

UNIVERSITY OF CANBERRA

FACULTY OF EDUCATION

**A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF COHESION
IN ENGLISH AND VIETNAMESE TEXTS**

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A Study Project Report submitted in partial fulfilment
of the requirements for the Degree of Master of Arts (TESOL)
in the University of Canberra.

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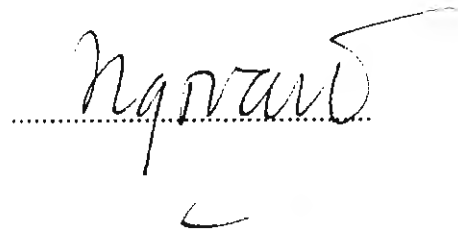
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Abstract

This study aims at comparing English and Vietnamese cohesion with the hope that it may contribute to the teaching and learning of English in Vietnam.

It is hoped that the results of the study may help the teacher and student to become more aware of cohesive devices in English texts and thus make better use of them in the teaching and learning of the English language.

The study reveals that the two languages have several similar features in cohesion. It also points out the differences of cohesion in texts of the two languages.

The first chapter is an introductory part in which background to the study, the aim of the study, the source of information, and the objectives and content of the study are presented.

Chapter 2 deals with the theoretical background related to the study. Concepts such as text and cohesion are presented.

Chapter 3, 4, 5, 6 and 7 discuss the five cohesive relations in English and Vietnamese; that is, reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction, and lexical cohesion.

In chapter 8, a comparison of English and Vietnamese cohesion based on the analysis in chapters 3, 4, 5, 6 and 7 is made. As well as this, it looks at common errors in the use of cohesive devices made in the English writing of Vietnamese students at the University of Canberra.

In the last section, the conclusion, the author tries to offer some implications based on the results of the previous sections and on the author's experience of teaching and learning foreign languages. It is hoped that the implications may be of significance to Vietnamese teachers and students of English. And furthermore, that the analysis of cohesion in Vietnamese may be beneficial to foreign students learning Vietnamese as a foreign language.

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Chapter One

INTRODUCTION

1.1. BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Text linguistics has been studied in the world for more than twenty years with the high spot in the 1970s. However, not much attention has been paid to it in Vietnam.

Our personal teaching experiences have shown that Vietnamese students are not at all conscious of intersentential cohesive devices. This is due to the fact that sentences are still regarded as the largest grammatical unit. This is reflected in the teaching of English as a foreign language in Vietnam where grammar is taught as a unit in which six types of word classes, phrases and clauses are introduced separately. No examination of larger units of texts are taught. It is also reflected in the teaching of reading where vocabulary is taught as a series of isolated items usually interpreted with dictionary meanings. As a result, Vietnamese students have little awareness of those devices that tie items in the text with one another. And thus, this affects the writing of Vietnamese students, which is shown in 7.2. of the study.

1.2. THE AIM OF THE STUDY

This study aims at examining cohesion in English and Vietnamese texts on the basis of contrastive analysis with a view to discovering the similarities and differences that occur between the two languages.

The researcher considers that the introduction of text linguistics in general and the comparison of cohesion of the two languages in particular might be of some significance to the teachers and students in Vietnam.

1.3. SOURCES OF INFORMATION

This study makes use of contrastive analysis dealing with a separate description of cohesive ties in English and Vietnamese texts. Data used for the analysis of cohesive ties in Vietnamese were books of modern popular Vietnamese fiction- very similar to the texts used in the English analysis. The procedure for analysis was to examine and mark all examples of reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction, and lexical cohesion. Alternative realizations of items were substituted in order to see whether they could replace the item. If the choice of one or other item made no difference to the text, they were grouped together. If they changed the meaning of the text, they were further examined to see why they were not replaceable. Due to the time constraints of the study, it was impossible to investigate all kinds of genres. As a result, the study analysed only one type of genre, narrative, which would be comparable in aspects such as importance, style and theme.

In addition, essays written by Vietnamese students were analysed in the hope this might be of some help to the author to offer implications for the teaching of English as a foreign language.

1.4. OBJECTIVES AND CONTENTS OF THE STUDY

In this Field Study Report I intend to

- (i) deal with some basic theoretical concepts related to the field
- (ii) present cohesion in English
- (iii) examine cohesion in Vietnamese
- (iv) make a comparison of cohesion of the two languages
- (v) offer some teaching implications

The first chapter is an introductory section which presents the background to the study, the aim of the study, sources of information, objectives and contents of the study.

The second chapter discusses some basic concepts such as text and cohesion.

The third, fourth, fifth, and sixth chapters deal with the five cohesive devices in English and Vietnamese respectively.

With the points mentioned in chapters 3, 4, 5, 6 and 7, we can identify the similarities and differences of cohesion of the two languages and this will be discussed in chapter 8.

Teaching implications will be offered in the conclusion of the study.

Chapter Two

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

In this chapter I would like to deal with two theoretical concepts relating to this field.

1.1. TEXT

A text is defined by Halliday and Hasan (1976 : 2) as a "semantic unit".

By this definition, a text is not defined by its size and therefore it is different from a clause or a sentence. We cannot define a text grammatically as we do a clause or sentence.

Halliday and Hasan also point out that a text has to be seen from two perspectives at the same time: as a product and as process. They explain:

'The text is a product in the sense that it is an output, something that can be recorded and studied, having a certain construction that can be presented in systematic terms. It is a process in the sense of a continuous process of semantic choice, a movement through the network of meaning potential with each set of choices constituting the environment for a further set. Being a process, a text would be seen as "an interactive events, a social exchange of meaning.'

(Halliday and Hasan, 1985 : 10)

Brown and Yule (1983 : 3) see text as "the verbal record of a communicative act." The same approach to text is taken by de

Beaugrande and Dressler (1985 : 3) who define text as a COMMUNICATIVE OCCURRENCE. They point out that a text is not communicative if any of the seven standards of textuality, viz, cohesion, coherence, intentionality, informality, acceptability, situationality and intertextuality, is not satisfied.

1.2. COHESION

Halliday and Hasan claim that cohesion is a semantic concept:

'...it refers to relations of meaning that exist within the text, and that define it as a text. Cohesion occurs where the INTERPRETATION of some element in the discourse is dependent on that of another.'

(Halliday and Hasan, 1976 : 4)

They explain that when one element presupposes the other, between the presupposing and the presupposed there will be a relation of cohesion which is identified as a TIE, for example:

John works very hard. He is a good student.

In the above example, the relation between *John* and *he* makes a tie which is called reference. It is this concept of a tie which is crucial to cohesion. Depending on the type of relations formed, ties will be grouped into five main categories: reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction and lexical cohesion.

Being a semantic concept, cohesion is not a structural relation. Halliday and Hasan (1976 : 6) state:

"Cohesion is a semantic relation. But, like all components of the semantic system, it is realised through the lexicogrammatical system; and it is at this point that the distinction can be drawn. Some forms are realised through the grammar and others through the vocabulary."

Halliday and Hasan (1976 : 9) emphasise that, in the description of a text, cohesion between sentences is of significance since that "represents the variable aspect of cohesion, distinguishing one text from another."

However, they also admit that the cohesive relations are not different whether their elements are intrasentential or intersentential.

Cohesion is defined by Halliday and Hasan not only as a semantic relation but also as a text-forming component. They state that through the component of TEXTUALITY which includes the thematic system, the information system and the cohesive system, a text becomes operationally relevant and cohesive with itself and with the context of situation.

They make a claim that :

"Cohesion is the set of meaning relations that is general to ALL CLASSES of text, that distinguishes text from 'non-text' and interrelates the substantive meanings of the text with each other."

(Halliday and Hasan, 1976 : 26)

Nevertheless, Halliday and Hasan also point out that cohesion is not the unique condition for the formation of a text. They claim that apart from cohesion, the thematical information systems are also the linguistic resources for creating text.

Besides this, they state that "Texture results from the combination of semantic configurations of two kinds: those of register , and those of cohesion." (1976 : 26)

Register is defined by Halliday and Hasan, (1976 : 26) as "the set of semantic configurations that is typically associated with a particular CLASS of contexts of situation, and define the substance of a text: WHAT IT MEANS."

So, register makes the text coherent with the context of situation whereas cohesion makes the text coherent with itself :

"The concept of cohesion can therefore be usefully supplemented by that of REGISTER, since the two together effectively define a TEXT. A text is a passage of discourse which is coherent in these two regards: it is coherent with respect to the situation and therefore consistent in register; and it is coherent with respect to itself , and therefore cohesive."

(Halliday and Hasan, 1976 : 126)

De Beaugrande and Dressler (1985 : 3) view cohesion, which is one of the standards of textuality, as the surface elements which are "mutually connected within a sequence." Cohesion is said to be created though grammatical dependencies comprising re-use, modification, and compacting grammatical patterns, relationships among events or situations signaled in the text by means of tense, aspect and junction, given vs. new relations clearly shown by means of structure and intonation.

When making an analysis of these relations at various levels, they focus on syntactic and phonological characteristics. The underlying semantic relations are dealt with under the

standard of coherence. Throughout their presentation, they appear to make an attempt to explain the way the syntactic and phonological characteristics connected with cohesion are realised in actual time and the way they interact with other standards of textuality. As a result, their model is much broader than that of Halliday and Hasan.

The following chapters will deal with cohesion in English and Vietnamese according to the model of Halliday and Hasan. It was decided to base the analysis on this as it is acknowledged to be the most fully developed description to date. Cohesion will be discussed under five subtypes: reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction and lexical cohesion.

Reference, substitution and ellipsis operate for their interpretation in the text in more or less the same way. Halliday and Hasan (1976 : 144) point out:

"All three are forms of presupposition, devices for identifying something by referring it to something that is already there - known to, or at least recoverable by the hearer. Since this 'something' that is presupposed may be an element in a preceding sentence, these devices have a cohesive effect; they contribute very largely to cohesion within the text."

While reference, substitution and ellipsis are directly cohesive, conjunction is argued by Halliday and Hasan (1976 : 126) as indirectly cohesive:

"Conjunctive elements are cohesive not in themselves but indirectly by virtue of their specific meanings; they are not primarily devices for reaching out into the preceding (or following) text, but they express certain meanings which presuppose the presence of other components in the discourse."

The presupposition upon which conjunctive elements are based can be of two types which Halliday and Hasan term as EXTERNAL (those that exist in the context of situation) or INTERNAL (those that are inherent in the communication process).

Finally an examination of the relation in which words are repeated or have semantic and associative meaning, that is to say lexical cohesion, will be made.

Chapter Three

REFERENCE

3.1. INTRODUCTION

We come now to the first type of cohesive ties, that of reference. Halliday and Hasan point out that items which refer to something else for their interpretation instead of being interpreted semantically in their own right are said to have the property of reference.

Identification of a reference item can be retrieved in two ways: explicitly from within the text or with reference to the situation.

[3:1] Mary's hand went to her son's hair. She only smiled in answer but her pride was tangible.

(The Emancipist : 25)

She as well as *her* are interpreted by referral back to *Mary*. The referent is in the text.

But if we hear:

[3: 2] For he's a jolly good fellow
And so say all of us.

we have to refer to the situation to identify who *he* is.

Halliday and Hasan term the former, where the reference is identified from the text, as endophoric reference or endophora and the latter, where the reference is identified from the situation, exophora or exophoric reference.

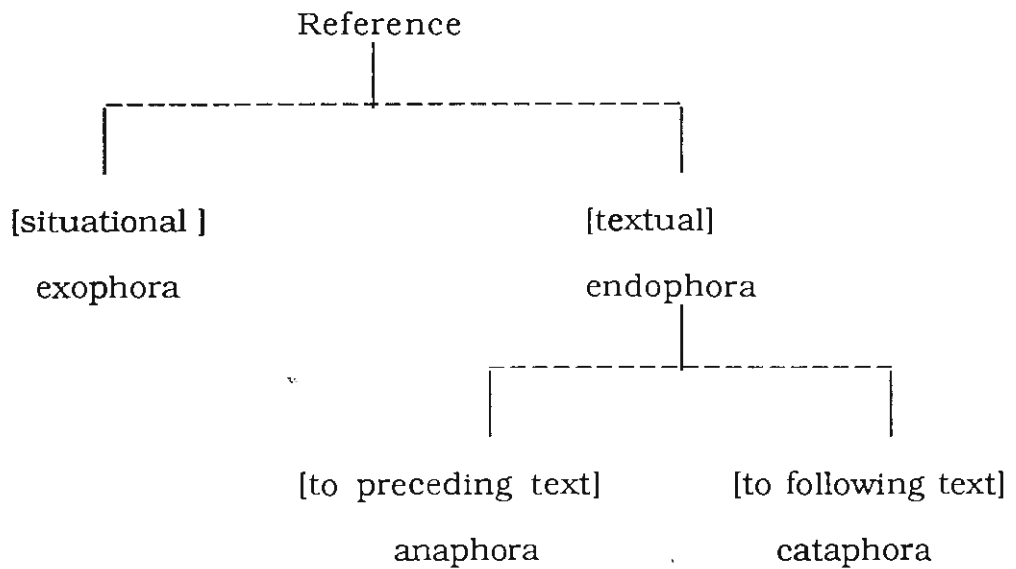
When an endophoric reference item is referred backward in the text to some previous item for its interpretation it is called anaphora, for example:

[3:3] Three horsemen rode out from the edge of the forest with a restrained eagerness that not even weary weeks of constant searching could dull. They reined in, stirrup to stirrup, and looked down into another shallow valley.
 (The Angels Weep : 9)

A reference item that looks forward for its interpretation is called cataphora, for example:

[3:4] I would have never believed it . He has got the top mark.

The relationship between exophora, endophora, anaphora, and cataphora is shown in the following diagram:



(Halliday and Hasan, 1976 : 33)

To sum up, reference can be either exophoric or endophoric. When an item makes reference to factors from the situation for its interpretation, it is exophoric and thus according to Halliday and Hasan it is not cohesive, cohesion being entirely a

relationship within the text. An endophoric item whose full interpretation is explicit from within the text itself is cohesive and it can be either anaphoric or cataphoric.

Halliday and Hasan divide referential cohesive ties into three subtypes:

Personal reference

Demonstrative reference

Comparative reference

The following section will discuss personal reference.

3.2. PERSONAL REFERENCE

Halliday and Hasan (1976 : 45) define the personal system as:

"the means of referring to RELEVANT persons and objects, making the use of a small set of options centering around the particular nature of their relevance to the speech situation."

A main distinction is made in terms of the roles in the communication process i.e. the roles of the speaker and addressee as opposed to all other relevant entities not including the speaker and addressee.

3.2.1. Personal reference in English

In English, personal reference is reference by means of the personal pronouns and possessives.

The roles of the speaker are expressed traditionally as first and second person (*I, you, we*) and other roles as third person (*he, she, it, they*).

Each of the above forms can come into the grammatical structure in one of the following ways:

- (a) as participant in some process
- (b) as possessor of some entity

If (a), it belongs to the class of personal pronouns and functions as HEAD in the nominal group. When the nominal group is Subject, it has one form (*I, you, we, he, she, it, they*) and when the nominal group is anything other than Subject, it has a different form (*me, you, us, him, her, them*). If (b), it belongs to the class of possessives. When it functions as Determiner, the form it takes is *my, your, his, her, our, their*. And when it functions as Head, it has another form (*mine, yours, ours, his, hers, its, theirs*).

The above-mentioned points can be presented in tabular form as follows:

	Speech roles		Other roles		
	Speaker	Addressee	Specific	Non-human	Generalized human
one	<i>I</i> <i>me</i> <i>mine</i> <i>my</i>	<i>you</i> <i>your</i> <i>yours</i>	<i>he, him</i> <i>his, his</i> <i>she, her</i> <i>hers, her</i>	<i>it, it</i> <i>(its)</i> <i>it</i>	<i>one, one</i>
more than one	<i>we, us</i> <i>ours,</i>		<i>they, them</i> <i>theirs, their</i>		

(Halliday and Hasan, 1976 : 44)

In a text, it is normally only the third person forms, which are much more frequently anaphoric to a preceding item in the text, that are cohesive, for example:

[3:5] Watching father and son, Jan Cheroot fell a small prick of disappointment. He had seen them once before, but that was long ago.

(The Angels Weep : 10)

Cataphoric reference of third person forms can however be found in English, mainly in narrative, where it is a stylistic device often at the beginning of a text intended to draw the reader into the narrative, for example

[3:6] She sat at the top of the stairs and cried.

As she came out of the anaesthesia, she saw the little girl weeping, her face covered by her hands and long golden hair. She had seen the image of herself thousands of times in that fractional moment between walking and sleeping-ever since the death of her father.

Her vision cleared and the doctor's face looked down at her, smiling. 'Everything's okay, Jerillee.' he said.

(The Lonely Lady : 1)

The first and second forms expressing speech roles, although usually exophoric, can be cohesive, according to Halliday and Hasan, when they are used in quoted speech, for example:

[3:7] Grudgingly Pearson gave in. Taking the form and the ball point pen Miss Milfred offered him, he moved over to a desk, grumbling as he scribbled signatures. 'I don't know what I am signing. What is it?'

(The Final Diagnosis : 7)

Here *I*, referring back to *Pearson* in the first sentence, is anaphoric.

In the following example, *I* is cataphoric, referring forward to *Mr Perino*:

[3:8] I was sitting up in bed, sipping hot coffee, when the nurse came into the room. The English girl with big tits. She got busy right away with the drapes at the window, pulling them back so that more daylight spilled into the room.

"Good morning, Mr Perino," she said.

(The Besty : 11)

Halliday and Hasan (1976 : 50) explain

"In narration the context of situation includes a 'context of reference', a fiction that is to be constructed from the text itself, so that all reference within it must ultimately be endophoric."

Mention must also be made of the pronoun *we*. Although traditionally regarded as first person, *we* carries an element of third person. (*I* + someone else). Therefore it can also be endophoric:

[3:9] My husband and I are leaving. We have seen quite enough of this unpleasantness.

(Quoted in Halliday and Hasan, 1976 : 50)

It can be anaphoric, for example:

[3:10] Thomas found their destination on a map. It was a wedge shaped island, off the South-east tip of Australia.

(The Emancipist : 269)

The referent of *it*, like the other reference items, is often a nominal phrase. However, in the following extracts the referent of *it* is not a nominal phrase, but can refer to a larger unit of discourse:

[3:11] 'Will you send a telegraph for me, Mr Braithwaite?'

'Of course, Mrs Ballantyne, it will be a great pleasure.'

(The Angels Weep : 24)

[3:12] That afternoon Terry O'Sullivan had married Oona Ryan, a tall and attractive dark-haired girl from Tuomgraney, whom he met at the *ceili* two years before. He had become tired of waiting for Mary. All the local people knew this, Mary herself knew it.

(The Emancipist : 50)

The referent of *it* in [3:11] is sending a telegraph for the speaker, and in [3:12], the whole clause *He had become tired of this*. Halliday and Hasan term the former extended reference and the latter text-'reference.

Possessives are similar to all other reference items in all respects that have been discussed. However, possessive pronouns are different from other personal items in the sense that they require two referents for interpretation: one is the possessor and the other is the possessed. The following example is used to illustrate this point:

[3:13] 'I have a son also,' he said. 'He was born before the war, so he is a year or two older than yours'.

(The Angels Weep : 51)

Yours refers to the possessor by means of reference and *son* by means of ellipsis. In other words, possessive items functioning as Head presuppose two objectives.

In summary, personals which refer to the roles of the speaker and addressee are usually exophoric. However in quoted

speech and in many varieties of written languages, for example, narrative fiction, they are endophoric, too.

Personals including *he, she, they, it* which refer to other roles are typically endophoric. Since the endophoric type of reference provides a link with a preceding or following proportion of a text, it creates cohesion in the text.

Like other reference items, *it* can have either anaphoric or cataphoric reference where its referent is a nominal phrase within the text. But *it* is different from other reference items since it may have extended or text reference. The referent of *it* in those cases is not a nominal phrase but a clause or clauses.

Possessive elements functioning as Head differ from the other reference items since when referring to a nominal phrase they contain in themselves two cohesive ties: one is provided by reference and the other by ellipsis.

3.2.2. Personal reference in Vietnamese

3.2.2.1. Vietnamese nominal structure

Before discussing personal reference in Vietnamese, it was felt necessary to say something about the structure of the nominal phrase in Vietnamese.

The structure of the nominal phrase in Vietnamese differs most significantly from English in that the inclusion of a classifier is almost always obligatory, as in the following:

Det of totality	Det of quantity	Classifier	HEAD	postmodifier
Tat ca all that	ba three	nguai classifier	cong nhan worker	lanh nghe do skilful

All those three skilful workers

In the column before the Head is the classifier

hai cai ban
two classifier table
two tables

Classifiers in Vietnamese are grouped into two categories:

- (i) those generally referring to human beings
- (ii) those generally referring to non-human beings

Classifiers combining with nouns denoting human beings are said to originate from nouns; with most of them apparently being derived from kinship terms. The combination of these classifiers and the Head Noun appears to reflect three distinctions:

- (i) attitude of the speaker
- (ii) age
- (iii) gender

The first distinction seems to depend totally for the choice of classifier on the subjectivity of the speaker. Age is a factor that is hard to decide. Although age does have a strong influence in selection of classifier, the choice in certain circumstances can be over-ruled by the attitude of the speaker towards the addressee. Only the third distinction, that of gender, is objective.

If the speaker wants to talk for example about a student who is younger than him/herself. The following alternatives can be used:

Male	Female	
-----	-----	
<i>Nguoi</i>	<i>Nguoi</i>	<i>sinh vien</i> (i)
<i>Em/cau</i>	<i>Em/co</i>	<i>sinh vien</i> (ii)
<i>Thang/dua/ga</i>	<i>Con/a</i>	<i>sinh vien</i> (iii)

(i) is neutral. (ii) is also neutral but it shows the age of the speaker as being older than that of the student. (iii) is used when the speaker is irritated or looks down on that student perhaps as a result of the behaviour, the family background or the appearance of the student.

Classifiers combining with non-human nouns are more complicated than those of the first group since the group comprises at least more than forty elements. Some grammarians suggest there may even be more than fifty.

The combination of classifier and Head depends on the accompanying nouns but also can reflect an idiosyncratic use by the speaker, for example, a *boat* in English may be translated into Vietnamese as:

mot	con	thuyen	(i)
mot	chiec	thuyen	(ii)
mot	cai	thuyen	(iii)
mot	la	thuyen	(iv)

Con in (i) is a classifier usually used to refer to animals. *Chiec* and *cai* in (ii) and (iii) are the common classifiers for objects. *La* in (iv) is originally derived from the word *la* in Vietnamese meaning *leaf* in English.

3.2.2.2. Personal reference in Vietnamese

In addressing and referring to another person, Vietnamese people use a complex system which includes kinship terms and personal pronouns.

In Vietnamese, all kinship terms can be used as terms of address and reference. This means that they can express both the Speech roles (roles of speaker and addressee(s)) or other roles. (cf 3.2.)

The terms that are commonly used are:

<i>cu</i>	('great grandparent')
<i>ong/ ba</i>	('grandfather/grandmother')
<i>bo/ me</i>	('father/ mother')
<i>chu</i>	('younger brother of father')
<i>bac</i>	('older brother/sister of parents')
<i>co</i>	('younger sister of father')
<i>di</i>	('younger sister of mother')
<i>cau</i>	('younger brother of mother')
<i>chau</i>	('niece/nephew')

Apart from those kinship terms mentioned above, Vietnamese has a system of personal pronouns:

	Speaker	Addressee	Referent	
one (singular)	<i>toi</i> <i>ta</i> <i>tao</i> <i>to</i> <i>minh</i>	<i>may</i> <i>mi</i>	female _____	<i>a</i>
			male _____	<i>ga</i>
			all	<i>no</i>
more than one (plural)	<i>chung toi</i> <i>chung ta</i> <i>chung tao</i> <i>chung to</i> <i>chung minh</i>	<i>chung may</i> <i>cac mi</i>	<i>chung no</i> <i>ho</i>	

Choice of kinship terms and personal pronouns depends on several factors such as mood and feeling, power and solidarity.

To refer to first person, in the family, the use of kinship terms is predominant. Pronouns, however, are also used to carry the attitude or mood of the speaker. For example, if a mother calls her son *con* (son) and addresses herself as *me* ('mother'), the mood of the speaker (here the mother) is neutral. In contrast, the self-referring of the mother using personal pronoun *toi/ tao* will indicate that she is angry. Outside the family, the use of the neutral personal pronoun *toi* ('I') seems to be prominent. Kinship terms may be used in society but in most cases the uses of these terms depend on the relationship of the speaker and addressee.

For the second person, the use of kinship terms seems to be predominant. One possible reason given by Nguyen Tai Can (1975 : 147) to explain this phenomenon is that there is no neutral personal pronoun in Vietnamese for second person. As a result, kinship terms have become common in everyday conversations. The plural form of these terms is expressed by *cac* + kinship terms, for example:

anh----> *cac anh*

As in English, terms expressing speech roles are usually anaphoric in indirect speech, so they are cohesive; for example:

[3:14] To Mai ha giong, song van
 To Mai lower voice but still

kien quiet. Em khong the uon
 firm younger sister cannot curve

ngoi but viet "thanh ca" kieu nay.
 nib write hymn way this

To Mai lowered her voice but was still firm:

I cannot curve my nib to write "hymns" like this.

(Con Giong Doi Nha Bao : 11)

For the third person, both kinship terms and personal pronouns are used. But when kinship terms are used, elements like *ay, do* ('that') might be added. According to Nguyen Tai Can (1975), kinship terms with or without those elements are treated the same, with the former being more frequently used in literary works and the latter in everyday conversation. These terms are cohesive in anaphoric reference when referring to other roles. The following extracts are used to illustrate this point:

[3:15] Ngon den hat do nhu con mat thuc
 light bean like classifier eye awake

theo doi anh trong ngoi
 watch elder brother in classifier

nha. No de phong anh
 house it prevent elder brother

ngu.
 sleep

The small light was like an awake eye that watched him in the house. It prevented him from sleep.

(Tan May : 9)

In this extract, *no* ('it') is a pronoun which refers back to *ngon den hat do* ('the small light')

[3:16]	<u>Thu</u>	dung	van vo	mot luc	roi
	Thu	stand	leisurely	a while	then
	vao	nha.	<u>Anh</u>	sap sua	
	come	house	elder brother	be about	
	gio	giay	to	ra	lam thi co
	open	paper	out	work	then there be
	tieng goi	ngoai	cong.		
	call	out	gate		

Thu stood leisurely for a while, then came into the house. He was going to work when there was a call outside the gate.

(Tan May : 17)

The referent of *anh* ('elder brother') in this example is *Thu* (proper name). This is anphoric reference.

[3:17]	<u>Chi</u>	<u>Hai</u>	chac la	hon toi	bon
	elder sister	Hai	perhaps	more I	four
	tuoi.	Nhieu	luc	<u>chi</u>	nam
	age	several	time	elder sister	lie
	vong	nhin	cham cham.		
	hammock	look	intently		

(Sister) Hai perhaps was four years older than me. Several times she lay in the hammock looking intently.

(Ga Dau Doi : 16)

Possession is expressed by the preposition *cua* ('of') added to kinship terms or personal pronouns. For example: *sach cua toi* [(book- of- I)- 'my book']. However the preposition *cua* does not occur with words for personal familial relationship: *me toi* [(mother- I)- 'my mother'].

In Vietnamese, the following request:

[3:18] Anh lam on cho Lan
Elder brother please for Lan

muon cuon bai tap cua
borrow classifier workbook of

anh.
elder brother

Lend Lan your workbook, please.

can be responded either as

[3:19] Cuon cua chi ay dau?
Classifier of elder sister where
Where's her (book)?

or:

[3:20] Cua chi ay dau?
of elder sister where
Where's hers?

In [3:19] only the head of the nominal phrase is ellipted. In [3:20] both the Head and the classifier are. This means that possession in Vietnamese also implies two referents. One is expressed by reference and the other by ellipsis.

In sum, the system of personal reference in Vietnamese consists of two types: kinship terms and personal pronouns. These terms when used to indicate speech roles are cohesive

in quoted speech. They are cohesive when used to refer to other roles.

In Vietnamese there is no personal reference item that has extended or text reference as *it* in English.

3.3. DEMONSTRATIVE REFERENCE

Halliday and Hasan define demonstrative reference as 'a form of verbal pointing', with the speaker identifying the referent by locating it on the scale of proximity.

3.3.1. Demonstrative reference in English

The system of demonstrative reference will be discussed under three headings:

- (i) The selective nominal demonstrative: *this/ that/ these/ those*
- (ii) *The*
- (iii) Demonstrative adverbs: *here, there, now, then.*

The following sections will deal with each subtype respectively.

3.3.1.1. Selective nominal demonstratives: *this, that, these, those*

There are three systematic distinctions underlying these selective demonstrative words. The first distinction is between determiner and Head. The second is that of singularity and plurality. The third is the distinction between near and not near.

The first distinction can be seen in the following examples. The words *this*, *that*, *these*, *those* can function both as determiner:

[3:21] These three animals were moving in a single file across the vlei.

(The Angels Weep : 167)

and as Head:

[3:22] This does not fill me with overwhelming confidence.

(The Angels Weep : 133)

In the singular/plural distinction, *this* and *that* are commonly used to refer to singular count nouns or mass nouns:

[3:23] The tents were of new snowy canvas, one of which, set a little apart, served for ablution. This contained a galvanized iron bath in which one could stretch out full length.

(The Angels Weep : 25)

In contrast, *these* and *those* refer to plural count nouns, for example:

[3:24] They had come out onto another open glade beside the river, and Ralph was staring across it at the three huge dappled giraffe. These three animals were moving in a single file across the vlei.

(The Angels Weep : 167)

A series of events can also be considered as a single set and thus the singular *this/ that* may be used to refer to the whole series, for example:

[3:25] He was a privy councillor to the queen, and thus could speak directly to the man who steered the greatest empire the world had ever known. In truth, some of them were less than sympathetic to him. Gladstone had once remarked, 'I know only one thing about Mr Rhodes. He had made a great deal of money in a very short time. This does not fill me with any overwhelming confidence.'

The rest of the British nobility were less critical, and whenever he visited London, he was the darling of society. Lords and dukes and earls flocked to him, for there were lucrative directorships on the Board of the B.S.A. Company to be filled, and a single word from Mr Rhodes could lead to a killing on the stock exchange.

Added to all this, Mr Rhodes was the elected prime minister of Cape Colony.

(The Angels Weep : 133)

This use of demonstratives supports the idea that reference items refer to meanings not to forms.

The third underlying distinction in demonstratives is that of nearness. The distinction between near (*this/that*) and not near (*that/those*) may be understood spatially and chronologically, for example what is said by the speaker means 'near the speaker' or can be most recently said:

[3:26] I know only one thing about Mr Rhodes. He has made a great deal of money in a very short time. This does not fill me with any overwhelming confidence.

(The Angels Weep : 133)

and what is said by the other person is far from the speaker:

[3:27] 'I will pray,' said Sarah Randall firmly, as Claire and Randall helped her to her feet.
'You'll do more than that'.

(The Word : 36)

This and *that*, when functioning as Head can have extended reference, for example:

[3:28] Devlin was lost. He realized this with a sense of shame that chilled him.

(The Emancipist : 43)

The referent of *this* is the fact that he was lost. *This* and *that* may also have text reference :

[3:29] To bounce one stone was a token gesture. To accept another was to enter the game, to be involved. And more than this; Devlin realized that never before in all those years had he and the boy faced each other as equals.

(The Emancipist : 66)

All examples quoted are anaphoric but *this*, unlike *that* may also have cataphoric reference:

[3:30] And if you work as hard as you can at your lessons I promise you this. I'll take you into Killaloe and buy you some books of your own.

(The Emancipist : 69)

3.3.1.2. *The*

We turn now to the neutral demonstrative *the*. Halliday and Hasan argue that the definite article *the* and the demonstratives resemble each other in many ways and suggest that *the* is originally a reduced form of *that*.

The definite article *the* carries no meaning within itself. It only points out that the element to be examined is specific

and identifiable, and that we can locate the identity of the element somewhere in the text. Like other reference items, *the* can be used endophorically and exophorically, but only endophoric elements are cohesive. *The* is different from the other elements in that it cannot refer forward cohesively. The following is an example in which *the* is used anaphorically:

[3:31] 'Follow!' ordered Bazo, and led them at a trot along the lower contour of the hill. There was a narrow cave in the base of the cliff and Bazo drew aside the hanging creepers that screens the mouth and stooped into the gloomy interior. The cave was only ten paces deep, and it ended abruptly in a scree of loose boulders.

(The Angels Weep : 42)

In this example the same word is repeated. In the following extract a near synonym is used:

[3:32] A man stood in the centre of the path. Although he was unmistakably a Matabele, the girls had never seen him before. The stranger wore a blue shirt, and on his upper arm sparkled a round brass disc.

(The Angels Weep : 124)

3.3.1.3. Demonstrative adverbs

Demonstrative adverbs comprise four words: *here*, *there*, *now*, *then*. It is of necessity to distinguish the words *there*, *now*, and *then* with their homographs.

(i) Demonstrative *there* must be distinguished from pronoun *there* as in *There's a book on the table*.

(ii) Demonstrative *now* must be distinguished from the conjunction *now* as in *Now what are you going to do*.

(iii) Demonstrative *then* must be distinguished from the conjunction *then* as in

[3:33] Ralph sighed, and stared into the flames of the fire for a full minute. Then he relit the stump of his dead Cheroot, and began to argue and cajole in his plausible and convincing way.

(The Angels Weep : 37)

Like other demonstrative items, *here* and *there*, which carry the meaning of location, can refer backward cohesively

[3:34] Aiden, uninterested in their talk, went to stand at the office door. From here he could catch a glimpse of the broad hall that ran towards the front of the house.

(The Emancipist : 26)

[3:35] For both father and son the ruined city had a special significance. There within the massive stone built walls Zouga and Jan Cherrot had found the ancient graven bird images that had been abandoned by the long-vanished inhabitants.

(The Angels Weep : 12)

According to Halliday and Hasan, both *here* and *there* can also have extended reference with a different meaning. The example given is:

[3:36] 'Of course it would be all the better,' said Alice: 'but it wouldn't be all the better his being punished.'

'You are wrong there, at any rate,' said the Queen.

(Quoted in Halliday and Hasan, 1976 : 75)

The meaning of there in this example is not of 'that place' but it must be interpreted as 'in that respect.'

Like *here* and *there*, *now* and *then* can refer backward cohesively but they are much more limited in their cohesive function. *Now* carrying the meaning of 'this state of affairs having occurred' and *then* with endophoric reference to time, as the following extracts illustrate:

[3:37] Ralph dropped on one knee to steady himself for the shot, and aimed down into the broad golden chest. The jaws were wide open the fangs long as a man forefinger and white as polished ivory, the deafening clamour from the open throat dinned into Ralph's face. He could smell the rotten-flesh taint of the lion's breath and flecks of hot saliva splattered against his cheeks and forehead.

He fired, and pumped the loading handle and fired again, so swiftly that the shots were a continuous blast of sound. The lion arched backwards, hung for a long moment from the wall of the pit and then stoppled and fell back upon the dead horse.

Now there was no movement from the bottom of the pit, and the silence was more intense than the shattering uproar that had preceded it.

(The Angels Weep : 16)

[3:38] 'Come with me, Bazo. Bring your son to learn the white man's skills. One day he will read and write, and be a man of consequence, not merely a hunter of wild honey. Forget this sad name you have given him, and find another. Call him a joyous name and bring him to meet my own son. Together they will enjoy this beautiful land and be brothers as we once were brothers.'

Bazo signed then. Perhaps you are right, Henshaw.

(The Angels Weep : 52)

3.3.2. Demonstrative reference in Vietnamese

In 3.3.1. English demonstrative reference is divided into three groups. Since articles do not exist in Vietnamese, Vietnamese demonstrative reference can be grouped into two categories only: that of selective nominal demonstratives and adverb demonstratives.

3.3.2.1. The selective nominal demonstratives: *nay, kia, ay, do, day, no.*

These words reflect in themselves two distinctions:

- (i) Determiner and Head
- (ii) near *nay* ('this'), and not near the speaker *ay, day, do,* ('that') and *kia* ('over there') far from both the speaker and addressee. However *kia* is always exophoric.

Nay ('this') and *no* ('that') can be used as Determiner in a nominal phrase

[3:39] Cuon sach nay hay
 classifier book this interesting
This book is interesting.

and all the other words can be used both as Determiner and Head, for example:

[3:40] Cuon sach do hay
 classifier book that interesting
That book is interesting.

[3:41] Do la dieu hiem thay.
 that be event rare see
That was a rare event.

At a glance we can see that the order of Head and Determiner in Vietnamese nominal phrases is different from that in English.

The concept of proximity can be interpreted spatially and chronologically.

[3:42] Anh, chung minh lam dam cuoi di.
elder brother we do wedding party

O, co be ngoc ngech cua anh!
oh girl fool of elder brother

Dieu do la tat nhien.
event that be sure

Let's get married.

Oh, my stupid girl. That is certain.

(Con Giong Doi Nha Bao : 83)

In this example *do* ('that') is used because it refers to something that is mentioned by the interlocutor.

[3 :43] Cai vu 'ngay hoi ra dong'
classifier event festival go field

toi da chuan bi
I (emphatic marker) prepare

dau vao day. So di toi to chuc
carefully because I organise

vu nay vi hai ly do...
event this because two reasons

The field-going-out festival I had prepared carefully. I organized this event because of two reasons.

(Tan May : 153)

He changed his voice to implore. That was a rarely seen event.

(Con Giong Doi Nha Bao : 15)

In all those examples, the demonstratives refer anaphorically and hence they are cohesive.

The following part will deal with the second group of demonstrative reference.

3.3.2.2. Demonstrative adverbs: *bay gio*, *khi do* ('then'), *o do*, *o day* ('there'), *o day* ('here').

Bay gio, *khi do* ('then') can be used for a referent expressing time:

[3:46]	Anh	gap	chi	o	
	elder brother	meet	older sister	in	
	Hanoi nam	<u>1963.</u>	<u>Bay gio</u>	ho	
	Hanoi	year 1963	then	they	
	con	tre.			
	still	young			

He met her in Hanoi in 1963. Then they were still young.

In Vietnamese three demonstratives: *day* ('this') and *do/ day* ('that') when combining with preposition *o* ('in') are equivalent to *here* and *there*. They are used as set expressions. Like the word *here* and *there* in English they are often used anaphorically to refer to place. The following is an example:

[3:47] Nhan hoc dai hoc o Hanoi.
 Nhan study university in Hanoi

O do chi co rat nhieu
 There older sister have many

ban be.
 friend

Nhan studied at a university in Hanoi. She has many friends there.

3.4. COMPARATIVE REFERENCE

Comparison is divided into two subtypes by Halliday and Hasan: general comparison and particular comparison.

General comparison is concerned with likeness and unlikeness between things. General Comparison is again divided into three subtypes: identity, similarity, and difference. Particular comparison deals with quantity and quality.

3.4.1. Comparative reference in English

Comparative reference in English is expressed by the use of adjectives and adverbs. The adjectives function in the nominal. The function of the adjectives is premodifier in the nominal group. The adverbs function as Adjunct in the clause. Identity is often expressed by the use of *same, equal, identical, identically*. The following is an example:

[3:48] 'When the noon sun goes dark with wings, and the trees are bare of leaves in the springtime, then, warriors of Matabele, put an edge to your steel.'

The four indunas nodded. They had heard this prophecy before, for the Umlimo was often repetitious and always she was obscure. They had puzzled over the same words before.

(The Angels Weep : 69)

Similarity is often expressed by *such, similar, so, similarly, and likewise*. The comparison may be that of difference with the common expressions *different, differently, otherwise, other, else*. The following extract illustrates the use of *else* as an anaphoric item:

[3:49] 'You will tell nobody what she said - do you understand me?'

'I will tell nobody,' she promised.

'You know that if you do, I will kill you.'

'I know that,' she said simply, and gathered the bowl and mug and replaced them on the tray.

She stood before him waiting, and when he did not speak again, she asked, 'Is there anything else?'

(The Angels Weep : 452)

The above are examples of anaphoric reference. The following extract provides examples of both anaphoric and cataphoric reference:

[3:50] 'I withdraw, unreservedly.' Ralph was angry with himself now, he was usually much too cool-headed to allow himself to be provoked. There was no possible profit to be gained from a head-on collision with Cecil John Rhodes. His smile was easy and friendly as he went on. 'I am sure we will have no need of the services of a company magistrate.'

Mr Rhodes answered his smile with the same ease, but there was a steely blue flicker in his eyes as he raised his glass. 'To a deep mine and a deeper relationship,' he said, and only one

other person in the tent recognized it as a challenge.

Jordan moved restlessly in his camp at the back of the tent. He knew these two men so well, loved both so dearly.

(The Angels Weep : 75)

In order to interpret *same* we have to refer backwards to the preceding portion of text. *Other* refers both backward to *Ralph* and *Mr Rhodes*, and at the same time forward to *Jordan* of the following sentence.

As with demonstrative and personal reference types, comparative items may have extended reference as in

[3:51] 'I see nobody on the road,' said Alice. 'I only wish I had such eyes,' the king remarked, 'To be able to see nobody - and at that distance too!'

(Quoted in Halliday and Hasan, 1976 : 79)

Such in this sentence can be interpreted as *as good as your eyes are*.

Particular comparison is also expressed by adjectives and adverbs in English. The adjectives are commonly used in the nominal group as premodifier. Sometimes they function as post modifiers. The adverbs may function as adjunct in the clause or as submodifiers in the nominal phrase or within an adjunct.

Particular comparison is concerned with quantity as in the following example:

[3:52] 'Still it is only one blade,' he insisted, but he could not resist the feel of the beautiful weapon and he stabbed into the air with it.'

'There are a thousand like this,' Bazo whispered.

'Where?' Somabula barked.

'Tell us where,' clamoured the other indunas, but Bazo goaded them.

'By the time that the first rains fall, there will be five thousand more.'

(The Angels Weep : 61)

Comparison which is concerned with quality is illustrated in the following examples:

[3:53] Do you remember, Bazo, the day we first met? You were a green youth sent by your father and his brother the king to work on the diamond fields. I was even younger and greener, when my father and I found you in the veld and he signed you to a three-year labour contract, before any other digger could put his brand on you.

(The Angels Weep : 51)

[3:54] Ralph yanked the repeating Winchester rifle from the leather scabbard under his left knee, as he urged the chestnut gelding into full gallop after the big yellow cat. The lion had been the first away, and Ralph had only a glimpse of him, sway-backed and swingbellied, the dense dark ruff of his mane fluffed out with alarm, padding majestically on heavy paws into the scrub. The older lioness followed him swiftly.

(The Angels Weep : 13)

3.4.2. Comparative reference in Vietnamese

As in English, the system of comparative items in Vietnamese is divided into general and particular comparison.

General comparison indicates likeness and unlikeness, without reference to any particular property. The comparison might be of sameness, similarity, or difference. In Vietnamese it is often expressed by a limited number of adjectives and adverbs: *tuong tu/ nhu the* ('similar/similarly'), *giong nhau/nhu nhau* ('identical/ identically'), *khac* ('other/different/ else/ differently'). These adjectives and adverbs have the same forms in Vietnamese. As adjectives they usually follow the Head of the nominal group (eg: *khac* in *y nghi khac* ([thought-different] 'different thought')). As adverbs they follow the verbs, as adjuncts (eg: *khac* in *Ho lam khac* ([They- do- differently] 'They do differently')).

The likeness may be similar. In Vietnamese, the usual form is *tuong tu/ giong nhau/ nhu nhau/ the* ('similar'). The following is an example:

[3:55] Anh	nao	dat ten	hop tac	la
elder brother	who	name	cooperative	be
Hop Tien, Quyet Tien	la	ngu.	Ca	
Hop Tien, Quyet Tien	be	stupid	whole	
tinh	nay	co	hang chuc	cai
province	this	have	ten	classifier
ten	<u>na na</u>	nhu the.		
name	similar	so		

Whoever named the cooperative Hop Tien, Quyet Tien was stupid. In this province there are tens of similar names.

(Tan May : 23)

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The

chyen	ca	Toan di	cac
trip	fish	Toan go	plural marker

noi	ngay	mot	nhieu	hon
place	day	one	many	more

The fish were getting bigger day by day. Toan caught (them) to sell. Toan's trips to sell fish were getting more and more frequent.

(Tan May : 145)

Quality is often expressed by Adjectives + *hon* ('more') or Adjectives + *nhu vay* ('so').

Like general comparative reference, particular comparative reference is usually anaphoric, for example:

[3:58] ..Suot bua an hai nguoi con
 During meal . two person still

ban di tinh lai mai ve viec moi
 talk over again about classifier invite

ban sao cho duoc tuom tat. So di
 friend how be perfect because

ho can than nhu the vi lan
 they careful so because time

nay la lan dau ho moi ban
 this be time first they invite friend

dong nhu the.
 crowded so

During lunch time, both still talked over and over again about how to make the invitation to their friends perfect. They were so anxious and careful because this was the first time they had invited so many friends.

(Ngo Hem : 101)

The implication of *ban khoan, can than nhu the* ('so anxious and careful') can only be retrieved when referring back to the previous sentence.

The following extract illustrates another way of expressing particular comparison in Vietnamese:

[3:57]	Lien	nhu	mot	doa	hoa	manh	de.
	Lien	like	one	flower		thin	and small
	Lien	da				<u>gia</u>	<u>di,</u>
	Lien	emphatic	marker			old	particle
	<u>da</u>					<u>xau</u>	<u>di.</u>
	emphatic	marker				ugly	go

Lien was like a small and thin flower. She is getting older and uglier.

(Tuyen Tap Nam Cao : 134)

In the example above, the particle *di* combining with adjectives is a way of expressing comparison in Vietnamese. The original meaning of *di* is equivalent to *go* in English. With adjectives like *dep* ('beautiful'), *beo/ map* ('fat') the particle used is *ra*. The original meaning of this particle is equivalent to *go out* in English.

The comparative reference may be a text reference, for example:

[3:58]	<u>Cac</u>		<u>quan</u>		<u>chia</u>		<u>nhau</u>
	plural	marker	mandarin	divide	one	another	
	<u>moi</u>	<u>cac</u>		<u>bo</u>	<u>lao</u>	<u>len</u>	<u>ngua.</u>
	invite	plural	marker	old	man	on	horse
	<u>Moi</u>	<u>cu</u>		<u>ngoi</u>	<u>mot</u>	<u>vong</u>	
	each	great	grandfather	sit	one	hammock	

tren che hai long xanh. Dan
 above cover two parasol blue inhabitant

kinh thanh chua he thay cuoc
 capital never see classifier

don ruoc nao vua long trong
 reception any at the same time formal

vua binh di nhu vay.
 at the same time informal likewise

The mandarins invited the old men to mount on the horse. Each old man sat in one hammock covered with two blue parasols. The inhabitants of the capital had ever seen any reception which was both formal and informal in the way that this one was.

(Tren Song Truyen Hich : 17)

Chapter Four

SUBSTITUTION

4.1. INTRODUCTION

In the previous section we saw how personal, demonstrative and comparative items make reference to the other elements in the text and in this way meanings are integrated. In this part, we will examine other forms of cohesion in the text: that of substitution in which one item is substituted for another instead of repeating the item. Unlike reference, which may be endophoric or exophoric, substitution being entirely a relation in the text can only be endophoric. By setting up a lexicogrammatical relationship, substitution ensures the continuity of meaning in the discourse.

4.2. SUBSTITUTION IN ENGLISH

Halliday and Hasan divide the substitution types into three categories: nominal substitution (*one/ ones* and *the same*), verbal substitution (*do*) and clausal substitution (*so/not*).

It appears that *one/ ones* can replace a nominal phrase, but *the same* may substitute for items other than nominal phrases. *Do* can be used as a substitute for a verb plus other elements. *So*, apart from the function of substituting for a clause, may replace an adjective phrase or a noun phrase. As a result, in this study, we will discuss substitution in English under five headings:

- | | |
|----------------------|----------------|
| (i) <i>one/ ones</i> | (iv) <i>so</i> |
| (ii) <i>the same</i> | (v) <i>not</i> |
| (iii) <i>do</i> | |

4.2.1. Substitution by *one / ones*

The word *one/ ones* always function as Head of the nominal group. Thus they can be replaced only by an item which is itself Head of a nominal group, for example

[4:1] Ralph retrieved the bottle, and ruefully considered the remnants of the liquor before pouring a dram for his father and himself.

'The Harkness Mine,'gave them the toast.

'Why do you call it that?' Ralph demanded, when he lowered his mug and wiped his moustache with the back of his hand.

'Old Tom Harkness gave me the map that led me to it,' Zouga replied.

'We could find a better name.'

'Perhaps, that's the one I want.'

(The Angels Weep : 22)

The substitutes *one/ ones* may have a different function in the clause and may differ from the presupposed item in number:

[4:2] 'We've seen your contracts, your list of clients. If we didn't approve, I wouldn't be here.'

'Well, not every client is in the files you've seen, Mr Towery. There are some new ones who haven't been formalized yet. I just want to be sure that you're going to let us go on handling whomever you wish.'

(The Word : 26)

When we analyse texts for cohesive ties, care should be taken to make sure the word *one* in question is in fact a substitute,

since *one* can also be a personal pronoun, a numeral or a general noun.

4.2.2. Substitution by *same*

The word *same* which often goes with *the* function as a nominal substitute. Sometimes *the same* can replace an entire nominal group as in:

[4:3] A: Can I have a cup of white coffee, please.
B: I'll have the same.

In the above example, *same*, which is accompanied by *the*, is a substitute for *a cup of white coffee*. *The same* may substitute for an adjective phrase functioning as a complement:

[4:4] Your spring rolls smell delicious.
Your curry smells the same.

The same can be a substitute for a clause with one element in the clause not being carried over but replaced by a new item, or as Halliday and Hasan put it, with one element in the clause being repudiated by another, as in the following example:

[4:5] 'Guns are so evil.'
'Guns aren't evil, but some of the men who use them are. You could say the same about spanners.'
(The Angels Weep : 425)

The same substitutes for *aren't evil, but some of the man who use them are* and *guns* is repudiated by *spanners*.

4.2.3. Substitution by *do*.

The word *do* appears in English texts as a substitute. As a substitute, *do* is often accompanied by *so*:

[4:6] Jordan felt himself blushing agonizingly. At that moment he hated himself for ever having written the letter. He had done so in the terrible spiritual travail following the night of Ralph's discoveries and brutal accusation in the private pullman coach from Kimberly.

(The Angels Weep : 317)

[4:7] "So she can travel?" Tungana insisted.

"She is eager to do so. It is her own prophecy that she must cross the great waters before the spears of the nation prevail."

(The Angels Weep : 447)

When substituting for a transitive verb, *do* is much more frequently accompanied by the words *it* and *that*:

[4:8] "I don't know what I would have done without you you've been wonderfully kind-'he hesitated 'Without Cathy...' he saw the pain in her eyes and broke off. 'I just wanted to thank you.' 'You don't have to do that, Ralph,' she answered quietly. 'Anything you need - I'll always be here to help.'"

(The Angels Weep : 291)

There is some controversy over the status of *do* when accompanied by *it* and *that*. Halliday and Hasan state that in the combination of *do* with *it* and *that*, *do* is a pro-verb which is not itself cohesive. However Quirk et al (1985 : 876) regard *do* as a substitute and they point out the subtle difference between *do so* and *do it/ do that* in the following example:

[4:9] Martin is painting his house. I'm told he does it every four years.

[4:10] Martin is painting his house. I'm told this is merely because his neighbour did so last year.

In [4:9] *do it* is preferred because the same action is being described. [4:10] shows merely the same general type of action is being described.

When analysing texts for cohesive ties, care needs to be taken because of the fact that *do* has several uses other than a substitute.

4.2.4. Substitution by *so*

Like *the same*, *so* can be a substitute for an adjective phrase, a nominal phrase and a clause functioning as a complement.

[4:11] Thomas is a criminal. It is his father who has made him so.

[4:12]. Mary's essay is not coherent yet. But it will no doubt become so.

So can substitute for a clause as shown in this extract:

[4:13] 'What is the true meaning, woman?' he asked. 'Not even the Umlimo herself knows that,' Tanase replied, 'but when our ancestors first saw the white man riding up from the south, they believed that their mounts were hornless cattle.' 'Horses? Gandang asked thoughtfully. 'It may be so,' Tanase agreed.

(The Angels Weep : 70)

So substitutes for *that they may be horses*. *So* can be used with other verbs such as hope:

[4:14] Hello, Naomi- may I call you Naomi?
 Why not? We'll be working closely together.
 I hope so.

(The Word : 101)

In this case the whole sentence (*that we'll be working closely together*) is substituted by *so*.

3.1.4. Substitution by *not*

Halliday and Hasan treat *not* as the negative form of *so* and put them under the same heading 'clausal substitution'. But *so*, as we pointed out previously, can substitute for items other than clauses. As such, it is treated separately.

The word *not* can substitute for the whole clause. In this example *not* is used with the adjective *afraid*:

[4:15] 'Perfectly,' said Randall. He shook the professor's hand, then, as they moved to the door, he asked casually, 'By the way, Dr. Jeffries, this girl friend of Knight's - Valeries Hughes, isn't it? - Would you happen to know where she lives?'
 'I'm afraid not.'

(The Word : 153)

Not can replace the whole clause with the presence of the verb *hope*.

[4:16] Angela squeezed his hand. 'You found time to think of me during your work? I'm flattered. But you are really too busy to be domestic.'
 'I hope not,' said Randall.

(The Word : 337)

Being accompanied by the word *suppose*, *not* functions exactly the same as the verb *hope*:

[4:17]... 'Okay,' said Randall. 'Have you ever heard of an organization in the United States called the Raker Institute?

'No, I have not.'

'I supposed not,' said Randall.

(The Word : 550)

In conclusion, substitution in English involves the words *one*, *ones* which can be used as a substitute for a nominal phrase and *the same* functioning as a substitute for an adjective phrase, a nominal phrase and a clause. The word *do* can replace a verb and elements other than the verb itself in the predicate, it is commonly used with *so*, *that*, or *it*. *So*, another substitute, may function as *the same*. And *not* is used to replace the whole clause.

4.3. SUBSTITUTION IN VIETNAMESE

Substitution in Vietnamese is one area where there are more marked differences from English. The existence of the classifier system means that there is no need for nominal substitution. As such, in Vietnamese there are no elements equivalent to *one/ ones* in English which can substitute for a nominal phrase.

Examples like :

[4:18] Cai dao nay cun roi. Dua
 classifier knife this blunt already give

me con khac.
 mum classifier different

This knife is blunt. Give me the other (knife.)

seems to show nominal substitution like *one* in English. In fact, this is nominal ellipsis with the Noun Head *dao* ('knife') being omitted. This will be dealt with in 5.3.1. As a result, substitution in Vietnamese will be discussed under only two headings:

- (i) Substitution by *lam* (verbal substitution)
- (ii) Substitution by *the/ vay* (clausal substitution)

4.3.1. Substitution by *lam*

In Vietnamese the word *lam*, which can be translated as *do* in English, can replace a verb and other elements in the predicate. The following extract is used to illustrate the use of *lam* as a substitute:

[4:19] Be vao sat bui co, toi tum lay
raft come close clump grass I seize

leo Trui cung lam nhu toi.
climb Trui also do as I

The raft came close to a clump of grass. I seized it and climbed up. Trui did as I (did).

(Quoted in Them, 1985 : 211)

In this example *tum lay leo* has been substituted by the word *lam* ('do') in English.

3.2.2. Substitution by *the/ vay*

In Vietnamese texts *the/ vay* ('so') can be used as a substitute, for example:

[4:21] Dang le van de phai duoc trinh bay
perhaps matter should be present

mot cach ro rang, gay gon, thi anh
one way clearly briefly but brother

da noi up mo, lo mo va chang
past speak equivocally vaguely and no

co qua cai gi goi la
there is what nothing call be

bang co. Chinh anh,
evidence mainly elder brother

anh cung cam thay the .
elder brother also feel the same

The matter should have been presented clearly and briefly, but he spoke equivocally and vaguely, and nothing could be seen as evidence. He himself felt the same.

(Ibid : 171)

The can replace the whole text:

[4:22] Nuoc ta la mot nuoc van hien.
country we is one country literate

Ai cung bao the .
who also say so

Ours is a country of long literate tradition. Everybody says so.

(Ibid : 186)

All the examples above are anaphoric substitution. However the following example illustrates an example of cataphoric substitution, which is impossible in English:

[4:23] Cai tat quen nhan nhuc
 classifier habit accustomed to endurance

mac cam cua toi la the. La
 submission of I be so be

nhung ung bien thong minh nhat
 plural marker reaction intelligent most

chi luon luon xay ra trong tuong tuong
 only always happen in imagination

*The habit of being accustomed to endurance and
 submission was so. (It) was that the most
 intelligent reaction only happens in imagination.*

(Con Giong Doi Nha Bao : 22)

Chapter Five

ELLIPSIS

5.1. INTRODUCTION

Having examined cohesion by substitution, we come now to the third type of cohesion, that of ellipsis. Halliday and Hasan suggest that the separation of substitution and ellipsis is rather artificial in that ellipsis can be interpreted as substitution without a substitute. Like substitution, it is a lexico-grammatical relation between parts of the text and it is used to avoid repetition. The difference between the two is a structural one. An elliptical item is cohesive in that it creates a presupposition which is only recoverable from the text. Ellipsis is an endophoric relation.

5.2. ELLIPSIS IN ENGLISH

In this study we will discuss ellipsis in English under two headings: nominal ellipsis and clausal ellipsis.

The division is different from that of Halliday and Hasan who divide ellipsis into three subtypes: (i) nominal ellipsis, (ii) verbal ellipsis and (iii) clausal ellipsis. They further divide verbal ellipsis into two subtypes: operator ellipsis and lexical ellipsis. In the context of the present study, it was felt unnecessary to treat these separately. As Halliday and Hasan (1976 : 197) point out:

"Both types of verbal ellipsis, both operator ellipsis and lexical ellipsis, also involve ellipsis that is external to the verb itself, affecting other elements in the structure of the clause."

5.2.1. Nominal ellipsis

Nominal ellipsis means in Halliday and Hasan's view 'ellipsis within the nominal group'.

The structure of the nominal group in English is as follows:

Determiner	Premodifier(s)	Head	Postmodifier (s)

(Quirk, et al, 1985 : 880)

Postmodifiers are often omitted in the nominal phrase:

[5:1] Bazo gestured and two of his men went up to the end wall of the cave and rolled aside the boulders. In the recess beyond [*]there was a glint of polished metal like the scales of a slumbering reptile. As Bazo moved out of the entrance, [*] the slanting rays of the setting sun struck deeply into the cave, lighting the secret arsenal.

(The Angels Weep : 42)

The recovered items are *(beyond) the end wall of the cave* and *(entrance) to the cave*. Since postmodifiers are often optional, ellipsis of postmodifiers may be difficult to recognize and differentiate from unstated background knowledge from which textual cohesion is obtained. The second example is one such unclear area.

The Head may be ellipted and as a result the other items in the nominal phrase become Head.

[5:2] Tungana was introduced to the other dignitaries on the speakers' platform. "This is Doctor Van der Walt, curator of the Southern African museum. He was a tall, balding man with a heavy South African accent. Tungana shook hands with him briefly and unsmilingly. This man represented a nation that had actively opposed the people's republican army's march to glory. Tungana turned to the next [*] in line.

(The Angels Weep : 518)

[5:3] Embarrassed at her own thoughtfulness, Mary was already on her feet, her worry over Aiden momentarily finding outlet in activity. Thomas placed more sods on the fire, while Mary filled the kettle from the bucket of water, and hung it upon the hook above the flames.

In a moment of silence, when the three [*] had sat down to wait for it to boil, Corrie looked from one anxious face to the other.

(The Emancipist : 77)

[5:4] He saw Samhradh's siren and dam, and in a separate pension distance away, his eight gambolling brother and sisters. All [*] were bigger than him.

(The Emancipist.: 32)

[5:5] On the ring of the chain hung a small bunch of keys, and other oddments, a gold seal, a Saint Christopher, a cigar cutter and an irregular lump of quartz the size of a ripe grape. This last [*] was mottled like fine blue marble and starred through its centre with a thick wedge of gleaming native metal.

(The Angels Weep : 10)

In [5:2], *next* functions as Head in the nominal group and the nominal group can be interpreted as *the next dignitary*. In [5:3] *three* presupposes *Mary, Aiden, and Thomas* and

functions as Head. In [5:4] *All* presupposes *eight gambolling brother and sisters* and thus it is cohesive. In [5:5] *last* becomes Head of the nominal group.

In the examples above, the modifiers *next*, *three*, *all*, *last*, have been upgraded to the status of Head and thus they are elliptical elements.

5.2.2. Clausal ellipsis

By clause ellipsis, we mean ellipsis of elements in the clause which may happen to subject, verb plus object, complement and adverbial. Sometimes only one item is omitted but most of the time two or three elements of the clause may be omitted at the same time. The following examples are used to illustrate clausal ellipsis in English:

[5:6] Without a visible qualm, Ralph stripped away the lining and bit off a chunk of the sweet white flesh beneath.

'Mushle' he told the cook ' Good! Very good.
And [*] passed up a sliver to the child on his back.

(The Angels Weep : 148)

[5:7] Surely, Matty had decided at a very early age. There was nothing worse than growing old. Unless one was respectable. And [*] rich.

(The Emancipist : 178)

[5:8] Sure on my knees with my tail in the air watching through the hedge! I had to stay there ,too, while he rubbed mud down his horse's shoulder, and on its knees. Then he mounted and rode after Maura.
[*] Very slowly.

(The Emancipist : 87)

[5:9] 'And Great Zimbabwe is there. [*] Due east of us now.'

(The Angels weep : 11)

[5:10] There was hatred on her face even now. And [*] desire [*]. They were mingled

(The Emancipist : 11)

[5:11] 'Will you telephone me or write even.'

'You know I can't ' [*].

(The Angels Weep : 460)

[5:12] 'What are you doing?'

[*] 'Carrying timber, sir.'

(The Emancipist : 358)

[5 :13] 'Will you build me a home, Ralph?'

'Yes.'

'When?''[*]

'When the road is finished.'

(The Angels Weep : 82)

In [5:6] Subject is omitted. In [5:7] and [5:8] Subject and Verb are. In [5:11] the non-finite part of the verb phrase and Object are omitted. In [5:12] Subject and the operator of the verb phrase are ellipted. In [5:13] the whole clause except the interrogative word is omitted. This is very common with wh-questions.

To sum up, ellipsis in English includes nominal and clausal ellipsis. Nominal ellipsis is ellipsis within the nominal group; clausal ellipsis involves the omission of the whole clause or part of the clause where two elements such as subject and verb are omitted. The presupposition in the structure in all kinds of ellipsis means that something is to be understood and this creates cohesion in the text.

5.3. ELLIPSIS IN VIETNAMESE

In the previous section, ellipsis in English was divided into two subtypes: nominal ellipsis and clausal ellipsis. In this part of the study, ellipsis in Vietnamese will be dealt with under three headings:

- (i) nominal ellipsis
- (ii) verbal ellipsis
- (iii) clausal ellipsis

The reason for this is that in the Vietnamese language there are no categories of tense and aspect as there are in English. As a result, verbal ellipsis involves only the ellipsis in the verbal phrase. When the ellipsis concerns the verb and other elements in the clause, it will be treated as clausal ellipsis.

5.3.1. Nominal ellipsis

The first type of ellipsis to be mentioned is nominal ellipsis. This was mentioned initially when discussing substitution (see 4.3).

Con	dao	nay	cun	roi .	Dua	me
classifier	knife	this	blunt	already	give	mum

con	khac.
classifier	different

This knife is blunt. Give mum (the speaker) the other (knife) .

Because of the presence of the classifier system in Vietnamese, in this example *con*, the reader may be given the impression that this is an example of substitution. In fact, it is ellipsis since it carries one of the characteristics of ellipsis, that is, recoverability.

Nominal ellipsis happens when the Head of the nominal phrase is omitted and the other elements in the nominal phrase are upgraded to become Head. The following are examples used to illustrate this:

[5:14] Dien khuan du bon cai ghe
 Dien carry all four classifier chair

ra san. Vo be con nho ngoi mot
 to yard wife carry child small sit one

chiec. [*]
 classifier

Dien carried all the four chairs to the yard. His wife carrying a small child sat on one (chair).

(Quoted in Them, 1985 : 198)

[5:15] Anh buoc toi dau he. Mot cay
 elder brother go to verandah one tree

cam moi boi
 orange recent bear fruit

tree tron qua mong. Anh
 hang round fruit succulent elder brother

hai mot trai. [*]
 pick one classifier

He went to the end of the verandah. An orange tree was bearing succulent fruit. He picked one (orange).

(Quoted in Them, 1985 : 199)

In [5:14] *chiec*, which is a classifier interchangeable with *cai*, becomes Head and can be understood as *chiec ghe*. *Ghe*

('chair') has been omitted. In [5:15] *cam* ('orange') is omitted and the classifier *trai* becomes Head of the nominal group.

5.3.2. Verbal ellipsis

In verbal ellipsis, it is the verb only that is omitted. Verbal ellipsis is illustrated in the following examples:

[5:15] Khang nghi den Ha noi, anh sang
Khang think about Ha noi light

cua nha hat lon, san khau, nguoi xem.
of theatre great stage spectator

Toi,* den vo con.
I about wife child

Khang thought about Hanoi, the light of the main theatre, the stage, and spectators. I, (thought) about my wife and children.

(Ibid : 126)

[5 :16] Dien khuan du bon cai ghe
Dien carry all four classifier chair

ra san. Vo be con nho ngoi mot
to yard wife carry child small sit one

chiec. Con lon [*] mot chiec. [*]
classifier child big one classifier

*Dien carried all the four chairs to the yard. His wife carrying a small child sat on one (chair). The older child (sat) on one.**

(Ibid : 198)

In [5:15] the verb *nghi* ('think') is omitted. And in [5:16] the verb *ngoi* ('sit') is ellipsed. In fact, this example consists both of nominal ellipsis and clausal ellipsis. It is to the latter that we now turn.

5.3.3. Clausal ellipsis

The third type of ellipsis, clausal ellipsis, involves ellipsis of clausal elements such as subject, verb, object, complement, and adverbial. The following are examples used to illustrate clausal ellipsis:

[5:17] Cai tat quen nhan nhuc
 classifier habit accustomed to endurance

mac cam cua toi la the. [*] La
 submission of I be so be

nhung ung bien thong minh
 plural marker reaction intelligent

nhat chi luon luon xay ra trong
 most only always happen in

tuong tuong.
 imagination

The habit of being accustomed to endurance and submission was so. (It) was that the most intelligent reaction only happens in imagination.

(Con Giong Doi Nha Bao : 22)

[5 :18] Thoang choc Quyên nho den
 a short time Quyên remember to

moi ve cua Ca mi. [*] [*] Ca cai
 manners of Ca mi even classifier

cu chi khi Ca mi om
 manner when Ca mi hug

co ma hon thiet keu.
 aunt to kiss very loudly

In a short time, Quyen remembered everything about Ca mi. Even the way Ca mi hugged her and kiss her very loudly.

(Quoted in Them, 1985 : 226)

[5:19] Tren day ghe hang nhat co chung
 on range chair class first have about

hai chuc nguai. [*] Hang nhi [*] dong
 twenty person class second crowded

hon.
 more

In the first-class seats there were about twenty people. In the second class (there were) more (people).

(Ibid : 226)

[5:20] Khuyen bung bat, lay dua va
 Khuyen bring bowl use chopsticks put

com vao mieng.[*] Ngoi ben chong.
 rice into mouth sit on bamboo bed

Tin lang le nhin.*
 Tin quietly watch

Khuyen carried the bowl and used chopsticks to eat rice. (Tin) Sat on the bamboo bed. Tin quietly watched (her). ['Sitting on the bamboo bed, Tin quietly watched her.']

(Ngo Hem : 62)

In [5:17] the subject is ellipted. In [5:18] both subject and verb are. [5:19] is a combination of nominal ellipsis and clausal ellipsis. [5:20] reveals two kinds of ellipsis in Vietnamese. One is shown by *Ngoi ben chong*, which is equivalent to English 'Sitting on the bamboo bed.'. In order to

understand the implication made by ellipsis, the reader has to refer forward to the following sentence. The subject of the following sentence is ellipted in the previous sentence. As such, cataphoric ellipsis occurs. (This kind of ellipsis is impossible in English.) The other instance of ellipsis is an anaphoric one with the object alone being omitted. This cannot happen in English either.

Chapter Six

CONJUNCTION

6.1. INTRODUCTION

Conjunction, although very different from the other cohesive relations so far discussed, can still be regarded as cohesive. Unlike the other cohesive relations, conjunctions are not signals to interpret another part of the text (in other words they are not phoric) but they are, nevertheless, cohesive ties. They are cohesive in that they relate what follows to what has preceded them. Conjunctive elements have specific meanings and their connective functions are performed by the presupposition of the other items in the text. They are found between sentences and their presence makes the underlying semantic relation in the text explicit.

The distinction between external conjunction and internal conjunction is similar in both languages.

6.2. CONJUNCTION IN ENGLISH

In general, conjunctives take the form of

- (1) adverbs, which include three subtypes
 - (i) simple adverbs ('coordinating conjunctions'), eg:
but, so, then, next
 - (ii) compound adverbs ending in -ly, for example:
accordingly, subsequently, actually
 - (iii) compound adverbs beginning with *there-* and *where-* such as *therefore, thereupon, whereat*

- (2) other compound adverbs such as *furthermore, nevertheless, anyway, instead, besides* prepositional phrases for example, *on the contrary, as a result, in addition*
- (3) prepositional expressions with *that* or other reference items, the latter may be either (i) optional as in *as a result of that, instead of that, in addition to that* or (ii) obligatory as in *in spite of that, because of that*

Prepositional expressions, although they may contain an element which is a reference item (eg. *because of that*) and provided that reference item is anaphoric, have been classified as conjunctives because (even without the reference item) they would continue to be cohesive.

Halliday and Hasan give a detailed table of conjunctions (Appendix 1) and in this table conjunctions are divided into four groups according to their semantic function. The four basic kinds of conjunctive relations are the additive (*and*), the adversative (*but*), the temporal (*yet*), and the causal (*so*).

6.2.1. Additive

The first type of conjunction is additive. A distinction is made between correlatives and simple additives. Correlatives such as *both... and, either ... or, neither... nor* are not regarded as having cohesive function since they operate as a pair within the sentence. An additive conjunctive on the other hand adds on one element which would otherwise be independent to a preceding element and ties elements together.

The simple additives, which may be additive, negative or alternative, can be external or internal. Complex additives which may be emphatic/ de-emphatic, expository/ exemplificatory and comparative occur only in an internal sense.

The external sense carried in *and* is illustrated in the following example:

[6:1] Zouga smiled to himself as he listened to Ralph talk in the flickering firelight, and he thought suddenly, 'Damn it, but they may be right after all- the puppy may just possibly be a millionaire already.' And his pride was tinged with envy.

(The Angels Weep : 24)

The following extract contains another example of additive conjunctive in the internal sense:

[6:2] 'Mama, he is your husband,' Vicky pointed out reasonably.

And he is Bobby's father,' Elizabeth said quickly.

(The Angels Weep : 90)

A large number of expressions such as *further*, *furthermore*, *again*, *also*, *moreover*, *besides* carry the meaning of 'there is yet another point to be taken in conjunction with the previous one' and usually occur in the external sense. They are the emphatic forms of the *and* relation:

[6:3] It was not for a woman to attend the high councils of the nation. In the time of the kings, a lesser woman would have been speared to death for daring to approach an *indaba* such as this. Tanasa, however, was the one that had once been the Umlimo, and she was still the mouthpiece of the chosen one. Besides which, the world was

changing, the kings had passed, the old customs were dying with them, and this woman wielded more power than any but the highest of the assembled indunas.

(The Angels Weep : 56)

The distinction between internal and external senses are more clearcut in the 'or' relation. which comes the meaning of alternative. The following is an example of external use of *or* with the meaning of 'another possible option':

[6:4] ...war, but what would become of the younger men, now that the whole way of life had been denied them? Would they ever be able to win on the battlefield the right to go in to the women, and take a wife? Or would the customs and laws under which they had lived all their lives fall into disregard and disuse?

(The Angels Weep : 114)

The internal use is illustrated in the following extract:

[6:5] 'Walk away still a rich man by any standards, or-'

Ralph led the unfinished statement rest for ten beats of his racing heart, and then he asked: 'Or?'

'Or else I will destroy you, utterly,' said Mr Rhodes.

(The Angels Weep : 192)

Under the heading of additive, Halliday and Hasan also include conjunctives expressing 'similarity'. Typical expressions are *similarly, likewise, in the same way*. The negative sense is that of dissimilarity, which is expressed by items such as *on the other hand, in/ by contrast, as opposed to this*:

[6:6] Elizabeth sat beyond Jon-Jon, with Robert on her lap. The child's sickly face was solemn and he sucked delicately upon his thumb like an elderly gnome upon his pipe. In contrast, Elizabeth was radiant with a childlike joy, her cheeks flushed and her eyes shining, as she egged Judy on further excesses.

(The Angels Weep : 290)

Another subtype of additive conjunction comprises items such as *incidentally, by the way*, which are regarded as additive by way of afterthought:

[6:7] 'Delvin, are you listening to me?

'I'm sorry, I was thinking about the estate.'

'Then don't. The wretched problems are always there, ready to swallow you up. Forget it, in the interest of your sanity. By the way, will you have lunch with me.'

(The Emancipist : 149)

6.2.2. Adversative

The second type of conjunction is the adversative with the basic meaning 'contrary to expectation'. Like additives, adversatives can function both in the external and internal senses.

The external adversative is illustrated by the use of the word *yet* in the following example:

[6:8] The Northern sky was dark. It was as though a heavy curtain fell from the high heaven to the earth. It was not a cloud, for it had a peculiar density and body to it, like the poisonous plankton of the mysterious red tide which he had seen sweeping across the surface of the Southern

Atlantic, spreading death and isolation wherever it touched.

Yet Mungo had never seen anything like this.

(The Angels Weep : 109)

Items such as *but*, *however*, and *though* are similar to *yet* in this function. Examples:

[6:9] I will hold the white men at the foot of the hills for tonight,' Bazo told him quietly. 'Perhaps, I can send them away satisfied, without trying to find the valley. However, warn the ironsmiths that the kilns must be quenched by dawn tomorrow, there must be no shred of smoke.

(The Angels Weep : 47)

[6:10] It was part of their agreement that Ralph would provide the men and machinery and money to run the Harkness Mine when Zouga led him to it. For Ralph was a rich man. Some said he was already a millionaire, although Zouga knew that was unlikely. Nevertheless, Zouga remembered that Ralph had provided the transport and commissariat for both the Mashonaland Column and the Metabeleland expedition against Lobengula...

(The Angels Weep : 23)

The internal sense is illustrated in the following example:

[6:11] Ezra was a hulking Matabele with a scarred cheek, memento of a mining accident in the great diamond pit at Kimberly, six hundreds miles to the south. It was there that he adopted his new name and learned his English.

'How far ahead is Ganang's kraal?' Mungo asked him in that language.

'That far,' Ezra swept his arm through an arc of the sky, indicating two hours or so of the sun's passage.

'All right,' Mungo nodded. 'Send the scouts out. But I want no mistakes.'

(The Angels Weep : 121)

Another form of adversative relation is that of 'avowal'. Expressions with the meaning of 'as against' as in *in fact*, *as a matter of fact*, *actually* are often used to express this.

'Correction', that is an adversative relation is expressed by *instead*, *rather*, *on the contrary*, for example:

[6:12] At the crest, where the path went through a saddle between the thickly forested hills, Mungo St John reined in his mare, and looked back. The veranda of the homestead was deserted and he sighed and picked up the reins again and faced ahead down the road into the north, but he did not shake up the mare. Instead he frowned, and lifted his chin to look into the heavens.

The Angels Weep : 109)

The last subtype of adversative conjunctive relation is that of 'dismissal' which include expressions such as *in any case*, *either case/ event*, *whichever happens*.

6.2.3. Causal

The third type of conjunction is causal conjunction. The general type of causal conjunction, which can be internal or external, may be simple or emphatic. Simple causal conjunctives contain expressions such as *so*, *hence*, *thus*. Expressions like *consequently*, *because of this* are emphatic forms.

The following is an example of *so* used in internal sense.

[6:13] Bazo slowly looked about the circle of their faces.
 'So on the night of this Chawala moon, let it begin.
 Let the storm rage. Let the eyes turn red. Let the
 young men of Matabele run!'

(The Angels Weep : 236)

The regular form of *so* expressing external sense is illustrated in the following example:

[6:14] In addition to the booty to which Zouga and Ralph were entitled under the Victoria Agreement, both of them had brought many blocks of claims from the dissolute and spendthrift troopers of Jameson's conquering force, some of whom had sold for the price of a bottle of whisky. So between them they could peg off the entire ridge and most of the valley bottoms on each side of it.

(The Angels Weep : 22)

Specific causal conjunction includes the three subtypes of result, reason and purpose. Typical expressions are *as a result*, *for this purpose* :

The reserved form of the causal relation is expressed by *for* and *because*, for example:

[6:15] Ralph Ballantyne was wrong when he predicted to Harry Mellow that by the time they returned to the base camp Mr Rhodes and his entourage would have moved on to Bulaway. For as they rode in through the gates of the stockade, he saw the magnificent mule coach still parked where he had last seen it, and beside it were a dozen other decrepit and travel-worn vehicles: Cape carts and

surreys, even a bicycle with worn tyres replaced by strips of buffalo- hide.

(The Angels Weep : 127)

[6:16] 'Baba!' Samson let his breath out and went down on one knee before him. Gideon groped for his head and caressed it.

'You have never been away,' he said. 'For you live always in my heart.'

(The Angels Weep : 383)

Another type of causal conjunction is that of 'condition'. Conditional causal conjunctives which may be simple (*then*), emphatic (*in that case*), generalized (*circumstances*), and reserved polarity (*otherwise*) may occur in external or internal sense.

The final type of causal relation to be included is that of 'respective' which is conveyed by expressions such as *in that respect, with regard to this, in this connection*.

6.2.4. Temporal

In this discussion of conjunction we come finally to temporal conjunction. The simplest form of temporal conjunction is expressed by *then*:

[6:17] Somaba related faithfully the terrible *M'fecane*, the destruction of a million souls as Mzilikaki laid waste to the land between the Orange River and the Limpopo. Then he went on to tell of the coming of the white men, and the new method of waging war.

(The Angels Weep : 57)

Other expressions such as *and then, next, afterwards, after that, subsequently* may express the same subsequent sense as *then*.

The temporal relations may be accompanied by an additional underlying sense. For example, *at once, on which* carry the meaning of 'then + immediately'; *soon, presently, later, after a time* express the meaning of 'then + after an interval'. 'Then + repetition' is expressed by *next time, on another occasion*. The following is an example of external use of *after a while*:

[6:18] Bazo came out of the hills three days after the girls had been placed in the earth, under the bare spreading branches of a giant mimosa at a place which overlooked the river. There were two young men with him, and the three of them went directly to the graves with Juba guiding them. After a while, Bazo left the two bridegrooms to mourn their women and he went back to where his father waited for him under the big tree.

(The Angels Weep : 130)

In all the above examples, an external temporal relation occurs in the sense of subsequence. The presupposing sentence follows the presupposed one.

The second sentence may however be simultaneous with the first and this is conveyed by expressions such as *at the same time, simultaneously, just then*, for example:

[6:19] The Blue Diamond had one of the very few bathrooms in Kimberley with laid-on hot water. Two black servants stoked the boiler outside the window to keep steam whistling from the valve while Ralph lay chin-deep and adjusted a trickle of scalding water with his big toe on the tap. At the

same time he shaved his jaws with a straight razor, working by touch and scorning the mirror.

(The Angels Weep : 176)

The simple time relation may be specific by the presence of the underlying sense, for example, 'then + interval' expressed by *meanwhile, all the time* or 'then + moment of time' (*at this point*)

[6:20] While they worked with care and total preoccupation, some of their apprentices were cutting and burning the tree trunks in the charcoal pits, controlling the combustion with layers of earth and finally quenching it with clay pots of water. Meanwhile, yet another party of apprentices made the long journey to the limestone quarries and returned with the crushed catalyst in leather bags slung upon the backs of the baggage bullocks.

(The Angels Weep :127)

The second sentence may refer to a previous event expressed by *earlier, before that, previously*. Again the underlying meaning may be present, for example, 'before + specific time interval' (*five minutes earlier*), 'before + immediately' (*just then*).

Temporal conjunctives may express a conclusive sense. Typical expressions are *finally, at last, in the end, eventually* :

[6:21] The calf was dancing. Ralph had never seen anything like it. It was swaying, and turning in slow and elegant pirouettes, the neck twisting and untwisting, swinging first to one side then to the other. Every few paces the mother turned back anxiously to watch its offspring, and then torn between duty and maternal love, swung again to follow the old bull. At last, quite slowly, with a

kind of weary grace, the calf slumped to the grassy earth, and lay in a tangle of long limbs.

(The Angels Weep : 168)

Another type of internal temporal conjunction included in this heading: is the 'Here and now' type. This may carry the meaning of past (*up to now, up to this point, hitherto*), present (*at this point, here*) or future (*from now on, henceforward*).

'Culminative' type of temporal conjunction with the meaning of 'finally, to conclude' is expressed by items such as *to sum up, in short, in a word, to put it briefly*.

And finally, temporal conjunctives differ from all other types in that they have correlative forms. The items such as *first, at first, first of all, to begin with* are often accompanied by *then, next, second* or *finally*.

Resumptive is the final type of temporal conjunction and has the sense of 'to return to the point'. Typical expressions are *anyway, to resume, to come back*.

6.3. CONJUNCTION IN VIETNAMESE

Conjunction in Vietnamese will be treated in the same categories as those in English as It will also be divided into four types: additive, adversative, causal and temporal. The distinction between external and internal sense will also be discussed.

6.3.1. Additive

The first type of conjunctive relation to be discussed is additive. The simplest form of additive in Vietnamese is *va* ('and') which can only be used in the internal sense:

[6:22] Nhon lam bam:
 Nhon mumble

'Gom! Giac mo ghe qua!
oh! dream dreadful so

Va tu nhien Nhon ngom ngop lo ngai.
And suddenly Nhon somewhat fear

*Nhon mumbled: Oh! What a dreadful dream!
And suddenly he felt somewhat frightened.*

(Ngo Hem : 17)

The emphatic forms of this conjunctive type are expressed by *ngoai ra/ hon nua/ va lai* ('furthermore, besides, moreover'). These terms are used only in external sense. Example of external use is:

[6:23] Nguoi chu thau vi thay moi
 classifier contractor because see every

 nguoi ca than qua thanh ra cung
 person complain much so also

 phai nhan loi. Va lai han
 must admit mistake besides he

 co mat gi dau.
 have loss what

The contractor seeing people complain too much, had to admit his mistakes. Moreover, he had nothing to lose.

(Ngo Hem : 101)

One subtype of additive relation is that of similarity expressed by *giông nhu vạy* ('likewise') which can carry only an external sense.

The negative form of this is that of adversative with expressions such as *trai lại, ngược lại* ('on the contrary') which can be used in both external and internal contexts:

[6:24]	Nhung	lan	no	von	quan	quyt	
	plural maker	time	it	rùn	lovely		
	ben	chan, Tin	thuong	ngoi	thup	xuong	
	by	leg, Tin	usually	sit	down		
	lay	tay	vuot	bo	long	muot	
	use	hand stroke		classifier	fur	glossy	
	nhu	to.	<u>Trai lại.</u>	hom nay	con		
	as	silk	on the contrary	today	classifier		
	cho	chi	la	mot	con vat	vuong	mat.
	dog	only	be	one	animal	block	eye

Whenever it twisted around, Tin used to sit down and use his hands to stroke the glossy fur. On the contrary, today the dog is the only animal that blocks the eyesight.

(Ngo Hem : 135)

Another type is that of exemplification which may have both internal and external sense. Typical examples are: *chàng han/vi du* ('for instance'):

[6:25] Anh khong the nao tap trung
 elder brother not can focus

tu tuong suy nghi duoc ve mot chuyen
 thought think about one matter

gi nghiem tuc. Chang han, khong co
 some serious for instance not

Thach Luu nua mai nay anh
 Thach Luu any more future elder brother

se song ra sao.
 will live how

He cannot focus on any serious matter. For instance, what his life will be like in the future without Thach Luu.

. (Con Giong Doi Nha Bao : 117)

Chang han can have correlative form which is not cohesive: *chang han.... the la* ('for instance... so').

A subtype of additive conjunction which has the implication of additive and afterthought is also included in the heading of additive. This is expressed by the use of expressions such as *tien the*, *nhân tien* ('by the way, incidentally') which implies both an internal and external sense. The following is an example of external use:

[6:26] Mu gio hau bao lay tien tra
 she open belt-purse take money pay

tien long. Nhan tien mu lay
 money goods incidentally she tra

ra mot dong bac giay.
out one dong money note

She opened her belt- purse to pay. Incidentally she took out a one-dong note.

(Ngo Hem : 48)

The following is a summary of additive type:

Simple additive relations:

Additive: *va* ('and')

Complex additive relations (external)

ben canh do, ngoai ra, hon nua ('besides',
furthermore')

Complex additive relations (internal/ external)

afterthought: *tien the, nhan tien* ('by the way,
incidentally')

Comparative:

Similar (external): *Giong nhu vay* ('likewise')

Dissimilar (external/ internal): *nguc lai, trai lai*
(‘on the contrary’)

Apposition relations

Exemplificatory: *vi du, chang han* ('for instance')

6.3.2. Adversative

The simple form of adversative is *nhung* ('but'), *ma*, *song* ('yet'). *Nhung* and *ma* can have internal and external senses whereas *song* can occur in an external context only:

[6:27] *Ngoi len xe, cau tai xe quen*
sit on car classifier driver accustomed

nep nhu moi khi rut bao thuoc
habit as all time take out box cigarette

thom moi ong mot dieu. Song
top quality invite grandfather one classifier yet

hom nay ong thay dang mieng,
today grandfather feel bitter mouth

ong lac dau tu choi.
grandfather shake head refuse

Sitting in the car, the driver took out a cigarette box, as usual, to invite him. Yet today his mouth felt bitter, he shook his head to refuse.

(Con Giong Doi Nha Bao : 69)

Song and *nhung* can have correlative forms which are not cohesive: *tuy... nhung/ tuy... song* ('although...but').

The avowal type also exist in Vietnamese with expressions such as *that vay/ thuc ra/ qua thuc* ('actually')

[6:28] Khong, khong phai la em
no not be younger sister

khong the viet noi bai nay, cung
cannot write ' article this also

khong phai la chuyen di cong tac vua roi
not be trip business recent

em ham choi khong
younger sister like pleasure not

chiu lay tu lieu de viet bai.
want collect document to write article.

thuc ra em thu luom duoc
actually younger sister collect be able

nhieu dieu dang noi dang viet
a lot event worth speak worth write

No, it was not because I had not been able to write this article, and it was not because in the recent business trip I wanted to be idle and did not want to take documents to write. Actually, I had collected a lot of events worth writing about.

(Con Giong:Doi Nha Bao : 12)

Tuy nhien/ tuy the / tuy vay ('however') are very similar to *nhung* ('but') in function. However, they can be used in the external sense only.

The following is a summary of adversative relations:

Adversative relations:

Simple: *nhung* ('but'), *song, ma* ('yet')

Emphatic: *tuy nhien, tuy vay, mac dau vay* ('however')

Contrastive relations: (internal/ external)

Mat khac ('on the other hand')

Avowal: *thuc ra, su thuc la, thuc te* ('actually')

Corrective relations:

Correction of meaning: *thay vao do, nguoc lai* ('instead')

Correction of wording: *dung hon, noi dung ra* ('rather')

6.3.3. Causal

The third type of conjunctive relation is causal. As the name implies, this expresses the cause or result of something.

Typical expressions are: *vi vay, vi the, boi vay, cho nen, the la, vay la*, which would all be translated into 'so' in English.

All these expressions can be used both in external and internal sense. The following is an example of *boi vay* used in external sense:

[6:29] ...Con	moi	nguai	ai nay	van
And	all	person	whoever	still
	ngoi yen	ben	ban lam viec	cua
	sit quietly	at	desk work	of
minh.	<u>Boi vay.</u>	To Mai	bong	
oneself	so	To Mai	suddenly	

tro nen lac long.
become alone

...And every body still sat quietly at their office desks. So To Mai suddenly became alone.

(Con Giong Doi Nha Bao : 78)

The correlative form *vi ... nen* ('because... so') is not cohesive for it occurs within the sentence.

This conjunctive relation can comprise compound expressions such as *va the la*, *va nhu the* ('and so') which function exactly the same as *cho nen* or *vi vay*:

[6:30] .Mai tan trua nay, pho tong bien tap
until noon this vice in-chief editor

Hong Quang nhac , ong moi nho ra.
Hong Quang remind grandfather just remember

Va the la Thach Luu duoc sung ngay
and so Thach Luu be choose at once

lam 'linh cuu hoa'.
do fireman

Until this noon, the vice editor-in-chief Hong Quang reminded him. He remembered it. And so Thach Luu was chosen immediately as a 'fireman'.

(Con Giong Doi Nha Bao: 41)

The conditional type with expressions such as *trong truong hop nhu vay* ('in that case'), *ket qua la* ('as a result') occur only in external sense.

6.3.4. Temporal

All the temporal conjunctives may occur either in external or internal sense. Temporal relation is expressed in Vietnamese by the simplest form of *roi* ('then'). This implies one event occurs after the other. An example of external sense is illustrated in the following extract:

[6:31] Dua be dap tay lung tung vao
 classifier child bang fist everywhere on

 mat me. Roi vua cuoi vua
 face mother then while laugh while

 keu.
 shout

The little child banged its fists on the mother's face. Then he laughed and shouted.

(Ngo Hem : 80)

The subsequent sense may have the form of *sau do* ('after that'), *ke do* ('next'). It also has the compound form *roi sau do* ('then after that')

[6:32] Toi cam to bao chay
 I 'take classifier newspaper run

 den Dong tam de hoi. Roi sau do
 to Dong Tam in order to ask then after that

 duoc co gioi thieu lam quen voi
 be aunt introduce make acquaintance with

 cac nha nghien cuu khoa hoc
 plural maker researchers scientific

tai ba nay.
talented this

*I at once took the newspaper to Dong Tam to ask.
Then after that you introduced me to make
acquaintance with these talented scientific
researchers.*

(Con Giong Doi Nha Bao : 41)

The temporal relation may exist not only in the subsequent sense as above but also with a simultaneous indication: *cung luc ay* ('at the same time'), *dong thoi* ('simultaneously'); in previous time relation: *truoc do* ('previously') or it may mark the end of some series of events: *cuoi cung* ('finally').

Temporal conjunctives may occur in a correlative forms, for example, given the form *dau tien* ('first'), *truoc het* ('first of all') we might expect the following items such as *sau do* ('then'), *tiep do* ('next'), *thu nhi* ('second'), *cuoi cung* ('finally').

However, in several texts that we have analysed, *truoc het* ('first of all') does not appear in correlative form:

[6:33] Chuyen di nay co co kha nhieu
trip this aunt have pretty many

chuyen de ke cho cac
story in order tell to plural marker

dong nghiep than thuoc cua minh.
colleague intimate of oneself

Truoc het, co co the bo sung cho
first of all aunt can supplement to

kho chuyen phong phu cua cau lac bo hai huoc
 storage abundant of club humorous

co quan nhung cau chuyen moi
 office plural marker story new

hom hinh ma cung that la chua cay.
 mischievous and also very sarcastic

During this trip she has collected a lot of stories to tell her intimate colleagues. First of all, she can add those new stories that are both ridiculous and sarcastic to the 'humorous club' of her office.

(Con Giong Doi Nha Bao : 125)

Chapter Seven

LEXICAL COHESION

7.1. INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapters the various types of cohesion in English and Vietnamese were discussed. We come now to the fifth type of cohesion, that of lexical cohesion.

Lexical cohesion is the cohesive type that deals with the selection of vocabulary. The term *lexical* originates from *lexis*, the technical linguistic term given to an item from the lexicon of a language.

7.2. LEXICAL COHESION IN ENGLISH

Halliday and Hasan divide lexical cohesion in English into two subtypes: reiteration and collocation. The study will discuss lexical cohesion in the same model.

7.2.1. Reiteration

By reiteration we mean the repetition of a lexical item. This may be in four ways: using the same word, a synonym or near synonym, a superordinate or a general noun. In almost all cases, the reiterated item is used with a reference item, typically *the*. The following examples are used to illustrate these types of reiteration.

[7:1] There was a narrow cave in the base of the cliff, and Bazo drew aside the hanging creepers that screen the mouth and stopped into the gloomy interior. The cave was only ten paces deep, and it ended abruptly in a scree of loose boulders.

(The Angels Weep : 42)

[7:2] Coming up on the bull's blood-splattered quarters, Ralph fired into its back hide and bulging muscle. He fired with a mechanical action, cranking the loading handle, and the recoil dinned in upon his ears, so he could barely hear the heavy lead bullets slapping into the bull's body with a sound like a wife beating a carpet.

(The Angels Weep : 160)

[7:3] Now there was a sound. A faint and distant sibilance like the wind shifting the sugary white sands of the desert dunes. The sun glowed dully as the ashes of a dying camp-fire.

(The Angels Weep : 110)

[7:4] 'Henshaw,' Bazo yelled, take the spare horse.' And he dropped the lead rein, sending the free horse down on Ralph, still at full gallop.

Ralph crouched in its path, and the grey mare saw him and swerved at the last moment, but Ralph leaped for the saddle, and got a hold on the pommel.

(The Angels Weep : 159)

[7:5] The lion rose lightly into the air, and settled like a huge yellow bird on the horse's back, crushing Jan Cheroot beneath his massive, blood-streaked body. At that instant, horse and rider and lion seemed to disappear into the very earth, and there was only a swirling column of dust to mark where they had been. Yet the shattering roars of the enraged animal and Jan Cheroot's howls of terror grew even louder as Ralph galloped up to the point where they had disappeared.

(The Angels Weep : 15)

In [7:1] the word *cave* refers back to *cave* in the previous sentence. In [7:2] the word *fired* is repeated. In [7:3] *sibilance* which is a synonym of *sound* refers back to *sound*. In [7:4] *horse* is a superordinate of *mare*. In [7:5] *animal* is a general noun of the word *lion*.

The final reiterative device is the category of general nouns which is defined by Halliday and Hasan (1976 : 274) as

"a small set of nouns having generalised reference within the major classes, those such as 'human noun', 'place noun', 'fact noun', and the like."

Examples given are:

people, person, woman, child, boy, girl [human]
creature [non- human animate]
thing, object [inanimate concrete count]
stuff [inanimate concrete mass]
business, affair, matter [inanimate abstract]
move [action]
place [place]
question, idea [fact]

In discussing general nouns, Halliday and Hasan (1976 : 275) also indicate that:

From a lexical point of view, they are the superordinate members of major lexical sets and therefore, their cohesive use is an instance of the general principle whereby a superordinate item operates anaphorically as a kind of synonym. From a grammatical point of view, the combination of general noun plus specific determiner, such as *the man, the thing*, is very similar to a reference item.

They also point out that the forms with general nouns as well as with other types of reiteration may carry an interpersonal meaning which does not happen with a reference item.

To sum up, we have four types of reiterations:

- (i) reiteration of the same word
- (ii) a synonym or near synonym
- (iii) a superordinate
- (iv) a general noun

7.2.2 Collocation

The second major type of lexical cohesion is collocation. Words are said to be collocated when they occur together regularly. Halliday and Hasan (1976 : 285) state:

"there is cohesion between any pair of lexical items that stand to each other in some recognizable lexicosemantic (word meaning) relation"

and

"In general, any two lexical items having similar patterns of collocation - that is, tending to appear in similar contexts - will generate a cohesive force if they occur in adjacent sentences."

(Halliday and Hasan, 1976 : 286)

So apart from the synonyms and superordinates mentioned above, opposites like *love* and *hatred*, *to be born* and *to die* could be included. In addition to these, also included are words that are closely associated around a concept or a central idea, for instance, words of months or days of the week, kinship words, words of cooking. The occurrence of these lexical items will make the texts cohesive.

[7:6] 'Henshaw,' Bazo yelled, take the spare horse.' And he dropped the lead rein, sending the free horse down on Ralph, still at full gallop.

Ralph crouched in its path, and the grey mare saw him and swerved at the last moment, but Ralph leaped for the saddle, and got a hold on the pommel.

(The Angels Weep : 159)

7.3. LEXICAL COHESION IN VIETNAMESE

In this part of the study, Vietnamese lexical cohesion will be discussed under the same pattern as that in English: reiteration and collocation.

7.3.1. Reiteration

Reiteration in Vietnamese is also expressed by use of the same word, synonym, superordinate, and general noun.

[7:6] Ong At da tat ta chay sang. Ong dot la son suoi cho dua be. Nhung dua be van cong nguoi len khoc.

Mr At did come in quickly. He burned leaves to warm the child. But the child still bent its body and cried.

(Ngo Hem : 65)

[7:7] Truoc anh mat nguong mo va nhung loi tram tro than phuc cua ban be khi noi ve anh Khoi, Luu thay sao tu hao. Mot noi tu hao kieu hanh rat tre con vi anh Khoi truoc het la nguoi o nha no. Roi nua, anh Khoi than voi no nhat, quy men san soc no nhieu nhat.

At the respectful looks and words of admiration of her friends when talking about brother Khoi, Luu felt so proud. The childish pride was because first of all brother Khoi was the person who lived in

her house. Apart from that, to her, Khoi was the most intimate and took care of her most.

(Con Giong Doi Nha Bao : 21)

[7:8] Nhon khoc. Co le lan nay la lan dau tien han da khoc. Han khoc vi da pham mot trong toi doi voi ban. Han khoc vi nho den cai canh ngo co cuc da xo han vao toi loi.

Nhon cried. Perhaps this is the first time he cried. He cried because he had committed a serious crime. He cried because he remembered the miserable situation that had pushed him into committing crime.

(Ngo Hem : 87)

[7:9] Cu quan sat ky thi rat nan. Nhung toi chua nan chi vi toi tin o ong cu.

Careful observation is very discouraging. But I am not discouraged yet only because I believe in the old man.

(Quoted in Them, 1985 : 130)

In [7:6] *dua be* ('the child') is repeated. In [7:7] *anh Khoi* ('elder brother Khoi') is. In [7:8] the repeated item is the verb *khoc* ('cry') and in [7:9] it is the adjective *nan* ('discouraging').

The following is an example of superordinate in which *nguai con gai* entails *Thanh* (Proper name)

[7:19] <u>Thanh</u>	chay	khong	kip.
Thanh	run	not	fast enough
Nhung	Giot	mua	vui thich co
plural marker	drop	rain	merry try

duoi theo nguoi con gai dep.
 chase classifier girl beautiful

Thanh did not run fast enough. Merry drops of rain tried to chase the beautiful girl.

(Tan May : 69)

The use of general nouns in Vietnamese is illustrated by the following example:

[7:12] Tren mat lo dat mot con su tu bang dong den rat lon. Con thu cham tro rat linh hoat.

On the stove there is a very big lion made from black copper. The animal was meticulously carved.

(Ngo Hem : 170)

The word *thu* ('animal') is a general noun which entails *su tu* ('lion').

7.3.2 Collocation

Collocation in Vietnamese, to some extent, seems to be the same as that in English since words have to appear in associated semantic field in all languages. Apart from those reiterated forms discussed above, opposites are also one of the lexical devices to obtain cohesion in Vietnamese.

The following example shows complementary opposite :

[5:14] Keng yeu vo, muon cho vo nhan. Lat thuong chong nhat dinh khong chiu

Because Keng loves his wife, he wants her to be idle. Lat loves her husband, so she is determined not to obey him.

(Quoted in Them, 1985 : 127)

Antonyms are used in the following examples :

[5:15] Nhung nguoi yeu duoi van hay hien lanh. Muon
ac phai la ke manh.

*Those who are weak are usually **kind**. Being **cruel**,
one must be powerful.*

(Ibid : 127)

Having examined all five types of cohesive relations, it is now appropriate to make a comparison between the two to see the extent to which cohesion is similar or different.

Chapter Eight

COMPARISON OF COHESION IN ENGLISH AND VIETNAMESE

This chapter points out the similarities and differences of cohesion in Vietnamese and English based on chapters 2, 3, 4, and 5.

8.1 COMPARISON OF COHESION IN ENGLISH AND VIETNAMESE

8.1.1. Reference

In the previous chapters reference in English and Vietnamese has been introduced according to three categories:

- (i) Personal reference
- (ii) Demonstrative reference
- (iii) Comparative reference

8.1.1.1 Personal reference

Personal reference is reference by means of speech roles of people in the communication process. In English the system of personal reference comprises personal pronouns and possessives whereas in Vietnamese it includes kinship terms and personal pronouns.

The number of personal items in English is limited. In contrast, no linguists have been able to estimate the total number of personal items in Vietnamese because the list is so extensive. In speech communication, these terms can be

used by the speaker to address the addressee(s) as well as to address her/himself. In English, when the grammatical functions of the personal items change, the forms of those terms differ accordingly. But in Vietnamese the personal items do not change their forms in whatever grammatical functions.

The word *it* in English can refer to a process or a fact. In other words, it may have extended or text reference. There is no item in Vietnamese that has the same kind of reference as that in English.

8.1.1.2 Demonstrative reference

Demonstrative reference items in both languages are grouped into three categories.

The first group includes *this, that, these, those* in English and *nay, ('this'), day/ do/ kia/ ay/ no ('that')* in Vietnamese. There is a distinction between singularity and plurality in English whereas in Vietnamese there is no such distinction. These nominal selective demonstratives can express both chronological and spatial concepts. Both languages have extended or text reference by the use of *this/ that* in English or *ay/do ('that')* in Vietnamese.

English has a definite article *the* which can be anaphorically cohesive. In contrast, Vietnamese does not have any items like *the*.

Both languages include demonstrative adverbs which are anaphorically and cataphorically cohesive.

8.1.1.3. Comparative reference

Both languages comprise two kinds of comparative reference: particular reference and general reference. General reference concerns quantity and particular reference is related to quality.

8.1.2. Substitution

English substitution includes six words: *one* and *ones* which can be considered as nominal substitution since they substitute for the Head of the nominal group only. *The same* can substitute for a noun phrase, an adjective phrase or a clause. *Do* is another substitute which can be used to replace a verb or a verb plus other elements in the predicate. *Do* is often accompanied by *so*. As a transitive substitute *do* often goes with *it* and *that*. And *so* is a substitute for a nominal phrase, an adjective phrase and a clause. The last item is *not* which is a clausal negative substitute.

In Vietnamese texts there are only two types of substitution. The verb *lam* ('do') in Vietnamese functions exactly the same as *do* in English. It can replace a verb and a verb plus other elements in the predicate. It is often accompanied by *the/vay* ('so'). *Nhu the/ nhu vay/ the/ vay* ('so'/the same') may be a substitute for a clause. In English there is only anaphoric substitution whereas in Vietnamese both types of substitution, anaphoric and cataphoric, occur.

8.1.3. Ellipsis:

English allows two kinds of ellipsis: nominal ellipsis and clausal ellipsis. Nominal ellipsis occurs when the postmodifiers of the Noun Head or the Noun Head itself is omitted. Clausal ellipsis happens when any item of the clause is ellipted. This may be Subject, Complement, Adverbial, Verb, or Verb plus Object.

In Vietnamese there are three kinds of ellipsis: nominal ellipsis, verbal ellipsis, and clausal ellipsis. Nominal and clausal ellipsis are the same as those in English. Verbal ellipsis happens when only the verb is omitted. Ellipsis in Vietnamese can be either anaphoric or cataphoric whereas in English there is only anaphoric ellipsis. In Vietnamese the object alone can be omitted. In contrast, in English the object can only be ellipted when accompanied by a verb. Again, as happens with substitution, Vietnamese ellipsis consist of two types: anaphoric and cataphoric. In contrast, there is only anaphoric ellipsis in English.

8.1.4 Conjunction

The two languages appear to have a similar system of conjunctive elements which are divided into four categories: the additive, the adversative, the temporal and the causal. Analysis of Vietnamese texts reveals that Vietnamese conjunctive items are not as numerous as those in English.

8.1.5. Lexical cohesion

Lexical cohesion in both languages is divided into two types: reiteration and collocation. Reiteration includes four sub-types: same word, synonym or near synonym, superordinate or general noun. In English, the use of a lexical item may convey the attitude of a speaker which is not reflected in the use of the personal reference elements. In Vietnamese, both personal reference and lexical items may convey the same meaning.

In Vietnamese, the same word may be repeated many times throughout a text as the norm. Although same word repetition can occur in English as a stylistic device, it is most often felt necessary to replace the initial word by a subsequent reference item (e.g. pronoun), a synonym, a superordinate or a general noun.

8.1.6. Conclusion

It can be seen then that, although some elements of the two languages are similar, some differences do exist between them. It might be that these contribute in some way to at least a few of the errors which occur in the written work of Vietnamese students of English. It is in this area that the present study may be of immediate value.

8.2 LEARNER ERRORS

From my previous experience as a teacher and from the examination of a number of essays written by intermediate and upper-intermediate Vietnamese students at the University of Canberra, the most common errors of cohesion were noted.

These errors will be dealt with in the categories used in the study.

Reference: As far as nominal reference is concerned, relatively few errors are made in pronominal choice. This may be that since Vietnamese makes relatively little use of pronouns in comparison to English, these are areas which are highlighted in the classroom and also may be items which are cognitively easy to learn.

Occasionally, an error of the following type occurs:

In classes before the 80s, listening meant practicing isolated segments. They highly appreciated the ability to distinguished words.

The referent of *they* is assumed (*teachers in the classes??*) rather than stated.

Errors of the following type occur more frequently with lower proficiency learners.

According to one view listener is as tape recorder. They believe that listening involves passive skills.

In examples like this, there is no referent recoverable from the text and *they* is used exophorically. This may be due to an avoidance of the use of the passive, which would be the required form in English.

Almost all other errors are in choice of number (singularity/plurality) with particular difficulty being found in assigning the correct number to an item referring to uncountable/mass nouns. e.g.

A person may feel sad, lonely and confused. These suffering and experience may be called culture shock.

This could be interpreted as relating the previous sentence with the next, in which case *this* would be the appropriate demonstrative.

Since in Vietnamese the grammatical concept of number does not exist, an error like this is not surprising and may be less a cohesion error than perhaps a difference in the way mass nouns - in *this* case two mass nouns together - are viewed.

A small number of errors of demonstrative reference have been noticed e.g.

Listeners may have different purposes in listening. They might listen to find out something they want to know or for enjoyment and relaxing etc. Those listening activities might be interactional or transactional.

It is difficult to explain the reason for this since Vietnamese demonstrative reference is very similar to English.

Extended or text reference A very frequent error in using extended or text reference is to select a pronoun instead of a demonstrative. For example:

- a)*The listener does not always achieve successful listening comprehension. It largely depends on his social knowledge, competence of language and purpose of talk.*
- b) *Sometimes the teacher may want to ask his students questions about themselves. If it is the case, he.....*

In both these cases, if referring to the previous text or section of the text, a native speaker would prefer to use *this*. This

error may arise from an overuse of it, perhaps by analogy from expressions like *'it is easy/ hard'* etc.

The most frequent error to be found is in the use of *the*. With no articles in Vietnamese, the use of this as an intersentential device appears to cause great difficulty.

Comparative reference Almost no errors in comparative reference seem to occur apart from a few errors of the following type.

In classroom some students are more brighter and more attractive.

In English the referent *than others* would be required. However it is difficult to know whether this is an error of comparison or over-use of ellipsis.

Substitution There seem to be very few errors of substitution but that may be because it is a cohesive device that is avoided. Sometimes an example of the following kind may be made.

To encourage all students to participate and enjoy discussions teachers should give a chance to all of them, that is, they know that they have a fair share of discussion time particularly that passive ones.

The problem here is not the choice of a wrong substitute but that the word that *ones* substitutes for is too far back in the text.

Ellipsis Apart from the kind of example of ellipsis in comparative reference noted above, there seems to be no trouble with ellipsis, with frequent use of postmodifier ellipsis but little use of Noun Head or premodifier ellipsis. This may be due to the type of writing required of these students - expository - or it may be that ellipsis is particularly difficult to notice.

Conjunction The number of errors in conjunction is relatively high in comparison with other types, which may be caused by the fact that the number of conjunctive elements is more limited in Vietnamese than in English.

In additive conjunction, for example, *moreover*, *furthermore*, *in addition*, the subtle differences in the usage of these seems to be difficult to learn and they are used interchangeably. This may be either that the differences between them are finer than in Vietnamese or it may be that they are often taught initially as a group without the different shades of meaning being explained.

Another common error is that these conjunctions which can only have an external sense are used with an internal sense.

Adler also suggests that when we are in a new country, we don't understand the language that people say. Therefore we become isolated. Moreover culture shock can also be considered as a set of situations in which we become aware and achieve new concepts.

Additive conjunction seems to be the most difficult area for Vietnamese and there do not appear to be many errors in the other conjunctive types. The exception to this is the very

frequent use of *Although.....but.....* which in Vietnamese are correlative but in English are not.

Sometimes learners can overuse conjunction, using some element at the beginning of every sentence. At other times, they omit far too many conjunctions and thus leave the reader to work out the relationship between sentences.

Lexical cohesion Very few errors of lexical cohesion are made. The general nouns *people/persons, thing, question, notion*, are used quite often but fewer synonyms or superordinates seem to be used. This again may be because there is an avoidance of their use or it may be because the vocabulary level is still limited. The most obvious tendency is to overuse the repetition of the same word/s rather than use a substitute or a pronominal form. In Vietnamese this is quite acceptable. Sometimes an overreaction to the repetition of the same word occurs. A pronoun may be used but may be repeated so much that the original referent becomes lost especially when another element intervenes, after which English requires a repetition or a reminder of the original referent.

In this brief examination of learner writing, it can be seen that a number of errors in the use of cohesive devices do occur and at least some of them can be put down to the differences between the two languages. In the next chapter, some implications for classroom teaching will be made.

CONCLUSION

1. RECAPITULATION

The descriptions presented in the previous chapters reveal that although both languages use the five main types of cohesive ties there are considerable differences between the two languages. Extended or text personal reference which exists in English does not occur in Vietnamese texts. Vietnamese comprises no item that is equivalent to *the* in English. Substitution in English includes five elements whereas there are only two items that can act as substitutes in Vietnamese. In English only anaphoric substitution and ellipsis occur, while in Vietnamese both types of substitution and ellipsis, anaphoric and cataphoric, appear. Several conjunctive elements in Vietnamese can be used interchangeably whereas in English they cannot. The most common device used in lexical cohesion in Vietnamese is repetition of the same word(s) which in English need to be more often replaced by reference items, synonyms, superordinates, or general nouns in English.

2. IMPLICATIONS

On the basis of the author's teaching experiences, the descriptions of cohesion of the two languages, and the analysis of learner errors in Vietnamese student writing, the following implications are suggested for the teaching of English as a foreign language in Vietnam.

(i) The teacher's awareness of cohesive ties will enable her/him to predict certain areas that are problematic to the learner. It is thought that knowledge of cohesion would be of some help to the teacher to find ways of coping with problems which may arise in developing language skills and in selecting and designing teaching materials.

(ii) The fact that examples of extended reference or text reference are rarely found in the data shows that this is an area that needs focus. Techniques such as cloze, analysis of written texts, blank filling exercise, circling co-referential items and linking the anaphoric or cataphoric direction with arrows, can be used to develop the learner's awareness so that s/he can understand and use extended and text reference devices properly.

(iii) It is suggested that substitution and ellipsis are more problematic to the learner in spoken than written language. As de Beaugrande and Dressler suggest, these cohesive devices are often used in spoken English and this means that authentic listening materials which include these two devices might be used. The teacher checks whether the learner understands the implications made by those devices and hence encourages the learner to use them in speaking and also in writing. It is certain that these devices, substitution and ellipsis, can be found in written texts. As a result, the techniques mentioned in (ii) might be applied.

(iv) Conjunction is also an area that requires practice. The problems caused by conjunction might come from the fact that several Vietnamese conjunctive items are usually used interchangeably. As such, this may cause negative transfer to

the learner in using the target language and it may hinder the learner from understanding the subtle meanings of conjunctive elements in English. It is suggested that text-analysis for conjunctive items, blank-filling exercises, and re-arrangement of cut up texts might be the most effective ways of helping the learner to solve the problem so that s/he can understand and use the conjunctive elements correctly. A lot of practice in using conjunctions which have fine differences in meaning should be given.

(v) The area which is perhaps the most difficult for the learner may be that of lexical cohesion. Vietnamese learners tend to use repetition of the same words which is probably caused by a negative transfer from L1. It is thought that the teacher should be able to predict this and thus draw the learner's attention to the other devices possible. It is suggested that the awareness of the learner may increase if s/he is equipped with the alternatives often used in English texts, such as synonyms, superordinates, general nouns, and collocation. A practical way of teaching the various lexical cohesive devices and expanding the vocabulary level might be through a system of exercises in which techniques such as analyzing written texts, filling blanks, providing synonyms/ antonyms/ superordinates, and general nouns to a given word, matching words, and finding words that are semantically associative may be exploited.

(vi) In the present period when Vietnam has much wider contact with foreign countries in all fields, translation is an important unit taught at universities and colleges. It is thought that the study may aid the teaching of translation in

Vietnam. Apart from this, the study may be of benefit to the teaching of Vietnamese to foreigners, since it might suggest areas that could be problematic to foreigners; for example, the system of personal reference terms or the system of classifiers mentioned in 3.3 which are likely to be areas foreigners might find difficult..

3. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This study should be regarded as the first step to identifying all the cohesive devices used in Vietnamese. The data has been gathered from one code and one genre only. And thus generalisations to both spoken and written language in all genres must be cautious.

A more systematic and larger study of learner writing at different levels of proficiency in which learner reasons for the choice of expression is also needed to extend and clarify understanding of errors. It would be useful to have data from different first language groups to see whether these errors are in fact due to L1 interference or to interlanguage development.

In the meantime, this analysis of cohesion in English and Vietnamese can go some way to raise learners' awareness of how to improve their writing and their reading of the target language.

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APPENDIX 1 Summary Table of Conjunctive Relations (Halliday and Hasan, 1976 : 242-243)

	External/ internal	Internal (unless otherwise specified)		
Additive	Additive, simple: Additive <i>and, and also</i> Negative <i>nor, and ... not</i> Alternative <i>or, or else</i>	Complex, emphatic: Additive <i>furthermore, in addition, besides</i> Alternative <i>alternatively</i> Complex, de-emphatic: Afterthought <i>incidentally by the way</i>	Apposition: Expository <i>that is, I mean, in other words</i> Exemplificatory <i>for instance, thus</i>	Comparison: Similar <i>likewise, imilarly, in the same way</i> Dissimilar <i>the other hand, by contrast</i>
Adversative	Adversative Simple <i>yet, though, only</i> Containing 'and' <i>but</i> Emphatic <i>however, nevertheless, despite this</i>	Contrastive: Simple <i>in fact, actually, as a matter of fact</i> Contrastive (external) Simple <i>but, and</i> Emphatic <i>however, on the other hand at the same time</i>	Correction: Of meaning <i>instead, rather, on the contrary</i> Of wording <i>at least, rather, I mean</i>	Dismissal: Closed <i>in any case, in either case, whichever way it is</i> Open-ended <i>in any case, anyhow, at any rate, however it</i>

	External/ internal	Internal (unless otherwise specified)		
Causal	Causal, general: Simple <i>so, then, hence, therefore</i> Emphatic <i>consequently because of this</i> Causal, specific: Reason <i>for this reason, on account of this</i> Result <i>as a result, in consequence</i> Purpose <i>for this purpose, with this in mind</i>	Reversed causal: Simple <i>for, because</i> Causal specific Reason <i>it follows, on this basis</i> Result <i>arising out of this</i> Purpose <i>to this end</i>	Conditional (also external): Simple <i>then</i> Emphatic <i>in that case in such an event, that being so</i> Generalized <i>under the circumstances otherwise, under other circumstances</i> Reserved polarity	Respective: Direct <i>in this respect, in this regard, with reference to this</i> Reserved polarity <i>otherwise, in other respects aside from this</i>
Temporal	Temporal, simple (external only): Sequential <i>then, next after that</i> Simultaneous <i>just then, at the same time</i> Preceding <i>previously, before that</i> Conclusive: Simple <i>finally, at last</i> Correlative forms: Sequential <i>first...then</i> Conclusive <i>at first... in the end</i>	Complex (external only): Immediate <i>at once thereupon</i> Interrupted <i>soon, after a time</i> Repetitive <i>next time, on another occasion</i> Specific <i>next day, an hour later</i> Durative <i>meanwhile</i> Terminal <i>until then</i> Punctiliar <i>at this moment</i>	Internal temporal: Sequential <i>then, next, secondly</i> Conclusive <i>finally, in conclusion</i> Correlative forms: Sequential <i>first... next</i> Conclusive <i>... finally</i>	'Here and now' Past <i>up to now, hitherto</i> Present <i>at this point, here</i> Future <i>from now on, hence-forward</i> Summary: Summarizing <i>to sum up in short, briefly</i> Resumptive <i>to resume, to return to the point</i>

APPENDIX 2: Extract Bibliography

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