CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 Discourse Analysis

According to Cook (1989) there are two different potential objects for study. One abstracted in order to teach a language or literacy, or to study how the rules of language work. The latter kind is language in use, for communication, is called Discourse; and the search for what gives discourse coherence is Discourse Analysis. Discourse analysis is defined as concerned with language use beyond the boundaries of a sentence/utterance, concerned with the interrelationships between language and society and as concerned with the interactive or dialogic properties of daily communication (Slembrouck, 2003).

2.2 Formal Links

In order to account for discourse, we need to look at features outside the language. This fact enables us to construct stretches of language as discourse, as having a meaning and a unity for us. The way we recognize correct and incorrect sentences is different. We can do this through our knowledge of grammar without reference to outside facts. Cook states there are two ways of approaching language that one of them is formal links, referring to facts inside language. A way of understanding may be to think of formal features as in some way built up in our minds from the black marks which form writing or from the speech sounds picked up by our ears. The

formal features which operate within sentences and across sentences need to be examined how far they will go in helping to explain why a succession of sentences is discourse, and not just a disconnected jumble (Cook, 1994).

This theory is different from cohesive devices by Halliday and Hasan. Cohesive devices are the devices that create relation. These devices function as the formal links between sentences and between clauses. In the other word, cohesive devices of the text or language are tools that is used to the relationship between one part of sentence to another sentences, and one of clause to another clauses in the text. For past and contemporary researchers alike, Cohesion in English (Halliday and Hasan, 1976) has provides an important framework for identifying and analyzing cohesive devices in spoken and written discourse. In their work, Halliday and Hasan specify five types of cohesion: reference, ellipsis, substitution, conjunction, and lexical cohesion. Each cohesive device type consists of several subtypes.

Formal links includes: verb form, parallelism, referring expressions, repetition and lexical chains, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction (Cook, 1994).

2.2.1 Verb Form

A link within discourse may constitute a verb form. The form of the verb in one sentence can limit the choice of the verb form in the next. We may be justified in saying that a verb form in one sentence is 'wrong' or at least 'unlikely', because it does not fit with the form in another.

Consider this following part of discourse:

'When two lovers come together, their brains begin to "fall in love". The couple's pheromones- chemical signals that work through our senses- are very high, so when they smell each other or look into each other's eyes, their separate male and female minds become like one.'

(Taken from Reader's Digest, February 2005, page 64)

From the previous discourse, we can see that the verbs (*come*, *begin*, *work*, *smell*, *look*, *and become*) are all in the simple present since the verbs refer to the general truth- what happens when two people fall in love. There seems to be a formal connection between them, a way in the first tense conditions all the others.

2.2.2 Parallelism

Another link deals with parallelism, a device which suggests a connection, simply because the form of one sentence or clause repeats the form of another. This can be found in speeches, prayers, poetry, and advertisements. It is used to provide a powerful emotional effect to the audience. There are three kinds of parallelism:

2.2.2.1 Grammatical parallelism, here a discourse proceeds through a repeated grammatical structure into which different words are slotted (Cook, 1994). Consider the following Christian prayer as an example:

'Teach us Good Lord, to give and not to count the cost, to fight and not to heed the wounds, to toil and not to seek for rest, to labor and not to ask for reward, save that of knowing that we do Thy will.'

This example employs parallelism to link clauses as there is a repeated grammatical structure (to .. and not to ...).

2.2.2.2 Sound Parallelism, which suggests a connection of meaning through an echo of form, does not have to be grammatical parallelism. It may be a sound parallelism as in the rhyme, rhythm and other sound effects of verse.

Leisure

W.H. Davies

What is this life, if, full of care, We have no time to stand and stare,

No time to see, when woods we pass, Where squirrels hide their nuts in grass,

No time to see, in broad daylight, Streams full of stars, like skies at night ... (Simon and Schuster, 1966)

The stanzas of this poem are linked through the same rhyme scheme, *aa*, the same sound pattern or rhythm and the same stanza form, couplet.

2.2.2.3 Semantic Parallelism, The semantic parallelism happens when the sentences are linked because they mean the same thing.

Study the following example:

'... I oppose all forms of cruelty to animals. I hope all of humankind will realize that animals are living creatures and have a certain degree of intelligence. We are not the only intelligent beings on earth, even though we think we are gifted ones and masters of the other animals. Animals do communicate with one another in ways that we do not know or cannot decipher. And they sometimes display kindness, loyalty and love better than humans. Let us respect all living creatures on earth...'

(Taken from *Reader's Digest*, March 2005, page 6)

The above sentences are connected as they reveal the same meaning, that we should pay a better respect to animals.

2.2.3 Referring Expressions

Referring expressions mean words of which the meaning can only discovered by referring to other words or to elements of the context which are clear to both sender and receiver. (1) Anaphoric ref.: The identity of someone or something is given once at the beginning, and thereafter referred to with pronouns. (2) Cataphoric ref.: The pronouns are given first and then the identity is revealed. (3) Exophoric ref.: The meaning is found contextually from the outside world. Referring expressions fulfill a dual purpose of unifying the text (they depend upon some of the subject matter remaining the same) and of economy, because they save us from having to repeat the identity of what we are talking about again and again (Cook, 1994). Consider the following example:

'There are an estimated 195,000 elephants left in Central Africa, but their distribution is patchy. Throughout the region, they have been heavily poached, so they tend to be nervous of people. If we come across one unexpectedly, it may well charge. And if we do not get out of the way in time we will probably be killed-speared on its tusks, thrown around like a rag doll, then trampled into the ground. Some have lived to tee the tale, but they have impressive scars to go with their stories...'

(Taken from *Reader's Digest*, September 2004, page 48)

The meanings of *they, their, them, it,* and *it* are referred to *elephants* as the identity of elephants is given at the beginning. This makes a kind of chain, running through the discourse, in which each expression is linked to another.

2.2.4 Repetition and Lexical Chains

Another sort of chain may include repetition of words and their synonymous or more general words or phrases. Whereas lexical chains need

not necessarily consist of words that mean the same, they may also be created by words that associate with each other.

We have described referring expressions, repetition, and elegant repetition as establishing `chains' of connected words running through discourse. Such *lexical chains* need not necessarily consist of words which mean the same, however. They may also be created by words which associate with each other.

Here is an example:

It is time that we citizens celebrate love instead of hate, celebrate kindness, instead of revenge, and, for once, let us celebrate similarities instead of differences... '

(Taken from *Reader's Digest*, September 2004, page 6)

Here the clauses are linked through the repetition of 'celebrate' and their meanings are synonymous that we are asked to promote virtues rather than violence.

2.2.5 Substitution

Another kind of formal link between sentences is the substitution of words like *do* or *so* for a word or group of words which have appeared in an earlier sentence. See the following example:

'Can there really be such people out there? Aren't these mass murderers the same people whose mothers once held them in their arms, nurtured them, gave them an education and brought them up to be people of this world? If so, what triggers them to so much destruction?

(Taken from *Reader's Digest*, March 2005, page 6)

Here 'so' substitutes the sentences that have appeared earlier. It substitutes the questions about how come people who have been brought up and nurtured by their mothers have become murderers.

2.2.6 Ellipsis

Ellipsis is omitting part of sentences on the assumption that an earlier sentence or the context will make the meaning clear. Sometimes we don't even need to provide a substitute for a word phrase or which as already been said. We can simply omit it, and know that the missing part can be reconstructed quite successfully. Study the following example:

The Aztecs believed in the periodic destruction and re-creation of the world we live in. The first era was destroyed by tigers, the second by wind that turned people into monkeys, the third by fire that changed people into birds, and the fourth ended in floods that turned people into fish, as can be seen in the middle of the calendar stone. The stone predicts our present era will be destroyed by earthquakes, but no one has yet deciphered when the Aztecs thought the end of the fifth era would be.'

(Taken from Reader's Digest, March 2005, 21)

In this example, there are some words that are omitted because it is clear what the context is, for instance, 'era' in 'the second, the third, etc.

2.2.7 Conjunction

Another type of formal relation between sentences is provided by those words and phrases that explicitly draw attention to the type of relationship that exist between one sentence or clause or another.

a. Adding more information to what has already been said.

(furthermore, in addition, etc.)

- b. Elaborating or exemplifying (for instance, other words, etc.)
- c. contrasting new information with old information (*or*, *on the other hand*, etc.)
- d. Relating new information to what has already been given in terms of causes (so, consequently, because, for this reason, etc.)
- e. or in terms of time (formerly, then, in the end, etc.)
- f. Indicating a new departure or a summary (by the way, well, to sum up, etc.) (Cook, 1994).

There are many words and phrases which can be put into this category in English, and many different ways in which they can be classified. They indicate the relationship of utterances in the mind or in the world and are thus in a way contextual (Cook, 1994).

2.3 Double Birthday

Characters in *Double Birthday* short story is face mortality, remember the past, and persist in lives lived against the grain of financial success. Albert Engelhardt and his uncle with the same name (hereafter "Albert" and "Uncle Albert"). Fifty-five-year-old Albert has squandered his family's fortune, and eighty-year-old Uncle Albert, although once a successful throat doctor, gambled all his hope on the voice of one young singer—and lost. Albert and Uncle Albert find meaning in the city by linking together different houses, neighborhoods, and points in history. The story's houses are all based on places Cather knew, and the motion between them forms the story's structure (Joseph C. Murphy, 1973).