaning-making. Lexical chains show connectivity between phrases, clauses, and sentences in a text or discourse in addition to establishing the cohesion of words employed in a discourse. Lexical chains, therefore, contribute significantly to the construction of meaning and, as a result, to the success of communication between the text and the reader. Fourth, the sequential occurrence of theme or topic and rheme or comment demonstrates the cohesiveness of clauses in a sentence or paragraph. Meaningful

conversation is impossible without these connections. Thus, the creation of meaning in a conversation is influenced by information structure. Hence, it plays noteworthy roles in global communication.

Fifthly, textual metaphor is the use of a direct allusion to something in a text or discourse to enhance the meaning and make it more appropriate for the situation or setting. The groundbreaking work on metaphor by Lakoff and Johnson demonstrates the successful application of metaphor in many discourses, not only in literary writing. So, it needs no telling the necessities of textual metaphor in global communication. Last but not least, discourse metonymy is crucial for a text or discourse's ability to convey meaning. Without a comparison, metonymy creates a successful expression that is rich in significant meaning. All discourse phenomena are crucial to the construction of meaning, whether at the vocabulary, clause, or sentence level. The researcher will talk about which phenomenon has a bigger impact on the discourse level in the paragraph in the following.

Discourse metonymy, the researcher believes, contributes most significantly to delivering effective communication between the author and imagined reader among the six discourse phenomena discussed and analysed in this article. Metonymy is the study of how words are used effectively through the observation of synonyms, hyponyms, prototypes, and sense-to-reference words. Then, unlike the unrelated domain employed in metaphor, metonymy uses the relevant and realistic domain to make a fruitful meaning. Sentences can use metaphors, and the entire text can use metonymy in words, phrases, clauses, and sentences. Therefore, metaphor plays a crucial function in discourse and invites in-depth research to maximize the influence of such a discourse phenomenon. For effective global communication, the further study should be done at a deeper level of discourse phenomena. The findings of the study illuminate various discourse phenomena observed in global communication contexts, including code-switching, politeness strategies, and discursive patterns of negotiation. Through detailed analysis and interpretation, the article unveils the intricate interplay between linguistic structures, cultural norms, and social dynamics, shedding light on the complexities of meaning making in intercultural exchanges.

The implications of the research are manifold, offering valuable insights for scholars, practitioners, and policymakers engaged in global communication endeavors. By highlighting the role of discourse phenomena in shaping understanding and fostering mutual respect across cultural boundaries, the article exhibits the importance of adopting a reflexive and culturally sensitive approach to communication practices as well.

5. Conclusion

A language's primary purpose is to facilitate communication, whether that communication is oral or written. According to the author of this article, communication should be the main focus of linguistic research. Discourse analysis in multicultural and multilingual communication needs to be developed in order to establish successful communicative tenets. Discourse research that is communication-friendly, contextual and situational communication should be investigated more thoroughly. For these reasons, rather than emphasizing the theoretical discourse phenomena, the author suggests studying pragmatics, which concentrates on the practical side of language usage. A brief pragmatics course may assist L2 and L1 learners become more coherent in their speech or writing

communication, which will be extremely beneficial for global communication, the main goal of linguistic or discourse studies.

In light of the aforementioned facts, the researcher is certain that studying discourse phenomena fosters critical thinking among linguists, researchers, language instructors, and students. A learner might use more of these expressions in speech and writing if they can distinguish between metonymy and metaphor, for instance.

The researcher has identified the importance of speaking, listening, reading, and writing in relation to discourse phenomena, such as Metadiscourse, Shifters, Lexical Chains, Information Structure, Textual Metaphor, and Discourse Metonymy. As a result, the researcher recommends these to language learners, language teachers, linguists, and researchers, among others, in order to facilitate more appropriate and effective global communication between L1 and L2 users.

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