

# CHAPTER 1

## INTRODUCTION

### 1.0 Introduction

The focus of this thesis is, from a discourse perspective, cohesion sources in the West-Central Thailand (W-CT) Pwo Karen language. To realize this aim, three W-CT Pwo Karen folktales will be analyzed to seek out the five sources of cohesion found in English by Halliday and Hasan (1976).

This chapter will briefly introduce the Pwo Karen language and people in sections 1.1 and 1.2. Section 1.3 describes the data to be studied. Sections 1.4 and 1.5 show the research question and literature relevant to discourse analysis and cohesion in discourse. Finally, the methodology and the overview of the thesis will be presented in sections 1.6 and 1.7.

### 1.1 The Pwo Karen language

According to Lewis (1984:70), it is not easy to categorize the Karen languages into a linguistic family. They are different from other Tibeto-Burman languages in certain aspects, and yet they do not seem to fit other classifications. Many linguists now refer to them as the Karenic group of the Tibeto-Burman family.

The Pwo Karen languages are a sub-group of the Karenic branch of the Tibeto-Burman language family. According to Bradley (1997), the Karenic languages can be divided into four groups. They are Sgaw, Central Karen, Pwo, and Pa-O. The position of Pwo Karen in its language family is shown in Figure 1.1.

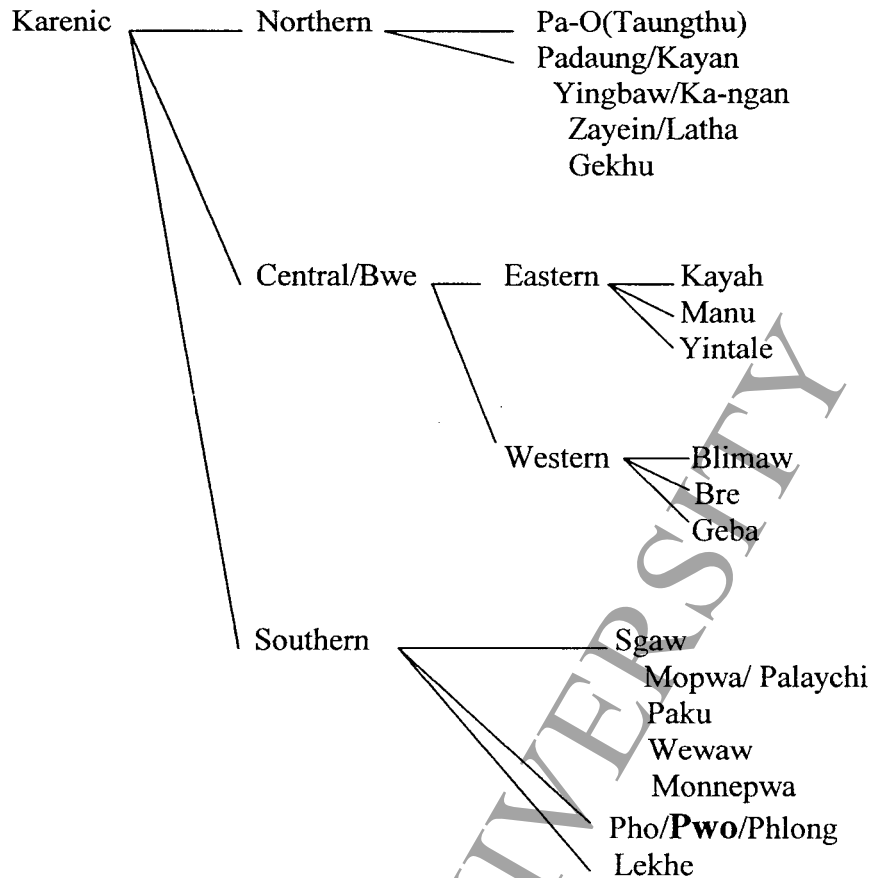


Figure 1.1 Karenic language relationships (Bradley  
1997:47)

There are at least three different, mutually unintelligible Pwo Karen languages in Myanmar and Thailand (Kato 1995; Phillips 2000). These three languages are Western Pwo Karen (in Myanmar), W-CT Pwo Karen / Eastern Pwo Karen (in Myanmar)<sup>1</sup>, and Northern Pwo Karen (in Thailand). The locations where these three Pwo Karen languages are spoken are listed in Table 1.1.

<sup>1</sup> According to Kato (1995) and Phillips (2000), W-CT Pwo Karen and Eastern Pwo Karen in Myanmar are intelligible with each other.

Language Name	Location
Western Pwo Karen (Bassein)	Irrawaddy Delta, Myanmar
Eastern Pwo Karen (Moulmein)/West-Central Thailand Pwo Karen	Karen State, Mon State, Tennasserim Division, Myanmar; West-Central Thailand
Northern Pwo Karen	Northwestern Thailand

Table 1.1 Pwo Karen language locations (Phillips 2000:99)

## 1.2 The Pwo Karen people

“Karen” is an English term apparently derived from the Burmese name for the people, “Kayin” (Rashid and Walker 1975:88). In Central Thai, the word ‘Kariang’ is used to refer to the Karen people. In Northern Thai they are called ‘Yang’.

The Karen people live in the Thai-Burma border region, as well as in some parts of the Burma Delta and north Thailand away from the border (Renard 1980). According to Lewis (1984:70), the Karen people in Thailand are the largest tribal group. “They form 46% of the tribal population of Thailand. The largest Karen sub-group in Thailand is the Sgaw Karen. Roughly 30% percent of the Karen population is Pwo Karen.” A profile ([http://www.infomekong.com/karen\\_secondary\\_pwo.htm](http://www.infomekong.com/karen_secondary_pwo.htm)) shows that the Pwo Karen forms the second largest tribal group in Thailand. Figure 1.2 is a map used by Keyes (1979:9), showing the distribution of all known Karen settlements.

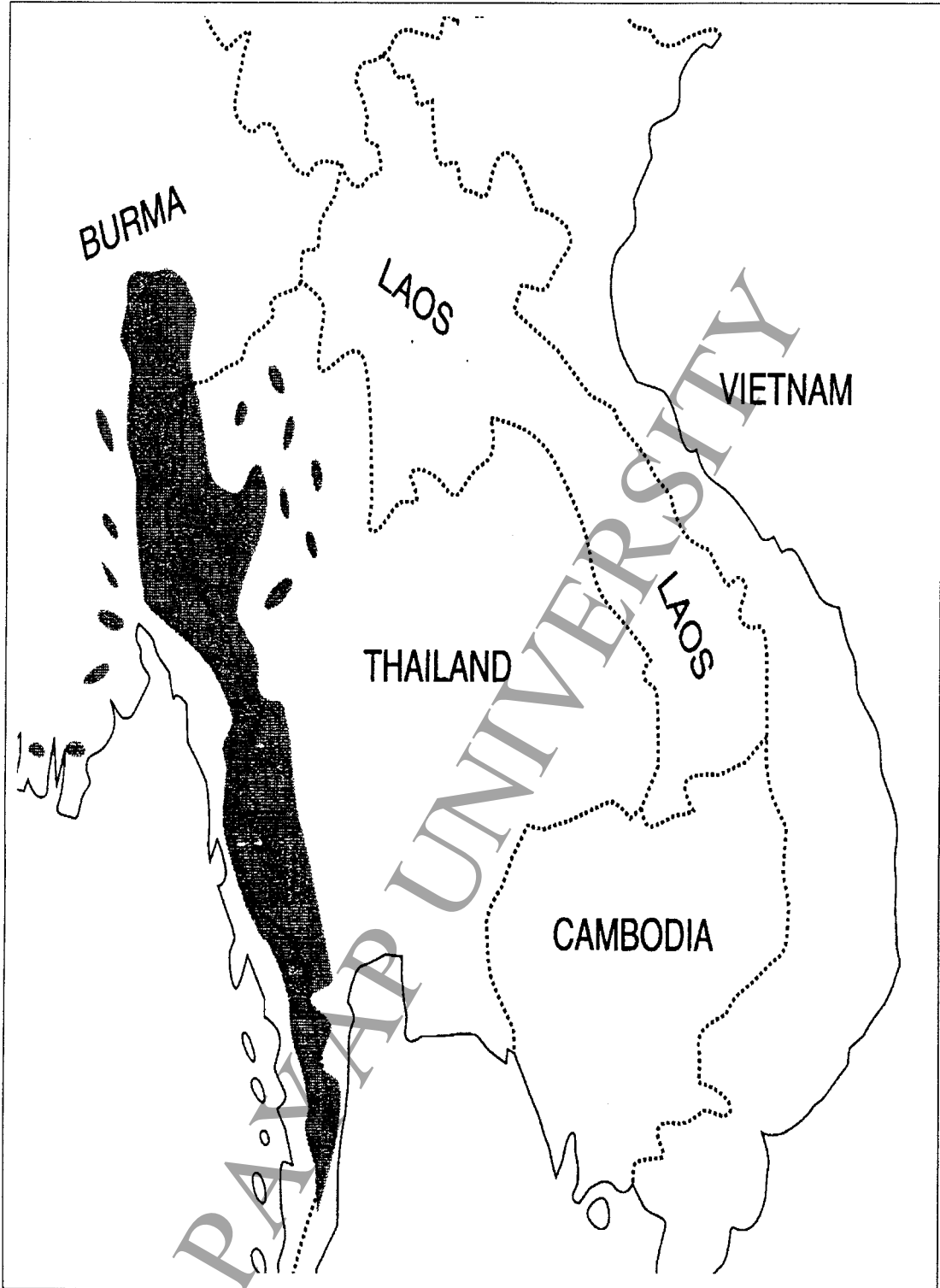


Figure 1.2 Location of Karen population (Keyes 1979: 9)

The population of Pwo Karen in Thailand is shown in Table 1.2.

PEOPLE GROUP	PEOPLE	FAMILIES	VILLAGES
All tribes in Thailand	695,000	119,216	3.595
All Karen in Thailand	321,900	60,385	2.132
All Pwo Karen in Thailand	96,570	18,115	639

Table 1.2 The population of Pwo Karen in Thailand (Hill Tribal Welfare and Development Center Thailand 1998)

In Thailand, the Pwo Karen people are divided into two language groups: Northern Thailand Pwo Karen and W-CT Pwo Karen. Phillips (2002) reports that the Northern Thailand Pwo Karen live in Chiang Mai, Mae Hong Son and Lamphun Provinces. Phillips (2002) also reports that the W-CT Pwo Karen live in the following provinces: Tak, Uthaitхани, Suphanburi, Kanchanaburi, Ratchaburi, Phetchaburi and Prachuapkhirikhan.

### 1.3 The data

The data used in this thesis, provided by Miss Audra Phillips, include the three W-CT Pwo Karen folktales: “Mueng Nong Nwe,” “Taokhe,” and “Tiger Skin.” Each folktale consists of more than one hundred sentences. Mueng Nong Nwe is a folktale about a woman, Mueng Nong Nwe, who is unfaithful to her husband. The Taokhe text tells about a man, Taokhe, who goes and lives in a temple, teasing a monk. Tiger Skin is a story about what happens to two sisters and a tiger. Mueng Nong Nwe and Tiger Skin were told by one storyteller and Taokhe was told by another storyteller. There were three steps to the collecting and collating of the data which comes from the area around Plainasuan village, Srisawat district, Kanchanaburi province, Thailand. First, students from the Karen Folktale Club in Bannasuan School, in

Plainasuan village, collected a group of folktales by tape-recording two storytellers. Secondly, they typed these folktales into the computer, translated them into Thai. Thirdly, Miss Audra Phillips, together with Karen adults, edited these folktales. Figure 1.3. shows the location of this village and the surrounding area.

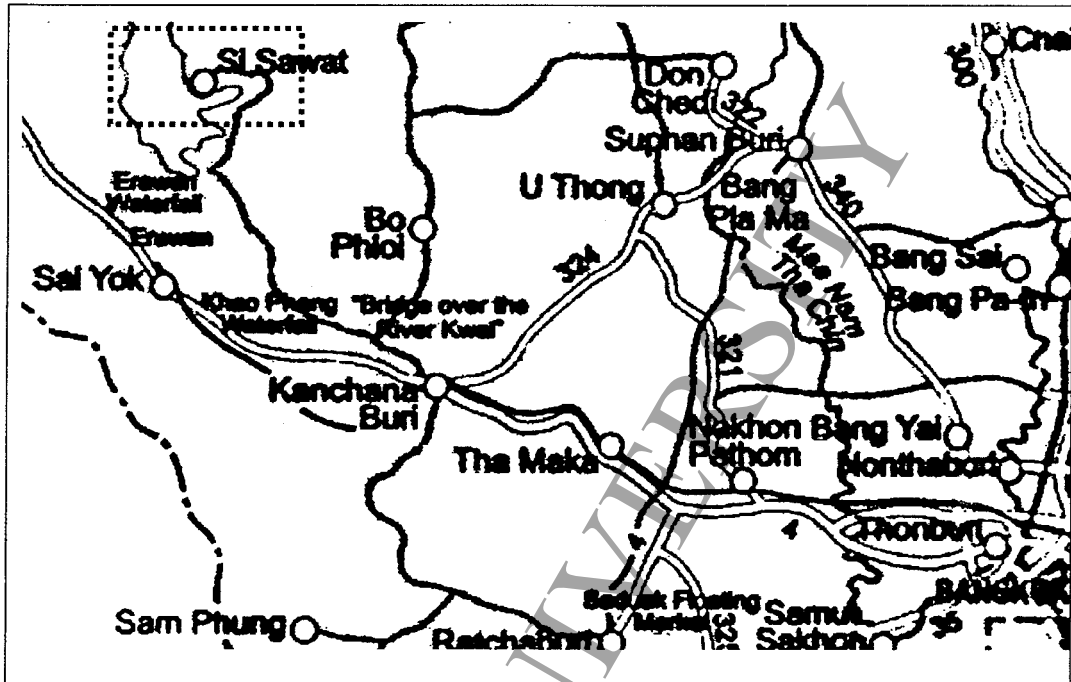


Figure 1.3 West-Central Thailand (Davies 1993: 124)

#### 1.4 Research scope and objectives

Halliday and Hasan's *Cohesion in English* (1976) is a very crucial theoretical work to be taken into account for research into discourse cohesion. Halliday and Hasan discuss, in detail, five sources of cohesion in English: cohesion through reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunctions, and lexical items.

This study looks for discourse cohesion in the three folktales of W-CT Pwo Karen. The theory applied to the analysis in this study follows what Halliday and Hasan (1976) discuss.

This research will reach the following objectives. Identify which of the five sources of cohesion in English found by Halliday and Hasan can be found in the three W-CT Pwo Karen Pwo Karen folktales: “Mueng Nong Nwe,” “Tiger Skin,” and “Taokhe.” Compare the sources of cohesion found in the three W-CT Pwo Karen folktales and those in Sgaw Karen folktales found by Katsura (1993). Conclude which sources of cohesion are more commonly used and which are rarely or never found in W-CT Pwo Karen.

### **1. 5 Review of relevant literature in discourse analysis**

This thesis puts emphasis on discourse cohesion, a key, but small, part in the wide field of discourse analysis. The relevant literature review will focus on discourse analysis in general. Then, drawing principally on Halliday and Hasan’s work *Cohesion in English* (1976), discourse cohesion will be reviewed.

Language is used to communicate. People communicate at the level of discourse. They use sentences, which convey different meanings in different contexts. Thus, the context plays a very important role in a discourse. This is why Longacre (1996:1) says, “language is language only in context.”

Brown and Yule (1983:1) concur with Longacre on the importance of context. They state:

The analysis of discourse is, necessarily, the analysis of language in use. As such, it cannot be restricted to the description of linguistic forms independent of the purposes or functions which those forms are designed to serve in human affairs.

There are two important points contained in the above statement. One is that discourse analysis is about the analysis of language in communication. The other is that discourse analysis is based on the purposes and functions of language in

communication. These two points imply that the context should be taken into account when analyzing language in use.

Discourse is at the highest level in the language hierarchy: discourse, sentence, clause, phrase, word, syllable, and morpheme. Longacre (1996:7) states, "The term discourse, as currently used, covers two areas of linguistic concern: the analysis of dialogue, especially of live conversation, and the analysis of monologue." This statement tells us that discourse is a form of language in use. Language in use is beyond the sentence level because it consists of sentences, constituting dialogue or a monologue.

Stubbs (1983) thinks that discourse analysis is the study of the organization of language above the sentence or clause level. That is, discourse analysis is the study of larger linguistic units, such as conversational exchanges or written texts.

Johnstone (2002:5) considers discourse analysis to be "looking at actual stretches of connected text or transcript and providing descriptions of the structure of paragraphs, stories, and conversations."

No matter how discourse analysis is defined by different linguists, linguists agree that discourse analysis is a way to study and analyze language at the level beyond the sentence. Since language use is more flexible at the discourse level, context should be taken into account in order to get the real meaning between sentences.

There are different discourse types. Longacre's discussion in *The Grammar of Discourse* (1996) is based on the genre of narrative. He describes a way to distinguish four different discourse genres: narrative, procedural, behavioral, and expository. He states:

To begin with, we can classify all possible discourses in all languages according to two basic etic parameters: contingent temporal succession and agent orientation. Contingent temporal succession refers to a



framework of temporal succession in which some of the events or doings are contingent on previous events or doings. Agent orientation refers to orientation towards agents with at least a partial identity of agent reference running through the discourse. These two parameters intersect so as to give us a four-way classification of discourse types: Narrative discourse is plus in respect to both parameters. Procedural discourse is plus in respect to contingent succession but minus in respect to the agent orientation. Behavioral discourse is minus in regard to contingent succession but plus in regard to agent orientation. Expository discourse is minus in respect to both parameters (1996:9).

Table 1.3 shows Longacre’s proposed categories of genres found in the languages of the world.

		+ Ag-Orientation	-Ag-Orientation	
+	CONTINGENT	NARRATIVE	PROCEDURAL	
		Prophecy	How-to-do-it	+Proj.
	SUCCESSION	Story	How-it-was-done	-Proj.
		BEHAVIORAL	EXPOSITORY	
-	CONTINGENT	Hortatory Promisory	Budget Proposal Futuristic Essay	+Proj.
		Eulogy	Scientific Paper	-Proj.
	SUCCESSION			

Table 1.3 Notational types (Fourth parameter, tension, is not represented) (Longacre 1996:10)

Longacre (1996:9) defines agent orientation as “orientation towards agents with at least partial identity of agent reference running through the discourse.” He defines contingent succession as “a framework of temporal succession in which some of the

events or doings are contingent on previous events or doings.” “Projection has to do with a situation or action which is contemplated, enjoyed, or anticipated but not realized (1996:9)” and “Tension has to do with whether a discourse reflects a struggle or polarization of some sort (1996:10).” According to Longacre (1996), a narrative discourse should be ‘+ agent orientation’, ‘+ contingent succession’, ‘- projection’, and ‘+ tension’.

### 1.5.1 History of discourse analysis

Having discussed what discourse is about and what the different discourse types are in the above sections, it is necessary to have a look at the evolution of discourse analysis.

Nowadays discourse analysis is regarded as a very important area in the field of linguistics. However, compared with the long history of the language research which is under the sentence level, the history of discourse analysis is not long.

Longacre (1996:1) states, “For too long a time, linguistics has confined itself to the study of isolated sentences”. In the past, linguists had focused their attention primarily on words, phrases, clauses, and sentences when studying a language. In the late fifties and early sixties, some linguists began to realize the importance of studying a language beyond the sentence level. From that time on, studies of texts began appearing in the 1950’s and 1960’s. This was a good beginning of discourse analysis evolution although research at that time was limited to text structure only. Harris’ (1951) *Methods in Structural Linguistics* and Taber’s (1966) *The Structure of Sango Narrative* are the results of text structure research at that time.

Since the early seventies, some linguists became more aware of the importance of context in the interpretation of sentences. They began to realize that many aspects of words, phrases and clauses at sentence level could not be determined without taking

the context of discourse into account. So, linguists began to study and analyze language by paying special attention to the textual context.

In 1974, Callow published her work *Discourse Considerations in Translating the Word of God*. This book systematically discusses many aspects in discourse which should be considered in the translation process, including the organization of discourse, the grouping of a text, cohesion, prominence and information. Callow (1974:12) states, "Every utterance...passes on information, implies a certain relationship between speaker and hearer, and fits into the discourse context in a certain way." Her statement shows that it is very important to analyze the utterances by putting them in a context. This, again, emphasizes the importance of discourse analysis. Translation involves two discourse structures: one is in the source language and the other is in the receptor language. A good translation then depends on a translator who is familiar with the discourse features in both languages.

In 1975, Grimes produced *The Thread of Discourse*. It mainly shows that discourse provides a context within which morphological categories begin to make sense instead of being there to be listed. Grimes discusses many aspects in discourse including events and participants, non-events (setting, background, evaluations, collateral), kinds of information, the grammar of semantic productions, rhetorical structure, discourse semantics and the surface hierarchy, and cohesion.

In 1996, the second edition of *The Grammar of Discourse* by Longacre was published. Discourse is discussed in terms of grammar in this book. Longacre (1996:2) discusses plot progression in a narrative "from stage to inciting incident to further build-up to a climax of confrontation to denouement and to final resolution," dialogue relations, the ways of combining predications, role relations, notional structure, surface structure, and the mainline versus supportive material.

### 1.5.2 Cohesion

Discourse analysis, as an important part of field linguistics, has many facets. These include storyline, non-storyline, notional structure, surface structure, cohesion, theme, peak and boundary markers. The section to follow summarizes the literature on cohesion as this is the area this thesis focuses on.

Callow (1974:29) says, "Unconnected material could not possibly be called a discourse." It is possible for a collection of unrelated sentences to make sense when something is adjusted or added to cause them to be connected. It is through adding and adjusting that a link can be created to combine unrelated sentences together. Such a link functions as glue which brings those unrelated sentences together to form a unified whole, that is, a discourse. Linguists give a name to this glue, calling it cohesion.

Halliday and Hasan (1976:4) state:

Cohesion occurs where the interpretation of some element in the discourse is dependent on that of another. The one presupposes the other, in the sense that it cannot be effectively decoded except by recourse to it.

Dooley and Levinsohn (2001:27) also define cohesion. They state that as a speaker is "planting linguistic signals in the text as clues to assist the hearers in coming up with an adequate mental representation." This statement leads to an important question: What sources are usually used for cohesion in a discourse?

Cohesion sources can be different from language to language. According to Grimes (1975), information blocks, information centers, and information rate are sometimes cohesion markers too. Information block is based on the cohesive structure of the language. The cohesive structure of the language plays an important role in deciding the content of what the speaker is talking about, the way it is to be organized, and

how much of it he thinks his hearer can take in at one time. In other words, a writer needs to block information by considering the cohesive structure in order to give readers time to breathe while reading. Normally readers and listeners are fond of short information blocks when the rate of information introduction is high. Each information block contains at least one center. The center is that part of the block in which new information is concentrated.

#### ***1.5.2.1 Sources of cohesion in English found by Halliday and Hasan***

*Cohesion in English*, written by Halliday and Hasan in 1976, is an important work in which discourse cohesion in English is discussed in detail. This section will summarize what Halliday and Hasan discussed in *Cohesion in English*.

Cohesion through reference is the first source of cohesion discussed in *Cohesion in English*. Halliday and Hasan (1976:31) define reference as “the specific nature of the information that is signaled for retrieval” and “the cohesion lies in the continuity of reference, whereby the same thing enters into the discourse a second time.” There are three types of reference: personal, demonstrative and comparative. Reference through the category of person is personal reference.

Table 1.4 shows three classes of personal reference: personal pronouns, possessive adjectives (possessive determiners), and possessive pronouns. It can be seen in Table 4 that existential pronouns and possessive pronouns are the two semantic categories of personal reference. Existential pronouns like ‘I’ and ‘me’ grammatically function as a head and possessive pronouns like ‘my’ function as a modifier.

Semantic Category	Existential	Possessive	
Grammatical function	Head		Modifier
Class	noun (pronoun)		Determiner
Person: speaker (only) addressee(s), with/without other person(s) speakers and other person(s) other person, male other person, female other persons; objects object; passage of text generalized person	I me  you we us he him she her they them it one	mine  yours ours his hers theirs [its]	my  your our his her their its one's

Table 1.4 Personal reference (Halliday and Hasan 1976:38)

Demonstrative reference is a form of verbal pointing through which “the speaker identifies the referent by locating it on a scale of proximity” (Halliday and Hasan 1976:57). As shown in Table 1.5, demonstratives are subcategorized into selective demonstrative like ‘this’ and non-selective demonstrative like ‘the’. Based on proximity, demonstratives can be near like ‘these’, far like ‘there’, and neutral like ‘the’.

Semantic category	Selective		Non-selective
Grammatical function	Modifier/Head	Adjunct	Modifier
Class	Determiner	Adverb	determiner
Proximity: near far neutral	this these that those	here [now] there then	the

Table 1.5 Demonstrative reference (Halliday and Hasan 1976:38)

Table 1.6 gives Halliday and Hasan’s summary of comparative reference in English. Comparative reference in English is indirect reference by means of identity or similarity. If a reference is used to refer back to preceding text, this reference is anaphoric, while a reference is cataphoric if it is used to refer to the following text. It

can be seen in Table 1.6 that comparative reference grammatically functions as either a modifier or an adjunct. This kind of reference consists of two classes: adjectives and adverbs. General comparison and particular comparison are the two types of comparative reference. In English, particular comparison as a modifier is achieved by the use of words like 'better' or 'more' but as an adjunct by 'so', 'more' or 'less'.

Grammatical function	Modifier: Deictic/Epithet (see below)	Submodifier/Adjunct
Class	Adjective	Adverb
General comparison: identity general similarity	same identical equal similar additional	identically similarly likewise so such
difference (ie non- identity or similarity)	other different else	differently otherwise
Particular comparison:	better, more, etc. [comparative adjectives and quantifiers]	so more less equally

Table 1.6 Comparative reference (Halliday and Hasan  
1976:39)

Cohesion through substitution is the second source of cohesion discussed in *Cohesion in English*. Table 1.7 shows the summary of substitution forms in English.

		Non-prominent (given)	Prominent (new)
Nominal	Thing (count noun)	one(s)	the SAME
	Process (nominalized)		do
	Attribute	so	be the SAME
	Fact		say
Verbal	Process (+ ...)	do	DO so
Clausal ( $\beta$ ): report, condition, modality	positive	so	SO
	negative	not	NOT

Table 1.7 Substitution forms (Halliday and Hasan  
1976:141)

Halliday and Hasan (1976:88) define substitution “as the replacement of one item by another...the distinction between substitution and reference is that substitution is a relation in the wording rather than in the meaning.” It can be seen in Table 1.7 that there are three types of substitution: nominal, verbal, and clausal. The first type is nominal substitution in which the substitute one or ones always functions as head of a nominal group. In example (1)<sup>2</sup>, the word ‘ones’ is a substitute for the word ‘biscuits’.

(1) Page 92 [3:7] a

*These biscuits are stale. - Get some fresh ones.*

The second type is verbal substitution. Halliday and Hasan (1976:112) state that “The verbal substitute in English is ‘do’.” Example (2) shows the verbal substitution.

In example (2), the verb ‘do’ is a substitute for the previous verb ‘come’.

(2) Page 112 [3:56] a

*...the words did not come the same as they used to do.*

The third type is clausal substitution “in which what is presupposed is not an element within the clause but an entire clause. The words used as substitutes are *so* and *not*” (1976:130). Example (3) consists of a dialogue where the word ‘so’ substitutes for the clause ‘There is going to be an earthquake’.

(3) Page 130 [3:96]

*Is there going to be an earthquake? —It says so.*

In the same way, the word ‘not’ in example (4) is a substitute for the clause ‘No one has gone home’.

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<sup>2</sup> All examples and explanation of the sources of cohesion in this section are from Halliday and Hasan’s *Cohesion in English* (1976).



(4) Page 133 [3:100]

*Has everyone gone home? —I hope not.*

Cohesion through ellipsis is the third source of cohesion discussed in *Cohesion in English*. Ellipsis can be interpreted as a form of substitution in which the item is replaced by zero. Halliday and Hasan (1976:144) say, “ellipsis occurs when something that is structurally necessary is left unsaid; there is a sense of incompleteness associated with it.” Three types of ellipsis occur in English, namely, nominal ellipsis, verbal ellipsis, and clausal ellipsis.

Nominal ellipsis is ellipsis within the nominal group. In example (5), the context tells that the complete answer can be ‘—No thanks, that was my third chocolate’. However, the word ‘chocolate’ in the answer is omitted.

(5) Page 161 [4:36]

*Have another chocolate. —No thanks, that was my third.*

Verbal ellipsis is ellipsis within the verbal group. In example (6), the verb ‘come’ in the answer ‘He should, ...’ is omitted.

(6) Page 170 [4:58]

*Is John going to come? —He should, if he wants his name to be considered.*

A clause in a dialogue or monologue can be deleted if the dialogue or monologue itself is still communicative without the clause. According to Halliday and Hasan, a clause in English has two elements: the modal element and the propositional element. For instance, in the clause ‘In the park The Duke was going to plant a row of poplars (1976:197)’, ‘The Duke was’ is the modal element and ‘going to plant a row of poplars’ is the propositional element. Clausal ellipsis includes the ellipsis of both elements.

Example (7) shows the ellipsis of the modal element. In this example, the modal element 'the Duke was' is omitted in the answer.

(7) Page 197 [4:97]

*What was the Duke going to do? —Plant a row of poplars in the park.*

Example (8) shows the ellipsis of the propositional element. Here, the propositional element 'going to plant a row of poplars' is omitted in the answer.

(8) Page 198 [4:98]

*Who was going to plant a row of poplars in the park? —The Duke was.*

Cohesion through conjunction is the fourth source of cohesion discussed in *Cohesion in English*. Halliday and Hasan (1976:226) state,

Conjunction is rather different in nature from the other cohesive relations, from both reference, on the one hand, and substitution and ellipsis on the other. It is not simply an anaphoric relation...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.

They describe four types of conjunction: additive, adversative, causal, and temporal. Additive conjunction involves the non-temporal "and" notion as shown in example (9).

(9) Page 246 [5:20]

*I couldn't send all the horses, you know, because two of them are wanted in the game. And I haven't sent the two Messengers either.*

Adversative conjunction is a relation used as contrary to expectation. In example (10), the word 'yet' is used to add another sentence which is contrary to what its previous sentence implied.

(10) Page 252 [5:35]

*The total came out wrong. Yet all the figures were correct, they'd been checked.*

Causal conjunction refers to a cause-effect relation. The word 'for' in the following example is a causal conjunction.

(11) Page 258 [5:47] a

*The next morning she was glad and proud that she had not yielded to a scare. For he was most strangely and obviously better.*

Temporal conjunction is "the relation between the theses of two successive sentences" (Halliday and Hasan 1976:261). Temporal conjunctions in English include the words 'then', 'next', 'at the same time', 'by this time', 'finally', etc. In example (12), the word 'then' is a temporal conjunction through which all the sentences in this example are connected to give more information about what Alice did after taking the key and unlocked the door to the garden.

(12) Page 261 [5:53]

*Alice began by taking the little golden key, and unlocking the door that led into the garden. Then she set to work nibbling at the mushroom...*

The last source of cohesion discussed in *Cohesion in English* is cohesion through lexical items achieved by the selection of vocabulary. There are two types of lexical cohesion: reiteration and collocation.

Reiteration is a form of lexical cohesion which involves the repetition of a lexical item, at one end of the scale; the use of a general word to refer back to a lexical item, at the other end of the scale; and a number of things in between-the use of a synonym, near-synonym, or superordinate (Halliday and Hasan 1976:278).

The repetition of a lexical item, the first form of reiteration, can be seen in example (13). In this example, the bolded word is repeated two times.

(13) Page 278 [6:5] a

*There was a large mushroom growing near her, about the same height as herself... She stretched herself up on tiptoe, and peeped over the edge of the mushroom.*

The second form of reiteration is the use of a general word which refers back to a lexical item. In example (14), the word 'car' is a general word to refer to Jaguar, a kind of car.

(14) (14) Page 278 [6:5] d

*Henry's bought himself a new Jaguar. He practically lives in the car.*

The use of synonym is the third form of reiteration. In example (15), The words 'ascent' and 'climb' are synonyms.

(15) (15) Page 278 [6:5] b

*Accordingly...I took leave, and turned to the ascent of the peak. The climb is perfectly easy...*

Collocation is achieved through the association of lexical items that regularly co-occur. Halliday and Hasan (1976:285) state,

We can therefore extend the basis of the lexical relationship that features as a cohesive force and say that there is cohesion between any pair of lexical items that stand to each other in some recognizable lexicosemantic (word meaning) relation. This would include not only synonyms and near-synonyms such as *climb...ascent, beam...rafter, disease...illness*, and superordinates such as *elm...tree, boy...child, skip...play*, but also pairs of opposites of various kinds, complementaries such as *boy...girl, stand up...sit down*, antonyms such as *like...hate, wet...dry, crowded...deserted*, and converses such as *order...obey*. There is always the possibility of cohesion between any pair of lexical items which are in some way associated with each other in the language. So we will find a very marked cohesive effect deriving from the occurrence in proximity with each other of pairs such as the following, whose meaning relation is not easy to classify in systematic semantic terms: *laugh...joke, blade...sharp, garden...dig*,

*ill...doctor, try...succeed, bee...honey, door...window, king...crown,  
boat...row.*

Halliday and Hasan (1976:286) also say that cohesion built up by collocational cohesion “is not limited to a pair of words. It is very common for long cohesive chains to be built up out of lexical relations of this kind, with word patterns like *candle...flame...flicker, sky...sunshine...cloud...rain.*”

Among the five sources of cohesion in English, it can be seen that some of these sources of cohesion sometimes overlapped. This means that one source of cohesion also can be explained as another source of cohesion. For example, when a general noun is replaced by a specific noun, cohesion is created through substitution. This source of cohesion also can be explained as cohesion through collocation because the items substituted for each other are always in a collocational chain in the same semantic domain.

#### ***1.5.2.2 Sources of cohesion in Sgaw Karen found by Katsura***

Katsura (1993) discusses the sources of cohesion in narratives of Sgaw Karen, another language which is also in the Karenic language family. Katsura has applied a few theories of different linguists’ into his study of discourse cohesion in Sgaw Karen. In the following paragraph, Katsura’s findings which were based on Halliday and Hasan’s *Cohesion in English* (1976) will be summarized.

Discourse cohesion in Sgaw Karen narratives can be created through substitution, ellipsis, conjunctions, and lexical items. There are three types of substitution, namely, nominal substitution, verbal substitution, and clausal substitution. There is only one type of ellipsis in Sgaw Karen narratives, that is, nominal ellipsis. Conjunctions can be subcategorized into additive conjunction, adversative conjunction, causal conjunction, and temporal conjunction. Lexical items build up cohesion by reiteration. Regarding the forms of reiteration in Sgaw Karen, Katsura (1993:99)

states, “According to the Sgaw Karen data, the most common form of reiteration is repetition while synonym, near synonym or superordinate were only occasionally observed.”

## 1.6 Methodology

The scope of this thesis is to identify which of the five sources of cohesion in English, discussed by Halliday and Hasan (1976), can be found in the three W-CT Pwo Karen folktales.

Investigations began with the preparation of the folktales by charting the three West-Central Pwo Karen folktales, “Mueng Nong Nwe,” “Tiger Skin,” and Taokhe following Longacre and Levinsohn’s (1978) charting method. This charting method sets out the data in a linear manner so that the patterns that exist can be identified and described. The most complete sentence in the W-CT Pwo Karen data consists of a sentence introducer, pre-posed dependent clause, independent clause, and a post-posed dependent clause. Both pre-posed and post-posed dependent clauses may include a subject, predicate, object, and clause-final particle. Independent clauses include subject, predicate, object, oblique, and clause-final particles.

Once the charting was complete, the next step was to identify the different sources of cohesion in the three W-CT Pwo Karen folktales. Finally, the results were described and summary statements were made about cohesion in W-CT Pwo Karen.

The theories about all the sources of cohesion applied in the analysis in this thesis are all from Halliday and Hasan’s *Cohesion in English* (1976). Such application, more or less, will cause some limitations. After all, English and W-CT Pwo Karen are quite different languages.

## **1.7 Overview of thesis**

Chapter 2 will describe cohesion sources found in the story of Mueng Nong Nwe. Chapter 3 will describe cohesion devices in the story of Tiger Skin. Chapter 4 looks at the story of Taokhe and its sources of cohesion. The fifth chapter will compare all of the sources of cohesion found in Pwo Karen folktales and Sgaw Karen narratives. This chapter also will summarize the findings and give suggestions for further study.

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