

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter discusses about Discourse, Grammar and Clause.

A. Discourse

When people interact with others, they produce a text. It is stated by Nunan (1993:7) that “a text or a piece of discourse consists of more than one sentence and the sentences combine to form meaningful whole”. Therefore, it can be concluded that text is actually a part of language which consists of several sentences and produced for specific purpose and make sense to someone else. Logically, as soon as we have known that it has been produced for communication, we can identify a piece of language as a text

Therefore, a text should be understood not only arrangement of structure of words and clauses, but also how words and clauses are unified purposively to make sense of what they are talking about. In this sense, text and context may collectively create a meaningful and understandable text. That is why a text has internal elements known as cohesion and coherence and external elements known as intentionality, acceptability, informativity, situationality and intertextuality which are sometimes called as context. The unification of a text and its context is defined as Discourse.

However, Discourse is also understood as a part of language which consists of several sentences producing for specific purposes. Some linguists define that discourse is a text within a context. Nunan (1993:5) states “discourse can be defined as a stretch of language consisting of several sentences which are

perceived as being related in some ways”. Cook in Nunan, (1993:6) also explains that “discourse is actually a stretch of language perceived to be meaningful, unified, and purposive”. Many examples of discourse can be found in our everyday life, such as text, sentences, clause, and other many kinds of discourse like prose, poems, speech, conversation, lyric of song, radio script, film, text in book, newspaper, article, magazine and news magazine article.

Therefore, it can be concluded that the conclusion of students “skripsi” can also be categorized as a kind of discourse since it is meaningful, unified and purposive.

B. Grammar

Grammar is a framework which is used to construct sentences in order to make a sense. Grammar is also needed to understand and produce text. There are three kinds of grammar as stated by Gerot and Wignel (1994:4). They are traditional grammar, formal grammar, and functional grammar.

1. Traditional Grammar

It is called Traditional because it focuses on producing correct sentences. This grammar emphasizes on the learning of the names of parts of speech, such as noun, verbs, adverb, adjectives, and preposition. Because of that, Gerot and Wignel (1994:5) call this grammar as a bad grammar. Traditional grammar usually tries to analyze well-formed sentences and focuses on surface structure, but not the meaning. They also explain that “Traditional grammar focuses on producing correct sentence”.

Additionally, Gerot and Wignel (1994:5) claim that “The rules deal only with the most superficial aspect of writing”. That is why there is no guarantee that our written communication will be effective because the rules does not consider the intended audiences of the text although the text is written grammatically correct.

2. Formal Grammar

Formal grammar describes possible sequences of symbols (strings) in a language constitute valid word or statement in that language but it does not describe their semantic. In the other word, formal grammar is a precise description of formal language that is of a set of string over some alphabets.

For Gerot and Wignel (1994:5), formal grammar describes the structure of individual sentences such as grammar language as a set of rules which allow or disallow certain sentence structures”. Learning this knowledge is then learning these rules as being carried around inside the mind. The central question of formal grammar is “how is the sentence structure?”

3. Functional Grammar

Functional grammar simply understood as a grammar which functionally treats language as a resource for making a meaning. Therefore the focus of this grammar is on a trying to describe language in actual use and on text and their context. That is why its concerns are not only on the structure but also on the how those structures construct meaning.

Halliday (1994:15) says that “one way of thinking of a ‘functional’ grammar like the present one, that is a theory of grammar that is oriented toward

the discourse semantic”. With different perspective, Thompson (1996:223) explains that “functional grammar allows us to describe objectively the appropriate patterns of language use in specified context”. In other words, functional grammar is foregrounding its role as a source for construing meaning. It deals with how language is used and its effect.

To sum up, functional grammar tells that using a language is about making meaning in social context. In other words, Functional grammar describes language in use and the discussion will focus on the text and the context within it. Functionally, grammatical systems analyze and explain how people use language each other.

C. Clause

The term clause is somehow quite familiar to us because we continuously find it in many sides of functional grammar discussions. In any occasion, clause can be defined as the central processing unit in lexicogrammar. As already known, the highest ranking in grammatical unit in the grammar is clause. Gerot and Wignell (1995:82) define that clause serves as the largest grammatical unit. As long as there is subject and finite, it can simply be said as a clause.

Clause and sentence are two different terms. While Sentence is the highest rank scale in traditional grammar, clause as I explained in advance is the highest rank scale in functional grammar. Thompson (1996:195) states that sentences are always marked off by punctuation while the clauses are not. Making reference to the explanations, it makes the term ‘clause’ are mostly used than sentence.

In functional grammar, clause is steadily used to analyze three metafunction of language (ideational-transitivity, interpersonal-mood and textual-theme and rheme). For instance, the clause *You are staying here, are not you?* is located along these three metafunction dimensions. Matthiessen (1995:122) argues:

Clause lies at the intersection of these three dimensions- stratification rank and metafunction. It is this defines what a clause is; both by reference to its stratal and rank environment in the system and by reference to its external systemic and structural organization along the dimensions of metafunctional diversification.

In the environment which has just been described, I can conclude that the clause is actually grammatically free; being the highest ranking in the grammar so that it is not placed by any grammatical units such as groups, words, and morphemes since it realizes semantic unit directly. As such it may be an initiation or a response in a dialogue, a step in an argument in a monologue, a step in a procedure, and so on. However, a clause may be pushed away from this location in the overall linguistic system in either of two ways: it may be structurally dependent on another clause or they are all independence. Typically, written sentences correspond to clause complex but not always, such as in this following example:

“The friendly match tickets ‘Indonesia National Team against L.A Galaxy’ have been sold out. Thus such condition makes many Indonesia national team supporters sad.” (Although the example above consists of two sentences, they hold in one clause complex that are tied by logico-semantic relation).

1. Clause Complex

Clause complexes are formed out of two or more clauses either they are all independent or they contain independent and dependent clauses which are connected logically one to another. Gerot and Wignell (1995:82) have a notion that “A clause complex is two or more clauses logically connected”, while Thomson (1996:10) defines that “clause complex is a combination of two or more clauses into a larger unit, with their interdependence normally shown by explicit signals such as conjunctions”. Halliday and Mathiessen (2004:371) state

A clause complex is realized graphologically as a ‘sentence’, in the way that this has evolved over the centuries as a unit in the written language. The sentence is the highest unit of punctuation on the graphological rank scale and has evolved in the writing system to represent the clause complex as the most extensive domain of grammatical structure.

2. Independent Clause

As it was explained, clause complex consists of more than two clauses which are logically connected. Those clauses can independently and dependently construct the clause complex. It can be differentiated as one independent and the others as dependent clauses, or all of them are independent clauses. The independent clause itself can be defined as the clause that can stand-alone by its own. Gerot and Wignell (1995:84) state that independent clauses can stand alone in that particular environment.

For example:

1. **I have watched the film several times**, but I still do not understand the story.
2. **You will admire Aida Hidz** when you see her.

3. **Aida promised him** that he could marry her soon after she graduates from the university.

The independent clause also can be identified based on the conjunction which is used to connect each clause to the other, such as: *and, but, or, then* and so on. The bold clauses are independent clauses, since they can stand alone and have its own meaning although the rest sentences are omitted.

3. Dependent Clause

If the independent clause can stand alone, the dependent clause cannot stand alone in that particular environment. A dependent clause is introduced with a subordinator such as *when, while, if, or before*. It cannot stand alone because the subordinator signals need for an independent clause to complete the meaning of a sentence". The underlined clauses represent dependent clause.

For instance:

1. You will pass the exam only if you study hard.
2. Her tempered behavior makes me difficult to make decision about this problem.

4. Embedded Clause

Embedding is a nominalizing device, a mechanism of rankshift in which a clause comes to function as a constituent part of another (Halliday, 1994:242). For example, the subordinate clauses in the sentences I couldn't come because I was sick and John thought that Alice wouldn't come are in a hypotactic relation to the main clause; they are dependent on it but not constituents of it. Embedded

clauses, on the other hand, have undergone a shift in rank from clause level to group level; they function as groups or parts of groups, here are the following functions as explained by Halliday (1994:242):

- a. Head of a nominal group (e.g. It is obvious *that Jeff wrecked the car*)
- b. Post-modifier in a nominal group (e.g. I saw the car *that Jeff wrecked*)
- c. Post-modifier in an adverbial group (e.g. He came earlier *than we had expected*)

It is matter to distinguish between embedding and the taxis relation, in this case parataxis and hypotaxis. Parataxis and hypotaxis are actually relation between clauses while embedding is not. The embedded clause according to Halliday (1994:242) is a mechanism whereby a clause or phrase comes to function as constituent within the structure of a group, which itself is constituent of a clause. Here, Halliday explains that there is no direct relationship between embedded clause and the clause within which it is embedded. He somehow claims that the embedded clause functions in the structure of the group, and the group functions in the structure of the clause.

5. Types of Relationship between Clauses in a Clause Complex

There are two basic systems to determine how one clause related to another. They are set together with some more delicate systems. They are called Taxis (Interdependency) and Logico-semantic relation (expansion and projection). Halliday (1985:82) explains that there are two essential ways to show **that** and **how** the process going together in a sequence which are related to each other. It can be done by two ways; they are by parataxis and hypotaxis. Here, I take taxis

as the main subject to be analyzed in the background skripsi especially in the term of clause complex which consists of the relationship of clauses in equal status that are called Parataxis and unequal status as Hypotaxis.

5.1. Taxis

In the system of functional grammar, the dependency of clauses is called taxis. The clauses which are linked together by logico-semantic in clause complexes are interdependent. Halliday and Matthiessen (2004:374) define that “degree of interdependency is known technically as Taxis; and the two different degrees of interdependency as parataxis (equal status) and hypotaxis (unequal status)”. Therefore, I can conclude that the taxis itself is divided into two terms. Those terms are Parataxis and Hypotaxis, but some of experts called them as Paratactic and Hypotactic. Actually, in a clause complex, it can be involved of both parataxis and hypotaxis which are combined as a mixture which contains great meaning and complicated.

5.1.1. Parataxis

The term parataxis refers to relationship among two or more equal status in a clause complex. It means that those clauses are independent clauses. Halliday and Matthiessen (2004:374) define “parataxis is the relation between two like elements of equal status, one initiating and the other continuing. In the traditional grammar, it is called coordination or compound sentence. In analyzing parataxis which has conjunction like *and*, *but*, *or*, we have mark the clause with number 1,2,3 as the represented of parataxis structure.

For instance:

I really miss you, Aida said.

1 //”I really miss you”,

2 //Aida said. ///

Perhaps, one day he would work in Hospital and make sick children well again.

1 /// Perhaps, one day he would work in a hospital

2 //and make sick children well again.///

The number “1” is used to indicate the first dominant clause and the other clause is indicated by number “2” depend on the sequence of clause complex. For the position of the first and second number, it cannot be replaced. So, the clause comes first, it is marked by number “1”.

5.1.2. Hypotaxis

The term hypotaxis refers to relationship among clauses that have unequal status. Those clauses consist of independent and dependent clauses. Halliday and Matthiessen (2004:374) define “hypotaxis is the relation between a dependent element and its dominant, the element on which it is dependent. In traditional grammar, it is called subordination”. Hypotaxis’ structure is represented by the Greek Letter notation Alpha (α), Beta (β), Gamma (γ). A dominant clause is represented by Alpha (α) as a head while the others are depend upon it. The head or dominant clause is independent clause, so the mark Alpha (α) should follow the position of the clause. Sometimes, Alpha (α) does not come first, its position depends on where the clause position. The clause follows by the subordinator conjunction like *even though*, *however*, *while*, *when* are indicated as dependent clauses and marked by β , γ .

Example:

When he was tucked into bed that night, Taufik looked around his own room at all his toys and comics.

β //when he was tucked into bed that night,//

α Taufik looked around his own room at all his toys and comics.//

Will you tell me when you want to marry her?

α //will you tell me,//

β when you want to marry her?.//