

**COHESION IN ECONOMIC ARTICLES
FROM THE THAI NEWSPAPER 'PHUJATKAN'**



**A THESIS SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT
OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR
THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF ARTS (LINGUISTICS)
FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES
MAHIDOL UNIVERSITY
2003**

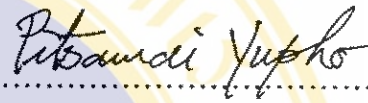
**ISBN 974-04-3491-6
COPYRIGHT OF MAHIDOL UNIVERSITY**

Thesis
Entitled

**COHESION IN ECONOMIC ARTICLES
FROM THE THAI NEWSPAPER 'PHUJATKAN'**



Miss. Supadtra Kohkaew
Candidate



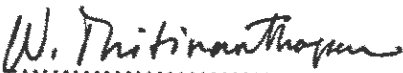
Assoc. Prof. Pitsamai Yupho,
Ph. D. (Linguistics)
Major-Advisor



Asst. Prof. Sukhumavadee Khamhiran,
M.A. (Applied Linguistics)
Co-Advisor



Assoc. Prof. Ruengdej Pankhuenkhat,
Ph.D. (Linguistics)
Co-Advisor



Assoc. Prof. Waraporn Thitinanthapan
D.D.S, Grad. Dip. Clin. Sc. (Endodontics)
M.Sc. (Clinical Science), Board in Endodontics
Acting Dean
Faculty of Graduate Studies



Assoc. Prof. Amon Thavisak,
Ph.D. (Linguistics)
Chair
Master of Arts Programme in Linguistics
Institute of Language and Culture for
Rural Development

Thesis
Entitled

**COHESION IN ECONOMIC ARTICLES
FROM THE THAI NEWSPAPER 'PHUJATKAN'**

was submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies, Mahidol University
For the degree of Master of Arts (Linguistics)

on
23 May, 2003



Miss. Supadtra Kohkaew
Candidate



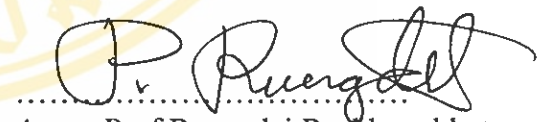
Assoc. Prof. Pitsamai Yupho,
Ph. D. (Linguistics)
Chair



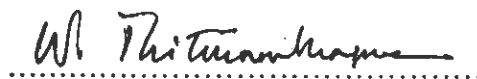
Asst. Prof. Sukhumavadee Khamhiran,
M.A. (Applied Linguistics)
Member



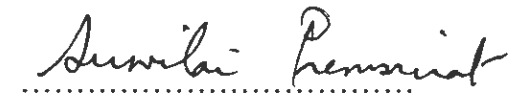
Asst. Prof. Porntipa Thongsawang,
M.A. (Applied Linguistics)
Member



Assoc. Prof. Ruengdej Pankhuenkhat,
Ph.D. (Linguistics)
Member



Assoc. Prof. Waroporn Thitinanthapan
D.D.S, Grad. Dip. Clin. Sc. (Endodontics)
M.Sc. (Clinical Science), Board in Endodontics
Acting Dean
Faculty of Graduate Studies
Mahidol University



Assoc. Prof. Suwilai Premsrirat,
Ph. D. (Linguistics)
Director
Institute of Language and Culture
for Rural Development
Mahidol University

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

The success of this thesis is attributed to the extensive support and assistance from my major advisor, Assoc. Prof. Dr. Pitsamai Yupho. My special thanks also go to my co-advisors, Asst. Prof. Sukhumavadee Khamhiran and Assoc. Prof. Dr. Ruengdej Pankhuenkhat.

I wish to thank Asst. Prof. Porntipa Thongsawang, the external examiner of the thesis defense, of the Faculty of Liberal Arts, Thammasat University, for her kindness in reading this dissertation and providing suggestions for improvement.

I am grateful to all the lecturers and staff of the Institute of Language and Culture for Rural Development, Mahidol University, for their kind support.

Finally, I am grateful to my family and Mr. Chusak Triphuwanaart for their financial support, entire care, and love. The usefulness of this thesis, I dedicate to my father, my mother and all the teachers who have taught me since my childhood.

Supadra Kohkaew

COHESION IN ECONOMIC ARTICLES FROM THE THAI NEWSPAPER
'PHUJATKAN'

SUPADTRA KOHKAEW 4137629 LCLG/M

M.A. (LINGUISTICS)

THESIS ADVISORS: PITSAMAI YUPHO, Ph. D.(LINGUISTICS),
SUKHUMAVADEE KHAMHIRAN, M.A.(APPLIED LINGUISTICS), RUENGDEJ
PANKHUENKHAT, Ph.D.(LINGUISTICS)

ABSTRACT

This study is intended to explore the cohesive devices in Thai language based on economic articles taken from the column "Setthasart-Noktamra" of Phujatkan newspaper, starting from edition January 2000 to December 2000.

The findings of the study can be summed up as follows: there are six cohesive devices found: reference, substitution, ellipsis, repetition, lexical cohesion and conjunction.

As for reference, substitution and ellipsis, each of them is studied in two aspects: types of presupposing items, and ways in which presupposing items can function within a discourse.

Repetition is classified into two types: complete and partial.

Lexical cohesion is divided into five types: synonyms, antonyms, superordinates, general words and collocation.

Conjunction is studied in two aspects: types of conjunctive relations, of which there are twenty-one, and positions of conjunctions, of which there are five.

KEY WORDS: COHESION / ECONOMIC ARTICLES / PRESUPPOSITION /
PRESUPPOSING ITEMS / PRESUPPOSED ITEMS

233 P. ISBN 974-04-3491-6

การเชื่อมโยงความในบทความทางเศรษฐกิจจาก‘หนังสือพิมพ์ผู้จัดการ’ (COHESION IN ECONOMIC ARTICLES FROM THE THAI NEWSPAPER ‘PHUJATKAN’)

สุพัตรา เกาะแก้ว 4137629 LCLG/M

ศศ.ม. (ภาษาศาสตร์)

คณะกรรมการควบคุมวิทยานิพนธ์: พิศมัย อยู่โพธิ์, Ph.D. (Linguistics), สุขุมาวดี จำหิรัญ, M.A. (Applied Linguistics), เรืองเดช ปิ่นเจื่อนชาติย์, Ph.D. (Linguistics)

บทคัดย่อ

งานวิจัยนี้ มุ่งศึกษากลไกทางภาษาที่ใช้เชื่อมโยงความในบทความทางเศรษฐกิจ จากคอลัมน์ “เศรษฐศาสตร์นอกตำรา” ของหนังสือพิมพ์ผู้จัดการ ที่ตีพิมพ์ระหว่างมกราคม ถึง ธันวาคม พ.ศ. 2543

ผลการศึกษาสรุปได้ว่า กลไกทางภาษาที่ใช้เชื่อมโยงความในบทความดังกล่าว มี 6 ลักษณะ คือ การอ้างถึง การแทนที่ การละ การซ้ำ การเชื่อมโยงคำศัพท์ และการเชื่อมโยงความโดยการใช้คำเชื่อม

การอ้างถึง การแทนที่ และการละ สามารถศึกษาได้ใน 2 ลักษณะ คือ ชนิดของรูปภาษาที่ใช้อ้างถึง (Presupposing Item) และลักษณะความสัมพันธ์ระหว่างรูปภาษาที่ใช้อ้างถึง กับรูปภาษาที่ได้รับการอ้างถึง (Presupposed Item)

การซ้ำที่พบในงานวิจัยนี้ จำแนกเป็น 2 ประเภท ได้แก่ การซ้ำโดยสมบูรณ์ และการซ้ำบางส่วน

การเชื่อมโยงคำศัพท์ จำแนกเป็น 5 ประเภท คือ การใช้คำพ้องความหมาย การใช้คำแย้งความหมาย การใช้คำจ่ากลุ่ม (Superordinates) การใช้คำที่มีความหมายทั่วไป และการใช้คำที่มักปรากฏร่วมกัน

การเชื่อมโยงความโดยการใช้คำเชื่อม สามารถศึกษาได้ใน 2 ลักษณะ คือ ชนิดของความสัมพันธ์ของคำเชื่อม ซึ่งประกอบด้วย 21 ชนิด และตำแหน่งของคำเชื่อม โดยคำเชื่อมสามารถเกิดในตำแหน่งต่าง ๆ ได้ 5 ตำแหน่ง

233 หน้า . ISBN 974-04-3491-6

CONTENTS

| | Page |
|-------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------|
| ACKNOWLEDGEMENT | iii |
| ABSTRACT (English) | iv |
| ABSTRACT (Thai) | v |
| CHAPTER | |
| I INTRODUCTION | 1 |
| 1.1 Rationale | 1 |
| 1.2 Objectives | 5 |
| 1.3 Benefits of the Study | 5 |
| 1.4 Theoretical Framework | 6 |
| 1.5 Scope of the Study | 6 |
| 1.6 Definitions | 7 |
| 1.7 Abbreviations and Symbols | 8 |
| II LITERATURE REVIEW | 10 |
| 2.1 Documents on Cohesion in Foreign Languages | 10 |
| 2.2 Documents on Cohesion in Thai | 22 |
| III MATERIALS AND METHODS | 47 |
| 3.1 Pattern of the Study | 47 |
| 3.2 Materials Used in the Study | 61 |
| 3.3 Methods of Collecting Data | 61 |
| 3.4 Methods of Data Analyzing | 61 |
| IV REFERENCE | 63 |
| 4.1 Types of Reference | 66 |
| 4.2 Ways in which Reference Items Function within a Discourse | 108 |
| V SUBSTITUTION | 114 |
| 5.1 Types of Substitution | 114 |
| 5.2 Ways in Which Substitute Items Function within a Discourse | 124 |

CONTENTS (CONT.)

vii

| | |
|-------------------------------------------------------------------|------------|
| VI ELLIPSIS | 129 |
| 6.1 Types of Ellipsis | 129 |
| 6.2 Ways in Which Elliptical Items Function within a Discourse | 148 |
| VII REPETITION | 152 |
| 7.1 Complete Repetition | 152 |
| 7.2 Partial Repetition | 160 |
| VIII LEXICAL COHESION | 168 |
| 8.1 Synonyms | 169 |
| 8.2 Antonyms | 171 |
| 8.3 Superordinates | 173 |
| 8.4 General Words | 175 |
| 8.5 Collocation | 176 |
| IX CONJUNCTION | 180 |
| 9.1 Types of Conjunctive Relations | 181 |
| 9.2 Positions of Conjunction | 211 |
| X CONCLUSION DISCUSSION AND COLLOCATION | 215 |
| 10.1 Reference | 215 |
| 10.2 Substitution | 217 |
| 10.3 Ellipsis | 217 |
| 10.4 Repetition | 218 |
| 10.5 Lexical Cohesion | 220 |
| 10.6 Conjunction | 221 |
| Discussion | 221 |
| Suggestion | 226 |
| BIBLIOGRAPHY | 227 |
| APPENDIX | 229 |
| BIOGRAPHY | 233 |

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Rationale

For centuries, from generation to generation, humans have communicated their news or information and conveyed their ideas and feelings to other people through their languages. In general, man rarely communicates in an isolated sentence but instead communicates in a ‘discourse’.

Crystal (1992:25) appears to use the term discourse as ‘a continuous stretch of language larger than a sentence, often constituting a coherent unit, such as a sermon, argument, joke or narrative.

While Nunan (1993:5) defines the term discourse as ‘a stretch of language consisting of several sentences which are perceived as being related in some way’.

According to Crystal and Nunan, discourse is a sequence of sentences or utterances which seem to “hang together”. Anyway, in creating a coherent discourse as Crystal referred, we must have what are called discourse-forming devices or COHESION. These are words and phrases which help to tie the sentences in a discourse together. Examples of this issue are already shown below in (A, page 2), a coherent passage, and (B), a fragmented passage. Thus we will see that a coherent discourse is distinguished from random sentences by the existence of cohesive devices.

The most comprehensive description and analysis of these devices is to be found in Halliday and Hasan (1976). They commented on cohesion:

‘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. When this happens, a relation of cohesion is set up, and the two elements, the presupposing and the presupposed, are thereby at least potentially integrated into a text’.

(Halliday and Hasan, 1976:4)

Cohesive relations, however, are not structural relations as we will see from the following examples:

A. ro:ŋp^hája:ba:n t^hê:pt^ha:rin c^hə:n p^hû: t^hî:
 sŏncaj k^hâw rûəm faŋ ka:nbanja:j rûeŋ ráksǎ: hŭəcaj
 pŏŋkan p^haj k^hǎjman sŭ:ŋ / p^hû: banja:j k^hu: na:j p^hê:t
 ʔè:kkasit wŏŋsìrikun ʔa:júráp^hê:t rŏ:k hŭəcaj láʔ
 lò:t lŭət láʔ ʔa:ca:n sǎnlája: k^hoŋsŏmbu:nwé:t
 t^hî:prŭksǎ: dâ:n p^hô:tc^hána:ka:n /naj wan sǎw t^hî: jî:sìp
 pè:t tŭla:k^hom ní: we:la: pè:t na:líka: t^hŭŋ sipsŏ:ŋ
 na:líka: náʔ hŏŋ p^hrimró:t c^hán sìp / sǎmro:ŋ t^hî:nâŋ
 fri: t^hî: mǎ:jlê:k t^ho:rásàp sŏ:ŋ sì: sŭ:n sŏ:ŋ cèt sŏ:ŋ
 cèt / tò: sŏ:ŋ kâ:w hâ: sì: láʔ sŏ:ŋ kâ:w hâ: hòk

Theptharin Hospital invites people who are concerned about heart disease, to attend a lecture on “Take care of your heart and prevent the risk of high cholesterol” by Doctor Ekkasit Wongsirikul, heart disease and blood vessel physician, and Sanlaya Khongsomboonwet, counsellor in nutrition. The programme will be held on Saturday 28th October 2000 from 8.30-12.00 A.M. at Primrose Room, the 10th floor. Please reserve your place free by Tel. 240-2727 ext. 2954,2956.

B. nákka:nmɯəŋ ba:ŋ k^hon k^hâw t^hũ: hún naj
 sàhàkɔ:n naj caŋwàt sùrà:tt^ha:ni: / k^hwa:mc^hú:n pen
 pàtcaj t^hî: sǎmk^han ʔi:k pràka:n nùŋ / pràc^ha:c^hon mi:
 k^hwa:mc^hûəmân tò: náʔjo:ba:j t^ha:ŋ sè:tt^hàkìt k^hǒ:ŋ
 rátt^hàba:n tà: càʔ jaŋ k^hoŋ mâj c^háj cà:j ŋən naj kràpǎw
 /de:lǐ: càʔ ʔò:k dò:k tàlò:t pi: do:j c^hàp^hóʔ naj dɯən
 mákára:k^hom lǎʔ kump^ha:p^han / rôm kàp mùək c^hûəj pòŋkan
 sǎ:ŋ lǎʔ raŋsǐ: k^hwa:mró:n / p^hû:wâ:râ:tc^háka:n caŋwàt
 p^hétc^hábùri: c^hí: t^hũŋ pràden panhǎ: /

Some politicians own the shares in the Co-operation of Suratthani Province. Humidity is also another important factor. The people have confidence in government economic policies but still keep their wallets shut. The peace lily's flowers bloom throughout the year, particularly in January and February. Umbrellas and hats help to block light and heat rays. The Governor of Phetchburi Province pointed out a problem issue.

All of the sentences in the above extract (A) come from the same source (Phujatkan, Monday 16 October 2000) and the same script whereas the sentences in (B) also come from the same source as (A) but from different scripts. Although each of the sentences in both (A) and (B) are grammatical, the sentences in (B) do not seem to relate to each other at all while the sentences in (A) do seem to relate to each other. And it is absolutely a text.

It is obvious that it is not only the knowledge of the grammar and vocabulary used in constructing the sentences which make a discourse but we also need cohesion to make sense a discourse and allow us to interpret the sentences in relation to one another. Thus the concept of cohesion accounts for the essential semantic relation not the structural relation. Cohesion will enable the writer to establish relationship across sentence or utterance boundaries and help to tie the sentences together in a discourse.

Cohesive devices can be pronouns, conjunctions, repetition and so on, which we will see from the following example.

(1)...rátthàba:n mi: k^hwa:mtâŋcaj cà? sàràpsàñũn
 ʔùtsǎ:hàkam ní: mâ:k nó:j p^hiəŋ daj

...How much financial support does the government intend to provide to this industry?

(2) pràt^hê:t daj kô:ta:m t^hî: rátthàba:n sàràpsàñũn
 naj dâ:n ŋənt^hun tem t^hî: jà:ŋ mâj ʔân lǎ:w

Any country where its government extremely supports money to the industry,

(3) jôm cà? dâ:jprìəp pràt^hê:t ʔù:n ʔù:n

that country will have an advantage over other countries.

(Phujatkan, 4 September 2000: pp. 9)

From the above example, rátthàba:n in (2) is a repetition referring back to rátthàba:n in (1).

Why Cohesion in Economic Articles?

The reason why the researcher has chosen to study cohesion found in economic articles is that there have been very few dissertations done. As far as the researcher has found, there are only two dissertations concerning cohesion in Thai journal articles.

The first one belongs to Prapaporn Maneerote (1986). Her study focuses on **nominal substitution** used to express cohesion chosen from ten articles in Thai journal “Warasan Silpa-watthanatham”. The other is Chanawangsa’s (1986) work, in which she studies cohesion as found in an article, the only one among other types of sources used in her dissertation.

Another reason, the researcher chose to carry out this study about cohesion in economic articles because Thailand has crucially been facing an economic crisis. The majority of Thai people are interested to know about economic news. And Phujatkan is one of the best among Thai economic newspapers.* In addition, the researcher is working at the Office of the National Economic and Social Development Board (NESDB), which is directly responsible for the economics of Thailand, so the researcher already has a good understanding concerning the subject of economics.

1.2 Objectives

This study is intended to explore the cohesive devices in Thai language based on economic articles taken from the Phujatkan newspaper.

1.3 Benefits of the Study

It is hoped that this study will benefit students and readers who are interested in discourse analysis for the following reasons.

1. The study provides knowledge about different types of cohesive devices as used in economic articles.
2. It is hoped that the study will demonstrate the characteristics of syntactic unit beyond sentences, a discourse.
3. This study can be a source of knowledge for the interested lay readers and Thai teachers who teach discourse.
4. Interested readers can make use of the knowledge found in this study to apply in writing different types of discourse such as in editorial columns, in writing articles, books, etc.

* Phujatkan was the best selling economic newspaper of Thailand in 1999 : the Institute of Research, the National Office of Statistics.

1.4 Theoretical Framework

The works of Halliday and Hasan (1976) and de Beaugrande and Dressler (1981), contain a comprehensive description and analysis on the subject of cohesion. Their works will be adapted to be used in, which will be explained in greater detail in the literature review (page 10).

1.5 Scope of the Study

1. The data for the analysis used in this study have been taken from the columns “Setthasart – Noktamra”, an economic article of Phujatkan newspaper, which are published weekly on Monday, from editions starting from the month of January in the year 2000 to December 2000.

2. The articles chosen will be those which are completed in one issue, making a total of 28 pieces in this dissertation.

3. This study discusses only the cohesive devices which appear in the linguistic context, following the works of Halliday and Hasan (1976) and de Beaugrande and Dressler (1981) as a guideline.

4. In this dissertation, the researcher will translate word for word under phonetic alphabet line only in the case of ambiguity.

5. This dissertation will study cohesive devices which includes four relations as follows: semantic cohesion, grammatical cohesion, lexical cohesion and semantic connection.

As with these relations, this dissertation classifies cohesive devices into six types: reference (semantic cohesion), substitution (grammatical cohesion), ellipsis (grammatical cohesion), repetition (semantic cohesion and grammatical cohesion), lexical cohesion (semantic cohesion and lexical cohesion) and conjunction (semantic connection: a previous sentence is connected to one another in meaning).

6. A sentence consisting of two clauses in this study will be analyzed as two clauses, each clause taken as a sentence. For example:

ko:rǎʔni: k^hǒ:ŋ pràt^hê:t t^haj nán tà:ŋc^hâ:t càʔ
 sú: t^hî:din dâ:j kô:tò:mûe c^háj pen t^hî: tân ro:ŋɯa:n

For Thailand, a foreigner can buy a landed property only when that land is used to establish a factory.

(Phujatkan, 7 August 2000: pp. 9)

The researcher separates the above utterance into two sentences, namely

(1) ko:rǎʔni: k^hǒ:ŋ pràt^hê:t t^haj nán tà:ŋc^hâ:t càʔ
 sú: t^hî:din dâ:j

For Thailand, a foreigner can buy land

(2) kô:tò:mûe c^háj pen t^hî: tân ro:ŋɯa:n
 only when that land is used to establish a factory.

1.6 Definitions

1. “Discourse” means a stretch of language consisting of more than one sentence. Each sentence in the discourse may either appear in a complete form (having subject and predication) or not (only having predication). And significantly the sentences in the discourse must have semantic relations to each other, which make the discourse coherent.

2. “Cohesion” refers to the intersentential semantic relations in the discourse. It occurs where the interpretation of some element in the discourse is dependent on that of another. Cohesion will be found within linguistic context that is ‘realised’ through the lexicogrammatical system, i.e., grammar and vocabulary.

3. “Presupposition” means an element which refers to another one that comes before or follows. For example:

(1)...na:j sùc^hâ:t c^hawwíʔsìt rátt^hàmontri: c^hûəj
 wâ: ka:n kràsueŋ ka:nk^hlaŋ klà:w wâ: pràden t^hî: càʔ tōŋ
 p^híca:rána: k^hw: pràp^hê:t k^hô:ŋ wan_jùt ʔan dâ:jkà:
 wan c^hótc^hə:j wan sǎmk^han t^ha:ŋ sà:tsàʔnǎ: lǎʔ wan
 sǎ:kɔn

(2) k^huən t^hî: càʔ mi: ka:nprìəpt^hîəp wan_jùt kàp
 ràt^hê:t ʔù:n ʔù:n.

(3) na:j sùc^hâ:t k^hít wâ: wan_jùt ja:w k^hǒ:ŋ thaj
 mâjdâ:j tà:ktà:ŋ kàp pràt^hê:t ʔù:n mâ:k nák..

(Phujatkan, 23 February 2000: pp. 12)

Suchart Chaowisit, deputy finance minister, said the issue to be considered was the types of holidays-substitution, religious, and international holidays. The holidays would be compared with those from other countries. Mr. Suchart thought the length of holidays in Thailand did not differ much from other countries.

From the above example the presupposition emerges wholly by means of repetition. The word “wan_jùt” in (2)-(3), the presupposing, refers back to (presupposes) wan_jùt in (1), the presupposed, that has come before.

1.7 Abbreviations and Symbols

1. (1), (2), (3), ... These symbols appear before the example sentences, to show the sequence of the sentences in the discourse.
- 2... If this symbol appears before any utterance, it shows that any preceding utterance (for convenience) has been omitted. But if

this symbol appears behind any utterance, it shows that any following utterance has been omitted.

- | | |
|-------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 3. ∅ | It shows the ellipsis of some essential structural element, which is omitted from a sentence. |
| 4. <u>element</u> | Used to show an item which is presupposed by another. |
| 5. <u>element</u> | Used to show an item that presupposes another, which has come before or that follows. |
| 6. Cl. | classifier |
| 7: derog. | derogative |
| 8. fml. | formal |
| 9. idm. | idiom (s) |
| 10. infml. | informal |
| 11. p. | paragraph |
| 12. P.Mk. | prominence marker |

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Documents on Cohesion in Foreign Languages

The most comprehensive and renowned works on cohesion are “**Cohesion in English**” by Halliday and Hasan (1976) and “COHESION” in **Introduction to Text Linguistics** of de Beaugrande and Dressler (1981).

2.1.1 Halliday and Hasan (1976)

Halliday and Hasan regard cohesion as a device which makes a connected sequence of sentences a unified whole, discourse. This cohesive device will occur where the interpretation of any item in the discourse requires making reference to some other item in the discourse. Cohesion is divided by Halliday and Hasan into five different types: reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction and lexical cohesion.

2.1.1.1 Reference

Halliday and Hasan define reference as
‘the relation between an element of the text and something else by reference to which it is interpreted in the given instance.’

(Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 308)

It means that there is a semantic link between the reference item and that of another which it presupposes. In other words, the interpretation of reference item depends, in some way, on that of the presupposed.

Halliday and Hasan (1976) identify three sub-types of referential cohesion--personal, demonstrative and comparative.

2.1.1.1.1 Personal Reference

Personal reference items are expressed through pronouns such as “he”, “she”, “them”, and others. They serve to identify individuals and objects that are named at some other point in the text. For example in

John has moved to a new house.

He had it built last year.

Here “He” refers to the word “John” and it refers to the phrase a new house.

2.1.1.1.2 Demonstrative Reference

Demonstrative reference is a device which the speaker employs to identify the referent by locating it on a scale of proximity. Typically, demonstrative reference is expressed through determiners and adverbs such as this, those, here, now, etc., for example:

How did you like the recitations?

I find those boring.

Here those refers to the recitations.

2.1.1.1.3 Comparative Reference

Comparative reference is expressed through adjectives and adverbs and serves to compare items within a text in terms of identity or similarity. The comparison of items range from the identity group (same, equal, identical, identically), to the similarity group (such, similar, so, similarly, likewise), to the group of difference (other, different, else, differently, otherwise), and to the

numerative (more, fewer, less, so many), to the epithet (better, equally good). For example:

There were two wrens upon a tree.

Another came, and there were three.

Another presupposes wrens.

2.1.1.2 Substitution

In their work (1976), Halliday and Hasan define “substitution” as “the replacement of one item by another.” They distinguish reference from substitution as “Substitution is a relation between linguistic item, such as word or phrase; whereas reference is a relation between meanings. In terms of the linguistic system, reference is a relation on the semantic level, whereas substitution is a relation on the lexicogrammatical level, ie, the level of grammar and vocabulary or linguistic ‘form’.”

Presumably, substitution has the presupposing and the presupposed being in the same part of speech. Halliday and Hasan identify three subtypes of substitution-- nominal, verbal and clausal.

2.1.1.2.1 Nominal Substitution

Nominal substitution is the replacement of any Head of a nominal group by one/ones. For example:

I shoot the hippopotamus

With bullets made of platinum

Because if I use leaden ones

His hide is sure to flatten'em.

Here bullets is Head of the nominal group *bullets made of platinum*, and ones, Head of the nominal group *leaden ones*, substitutes for bullets.

2.1.1.2.2 Verbal Substitution

Verbal substitution has the substitute “do” presupposing some verb that is to function as Head in the verbal group. For example,

Does Granny look after you everyday? – She can’t do at weekends, because she has to go to her own house.

do substitutes for look after you that comes before.

2.1.1.2.3 Clausal Substitution

Halliday and Hasan define clausal substitution as a type of 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”. For example,

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

Here the so presupposes the whole of the clause: there’s going to be an earthquake.

2.1.1.3 Ellipsis

Ellipsis is described by Halliday and Hasan as a kind of substitution in which the original item is replaced by zero.

Like substitution, there are three types of ellipsis -- nominal, verbal and clausal.

2.1.1.3.1 Nominal Ellipsis

Which hat will you wear? – This is the best of the three \emptyset .

Here \emptyset presupposes hat which functions as Head noun in the first sentence.

2.1.1.3.2 Verbal Ellipsis

Have you been swimming? – Yes, I have \emptyset .

\emptyset stands for the elliptical verbal group, been swimming, as which has gone before in the first sentence.

2.1.1.3.3 Clausal Ellipsis

Clausal ellipsis occurs when one of two essential structural elements of the sentence, Modal element and Propositional element, is omitted from a sentence. For example:

The Duke was | going to plant a row of poplars in the park.

(Modal element) (Propositional element)

a. What was the Duke going to do?

\emptyset Plant a row of poplars in the park.

Modal element the Duke was going to do is omitted from the second sentence and replaced by nothing (\emptyset).

b. Who was going to plant a row of poplars in the park?

The Duke was \emptyset .

Proposition element going to plant a row of poplars in the park disappears in the second sentence and has been replaced by ∅.

2.1.1.4 Conjunction

Conjunction is a semantic relation between two parts of the text to which what has followed is systematically connected to that has gone before. These parts of the text may be clauses, sentences or even paragraphs. There are four different types of conjunction: additive, adversative, causal, and temporal. An example comprising each type follows.

For the whole day he climbed up the steep mountainside, almost without stopping.

- a. **And** in all this time he met no one. (additive)
- b. **Yet** he was hardly aware of being tired. (adversative)
- c. **So** by night time the valley was far below him. (causal)
- d. **Then**, as dusk fell, he sat down to rest. (temporal)

2.1.1.5 Lexical Cohesion

Lexical cohesion occurs when two words in a text are semantically related in some way – in other words, they are related in terms of their meaning. Halliday and Hasan regard lexical cohesion as the cohesive effect achieved by the selection of vocabulary. The two major categories of lexical cohesion are reiteration and collocation.

2.1.1.5.1 Reiteration

Halliday and Hasan (1976) define reiteration as ‘the repetition of a lexical item, or the occurrence of a synonym of some kind, in the context of reference; that is, where the two occurrences have the same referent.’ Reiteration thus fulfils a similar semantic function to cohesive reference. Reiteration includes repetition,

synonym or near synonym, superordinate, and general word. An example of each type follows.

a. There was a large mushroom growing near her, about the same height as herself; and, when she had looked under it, it occurred to her that she might as well look and see what was on the top of it.

She stretched herself up on tiptoe, and peeped over the edge of the mushroom...

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

c. Then quickly rose Sir Bedivere, and ran,
And leaping down the ridges lightly, plung'd among the bulrush beds, and clutch'd the sword and lightly wheel'd and threw it. The great brand

Made light' nings in the splendour of the moon...

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

e. Can you tell me where to stay in Geneva ? I've never been to the place.

In (a), there is **repetition**: mushroom refers back to mushroom. In (b) climb refers back to ascent, of which it is a **synonym**. In (c) brand refers back to sword, of which it is a **near synonym**. In (d) car refers back to Jaguar; and car is a **superordinate of Jaguar**. In (e) Place refers back to Geneva, and place is a more **general word** than Geneva.

2.1.1.5.2 Collocation

Collocation is the tendency or expectancy in which one word occurs frequently in the environment of another, or both two words occurring in a range of environments common to both.

In Halliday and Hasan (1976) they define collocation as ‘cohesion that is achieved through the association of lexical items that regularly co-occur’. Collocation may be expressed through a pair of opposite words such as boy ...girl, pairs of words drawn from the same ordered series such as Tuesday...Thursday, dollar...cent, or any pairs drawn from unordered lexical sets, like basement...roof.

In addition, collocation is not limited to a pair of words. It is very common for long cohesive chains to be built up like candle...flame...flicker, poetry...literature....reader...writer...style.

2.1.2 de Beaugrande and Dressler (1981)

de Beaugrande and Dressler suggest in their work (1981) that the text which consists of a sequence of connected sentences must have a continuity of contents and syntax which allow that text to be coherent. This “sticking together” of elements gives the grammar its coherence (meaning). And this as a whole is called “cohesion.” Thus text is only realised through its cohesion.

de Beaugrande and Dressler said that ‘The notion of CONTINUITY as employed here is based on the supposition that the various occurrences in the text and its situation of utilization are related to each other, or in cognitive terms: each occurrence is instrumental in ACCESSING at least some other occurrences’.

de Beaugrande and Dressler identify seven types of cohesion: **recurrence, partial recurrence, parallelism, paraphrase, pro-form, ellipsis, and junction.**

2.1.2.1 Recurrence

Recurrence is the straightforward repetition of elements or patterns. For example:

There's water through many homes. I would say almost all of them have water in them. It's just completely under water.

2.1.2.2 Partial Recurrence

Partial recurrence entails using the same basic word-components but shifting them to a different word class. For example,

mankind are more disposed to suffer, while evils are sufferable

...Such has been the patient sufferance of these Colonies

Both sufferable, functions as adjective, and sufferance, functions as noun, refer back to suffer, the basic word component, which functions as verb.

2.1.2.3 Parallelism

Parallelism is constituted by repeating a structure but filling it with new elements. For example:

He has plundered our seas, ravaged our coasts, burnt our towns.

Here, a series of similar, though not identical actions, are expressed in parallel clauses: verb 3+possessive pronoun+direct object.

2.1.2.4 Paraphrase

Paraphrase is the recurrence of content with a change of expression. For example:

I had never seen a murderer...the decent symbol which indemnifies the taker of a life.

This example shows the paraphrase of a single concept (murderer).

2.1.2.5 Pro-forms

Replacing content-carrying elements with short place-holders of no independent content, constitutes the use of pro-forms. The three major categories of pro-form are pronouns, pro-verb and pro-complement.

2.1.2.5.1 Pronouns

Pronouns are used to function in the place of the nouns or noun phrases with which they **co-refer**. For example:

There was an old woman who lived in a shoe.
She had so many children, she didn't know what to do.

Here, the pronoun she makes it's unnecessary to keep saying 'the old woman who lived in a shoe', 'the old woman', or even 'the woman'.

2.1.2.5.2 Pro-verb

The verb 'do' is frequently employed as a pro-verb to keep current, the content of a more determinate verb or verb phrase. For example,

Miss Hardcastle: I understand you perfectly, sir.
 Marlow: Egad! and that's more than I do myself.

The pro-verb do stands for 'understanding Marlow perfectly'.

2.1.2.5.3 Pro-complement

Pro-complement is the process which uses 'so' and

‘such’ in replacing the complement that has gone before or with which they co-refer. For example:

To this day I am ashamed that I did not spring up and pinion him, then and there. Has I possessed one ounce of physical courage, I should have done so.

The pro-complement so stands for ‘spring up and pinion him, then and there’.

2.1.2.6 Ellipsis

Ellipsis is constituted by repeating a structure and its content but omitting some of the surface expressions. For example:

The daughter is said to be well-bred and beautiful; the son ∅ an awkward booby, reared up and spoiled at his mother’ s apron strings.

∅ stands for is said to be.

2.1.2.7 Junction

Junction is a device for signalling the relationships among events or situations. There are four major types of junction: conjunction, disjunction, contrajunction, and subordination.

2.1.2.7.1 Conjunction

Conjunction links things which have the same status, e.g. both true in the textual world.

Conjunction is an additive relation, for instance, when connecting two interdependent events or situations mentioned within a sentence or across the boundaries of the sentence. For example in

Sadat called this a means of protecting the “human rights” of the Gaza Palestinians. **And** to ensure that Gaza attains autonomy, Sadat wanted a firm commitment.

2.1.2.7.2 Disjunction

Disjunction links things which have alternative status, e.g. two things of which only one can be true in the textual world, as in:

A man must not be too precipitate, **or** he runs over it [his hat]; he must not rush to the opposite extreme, **or** he loses it altogether.

2.1.2.7.3 Contrajunction

Contrajunction links things having the same status but appearing incongruous or incompatible in the textual world, as in:

Discouraged aides talked openly of the trip becoming a debacle. **But** at the last minute Carter achieved a victory of presidential diplomacy.

2.1.2.7.4 Subordination

Subordination links things when the status of one depends on that of the other, e.g. things true under certain conditions or for certain motives (precondition/event, cause/effect, etc.). For Example:

It would befoul Long Beach Harbour with oil spills and seriously worsen the local smog problem, **because** merely unloading the oil would release hydrocarbon fumes into the atmosphere.

2.2 Documents on Cohesion in Thai

2.2.1 Vichin Panupong (1970)

In her work “Inter-Sentence Relations in Modern Conversational Thai” (1970), Panupong studies about the interrelationships between the sentences in a sequence of spoken Thai in Bangkok.

She characterizes sentences as being “anaphoric” or “cataphoric”, depending upon their respective roles in the contexts of mention or of interrogation.

She states that “A sentence which has “related context” with a previous sentence in that at least one of its linguistic forms* is referable to what is given in the context of mention, is called an “anaphoric sentence”. The previous sentence itself, namely that containing the form which is referable to what is new in the context of mention, is called the “cataphoric sentence”.

The followings are examples of anaphoric and cataphoric sentences.

A. wan ní: burùt prajsà?ni: ma:

(To-day the postman came.)

B. k^hǎw ?aw k^hǒ:ŋ ma: sòŋ sǒ:ŋ hò:

(He’s brought two parcels.)

C. hò: nuŋ nàk tǎ: ?ì:k hò: nuŋ baw

(One of them is heavy but the other one’s light)

Sentence (A) above is the example of the cataphoric sentence.

* The term “linguistic form” as used in Panupong’s thesis may refer to units of greater extent than words.

Sentence (B) is the anaphoric sentence as regards “k^hǎw” which refers back to “burùt prajsàʔni:” in the preceding cataphoric sentence (A), and as cataphoric as regards “k^hǒ:ŋ” to which “hò:” in the subsequent sentence (C) refers.

Sentence (c) is the example of the anaphoric sentence.

Panupong identifies four major types of devices, which are used to express the interrelationship between sentences: absence, pronominal reference, pronominal concord and repetition.

2.2.1.1 Absence

Absence is the process which express the inter-sentence relations by omitting some essential structural element of the sentence.

(1) jà: lu:m k^hàt c^hó:n dūəj ná.

(Don't forget to polish the spoons too.)

(2) k^hàt ∅ lǎ:w

(I've already done them.)

∅ shows the absence of direct object “c^hó:n”

2.2.1.2 Pronominal Reference

Pronominal reference shows the relations between sentences by replacing a noun in one sentence, to a pronoun in the following sentence.

(1) c^hán c^hô:p kâwʔî: tuə ní: caŋ

(I like this chair very much.)

(2) man nûm di:

(It's nice and soft.)

2.2.1.3 Pronominal Concord

Pronominal concord is a process where the presence of a pronoun in the preceding sentence, presupposes the presence of the particular pronoun in the succeeding sentence of the sequence. Such as, if the preceding sentence has the first person pronoun (e.g. $c^h\check{a}n$, $r\text{aw}$) functioning as Subject, the succeeding sentence is expected to use the second person pronoun (e.g. $t^h\text{ə}:$, k^hun) functioning as Subject too. For example,

(1) $c^h\check{a}n$ $c\grave{a}?$ paj $h\text{ô}\eta$ $s\grave{a}m\grave{u}t$

(I will go to the library.)

(2) $t^h\text{ə}:$ $c\grave{a}?$ paj $n\check{a}j$

(And where are you going?)

Here $c^h\check{a}n$ in the first sentence determines the second pronoun to be expected in the latter.

2.2.1.4 Repetition

Repetition occurs where the presence of a particular item in one sentence presupposes the repetition of the identical lexical item in another. This relationship of the individual lexical items will be referred to as verbal, auxiliary, prepositional or time-word repetition. For example.

(1) $j\grave{a}:k$ $d\grave{u}:m$ $?ara$ j $m\check{a}j$

(Would you like something to drink?)

(2) $j\grave{a}:k$

(Yes, please.)

Here “ $j\grave{a}:k$ ” shows the repetition of auxiliary.

2.2.2 Navavan Bandhmedha (1982)

In her work, Navavan Bandhmedha explains that in fact man can hardly convey his ideas to other people in isolated sentence. But he instead conveys through a sequence of related sentences. Some of these sentences may consist of two clauses which relate to each other by joining, and this sentence is called compound sentence. While other sentence may consist of two clauses which one expands on the other, and this is typical of complex sentence. However, the sentences (in the same discourse) have some relation to each other by way of reference to the same/related things or circumstances.

She states five types of language devices, which are used to tie relations between sentences in discourse: deletion, repetition, substitution, collocation, and conjunction.

2.2.2.1 Deletion

One sentence which has the meaning agreeing with the other, may omit a noun or verb that readers can interpret by having recourse to the linguistic context. For example:

(1) พี่จะไม่ให้ยายหน้อยยืมปากกาอีกแล้ว

I won't lend my pen to Noi anymore.

(2) แกทำ ๑ หายเก่ง :

She always loses it.

Here ๑ in (2) shows that ปากกา 'pen' in (1) has been left out.

2.2.2.2 Repetition

The following sentence relates to the preceding by

repeating a noun or verb.

(1) เราควรให้ความสำคัญแก่เด็ก

We should give importance to children.

(2) เด็กนี้แหละกำหนดอนาคตของชาติไว้

These children will play vital roles to our country in the future.

เด็ก ‘children’ in (2) repeats เด็ก in (1).

2.2.2.3 Substitution

Some units of language in the preceding sentence are replaced by others in the following sentence. Substitution is expressed through determiners, pronouns and differential words. For example:

(1) ช่างปั้นส่วนใหญ่เป็นชาวบ้านด่านเกวียน

Most of the sculptors are natives of Ban-Dankwian.

(2) ช่างปั้นพวกนี้มักจะรักษารูปแบบของโบราณ

These sculptors always preserve the old-style model.

ช่างปั้นพวกนี้ ‘these sculptors’ in (2) shows the substitution of determiner for ช่างปั้นส่วนใหญ่ ‘most of the sculptors’ in (1).

2.2.2.4 Collocation

Some items in the previous and the following sentence are semantically related by way of employing synonym, superordinate, antonym, and so on. For example,

(1) ฉันทร้อน

I feel hot.

(2) ชายเจ็ดหนาว

But Jeet feels cold.

หนาว ‘cold’ in (2) is the antonym of ร้อน ‘hot’ in (1).

2.2.2.5 Conjunction

Conjunction is used to express how the connected sentences are interrelated. A certain sentence in sequence may relate to another by expressing contradiction, temporality, causality, and others. For example:

(1) แดดจ้าทั้งวัน

There is strong sunlight all day.

(2) แต่ ผ้ายังไม่แห้ง

But the clothes are still not dry.

(Although there is strong sunlight all day, the clothes are nevertheless still not dry.)

แต่ ‘but’ shows the contradiction between the two sentences.

2.2.5 Praporn Maneerote (1986)

Maneerote’s study is about the nominal substitutions that used to present cohesion in ten articles taken from “Warasan Silpa-wattanatham”, The Thai journal. In her work, Maneerote introduces the four types of nominal substitutions: substitution by zero, substitution by reiteration, demonstrative substitution, and pronominal substitution.

2.2.5.1 Substitution by Zero

- (1) กุหนั่งอัน เป็นตัวหนังรูปร่างคล้าย ๆ ใบโพธิ์

Kunang-an is a piece of cut hide which looks like a bo leaf.

- (2) ๕ มีลวดลายเป็นต้นไม้แผ่กิ่งก้านสาขา

It's appearance bears the design of a tree with spreading branches.

๕ substitutes for กุหนั่งอัน in (1).

2.2.5.2 Substitution by Reiteration

Any noun phrase can be repeated totally or partially by the other.

For example,

- (1) การแสดงหนังของอินโดนีเซีย มีอยู่หลายประเภทเรียกรวมกันว่า

“วาหยังกูลิต”...

There are many different kinds of shadow show, ‘Wayang Kulit’, in Indonesia.

- (2) การแสดงหนัง ที่เก่าแก่และมีมาแต่ดั้งเดิมเรียกว่า “วาหยังปูระวะ”

The original and oldest of all the shadow shows is called ‘Wayang Purwa’.

Here การแสดงหนัง ‘shadow shows’ in (2) partially repeats การแสดงหนังของอินโดนีเซีย ‘shadow shows in Indonesia’ in (1).

2.2.5.3 Demonstrative Substitution

Demonstrative substitution is a process where a certain noun phrase with demonstrative, substitutes for any noun phrase that comes before. For example in

(1) แม้มะเดียมจะเป็นไม้ศักดิ์สิทธิ์ประจำพระศิวะ

Although a bel tree is the sacred plant of Siva.

(2) แต่กำเนิดของไม้นี้หาได้มาจากพระศิวะโดยตรงไม่

But the source of this bel tree does not directly come from Siva.

(Although a bel tree is the sacred plant of Siva, the source of this bel tree does not directly come from Siva.)

Here ไม้นี้ 'this bel tree' in (2) is the demonstrative substitution for มะเดียม 'bel tree' in (1).

2.2.5.4 Pronominal Substitution

A noun phrase is replaced by a personal or demonstrative pronoun. For example:

(1) จากหลักฐานทางด้านจารึก . . . แสดงให้เห็นว่ากลุ่มชนที่รวมตัวกันเป็นอาณาจักรหริภุญชัยในพุทธศตวรรษที่18

According to certain evidence of inscriptions... shows a group of people who established the Hariphunchai Kingdon in the 13th century.

(2) หรือก่อนหน้านี้ได้รับตัวอักษรมอญโบราณ...

Or before this, they adopted the ancient Mon alphabets...

The demonstrative pronoun นี้ ‘this’ in (2) substitutes for พุทธศตวรรษที่18 ‘the 13th century’ in (1).

2.2.3 Peansiri Wongwipanont (1986)

Wongwipanont said in her article that “ลักษณะทางภาษาที่ละไว้ในฐานที่เข้าใจ (the presence of some understandable omitted word or phrase) is the language device which is used to present the cohesion in the discourse. Discourse in Thai may omit some noun phrase or conjunction which is mentioned before in a previous place of a text. But readers or listeners can still interpret the message sent by writers or speakers without ambiguity but within the possible confines of language. There are two types of omission--omission of noun phrase and omission of conjunction.

2.2.3.1 Omission of noun phrase

Omission of noun phrase is the deletion of some noun phrase and pronoun from the sentential structure. In spite of this, readers or listeners can still interpret to whom the noun phrase or pronoun refers. The word “whom” mentioned above does not specify explicitly who he is but the readers can imagine “whom” is whoever the confines of language allows to interpret. The factor which makes the reader interpret correctly is that the omitted item is not the essential essence of the discourse. For example:

เมื่อ ๕ (ข้าพเจ้า/ผู้เขียน) อ่านนิราศสุนทรภู่แล้วก็จะนึกภาพเรือของท่าน
ที่ลัดเลาะไปตามปากน้ำคลองใหญ่คลองเล็ก...

When reading Nirat Sunthornphu, I can imagine his ship taking a short cut through the junction of large and small tributaries...

Here ๐ is the deletion of ข้าพเจ้า/ผู้เขียน ‘I / the author’ that we can see the interpretation is restricted.

2.2.3.2 Omission of Conjunction

This process is a deletion of conjunction that readers themselves have to interpret the semantic relation between sentences in a discourse. For example:

๐ (เมื่อ/ถ้า/หาก) มองจากจุดของกาลเวลา เราจะพบชะตากรรมในสถานการณ์หนึ่ง ๆ เช่นความขัดแย้งระหว่างตระกูลดังในเรื่องพระลอ หรือ โรมิโอจูเลียต

when looking at a point in time, we will find fortune in some situation. Such as the conflict between famous families as in the Story of Phra Lo, or Romio and Juliet.

๐ is the omission of the possible conjunctive words (เมื่อ/ถ้า/หาก).

2.2.5 Somsong Burusphat (1986)

In her work, Burusphat adopted Longacre’s work (1983) as a theoretical basis. She states that Thai language has linguistic devices which are used to express the relations among the sentences in the discourse, namely zero pronoun and adverbial clause.

2.2.5.5 Zero Pronoun

Zero pronoun is the process that a noun phrase which was mentioned before will be left out of the sentence that follows. For example in

(1) เ็นวันหนึ่งตาบุญออกมาล่าสัตว์ตั้งแต่เช้า

Grandfather Boon had been out for hunting all day from the early morning to the late evening.

(2) ๑ ก็ยังล่าสัตว์ไม่ได้สักตัว

But still he could not get any animal.

(3) ขณะที่ ๑ กำลังเหนื่อยและโมโห

Then, at the moment of becoming weary and angry,

(4) ๑ พลันก็เหลือบไปเห็นกระต่ายน้อยตัวหนึ่ง

he saw a little rabbit.

(5) ๑ จึงรีบยกปืนขึ้นเล็ง ๒ “โป้ง”

At once, he hurried to lift his gun up and aim at the rabbit “Bang”.

The noun phrase ตามบุญ ‘Grandfather Boon’ in (1) is replaced by zero pronoun ๑ in (2)-(5) whereas ๒ substitutes for กระต่ายน้อย ‘little rabbit’ in (4).

2.2.5.2 Adverbial Clause

The adverbial clause is used to function as a conjunction linking the texts of each paragraph in the discourse together. For example,

(1) พอท้องฟ้าเริ่มจะสว่าง ไก่ก็ทำท่าจะขันตามนิสัยเดิมของมัน

When the sky begins to brighten up, the cocks habitually start to crow.

(2) แต่แล้วทันใดนั้นมันก็คิดว่า เดี่ยวก่อน ๆ เมื่อเช้าวันนี้เราก็กิน

ข้าวเปลือกมากขึ้นกว่าเดิม เช้าวันนี้เราอย่าขันอีกเลยดีกว่า จะได้มีข้าวเปลือกกินมาก ๆ อีก

But suddenly, one of the cocks thought and said that “Wait !

Wait! Yesterday morning, we got more paddy than we did today so let's not crow again. That way we will get much more paddy to eat.”

(3) เมื่อคิดได้ตั้งนั้น ไก่โต้งจึงไม่ยอมขันตามปกติ

When all the cocks agreed on the idea, they did not crow as usual.

Here เมื่อคิดได้ตั้งนั้น in (3) is the adverbial clause repeating the event in (2) , ทันใดนั้นมันก็คิดว่า “...”

2.2.8 Wipah Chanawangsa (1986)

Chanawangsa studies about the ‘cohesion system’ in Thai language, taken from both spoken and written data corpus. From her study, it is found that there are six types of cohesion in Thai: reference, substitution, ellipsis, repetition, lexical cohesion and conjunction.

2.2.8.1 Reference

Reference is the relation whereby a linguistic item is interpreted by recourse to another item in the text. There are three types of reference items: pronominals, demonstrative, and comparatives.

2.2.9.1.1 Pronominals

Pronominals consist of personal pronouns, pronominally used nouns, zero pronouns and possessives.

Example 1: personal pronouns

(1) naj rûeŋ jun c^hǎn mâj sū: càʔ dùet rǔ:n/

As for mosquitoes, I do not have much trouble (with them).

(2) k^hǎw kàp c^hǎn du: cà? pen mít kan ma: t̄̀: -nǎj-
t̄̀: -raj

They and I seem to have been friends all along.

From the example, there are two sets of cohesive ties; the first is created by the coreferentiality of the personal pronoun c^hǎn in (1) and c^hǎn in (2), and the second by the relation between juŋ in (1) and k^hǎw in (2).

Example 2: pronominally used nouns

(1) A: wan ní: m̄̀: cà? klàp kì: mo:ŋ

‘What time are you (=Mother) coming back today?’

(2) B: hòk mo:ŋ

‘Six o’clock.’

(3) m̄̀: cà? wá? sú: kàpk^hâ:w ma: dûəj

‘I (=Mother) will stop over to buy some food.’

(4) A: m̄̀: sú: kǔəjtǐəw ma: hâj ø dûəj ná?

‘(Mother) buy me some noodles, please’

(5) B: câ?

‘O.K.’

The pronominally used noun m̄̀: in (3)-(4) refers to m̄̀: in (1).

2.2.9.1.2 Demonstrative Reference

Demonstrative reference is reference by means of specific location in space or time. For example.

(1) do:j-t^hûə-paj raw cà? p^hák kin
ʔa:hǎ:n-t^hîəŋ t^hî: p^hǎ:-nók-k^hǎw

Generally, we will take a lunch break at Pha Nokkhao,

(2) sŭŋ pen k^hè:t caŋwàt ráwà:ŋ lə:j
kàp k^hô:nkàen

which lies on the province boundary between Loey and Khonkaen,

(3) rajá-t^ha:ŋ cà:k tua-muəŋ
k^hǒ:nkàen 136 kíllo:mé:t

136 kilometers from the city of Khonkaen.

(4) t^hî:-nî: mi: p^hu:k^hǎw sŭ:ŋ

Here there are high mountains.

t^hî:-nî: is a demonstrative reference item referring back to p^hǎ:-nók-k^hǎw

2.2.9.1.3 Comparative Reference

Comparative reference is of course, based on comparison, that is, an element is interpreted by being compared with another. Chuwicha identifies two types of comparative reference that can be recognized in the Thai language: general and particular. The former is a comparison in terms of likeness and unlikeness, and the latter in terms of quality and quantity by expressing through the words such as “kwà:”, “ʔì:k”, “t^hâw”, etc. For example:

(1) wan-ní: ʔa:kà:t nǎ:w caŋ

‘Today the weather is very cold.’

(2) dâ:j k^hà:w wâ: p^hrŭŋ-ní: ʔa:kà:t

càʔ ʔùn k^hûn

‘(I) heard that tomorrow will be warmer.’

Here is the example of particular. k^hûn compares tomorrow’s warmer temperature with today’s cold temperature.

2.2.9.2 Substitution

Substitution is the replacement of one item in the text by another. The replacement text (substitution) is different in form but relates ‘meaning’ to the preceding item. In Thai, there is a set of clausal substitutes, such as *daŋ-ní:*, *daŋ-nán*, *jà:ŋ-nán* and *jà:ŋ-ní:*.

(1) *k^hu:n-ní: ʔa:kà:t càʔ jen loŋ c^hâj-măj*

‘The weather is going to be cooler tonight, isn’t it?’

(2) *k^hăw wâ: jà:ŋ-nán*

‘They said so.’

jà:ŋ-nán in (2) substitutes for the clause *k^hu:n-ní: ʔa:kà:t càʔ jen loŋ* in (1).

2.2.9.3 Ellipsis

Ellipsis is the replacement of a linguistic item by zero. Chuwicha identifies three sub-types of ellipsis in Thai: nominal ellipsis, verbal ellipsis and clausal ellipsis.

Example 1: nominal ellipsis

(1) A: *dæ:ŋ sú: ʔàraj ma:*

‘What did you (=Daeng) buy?’

(2) B: *ø sú: sûe sǐ: fá: ma: tue nùŋ*

‘(I) bought a blue blouse.’

(3) A: *læ:w tǐw lâʔ*

‘What about Tiw?’

(4) B: *k^hăw sú: ø sǐ: k^hǐew*

‘She bought a green (one).’

Here ∅ in (4) is the replacement of “sŭə” functioning as head of a nominal group “sŭə sǐ: k^hǐəw”. In addition, ∅ refers back to the word sŭə in (2).

Example 2: verbal and nominal ellipsis

(1) A: k^hə:j hěn sǐŋto: t^hále: mǎj

‘Have you ever seen a sea lion?’

(2) B: mǎj k^hə:j ∅ ∅

‘Never.’

Here the main verb ‘hěn’ and its object ‘sǐŋto: t^hále:’ in (1) are omitted in (2).

2.2.9.4 Repetition

Repetition refers to the recurrence of an item that appears in the earlier part of the text. There are three sub-types of repetition--repetition of words and phrases, repetition of structures and lastly, repetition of paraphrase. For example:

(1)...t^hànǒn tà:ŋ tà:ŋ naj kruŋt^hê:p mé:
ta:m hŭə-muəŋ kô: mi: ná:m-p^hú? jù: lǎ:j hən

‘There are water fountains on many streets in Bangkok, and even in several provincial cities.’

(2) t^ham-hâj kè:t k^hwa:m-rôm-rŭ:n k^hŭm bâ:ŋ

‘(This) creates a more pleasant atmosphere.’

(3) t^hŭŋ c^hǎn cà? hěn wâ: ná:m-p^hú? ba:ŋ hən
t^hét^há? mǎj ŋa:m tōŋ-ta:-tōŋ-caj tæ: nân kô: pen rŭəŋ
k^hô:ŋ rót-níjom

‘Even though I think some of the water fountains are clumsy and unpleasant to the eye, that is a matter of taste.’

The second occurrence of ná:m-p^húʔ in (3) has the same form and form class as the preceding one, and refers to the first mention of ná:m-p^húʔ in (1).

2.2.9.5 Lexical Cohesion

Lexical cohesion refers to cohesion achieved through the use of phrases or lexical items that are related in some way, to those in the earlier part of the text. Lexical cohesion can be categorized into synonymy, use of general terms, antonymy, collocation, etc.

(1) ka:nk^hô:n má:j t^hamla:j pà: kò:-hâj-
kè:t panhá: ná:m-t^hûəm lǎʔ panhá: ʔù:n-ʔù:n ʔì:k mâ:k

‘Chopping down trees and the destruction of forests causes flooding and many other problems.’

(2) tǎ: rátt^hàʔba:n kô: jaŋ mâj sǎ:mâ:t jáp
jáp ka:n-kràt^ham daŋ-klà:w dâ:j

‘However, the government is still unable to stop such actions.’

ka:n-kràt^ham in (2) is a general term. Here it is accompanied by the phrase daŋ-klà:w and refers back to the more specific phrase ka:nk^hô:n má:j t^hamla:j pà:.

2.2.9.6 Conjunction

Conjunction refers to a semantic relation that holds between two linguistic units as two wholes. These units may be clauses, sentences or even paragraphs. Conjunctive relations are, for example, additive, comparative, exemplificatory, reformulatory, and causal. An example follows.

(1) du: du: kô: nâ: hěn-caj tamrùət k^hăw

‘All things considered, we should feel sympathetic towards policemen.’

(2) p^hróʔ fâw t^hanǒn jà:ŋ nán ŋən-dwæn

p^hiəŋ sî:-ró:j-hâ: sîp bà:t

‘For they only make four hundred and fifty baht a month, directing traffic on the streets.’

As an example of causal relation, p^hróʔ in (2) shows the reason why we should sympathize with these policemen.

2.2.6 Yajai Chuwicha (1986)

Chuwicha studies about cohesion in spoken ‘Standard’ Thai narratives, consisting of four folktales and five first person narratives. Her findings which relate to this study can be summed up into two parts--participant cohesion and structural cohesion.

2.2.6.1 Participant Cohesion

Participant cohesion is a process of the presentation of how a participant is maintained on the scene and reintroduced throughout the discourse. There are four principal devices used to present participant cohesion--reference, deletion, collocation, and reiteration.

2.2.6.1.1 Reference

In her work, Chuwicha regards reference as a word, or group of words that point to the elements which were used as participants or props at the earlier parts of the discourse. It is found that participant reference can be in various forms, for example, as kin-terms such as / p^hô:/ ‘father’, / mæ:/ ‘mother’, / ja:j / ‘grandmother’, as generic words such as / p^hû: c^ha:j / ‘male’, / p^hû:

jǐŋ / ‘female’, as social status words such as / sě:na:bōdi:/ ‘the minister of the state’, /ʔammà:t/ ‘a king’s minister’, as pronominalization such as /dìc^hǎn/ ‘first person singular pronoun for female’, / raw/ ‘first person singular or plural pronoun for male and female’, and as proper names such as /t^há:w ka:dám/ ‘Black Crow’. An example of reference follows.

(1) ...k^hon nî: càʔ mi: k^hun dâ:j
jâ:ŋ ɲaj

How can man have any merit?

(2) tâŋtə: nùm tə: nɛn fâw bâ:n hàw
hǒ:n hâj man

At the time (that I was) very young and strong,
(I did) guard the house and barked (to tell the danger) for them (derog).

The pronominalization man in (2) refers back to
k^hon in (1).

2.2.6.1.2 Deletion

Deletion or zero identification is used to replace the nominals in maintaining the participant in the text. A string of deletion will usually remain on and on, as long as there is no confusion or ambiguity. However, when there is a change of participants or settings, a more specific identification, that is, a noun phrase or a proper name etc. is employed in stead of the zero identification. For example,

(1) mi: p^hǔə miə k^hû: nùŋ

There was a couple.

(2) ∅ t^hǎ:náʔ jâ:kcon

(they) were poor.

(3) jù: ma: wan nùŋ p^hǔə kə: k^hít

wâ:

One day, the husband thought that

(4) ø paj t^ham ráj æ:ŋ kan di: kwà:

(he)'d better grow the melons

(5) ø lə:j k^hâw paj naj pà:

naj doŋ

and (he) went into the jungle

(6) ø t^hǎ:ŋ pà: ø t^hǎ:ŋ p^hoŋ

and (he) cultivated the land.

Here ø in (2) is the deletion of noun phrase p^hǔə miə in (1). But when there is a change of time in (3), the narrator uses the noun phrase p^hǔə to presuppose p^hǔə miə in (1) by partially repeating. For (4)-(6), it is the replacement of zero morpheme for p^hǔə in (3).

2.2.8.1.3 Collocation

Collocation is a set of words that are related, or associated with each other so that a systematic relation is created between that set of words. The relationship may be in opposites as p^hǔə-miə 'husband-wife', synonyms such as p^hanráʔja:-miə 'wife(fml.) – wife (infml.)', superordinate such as k^hon - p^hû: c^ha:j - p^hû: jǐŋ 'human-man-woman', and the same ordered series applies to kin-terms.

2.2.8.1.4 Reiteration

Reiteration is the repetition of some noun phrase or

pronoun which is mentioned previously. For example in

(1) ...t^hâ: kè:t lû:k k^hǎw p^hû:t kàp
p^hû: c^ha:j dâj

...if his daughter could speak to a man.

(2) k^hǎw kô: cà? jók hâj ?àp^hí?sè:k sǒm
rót kan lə:j

He would arrange the marriage (between that man and his daughter).

2.2.8.2 Structural Cohesion

Structural cohesion, in Chuwicha's work relates to this study on connection.

Connection

Connection is a device which is used to link the discourse together. Chuwicha defines 'connector' as 'a cohesive marker tying two or more ideas expressed within a paragraph or between paragraph boundaries'. There are two sub-types of connector--semantic connectors and functional connectors.

Semantic connectors

Semantic connection is a process of using some connectors to link the meaning of the connected sentences together or express the meaning of the related sentences. These connectors are causal connectors, result connectors, sequential action connectors, conditional clause connectors, and additive connectors.

(1)...c^ha:w pràmoŋ mo:hǒ: mâ:k

The fisherman was very angry.

(2) b̂a: ciŋ k^hâ: t^hô:t ĥă: ma: tâŋ na:n

You're crazy! I have cast the net all day.

(3) d̂a:j pla: mâ:k ma:j

(I) got a great deal of fish.

(4) t^hammaj k̂æ: mâj du:læ: ĥaj di:

'Why don't you take good care of (them)?'

(5) du: ŝi? kôn k^hô:ŋ k^hôŋ kô: rûe

Look at this! The bottom of the basket leaks.

(6) pla: lòn môt

All the fish have fallen out.

(7) p^hanrá?ja: k^hô:ŋ c^ha:w pràmoŋ kô:

t^hïeŋ ŵa:

So the fisherman's wife defended (herself) that.

(8) kô: k^hâ: mâj rú: n̂i: t^hammaj

k̂æ: mâj du:læ: ?e:ŋ lâ?

'Because I didn't know! Why don't you yourself take care of (them)?'

kô: in (8) is the causal connector to originate the results in (4) (5) and (6).

Functional Connectors

These connectors function as a cohesive device. When linking a series of ideas within a paragraph, they are known as an 'internal linking device' and when used between the paragraph boundaries, they are an 'external linking device' An example follows.

P.(1) ...kô: mâj rú: cà? b̂eŋ kan ĵa:ŋ

raj

...because the didn't now how to share (the fish)
 P.(2) mûə bə̀ŋ kan mâj dâ:j jà:ŋ ní:
 when (because) they couldn't share (the fish) like that
 (3) kô: nâŋ t^há lóʔ kan jù: jà:ŋ nán...
 so they went on quarrelling like that...

Here is the example of external linking device. The word--kô:--in (3) functions as a connector linking the cause in P.(1) , P. (2) and the result in (3) together.

2.2.4 Peansiri Wongwipanont (1987)

In her work, Wongwipanont studies about the importance and function of adverbs in Thai discourse. She found that adverbial words in Thai are used to present cohesion in discourse, by functioning as **conjunctive units** to link two elements in the discourse together. For example:

...ถ้าอย่างนั้นเขาก็จะยอมตกลง

If that is so, he may agree to this.

The adverb ถ้าอย่างนั้น 'if that is so' functions as the conditional conjunction.

2.2.7 Tassanee Jaroenporn (1991)

Jaroenporn studies cohesion on the stone inscriptions, written down from 1350 to 1923, in the northeast of Thailand. She found that there are two different types of cohesive devices employed in these inscriptions-- reference and conjunction.

2.2.7.1 Reference

Jaroenporn identifies two sub-types of referential cohesion: form reference and semantic reference.

2.2.7.1.1 Form Reference

There are two major types of form reference: substitution and repetition. For example:

(1) สมเด็จพระบรมพิตรพระไชยเชษฐาธิราชเจ้า
 มีปสาทศรัทธา...
 in (a religion)...

Somdejborommaphit Phrachaichetthathiratchao has faith
 in (a religion)...

(2) ปลงประสิทธิ์อาชญาแก่เจ้าพระยาพลศึกซ้ายให้เป็น
อุปถัมภ์ก สร้างวัดศรีสุพรรณอาราม
 (He) has assigned Chaophrayaponserksai to be a patron
 in constructing the Temple of Sri Suphan-aram.

(3) พระยาพลศึกซ้ายมีคำร้อยหนึ่ง เบื้องหมื่นหนึ่งถวายสมเด็จพระ
พระเป็นเจ้า...
 Phrayaponserksai has one hundred bars of gold and ten
 thousand sheets of tile to dedicate to Somdejphrapenchao.

The general term--สมเด็จพระเป็นเจ้า-- in (3) substitutes for
สมเด็จพระบรมพิตรพระไชยเชษฐาธิราชเจ้า , the proper name, in (1).

2.2.7.1.2 Semantic Reference

There are two types of semantic reference: collocation and paraphrase. For example,

- (1) พุทธเขตมีสี่สิบวา

The church has an area of 40 square wah (=80 square metres).

(2) คามเขต หกลีบวา

The monastery, excluding the church, is 60 wah (=120 square metres) in area.

คามเขต in (2) is the antonym of พุทธเขต in (1).

2.2.7.2 Conjunction

There are several types of conjunctive relations such as conditional, additive, temporal, etc. For example in

(1) เขาหากบฟังคำข้อย

If he doesn't obey my word,

(2) ข้อยจักขายเมีย

I will sell his wife (to others).

หาก 'if' is the conditional conjunction.

From these various works, the researcher chose the works of Halliday and Hasan (1976) and de Beaugrande and Dressler (1981) to be a basis for analysis.

Next chapter will discuss on materials and methods of this dissertation.

CHAPTER III

MATERIALS AND METHODS

3.1 Pattern of the Study

This study is a qualitative research which analyzes the data taken from the column “Setthasart-Noktamra”, the economic article, found in the Phujatkan newspaper, to find out the linguistic forms and cohesive devices used by writers.

An economic article is classified by Longacre (1983) and Bamroongraks (1996) as an expository discourse, one of four-way classification of discourse types. Details of the different discourse types are explained as follows:

3.1.1. Narrative Discourse

A writer or speaker intends to tell some story which may be an account of a writer or speaker himself, or other person, and may be a true or pseudo-story to a reader or listener. This discourse has participants references, spatial references or temporal succession as its characteristics [+participant+temporal/spatial].

As regards the contents, narrative discourse speaks of a certain event set in a chronological order. There can be one or even several themes and settings in a story. Occasionally this discourse may consist of several quotation sentences, thoughts, and facts.

Surface structure is regularly characterized by affirmative sentences. But there may also be negative sentences, emerging in the discourse too.

The sentence structure of narrative discourse depends on the sort of the discourse. If the discourse is a fairy tale for children, most of the sentences are simple sentences but there may be a few complex and compound sentences in the discourse

too. If the discourse is a novel or short story, we will find every kinds of sentence structure. In addition, there may be some dialogue paragraphs in the body of contents. The varieties of narrative discourse are the fairy tales, myths, short stories, novels, first person accounts, newspaper reporting and historiography. The following is an example of narrative discourse.

naj ʔàdì:ttàka:n ʔan p^hón k^hánáʔna: wísǎj
 k^hrán nùŋ / p^hráʔra:c^ha: p^hráʔ na:m wá: máhǎ:c^hánók
 k^hro:ŋ rá:tc^hásǒmbát jù: naj kruŋ mít^híla: k^hwá:n
 wít^he:hàʔ / p^hrácá:w máhǎ:c^hánók nán mi: p^hrá rá:tc^háʔ
 ʔo:rót sǒ:ŋ p^hráʔoŋ p^hrá na:m wá: ʔàrítt^hàʔc^hánók léʔ
 po:láʔc^hánók / p^hrára:c^ha: p^hrará:tc^hát^ha:n tamnəŋ
 ʔùppàrà:t kə: ʔoŋ p^hí: léʔ tamnəŋ sě:na:bo:di: kə: ʔoŋ
 nó:ŋ / ka:n tò: ma: p^hrá máhǎ:c^hánókrâ:t sàwǎnk^hót / p^hráʔ
 ʔàrítt^hàc^hánók dâ:j k^hro:ŋ rá:tc^hásǒmbát léʔ soŋ tâŋ p^hráʔ
 po:láʔc^hánók pen ʔùppàʔrà:t /

k^hrán lé:w ʔàmà:t p^hú: klájchít k^hon nùŋ paj
 fâw krà:pt^hu:n p^hrára:c^ha: lǎ:j k^hrán wá: / k^hǒ:de:c^háʔ
 p^hráʔùppàʔrà:t lén mâj sū: kəp p^hráʔoŋ p^hâjâkâʔ / k^hwa:m
 sîne:hǎ: k^hǒ:ŋ p^hráʔ ʔàrítt^hàc^hánókrâ:t tò: p^hráʔ
 ʔànúʔc^ha: t^hont^ha:n k^ham ʔà:p p^hít ʔan sám sâ:k mâj dâ:j /
 p^hráʔ po:láʔc^hánók cuŋ t^hù:k co:ŋcam léʔ k^hûepk^hum rákšâ:
 naj k^hálúʔhà:t p^hráʔ rá:tc^háníwê:t /

(พระราชนิพนธ์พระมหากษัตริย์ : 1-7)

Once upon an uncomputable time past, there was a king bearing the name of Mahajanaka who reigned in the city of Mithila in the land of Videha. King

Mahajanaka had two sons named respectively Aritthajanaka and Polajanaka. The elder son was invested by the king as Viceroy, and the younger one, Chief Minister. In the course of time, the King passed away to Heaven. Prince Aritthajanaka acceded to the throne and invested his brother as Viceroy. Then one close courtier kept repeating to the King: “Your August Majesty, the Viceroy is plotting against the throne.” The oft recurring venomous words took their toll on the King’s affection for his brother. As a result, Viceroy Polajanaka was put in chains and under guard in a mansion near the Royal Palace.

(The Story of Mahājanaka :1-7)

3.1.2 Expository Discourse

The language used in this type of discourse is in the form of explanation or description about some event or something. The writer has an objective to clarify some events, phenomena, or situations to the readers. While other writers may want the readers to have an imagination of something. The participants and spatial references, and temporal succession are not the essential substances in this discourse [-participant-temporal - spatial].

The contents of expository discourse may consist of definition, explanation, description, classification, exemplification, comparison, opinion, conclusion, etc.

In respect to the language, most of the sentences are affirmative. But there may contain some interrogative sentences, followed by an explanation. Sentence structure, we will find simple, complex, and compound sentences in expository discourse. If the discourse is a story about science, the sentence structure will be complicated and full of complex and compound sentences. Expository discourse can range from the familiar essay to the scientific article. For example:

ka:nk^hà:t k^hlæ:n ræ:ŋŋa:n fĩ:mu: t^hĩ: mi:
 k^hwa:m c^hamna:n lé? troŋ kàp k^hwa:mtôŋka:n k^hǒ:ŋ p^hâ:k
 ?ùtsǎ:hàkam / pen panhá: sǎmk^han k^hǒ:ŋ p^hâ:k ?ùtsǎ:
 hàkam t^haj / lé? pen ?ùppàsàk t^hĩ: bàn t^ho:n k^hì:t k^hwa:m
 sǎ:mâ:t naj ka:nk^hèŋk^hǎn k^hǒ:ŋ pràt^hê:t do:j ruem /

ka:np^hàlìt ræ:ŋŋa:n ba:ŋ sǎ:k^hǎ: má:k con
 kə:n k^hwa:mtôŋka:n k^hǒ:ŋ tàlà:t / kè:t ka:njê:ŋŋa:n kan
 t^ham naj we:la: diəw kan ba:ŋ sǎ:k^hǎ: kô: mi: ka:np^hàlìt
 nó:j mǎj p^hiəŋp^ho: tò: k^hwa:mtôŋka:n / nǒ:kcà:kní: mǎ:wâ:
 ræ:ŋŋa:n sùen nùŋ cà? dâ:jráp ka:nfùk^hfǒn ma: lé:w tà: kô:
 mǎj sǎ:mâ:t ?ò:k paj pràkò:p ?a:c^hĩ:p dâ:j jà:ŋ mi: pràsìt
 t^híp^hâ:p / nûeŋcà:k t^háksà? t^hĩ: riən ma: nán mǎj troŋ kàp
 k^hwa:mtôŋka:n k^hǒ:ŋ ro:ŋŋa:n rǔi: sàt^hǎ:n pràkò:pka:n /
 c^hên naj k^hànà? t^hĩ: riən k^hə:j fùk c^háj k^hrûeŋmá:j
 k^hrûeŋmu: t^hĩ: mi: t^hékno:lo:ji: bə:p nùŋ / tà: mûe k^hâw
 t^ham ŋa:n k^hrûeŋmá:j k^hrûeŋmu: naj ro:ŋŋa:n klàp plìen paj
 c^háj t^hékno:lo:ji: mǎj / t^hamháj ro:ŋŋa:n tōŋ sǎe we:la
 t^ham ka:nfùk ?òprom ?ì:k /

?àraj k^hw: sǎ:hè:t làk t^hĩ: kò: háj kè:t
 k^hwa:mbìtbuən naj tàlà:t ræ:ŋŋa:n t^haj / cuŋ pen rûeŋ
 t^hĩ: p^hû: mi: sùen kìeŋk^hōŋ tōŋ rēŋ há: k^hamtò:p háj
 dâ:j /

să:hè:t sǎmk^han t^hî: t^hamhâj ka:np^hátt^há
 na: bùkk^hála:kɔ:n k^hǒ:ŋ p^hâ:k ka:nsùksă: t^haj mǎj
 sò:tk^hló:ŋ kàp tálà:t ræ:ŋŋa:n nán / sǎ:hè:t sǎmk^han
 pràka:n nùŋ kô: k^hw: t^hî: p^hà:n ma: nùejŋa:n k^hǒ:ŋ rát
 t^hî: kiəwk^hôŋ kàp ka:np^hátt^hána: ræ:ŋŋa:n làw nán mi: ka:n
 pràsa:n k^hwa:mrûemmu: kàp p^hû: câ:ŋ ræ:ŋŋa:n k^hw: p^hâ:k
 ʔè:kkàc^hon nó:j má:k / t^ham háj mǎj dá:j rápsá:p
 k^hwa:mtôŋka:n t^hî: t^hé: ciŋ / ruəmt^hũŋ k^hà:t k^hô:mu:n
 k^hwa:mk^hlũenwǎj t^ha:ŋ dá:n t^héknò:lo:ji: màj màj
 t^hî: ro:ŋŋa:n rǔ: sàt^hǎ:n pràkò:pka:n dá:j nam ma:
 c^háj /

sǎmnákŋa:n k^háná? kammá?ka:n sòŋsǎ:m ka:n
 loŋt^hun bi: ʔo: ʔaj dá:j leŋ hěn t^hũŋ panhǎ: sǎmk^han
 ní: ma: do:j tàlò:t / nũeŋcà:k naj tà: lá? pi: bi: ʔo: ʔaj
 dá:j háj ka:nsòŋsǎ:m ka:nloŋt^hun naj ʔùtsǎ:hàkam
 tà:ŋ tà:ŋ náp p^han lá:n bà:t / lǎ? kò: háj kè:t ka:ncâ:ŋ
 ræ:ŋŋa:n t^haj náp sǎ:n k^hon / sũŋ t^há: hà:k sàt^hǎ:náka:n
 ræ:ŋŋa:n t^haj jaŋ mi: næ:wnó:m pen c^hên ní: jù: / kô: ʔà:t
 pen pàtcaj nùŋ t^hî: cà? k^hàt k^hwǎ:ŋ ka:ntàtsĩncaj k^hǒ:ŋ
 náklon^ht^hun t^hî: cà? ma: loŋt^hun naj pràt^hê:t t^haj /

(ผู้จัดการรายวัน, 21 สิงหาคม 2543)

The shortage of skilled labourers, that meets industrial requirements, is

a serious problem of Thai industrial sector and also an obstacle which cuts down the potential competitiveness with other countries

The oversupply of labors in some fields causes a fight for work. While in other fields, on the contrary, supply the labours not enough for the requirement of a labour market. And although there are a number of trained labourers, they cannot work efficiently due to their skills are not needed by the factories or establishments - these labourers had learned to use the older technological instruments in their schools than those they have to deal with in working. And this makes the factories waste time to train these labourers again.

“What are the main causes of distortion in the Thai labour market?” is a problem which whoever concern have to hurry to find out the answer.

One of the main causes which makes the development of personnel of Thai educational sector, does not satisfy the needs of the labour market is that formerly, the government agencies concerning in developing the labourers has a co-operation with the employers, private sector, least. So the government agents do not know the real needs of the labour market and lack of information about new technologies which the factories or establishments bring to use.

Anyway, the Office of the Board of Investment (BOI) has seen this vital problem thoroughly which we can see that BOI gives the promotion of investment in various industries around thousands million baht for each year. And this brings about the employment of approximately 100,000 Thai labourers. However, if the situation of Thai labours still tends to be like this, it will be one factor which obstructs the decision of investors to invest in Thailand.

3.1.3 Hortatory Discourse

A writer has an objective to teach or draw readers to concur with or believe in something which the writer sends out. There is some advice on good

conduct in the body of contents. The direct participant herein is the reader or receiver, whereas the chronological order and spatial reference are not the characteristics of the discourse. [+participant-temporal-spatial]

The contents of hortatory discourse generally compose of harmony or conflict, reason, advantage, fault, condition, exemplification, comparison, remark, thought, matters of fact, and assumption.

The sentence structure consists of simple, complex and compound sentences.

Hortatory discourse varies from sermons, to pep-talks, to persuasions to stop smoking, and to addresses of generals to the troops on the eve of an important battle. For example in

pi: kò:n ní: k^hə:j ma: p^hú:t naj ka:npràc^hum
 rûəŋ c^háj k^hrûəŋ t^hà:j p^hâ:p t^ha:ŋ ʔa:kà:t sì: c^húəŋ sə:ŋ
 / dâ:j hâj k^hô: k^hít ba:ŋ jà:ŋ / tâŋtə: t^hî: p^hú:t nán
 kô: mi: k^hô:k^hít t^hî: kè:t k^hún ma: màj bâ:ŋ / k^hra:w kò:n
 ní: kô: k^həw^hôŋ kàp rûəŋ k^hǝ:ŋ pà: sǎ:m jà:ŋ / dǐəwní:
 t^húkk^hon kô: k^hoŋ k^hâwcaj lǎ:w wâ: pà: sǎ:m jà:ŋ nán k^hw:
 ʔàraj / tǎ: hâj k^hâwcaj wâ: pà: sǎ:m jà:ŋ ní: mi: pràjò:t
 sì: jà:ŋ màj c^hâj sǎ:m jà:ŋ / pà: sǎ:m jà:ŋ t^hî: bò:k wâ:
 pen má:j fu:n pen má:j p^hǝn lǎ? má:j sâ:ŋ bâ:n nán /
 k^hwa:mcieŋ má:j fu:n kàp má:j c^hájsǝ:j kô: ʔan diəw kan /
 tǎ: raw bəŋ ʔò:k paj pen má:j t^ham fu:n má:j sâ:ŋ bâ:nruən
 ruəmt^háŋ má:j t^ham sǐnlápà? hàtt^hàʔkam lǎ:w kô: má:j p^hǝn/

ra:jŋa:n bò:k wâ: cà? t^ham pà: sǎ:m jà:ŋ ní: naj
 t^hî: t^hî: mǎj c^hâj tǝnná:m lamt^ha:n / ?an ní: k^hít lé:w
 man fânfwøen nòj / p^hrówâ: pà: làw ní: pen tǝnná:m lamt^ha:n
 t^háŋnán / t^hâ: paj bò:k wâ: mǎj t^ham pà: sǎ:m jà:ŋ naj tǝn
 ná:m lamt^ha:n / kô: pen ?an wâ: tǝnná:m lamt^ha:n nán cà?
 tǝŋ krǝ:n nê: / p^hrówâ: pà: sǎ:m jà:ŋ ní: mi: wáj t^hammaj
 / mi: wáj sǎmràp hâj pen pràjò:t / lé? mûe pen pràjò:t tò:
 râ:tsàdo:n râ:tsàdo:n kô: mǎj paj tàt lé? kô: hũeŋhǎ:n wáj
 mí? hâj k^hraj ma: tàt / ?an ní: pen k^hô: sǎmk^han / t^hî:
 nǎj pen pà: t^hî: rǝpró:j t^hî: jaŋ mǎj krǝ:n / râ:tsàdo:n
 kô: cà? mǎj tàt p^hró? rú: / paj lǎ:j hǎeŋ lé:w paj t^hǎ:m
 râ:tsàdo:n wâ: pà: troŋ nán pen jà:ŋraj / k^hǎw bò:k wâ:
 pà: jaŋ di: / lé? t^hǎ:m wâ: cà? paj tàt mǎj / k^hǎw bô:k
 wâ: mǎj tàt t^hâ: paj tàt haw jǎe: / k^hǎw k^hawcaj t^hâ: tàt
 má:j lé:w cà? hǎeŋlé:ŋ / lé? din cà? t^hála:j loŋ ma: / t^hâ:
 pen t^hî: na: kô: cà? sǝ mòt k^hǎw rú: / ra:jŋa:n ?an ní:
 du:t^hù:k c^ha:wbâ:n du:t^hù:k pràc^ha:c^hon / pràc^ha:c^hon nán
 c^hàlà:t / pràc^ha:c^hon mi: k^hwa:mrú: t^háŋ k^hon t^hî: jù:
 bon p^hu:k^hǎw lé? k^hon t^hi: jù: naj t^hî: râ:p / k^hǎw mi:
 k^hwa:mrú: / k^hǎw t^ham ŋa:n ma: lǎ:j c^hûe k^hon lé:w / k^hǎw
 t^ham kin jà:ŋ di: / k^hǎw mi: k^hwa:m c^hàlǝw c^hàlà:t / k^hǎw
 rú: wâ: troŋ nǎj k^huøen cà? t^ham kàsì?kam / k^hǎw rú: wâ:
 t^hî: nǎj k^huøen cà? kèp má:j wáj / tǎe: t^hî: sǝ paj kô:
 p^hró? p^hûek t^hî: mǎj rú: rûeŋ / mǎjdâ:j t^ham na: ma: na:n
 lé:w / t^híŋ kàsì?kam ma: na:n lé:w / lé:w ma: jù: naj t^hî:

t^hî: mi: k^hwa:msàdùek / kô: lə:j t^hamhâj lu:m wâ: c^hi:wít
 pen paj dâ:j kô: do:j t^hî: t^ham kàsì?kam t^hî: t^hù:ktôn /
 t̄è: c^ha:wbâ:n rǔ: c^ha:wk^hǎw mi: k^hwa:mrú: p^ho:p^hiəŋ / k^hê:
 ?àt^hí?ba:j nítnòj k^hǎw kô: k^hâwcaj / t̄è: t^hâ: raw p^hû:t
 p^ha:să: t^hî: mâj k^hâwcaj k^hǎw kô: mâj k^hâwcaj /

c^hànan t^hâ: raw t^ham pà: sǎ:m jà:ŋ ní: sǔŋ mi:
 pràjò:t sǐ: jà:ŋ / sǔŋ pràjò:t t^hî: sǐ: ní: sǎmk^han / k^hu:
 ráksă: ?ànú?rák din lé? t̄onná:m lamt^ha:n / c^ha:wbâ:n k^hǎw
 cà? ráksă: hâj raw d̄uəj / t^hi: p^hû:t t^hǔŋ raw kô: mǎ:j
 k^hwa:m t^hǔŋ pà: má:j / krompà:má:j nán mi: nâ:t^hî: ráksă:
 pà: hâj jù: di: / pen nâ:t^hî: sǎmk^han ?an n̄uŋ / t̄è:
 ba:ŋt^hi: paj t^hǎ:m câ:wnâ:t^hî: pà:má:j wâ: k^hraj cà?
 ráksă:/ k^hǎw kô: b̄o:k wâ: k^hǎw cà? ráksă: / t^hǎ:m wâ: t^hâ:
 k^hraj ma: t̄at cà? t^ham jà:ŋraj / kô: t̄o:p wâ: kô: b̄o:k
 tamr̄uət si: / tamr̄uət mi: k̄i: k^hon / ?amp^hə: n̄uŋ n̄uŋ sǔŋ
 jàj / lé? t^hâ: s̄ommút wâ: pen ?amp^hə: t^hî: mi: p^hu:k^hǎw
 mi: pà:má:j mâ:k du: mâj wǎj / ?amp^hə: n̄uŋ n̄uŋ mi: tamr̄uət
 s̄ak h̄a:s̄ip k^hon / ?an ní: p^hû:t ta:m t^hî: dâ:j faŋ ma: /
 t̄è: t^hî:din t^hî: pen pà: mi: k̄i: s̄ə:n ráj / kô: mǎ:jk^hwa:m
 wâ: naj t^hi: h̄əŋ n̄uŋ cà? mi: tamr̄uət s̄ak s̄è:t n̄uŋ s̄uən
 s̄i: k^hon / sǔŋ t^ham ?àraj mâj dâ:j p^hró? wâ: mâj t^hǔŋ k^hon
 d̄ə:n kô: mâj dâ:j / p^hró? wâ: mâj wǎj ciŋ ciŋ /

c^hànan t^hâ: hà:k raw t^ham pà: sǎ:m jà:ŋ hâj
 c^ha:wbâ:n h̄ən pràjò:t lé? dâ:j c^háj pràjò:t / k^hǎw kô:

cà? ráksǎ: pràjò:t / k^hǎw kô: cà? mǎj t^hamla:j lé? k^hraj
 ma: t^hamla:j k^hǎw kô: pônkan / mǎ:jk^hwa:m wâ: c^ha:wbâ:n
 nán t^hâ: raw hâj ?o:kà:t hâj k^hǎw mi: jù: mi: kin p^ho: sǓm
 k^huən kô: cà? pen câ:wnâ:t^hî: pà:má:j hâj raw pen camnuən
 mâ:k / jà:ŋ naj rôŋ hùp k^hǎw lék lék t^hî: mi: p^hiəŋ hâ:sìp
 ráj kô: cà? t^ham pen mù:bâ:n hâj c^ha:wbâ:n ma: jù: / k^ham
 wâ: c^ha:wbâ:n ní: cà? rîək wâ: c^ha:wbâ:n kô: dâ:j kô: pen
 c^ha:wbâ:n t^háŋ nán / k^hə:j paj t^hǎ:m c^ha:wk^hǎw p^hû:t t^hũŋ
 rûəŋ wâ: cà? t^ham k^hro:ŋka:n ?àraj ?àraj raw kô: tōŋ c^hûəj
 kan ráksǎ: ná? / k^hǎw bò:k wâ: mù: haw kô: pen k^hon t^haj
 mũən kan / kô: mǎ:jk^hwa:m wâ: pen c^ha:wbâ:n mũən kan c^hûəj
 kan t^ham / k^hǎw kô: jà:k jù: tâ:j kòtmǎ:j / t^ham ŋa:n t^hî:
 sùtcà?rìt /t^hâ: raw t^ham ?àraj t^hî: di: mi: hè:tp^hǒn k^hǎw
 kô: cà? ráksǎ pà: sǎmjà:ŋ hâj raw /

(พระราชดำรัสพระราชทาน, 26 กุมภาพันธ์ 2524 :28-35)

Last year, I spoke at the meeting about remote sensing and I had some comments; since then some more new ideas have occurred to me. Formerly, I spoke about the “Three Kinds of Forests”. Now everyone should know what the “Three Kinds of Forests” are. But you should know that the “Three Kinds of Forests” have 4 kinds of use, not three. I said that these “Three Kinds of Forests” consisted of trees for firewood, fruit trees and construction wood and general-purpose wood is the same kind of wood; construction wood and general-purpose wood is also the same kind of wood, but we distinguish them as firewood and construction wood, along with wood for making handicraft and fruit trees.

The report says that the “Three Kinds of Forests” will be planted in places that are not watershed areas. After some thought, I think it is a rather silly idea

because these forests are all watershed areas. If it says that the “Three Kinds of Forests” will not be planted in the watershed areas, these watershed areas will all become bare because these “Three Kinds of Forests” are meant to be useful, and when they are useful for the people, the people will not cut down the trees, and will not allow anybody to cut them down. This is important: wherever there is a good forest, not bare, the people will not cut down the trees because they know better. I have been in many places, and I have inquired the people about the condition of the forest; they said that the forest was still in good condition. Then I asked them if they would cut down the trees; they said they would not, “It would be silly to cut down the trees.” They do understand that deforestation will bring about dryness and soil erosion. The rice fields will be ruined, and they know it.

This report underestimates the people; the people are clever, those on the hills as well as those on the plains. They are knowledgeable; they have worked for generations; they have earned their livelihood; they are intelligent; they know where to cultivate and where to conserve and keep intact. But the forest was destroyed by those who are ignorant, those who have not cultivated rice for a long time; they left the fields and cultivation a long time ago. They have lived an easy life so they have forgotten that life is possible only with a right kind of agriculture, but the country people or the hill people have proper knowledge. Only after some simple explanation, they will say, “Ah! Ah! We understand; we understand.” If we just give an understandable explanation, they will understand. But if we talk in a confusing language, they will be confused.

This is why, if we plant the “Three Kinds of Forests” which have four uses-the fourth use being the most important for preventing soil erosion and conserving the watershed areas-the people will take care of it for us. By “us”, I mean the Forestry Department. The Forestry Department has the duty of keeping the forests in good shape; it is one of their most important duty, but sometimes, when we inquired the forestry officers about who would look after the forest, they answered that they were the ones who looked after it. When asked about what they would do if the trees were felled, they would say, “Well tell the police.” How many policemen are there? In

each district which can be quite a large area and especially if it is a mountainous area with many forests, it cannot be so well looked after. Each district has about 50 policemen; this is from what I have heard, but the forested area to be looked after are in the hundreds of thousand rai. This means that there will be about one quarter of a policeman for each area; the policeman can not do anything because he is not even a whole person; he cannot walk; he cannot look after anything; he cannot do anything.

If we implement the “ Three Kinds of Forests” project so that the people see its use and their own advantage, they will look after their own interest. The people will not destroy the forest, and they will prevent others from destroying it. It means that if the people are given the opportunity to have enough to live on, they will become forestry officers for us in great numbers. For example, in a small valley where there is a clearing of only 50 rai, a village for villagers has been established. The word villagers can mean people from the plains as well as those from the hills; they are all villagers. Once, I talked with some hill-tribesmen about various projects and emphasized, “You have to take good care of it.” They said, “Sure, we are also Thai people”. This means that they also are villagers, working together; they said that they wanted to abide by the law and do honest work. If we do a good thing, reasonable thing, they will guard the “Three Kinds of Forests” for us.

(Royal Address, 26 Feb. 1981: 28-35)

3.1.4 Procedural Discourse

The writer has an intention to relate the reader a process of doing something from beginning to end. The writer will express each step of the procedure in chronological order harmoniously. [-participant+temporal-spatial] There may be some mention of the equipment and some condition for doing thing in the content.

Generally, most of the surface structure are in the forms of imperative sentence with the omission of the subject, the readers. The sentences in procedural discourse will be short, not complicated, and easy to understand. Procedural discourse

varies from the food recipe, to the how-to-do-it book, to the instruction to a particular worker for his activities on a given day. For example:

ka:njâ:ŋ ʔa:hă:n

rábòp jâ:ŋ k^hǒ:ŋ tawʔòp càʔ mi: rábòp t^ham
 k^hwa:mró:n p^hiəŋ rabòp diəw / rábòp ní: mòʔ sǎmràp jâ:ŋ
 c^hín núə c^hín mǔ: c^hín kàj lǎʔ ʔa:hă:n ʔù:n ʔù:n / k^huən
 t^ham ta:m k^ham náʔnam /

k^hrûəŋc^háj:

tàkræ:ŋ lo:hàʔ ca:n kǎ:w t^hon faj kǎ:w
 t^hon k^hwa:mró:n lǎʔ k^hwa:mjen
 c^hên hà:k tǔŋka:n jâ:ŋ núə sàték nùŋ c^hín naj
 we:la: cèt na:t^hi: /

wít^hi:ka:n

- wa:ŋ ʔa:hă:n bon tàkræ:ŋ sǔ:ŋ rǔ: tàkræ:ŋ
 tíə / lǎ:w cuŋ wa:ŋ tàkræ:ŋ bon ca:n mǔn /

- háj trùet sò:p we:la: naj ka:npruŋ ʔa:hă:n
 cà:k tamra: pruŋ ʔa:hă:n /

- cà:knán háj kòt pùm jâ:ŋ nùŋ k^hrán lǎʔ kòt
 pùm tân lê:k we:la: pruŋ ʔa:hă:n /

- kòt pùm rê:m t^hamŋa:n /

- múə we:la: naj ka:npruŋ ʔa:hă:n t^hǔŋ k^hrûŋ
 nùŋ lǎ:w / háj p^hlík klàp ʔa:hă:n lǎʔ jâ:ŋ ʔa:hă:n dūəj
 we:la: t^hî: lǔə jù: /

- naj k^hàⁿà[?] t^hî: pruj ʔa:hă:n hà:k pè:t prà:tu:
 / taw k^hrûeŋ cà[?] jùt t^hamŋa:n do:j ʔàttàno:mát / hà:k wâ:
 c^hín núe kè:t faj lúk mâj / mâj k^huən pè:t pràtu: taw /
 hâj kòt pùm jóklê:k lăp t^hò:t plák ʔò:k /

(คู่มือการใช้งานเตาไมโครเวฟอีโคลักซ์ : 11-12)

Grill

The Quartz Heater on this oven has only one output power level, therefore when you are going to cook foodstuff such as beefsteak, spareribs, chicken or others with the Grill function, you ought to follow the necessary steps to set the most suitable program.

Ideal Cooking Utensils:

Metal Grill

Heat-resistant glass

Corning ware

Assume to grill the beefsteak for 7 minutes.

Procedure

1. Food should be placed on the Metal Grill first, then put the Metal Grill on the Glass Tray;
2. Please take the menu suggested grill time for reference;
3. Then press “GRILL” once and set the time for 7 minutes;
4. Please press “INSTANT COOK/START” once;
5. Being grilled food should be turned half-way during cooking;
6. The moment the oven door being opened, the Microwave will stop emitting to ensure personal safety. If the food does cause fire, DO NOT open the oven door, keep it shut and press “STOP/CLEAR”, then pull out the power plug immediately.

(Owner’s Manual of Ecolux Microwave : 11-12)

This dissertation exclusively studies cohesion, which appears in the surface structure and linguistic context as the same line of Halliday and Hasan (1976) and de Beaugrande and Dressler (1981)'s works and does not cover other linguistic natures such as a pattern or style of each writer, theme cohesion, linguistic structure, and so on.

3.2 Materials Used in the Study

The data for analysis comes from the column "Setthasart-Noktamra", the economic article of Phujatkan newspaper, from January to December in the year 2000.

3.3 Methods of Collecting Data

There are five steps for data collection. They are as follows:

3.3.1 Surveying articles, thesis, documents and books which are relevant to this study. So that they can be used as guideline for this study.

3.3.2 Collecting newspapers and their articles which were thought could be used as data for this study.

3.3.3 Choosing from the newspapers collected "Setthasart-Noktamra" to be used as data for this analysis.

3.3.4 Choosing from Setthasart-Noktamra only articles which are complete in one issue, amounting to a total number of 28 articles/pieces.

3.4 Methods of Data Analyzing

After studying the various works on cohesion, I have decided to bring to use Halliday and Hasan's (1976) concept of cohesion and de Beaugrande and Dressler's (1987) works as basis for analysis. Some adaptations are however made for the practical purposes of this study. For instance, Halliday and Hasan (1976)'s work has three sub-types of reference; namely personal references, demonstrative references,

and comparative references. However in this study, we also find numerative references in addition to those mentioned subtypes.

(1)...t^ha:ŋ sàt^hǎ:ni: c^hôŋ ní: dâ:j nam bùkk^hon
sǎ:m t^hân

...This channel invites 3 persons

(2) ma: sǎnǎ: k^hwa:mhěn kìəwkàp pa:t^hàʔkàt^hǎ:
k^hrǎŋ ní:

to comment on this lecture.

(3) bùkk^hon t^hân nùŋ sūŋ mâj sâ:p nê: c^hát

One of them whom I don't know,

(4) wâ: ma: p^hû:t naj t^hǎ:náʔ nák wíc^ha:ka:n

that he talks in a status of technocrat

(5) rǔ: nák t^húráʔkìt kan nê:...

or business man...

(Phujatkan, 14 August 2000 pp. 9)

From the example, bùkk^hon t^hân nùŋ in (3) shows the number, one of three, referring back to bùkk^hon sǎ:m t^hân in (1).

The next six chapters (from chapter IV – IX) are the discussion of data analysis and its results.

CHAPTER IV

REFERENCE

Reference is a process whereby we interpret an information, the presupposing element, by reference to another, the presupposed element, that comes before or follows in the linguistic context.

According to Halliday and Hasan, reference is a semantic relation so that the presupposed and the presupposing are not necessary to be in the same part of speech. They said that

“Since the relationship is on the semantic level, the reference item is in no way constrained to match the grammatical class of the item it refers to. What must match are the semantic properties.”

(Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 32)

The following is an example of referential relation.

(1) dóktê: cu:n dɔŋ k^him dâ:j banja:j naj hũək^hô:
 nájɔ:ba:j kìəwkàp ka:nlon^thun do:j tron cà:k tà:ŋ
 prà^hê:t læʔ p^hõn krà^thóp tò: prà^hê:t kawlí:tâ:j

Dr. June Dong Kim had lectured on “the Policy of the Foreign Direct Investment and the Impact on South Korea.”

(2) sũŋ k^hăw còp pàrinja: ʔè:k t^ha:ŋ sè:tt^hàʔsà:t
 cà:k máhă:wítt^háʔja:laj c^hík^ha:kô:...

He has the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Economics from Chicago University...

(3) pàtcùʔban ø pen nákwícaj k^hǒ:ŋ sàt^hǎ:ban
 nájo:ba:j sè:tt^hàʔkìt ráwà:ŋ pràt^hê:t k^hǒ:ŋ pràt^hê:t
 kawlǐ:tâ:j

At present, (he) works as a researcher of the Korean Institute of Economic Policy (KIEP) of South Korea.

(4) láʔ ø jaŋ pen t^hî:prùksǎ: k^hǒ:ŋ rátt^hàʔba:n
 naj dâ:n sè:tt^hàʔkìt ráwà:ŋ pràt^hê:t dūej

And (he) is also the government's consultant on foreign economic affairs.

(5) k^hǎw mi: sùen rûem háj k^ham prùksǎ: kə:
 rátt^hàʔba:n kawlǐ:tâ:j...

He participates in (the economic team) giving advice to the South Korean government...

(Phujatkan, 14 August 2000: pp. 9)

From the example mentioned above in page 44, the pronominal word 'k^hǎw', the reference item, is not of the same grammatical class as the proper name 'dóktê: cu:n dɔŋ k^him', the item to which 'k^hǎw' refers.

Since both the referring item, k^hǎw, and the referred item, dóktê: cu:n dɔŋ k^him, are found within the text, so the reference is endophoric referring to a thing as identified in the surrounding text and we could contrast it with exophoric referring to a thing as identified in the context of situation (context of situation includes the setting, the participants and the relationships between them, the background knowledge and assumptions underlying the communicative event). An Example of exophoric reference, which have been taken from Chuwicha (1986:32-33), follows.

a. ...kə: kô: lâw nít^ha:n tà:ŋ tà:ŋ háj faŋ

And then he told many stories.

- b. \emptyset lâw p^hɔ: t^hũŋ k^hǎw càʔ ti: k^hó:ŋ c^haj
 (he) told (the stories) until it is near the time that he would
- c. t^hâ: kè:t lû:k k^hǎw p^hû:t kâp p^hû: c^ha:j dâ:j
 beat the victory drum if his daughter could speak to a man
- d. k^hǎw kô: càʔ jók hâj ʔàp^híʔsè:k sǒmrót kan lə:j
 He would arrange the marriage (between the man and his daughter).

We see that k^hǎw in (b), (c), and (d) can only be retrieved by having knowledge of Thai culture and the world knowledge of Thai lexical semantics. Chuwicha explained that

“...the identity of the participant still can be easily grasped because of the world knowledge of Thai culture and customs. The knowledge helps the audience know who is who. In the example, the first k^hǎw is easy to identify as royal workers or soldiers even though the first mention of the soldier is somewhere far from the position of this reference. The action of ti: k^hó:ŋ c^haj ‘beat the winning drum’ following the reference k^hǎw gives a hint. In Thai culture, when there is a formal ceremony, no matter whether it is held in an ordinary or a royal place, the drum will be beaten when the most important time comes and in the royal ceremony the beater normally would be a soldier or the royal worker.

The identity of the second and third k^hǎw is also easy to trace by the knowledge of the lexical semantics. The word ʔàp^híʔsè:k sǒmrót ‘marry’ can be used only by the royal family and because the second k^hǎw is a possessive following the noun lû:k k^hǎw ‘his daughter’ in c and in d k^hǎw càʔ jók hâj ‘he will bequeath (his daughter)’. Therefore, ‘k^hǎw’ refers to the king.”

(Chuwicha, 1986: 33)

Anyway, this study only deals with endophoric reference, which is regarded by Halliday and Hasan (1976) to be cohesive.

In this analysis, two aspects of reference will be considered: types of reference and ways in which reference items function within a discourse.

4.1 Types of Reference

In Chanawangsa's study (1986), there are three types of reference items in written and spoken Standard Thai: pronominals, demonstratives and comparatives.

But in the data, the researcher found four sub-types of referential cohesion: pronominal, demonstrative, comparative, and numerative. These devices enable the authors to make multiple references to people and things within a text.

4.1.1 Pronominal Reference

Beside endophoric reference, Chanawangsa also took the exophoric reference into consideration in case of the exophoric reference occurred more than once and referred to the same referent.

She identified four types of pronominal in her work : personal pronouns, pronominally used nouns (such as kinship terms, personal names, friendship terms, occupation terms, and title terms), zero pronouns and possessives.

According to the researcher's data (excluding exophoric reference), there are four different types of pronominal reference--personal pronoun, reflexive pronoun, possessive pronoun, and partitive pronoun.

4.1.1.1 Personal Pronoun

Personal pronoun is served to refer individuals that are named at some other point in the text.

The study of personal pronoun, here, concerns only the third person which is regarded by Halliday and Hasan to be the endophoric reference, as they said that

“The first and second person forms essentially refer to the situation, whereas those of the third person essentially refer anaphorically or cataphorically to the text.”

However, the first and second person forms can emerge in some examples of other chapters in this study. But the researcher will not look into them because they are only the composite units which are used to fulfil the analyzed sentences. Such as the word raw ‘we’ (accompanying with jan ‘still’) in the following example is considered in the aspect of repetition of the structure (See the chapter on repetition).

(1) raw jan tōŋka:n k^hǎ:j sǐnk^há: t^haj
paj t^hûə lô:k

We still want to sell Thai goods to all other countries around the world.

(2) raw jan campen tōŋ nam k^hâw sǐnk^há:
lǎ:j jà:ŋ t^hî: p^hâlît ʔe:ŋ mâj dâ:j cà:k tà:ŋ pràt^hê:t

We must still import many products which we ourselves cannot manufacture from other countries.

(3) raw jan tōŋka:n nák t^hōŋt^hîəw tà:ŋ
pràt^hê:t

We still need foreign travelers.

(4) raw jan tōŋka:n ɲən tra: tà:ŋ
pràt^hê:t ma: c^hamráʔ nî:

We still need money from other countries to pay debt.

(5) raw jan mâj mi: ɲən ʔo:m naj
pràt^hê:t mâ:k p^hiəŋp^ho: tò: k^hwa:mtōŋka:n loŋt^hun

We still have no enough domestic savings
for investing needs.

(Phujatkan, 20 March 2000: pp. 9)

In the researcher's data, only three personal references have
been found, as follows:

Example 1

(1) dóktê: cu:n dōŋ k^him dâ:j banja:j naj hŭək^hô:
nájo:ba:j kiəwkàp ka:nloŋt^hun do:j troŋ cà:k tà:ŋ
pràt^hê:t læʔ p^hõn kràt^hóp tò: pràt^hê:t kawli:tâ:j

Dr. June Dong Kim had lectured on “the Policy of the Foreign Direct
Investment and the Impact on South Korea.”

(2) sūŋ khăw còp pàrinja: ʔè:k t^ha:ŋ sè:tt^hàʔsà:t
cà:k máhă:witt^háʔja:laj c^hík^ha:kô:...

He has the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Economics from Chicago
University...

(3) pàtcùʔban pen nák wícaj k^hõ:ŋ sàt^hă:ban
nájo:ba:j sè:tt^hàʔkìt ráwà:ŋ pràt^hê:t k^hõ:ŋ pràt^hê:t
kawli:tâ:j

At present, (he) works as a researcher of the Korean Institute of Economic
Policy (KIEP) of South Korea.

(4) lǎɛʔ jaŋ pen t^hî: prùksǎ: k^hǒ:ŋ rátt^hàʔba:n naj
 dá:n sè:tt^hàʔkìt ráwà:ŋ pràt^hê:t dūəj

And (he) is also the government's consultant on foreign economic affairs.

(5) k^hǎw mi: sùən rûəm háj k^ham prùksǎ: kà:
 rátt^hàʔba:n kawlí:tâ:j...

He participates in (the economic team) giving advice to the South Korean government...

(Phujatkan, 14 August 2000: pp. 9)

In example (1), the third-person form 'k^hǎw' in (2) and (5), refer back to the proper name 'dóktê: cu:n don k^him' in (1). And since there are two reference items 'k^hǎw', this instance characteristically form what we are called 'COHESIVE CHAIN' - the reference items point back to the substantial element more than once.

Example 2

(1) t^hunníʔjom tōŋka:n klùm k^hon t^hî: rú:sùk mi:
 ʔìtsàràʔ lǎɛʔ pen tuə k^hǒ:ŋ tuə ʔe:ŋ

Capitalism needs a group of people who have a free spirit and be themselves.

(2) mâj tòk jù: naj ʔamnâ:t rǔ: làkka:n rǔ: k^hwa:m
 k^hít daj pen p^hísè:t

(They) are not especially under any power, rule, or thought.

(3) p^hróm t^hi: càʔ dâ:jráp k^hamsàŋ lǎɛʔ pàtìʔbàt
 ta:m siŋ t^hî: na:jcâŋ k^hâ:t wǎŋ cà:k p^hûək k^hǎw

(They) must be ready to follow an order, and behave in the way that their employer expects to get from them.

(Phujatkan, 15 May 2000: pp. 9)

The plural pronoun p^hûək k^hǎw in (3) refers back to the compound noun klùm k^hon in (1).

Example 3

(1) najt^hî:sùt ná:m naj kâ:w nán ʔà:t t^ham hâj k^hun
rú:sùk ʔùtʔàt

Finally, the water in the last glass may make you feel oppressed.

(2) mâj sàba:j t^hó:ŋ

and have a stuffy feeling in the stomach.

(3) nân k^hu: k^hun kamlaŋ dù:m man mâ:k kə:n paj

That is you are drinking it too much.

(Phujatkan, 19 June 2000: pp. 9)

From the example (3), the pronoun “man ‘it’ in sentence (3) refers back to the noun phrase ná:m naj kâ:w nán which comes before in (1).

4.1.1.2 Reflexive Pronoun

There are four reflexive-pronoun forms which are employed to identify some individuals that are specified earlier in the text, namely tue ʔe:ŋ, ton ʔe:ŋ, ʔe:ŋ, and ton.

Example 4

(1) jà:ŋrajkô:ta:m tôŋ jə:mráp wâ:

However, (we) have to accept that,

(2) má: ŋa:n bi: ʔo: ʔaj fə: mi: ka:nk^hǎ:j sĭnk^há:

kan bâ:ŋ

even though there are a number of booths selling goods in the BOI fair 2000,

(3) t̄ə: n̄an m̄aj c^hâj pen wát^hù? pràsǒŋ l̄ak k^hǒ:ŋ

ŋa:n

such is not a main objective of the fair.

(4) t̄ə: t^hî: t̄oŋ mi: k̄o: p^hûə duŋ k^hon ma: t^hîəw ŋa:n

The source of the existence (of these booths) is to draw crowds visiting the fair,

(5) l̄ə? pen ka:nhǎ: ra:jd̄a:j p^hê:m t̄ə:m p^hûə líəŋ

ton ʔe:ŋ t^hâwnán

and to earn more money to sustain (the fair) itself only.

(Phujatkan, 6 March 2000: pp. 9)

The reflexive pronoun 'ton ʔe:ŋ' in (5) presupposes the noun phrase 'ŋa:n bi: ʔo: ʔaj fæ:' in (1) and it makes the sequence of sentences in this discourse hang together.

Example 5

(1) p^hû: k^hon s̄uən j̄àj cà? p^hája:ja:m ʔaw c^háná?

k^hwa:mrú:sùk dò:tdiəw l̄ə? kaŋwon lúk lúk

Most of people try to overcome (their) feeling of loneliness and deep anxiety

(2) d̄uəj ka:nhǎ: k^hwa:mbant^hə:ŋ háj k̄ə: tue ʔe:ŋ

naj láksàná? tà:ŋ tà:ŋ

by trying many things to keep themselves entertained.

(3) c^hên ka:nbo:rí?p^hô:k sǎ:ŋ sǐəŋ cà:k ʔùtsǎ:hàkam

bant^hə:ŋ

Such as allowing themselves to be dazzled by light and sound from the entertainment industry,

(4) ka:nsâ:ŋ k^hwa:mp^huŋp^ho:caj hâj kà: ton ʔe:ŋ
 dûəj ka:nsú: sĭnk^há: màj màj

and making satisfaction for themselves by shopping new products.

(Phujatkan, 15 May 2000: pp. 9)

The two subsequent reference items tuə ʔe:ŋ , in (2), and ton ʔe:ŋ , in (4), presuppose by referring back to p^hû: k^hon sùən jâj, in (1).

Example 6

(1) ...nûəŋcà:k k^hwa:mc^huət^hũ: k^hǒ:ŋ p^hû: sú: jôm cà?
 mòt paj

...Because the consumers' trust (in the manufacturer) will disappear

(2) mûə p^hóp wâ: sĭnk^hâ: t^hî: ton sú: nán dôj
 k^hunnáʔp^hâ:p

when finding that the goods he had purchased are of low quality.

(Phujatkan, 28 August 2000: pp. 9)

The presupposing element, ton, points back to the presupposed, p^hû: sú:, in (1).

Example 7

(1) nô:kcà:k ní: krom ʔa:c^hi:wáʔsùksă: cà? pè:t
 ʔo:kà:t hâj p^hâ:k ʔè:kkàc^hon

Moreover, the Vocational Education Department will offer a chance to a private sector

(2) pen p^hû: lûək

to be the selector of

(3) lǎəʔ p^hátt^háʔna: lǎksù:t ka:nriən lǎəʔ ka:nfùk

ʔòprom ʔe:ŋ

and develop a course of study and training .

(Phujatkan, 21 August 2000: pp. 9)

The reflexive pronoun ‘ʔe:ŋ’ in (3) refers back to the noun phrase p^hâ:k ʔè:kkàc^hon in (1).

Example 8

(1) t^hî: p^hà:n ma: raw mák càʔ hěn k^hon

From the past, we often see the people

(2) t^hî: c^hô:p wípâ:k wíca:n kan ŋâ:j ŋâ:j

who casually pass judgement on (others)

(3) p^hróʔ mâj tôŋ ráp p^hìtc^hô:p ʔe:ŋ

since (they) must not be held responsible for their own actions.

(Phujatkan, 20 March 2000: pp. 9)

In example (8), the word ʔe:ŋ in (3) presupposes k^hon in (1).

4.1.1.3 Possessive Pronoun

This reference is expressed through a possessive marker ‘k^hǒ:ŋ’ and followed by possessors. They serve to refer to noun phrase or possessive phrase that comes before. Possessive pronoun items found in this study are k^hǒ:ŋ t^hán k^hû: , k^hǒ:ŋ ton , k^hǒ:ŋ tonʔe:ŋ , k^hǒ:ŋ tuəʔe:ŋ , k^hǒ:ŋ k^hraj.

Example 9

(1) ...naj k^hànà? t^hî: tamnàŋ ʔandàp sǎ:ŋ kla:j pen
 k^hǒ:ŋ bi: ʔe: ʔét ʔép c^hew

Whereas the second position is of BASF-SHELL,

(2) lǎŋ ka:npràkà:t ruəm t^húráʔkìt p^ho:lî:
 ʔo:le:fin k^hǒ:ŋ t^hán k^hû: mûə pla:j pi: t^hî: p^hà:n ma:

after the announcement of joint-venture of poly-olephins business of both
 (two companies) late last year.

(Phujatkan, 1 May 2000: pp. 9)

From the example (9), the possessives phrase “k^hǒ:ŋ t^hán k^hû:” in (2)
 refers back to the possessive phrase “k^hǒ:ŋ bi: ʔe: ʔét ʔép c^hew” in (1).

Example 10

(1) c^hên naj ʔàdì:t ʔa:mo:kô: sūŋ pen p^hû: p^hàlìt
 sǎ:n p^hi: t^hi: ʔe: ra:j jàj sùt naj lô:k

Such as in the past, Amoco which is the biggest producer of PTA substances
 of the world

(2) mi: bòtbà:t naj ka:nkamnòt ra:k^ha: k^hǒ:ŋ sǎ:n
 ní: naj tàlà:t lô:k dâ:j

had played the role in settling a price of these substances in the world market.

(3) tæ: sǎmràp k^hû:k^hàŋ ra:j lék

But for smaller companies,

(4) jôm mi: p^hǒn k^hô:nk^hâ:ŋ mâ:k naj ka:nràksǎ:
 sùənbàŋ tàlà:t k^hǒ:ŋ ton

are rather much affected (by the settled price of bigger companies) in preserving shares in their own market.

(Phujatkan, 1 May 2000: pp. 9)

The possessive phrase “k^hǒ:ŋ ton” in (4) presupposes by referring back to the noun phrase “k^hû:k^hæŋ ra:j lék” in (3).

Example 11

(1) p^hû: bɔ:ríʔp^hô:k ʔe:ŋ kô: mâj dâ:j trànàk t^hũŋ
ʔìtt^híʔp^hon k^hǒ:ŋ pàtcaj rô:p rô:p tuə

The consumers themselves do not realize the various factors surrounding them,

(2) t^hî: kamnòt p^hrúttìʔkam ka:nbɔ:ríʔp^hô:k
k^hǒ:ŋ tonʔe:ŋ tæ: jà:ŋ daj

which stipulate (their) own consuming behaviour.

(Phujatkan, 15 May 2000: pp. 9)

The possessive phrase “k^hǒ:ŋ tonʔe:ŋ” identify by reference to the noun phrase “p^hû: bɔ:ríʔp^hô:k ʔe:ŋ” in (1).

Example 12

(4) ...do:j c^hàp^hóʔ p^hû: t^hî: p^hàlìt p^hûə sòn ʔò:k...

..., especially the entrepreneur who manufactures (goods) for exporting...

(2) k^huən ráksă: k^hunnáʔp^hâ:p k^hǒ:ŋ sĭnk^há: háj
dâ:j mâ:ttràʔt^hă:n

should maintain the quality of products conforming to standards.

(4) c^hên mâj plo:m pon mâj sàj sǎ:n k^he:mi:...

Such as not adulterate, not add chemical substances...

(4) p^hróʔ nân t^hâwkàp t^hân t^hamla:j ʔàna:k^hót
k^hǒ:ŋ tuə ʔe:ŋ láʔ p^hûən rûəmc^hâ:t

Since that means you frustrate the future of yourself and compatriots.

(Phujatkan, 28 August 2000: pp. 9)

The possessive phrase “k^hǒ:ŋ tuə ʔe:ŋ” presupposes the noun phrase “p^hû: t^hî: p^hâlît p^hûə sòŋ ʔò:k”, and this ties the sentences in the discourse together.

Example 13

(1) sá pp^há ja:kɔ:n mánút t^hi: mi: k^hunnáʔ
 p^hâ:p khǒ:ŋ pràt^hê:t nán

The human resources with (high) quality of (our) country,

(2) càʔ tōŋ mâj rák c^hâ:t dūəj pà:k

must not love the country by words,

(3) càʔ tōŋ mâj t^hòkt^hǐəŋ kan naj rûəŋ ráj sǎ:rǎʔ

must not argue on nonsense,

(4) wâ: lûət rák c^hâ:t k^hǒ:ŋ k^hraj k^hêm k^hôn

kwà: kan

that who more loves the country than others.

(Phujatkan, 14 August 2000: pp. 9)

The possessive phrase “k^hǒ:ŋ k^hraj” in (4) refers back to the noun phrase

“sápp^háʔja:kɔ:n mánút” in (1).

4.1.1.4 Partitive Pronoun

This type of pronominal is used to refer to a part or quantity of a noun mentioned earlier at some point in the text. Partitive Pronouns found in this study are “tà:ŋ” and “bâ:ŋ”.

Example 14

(1) bo:ríʔsàt kawlí:tâ:j mâ:k ma:j lă:j hæn

Many of South Korean companies,

(2) t^hî: pràsòp până: t^ha:ŋ ka:nŋən

which face a financial problem,

(3) tà:ŋ hâ: kan k^hă:j kítcàʔka:n

(each) (parade) (together) (sell) (business)

sell their business to foreigners.

(Phujatkan, 14 August 2000: pp. 9)

In example (14), the word “tà:ŋ” presupposes by showing each member of the noun phrase, “bo:ríʔsàt kawlí:tâ:j mâ:k ma:j lă:j hæn”, individually.

Example 15

(1) mi: kràsă: k^hà:w să:n k^hô:mu:n t^hî: rábùʔ p^hû:
kràt^ham p^hít jù: mâ:k ma:j

There is a flow of information and news, which names wrongdoers.

(2) sŭŋ lă:j k^hon pen bùkk^hon t^hî: mi: c^hŭ: sĭəŋ

Many of them are famous persons.

(3) bā:ŋ kô: nĭ: paj tà:ŋ prət^hê:t

Some have fled by going aboard.

(4) bā:ŋ kô: pen jâ:t mít k^hǒ:ŋ nák ka:nmŭəŋ

Some are friends and relations of politicians.

(Phujatkan, 3 July 2000: pp.9)

The partitive pronoun bā:ŋ 'some' in (3) and (4) points back to lă:j k^hon in (2).

4.1.2 Demonstrative Reference

Demonstrative reference is reference by locating the referent on a scale of proximity.

In Halliday and Hasan (1976) and Chanawangsa (1986)'s works, there are two types of demonstrative reference: circumstantial demonstratives, consisting of "here", "there", "now" and "then", and nominal demonstratives (or what are called by Chanawangsa "participant demonstratives"), consisting of "this", "these", "that", "those" and "the". Halliday and Hasan explained that

"The circumstantial (adverbial) demonstratives *here, there, now* and *then* refer to the location of a process in space or time, and they normally do so directly, not via the location of some person or object that is participating in the process; hence they typically function as Adjuncts in the clause, not as elements within the nominal group. They have a secondary function as Qualifiers, as in *that man there*. The remaining (nominal) demonstratives *this, these, that, those*, and *the* refer to the location of some

thing, typically some entity - person or object -- that is participating in the process; they therefore occur as elements within the nominal group. They belong to the class of determiners, and have the experiential function of Deictic; in the logical structure they function either as Modifier or as Head, ...”

(Halliday and Hasan, 1976 : 57-58)

However, according to the researcher's data only the nominal demonstratives are found due to this dissertation studies only the expository discourse, which time and space are not its characteristics.

In this analysis, there are two sub-types of demonstrative reference: demonstrative pronoun and demonstrative determiner.

4.1.2.1 Demonstrative Pronoun

There are two demonstrative pronouns –“nân” (far), "nî:" (near)-- which function as Head emerging in this study.

Example 16

(1) sîŋ t^hî: k^huən k^hamnuŋ t^hũŋ naj t^hǎ:ná? p^hû: p^hàlìt

Things which (you), as in a state of the manufacturer, should take into consideration

(2) k^hu: k^hwa:msû:sàt lǎ? k^hunná?t^ham naj ka:n

p^hàlìt sǐnk^há:

are loyalty and moral principles in manufacturing goods,

(3) do:j c^hàp^hó? p^hû: t^hî: p^hàlìt p^hûə sòŋ ?ò:k

especially the entrepreneur who manufactures (goods) for exporting.

(4) klà:wk^hu: k^huən ráksǎ: k^hunná?p^hâ:p k^hǒ:ŋ
 sǐnk^há: hâj dâ:j mâ:ttrà?t^hǎ:n

That is (you) should maintain the quality of products conforming to standards.

(5) c^hên mâj plo:m pon

Such as not adulterate,

(6) mâj sàj sǎ:n k^he:mi: t^hî: pen ?antà?ra:j tò:
p^hû: bô:rí?p^hô:k

not add chemical substances which is harmful to the consumers,

(7) rǔ: kèpkìew k^hànà? t^hî: p^hû:t p^hǒn rǔ:
p^hǒnlá?má:j jaŋ mi: sǎ:n tòk k^há:ŋ rǔ: jaŋ mâj k^hróp
kàmnòt kèpkìew

or not harvest crops or fruits, which the (chemical) substances have been still left or do not reach the time to harvest.

(8) p^hró? nân t^hâwkâp t^hân t^hamla:j ?àna:k^hót k^hǒ:ŋ
 tuə?e:ŋ lá:ʔ p^hûən rûəm c^hâ:t

Since that means you frustrate the future of yourself and compatriots.

(Phujatkan, 28 August 2000: pp. 9)

In example (16), the demonstrative pronoun “nân” in (8) refers to the unit beyond the sentence -- beginning from the word “mâj” in (5) to “kèpkìew” in (7).

Example 17

(1) sǎŋk^hom k^hǒ:ŋ lô:k t^hunní?jom nán

In capitalist world,

(2) sě:ri:p^hâ:p p^ha:jtâ:j konkaj tǎlà:t cà? pen
tuə kàmnòt k^hwa:mpenpaj k^hǒ:ŋ t^húk sìn

freedom under marketing mechanism will stipulate the existence of everything

(3) mă: kràt^hâŋ k^hwa:msămp^han k^hǒ:ŋ p^hû: k^hon naj sǎŋk^hom

even a relation between people in a society.

(4) sǐnk^há: daj kô:ta:m cà? mâj mi: k^hunk^hâ: t^ha:ŋ sè:tt^hà?kìt lə:j

Any products will be worthless

(5) hà:k mâj mi: k^ha:mtôŋka:n sǐnk^há: nán naj tâlà:t

if there is no demand of them in a market.

(6) nî: k^hu: làkka:n t^hî: sǎmk^han

This is the important rule (of capitalism).

(Phujatkan, 15 May 2000: pp. 9)

Here the demonstrative pronoun "nî:" in (6) refers back to all of the underlined part from (2) to (5).

4.1.2.2 Demonstrative Determiner

There are six demonstrative determiners which function as Modifier: “nî:” (this), “nán” (that), “láv nî:” (these), “daj klà:w”(as mentioned), “daj k^hâ:w k^hâ:ŋ tôn” (as mentioned above), “k^hâ:ŋ tôn” (above) Examples of demonstrative determiner follow.

Example 18

(1) p^hǒm p^hêŋ cà? dâ:j mi: ?o:kà:t paj rápprà?t^ha:n ?a:hǎ:n naj p^hátta:k^ha:n c^hû: daj

I had just an opportunity to eat at one of the more famous

(2) láə? kamlaŋ pen t^hî: níjom hæŋ nùŋ

and popular restaurants,

(3) do:j càt rá:n pen pràp^hê:t t^hî: ?à:t rîək wâ:

rá:n ?a:hă:n bə:p ?ow ju: k^hæ:n ?í:t

where is arranged as what we may call “ALL YOU CAN EAT RESTAURANT”.

(4) rá:n ?a:hă:n láksànà?ní: do:j c^hàp^hó? rá:n

pràp^hê:t t^hî: bə:rí?ka:n ?a:hă:n tà:ŋc^hâ:t...

This type of restaurant, especially the restaurant which serves foreign food...

(Phujatkan, 19 June 2000: pp. 9)

rá:n ?a:hă:n láksànà? ní: specifies by referring back to

rá:n ?a:hă:n bə:p ?ow ju: k^hæ:n ?í:t in (3).

Example 19

(1) ka:nplìenplæ:ŋ pen sîŋ t^hî: lî:k lîeŋ máj

dâ:j

Change is a thing which (we) cannot avoid.

(2) pen sàtcàt^ham k^hǒ:ŋ lô:k

(It) is the reality of the world.

(3) láə? mi: láksànà? pen pra:kòttàka:n t^ha:ŋ

săŋk^hom t^hî: kè:t k^hûn tàlò:t we:la:

And it seems the social phenomenon, which occurs all the time.

(4) tà: ka:nplìenplæ:ŋ nán kô: mák cà? nam ma: sîŋ

sîŋ t^hî: di: kwà: c^hên diəw kan

However, that change often brings about the better thing too.

(Phujatkan, 8 May 2000: pp. 9)

The noun phrase, ka:nplìenplæ:ŋ nán, in (4) specifies the noun phrase, ka:nplìenplæ:ŋ, in (1).

Example 20

(1) ɲa:n bi: ʔo: ʔaj fæ: sǔ:ŋp^han sũŋ cət k^hũm
 ráwà:ŋ want^h í: sǐpsǎ:m t^hũŋ sǐpcèt kump^ha:p^han
 sǔ:ŋp^han hâ:ró:j sǐ:sǐpsǎ:m

The BOI fair 2000, which had been held between 3 Feb. and 17 Feb. 2000,

(2) náp wâ: pràsòp p^hǒn sǎmrèt jà:ŋ ɲótɲa:m
 meets with great success.

(3) mi: p^hû: k^hâw c^hom mâ:k ma:j pen pràwàttika:n
 t^hâw t^hî k^hə:j cət ma: naj pràt^hê:t t^haj

It has the greatest number of about 4.5 million spectators on record for the fairs, which have been ever held in Thailand so far.

(4) k^hwa:msǎmrèt k^hâ:ŋ tòn mâj c^hâj sǐŋ t^hî hǎ: ma:
 dâ:j ɲâ:j ɲâ:j

The above success is not a thing which we can meet easily.

(Phujatkan, 6 March 2000: pp. 9)

k^hwa:msǎmrèt k^hâ:ŋ tòn in (4) presupposes by referring back to p^hǒn sǎmrèt in (2).

Example 21

(1) mǎ: sàtsuèn ka:nnam k^hâw wátt^hùʔdìp cà:k tà:ŋ

pràt^hê:t naj ba:ŋ ʔùtsă:hàkam cà sŭ:ŋ

Even though a proportion of the importation of raw materials is high in some industries,

(2) t̄: t^hâ: du: næ:wnó:m t^hî: p^hà:n ma: cà? hěn wâ:
sàtsùen daŋ klà:w dâ:j lót loŋ rŭej rŭej

this proportion continually decreases if (we) look on from the past trend.

(Phujatkan, 20 March 2000: pp. 9)

The noun phrase sàtsùen daŋ klà:w in (2) refers to the noun phrase sàtsùen ka:nnam k^hâw wátt^hùdìp cà:k tà:ŋ pràt^hê:t in the previous sentence.

Note

It is interesting to note that there are three levels of presupposed items or, in other words, there are three levels of unit of language which can be referred to by demonstrative items: word, phrase, and discourse.

Levels of Presupposed Items

Demonstrative items can refer to a single word, phrase, or much longer chunks of discourse.

1. Word Level

Some demonstrative items presuppose others by referring back to some single word, that are mentioned earlier.

According to the researcher's data, only nominal representations are found.

In the following examples, in example (22), ka:n plìenplæ:ŋ nán refers back to the word ka:nplìenplæ:ŋ which is mentioned earlier in the opening sentence. In example (23), the noun plus following demonstrative item k^howtâ: daŋ klà:w refers to the word k^howtâ: which is mentioned before.

Example 22

(1) ka:nplìenplæ:ŋ pen sìn t^hî: lì:k liəŋ mâj dâ:j

Change is a thing which (we) cannot avoid.

(2) pen sàtcà?t^ham k^hǒ:ŋ lô:k

(It) is the reality of the world.

(3) lǎ? mi: láksàná? pen pra:kòttàka:n t^ha:ŋ sǎŋk^hom
t^hî: kè:t k^hûn tàlò:t we:la:

And (it) seems the social phenomenon, which occurs all the time.

(4) tǎ: ka:nplìenplæ:ŋ nán kô: mák cà? nam ma: sîn
sìn t^hî: di: kwà: c^hên diəw kan

However, that change often brings about the better thing too.

(Phujatkan, 8 May 2000: pp. 9)

Example 23

(1) ra:jdâ:j k^hǒ:ŋ mu:nnít^hí? sùen jàj ma: cà:k ŋen
bo:rí?cà:k

The majority of income of the foundation comes from donating money,

(2) klà:wk^hu: sàma:k^hom paj k^hǒ: k^howtâ: cà:k
kràsueŋ p^ha:nít

namely, the Association (of Thai Clothing Industry) ask the Ministry of Commerce for quotas.

(3) cà:k nán cà? nam k^howtâ: daŋ klà:w ma: càp c^hàlà:k

Then, (the association) brings these quotas to draw lots.

(Phujatkan, 27 March 2000: pp. 9)

2. Phrase Level

A phrase may be referred to by a noun or noun phrase plus a following demonstrative item. There are three different sub-types of such presupposed phrase: noun phrase, verb phrase, and temporal phrase.

(1) Noun Phrase

A noun phrase may be referred to by a demonstrative. Examples follow:

Example 24

(1) ŋa:n bi: ?o: ?aj fæ: sǒ:ŋp^han cuŋ tæ:ktà:ŋ
cà:k nít^hátsàka:n c^hàp^hó? pràp^hê:t c^hên kàsè:ttàkam
hàtt^hà?kam t^haj

The BOI fair 2000; therefore differs from other specific kinds of exposition, such as agriculture, Thai handicraft, etc.

(2) sŭŋ mi: nùəj rā:tc^háka:n t^hî: kìəwk^hôŋ do:j
troŋ ráp p^hítc^hô:p c^hên kràsueŋ kàsè:t lé? sàhà?ko:n
krom p^hátt^há?na: c^humc^hon krom sòŋsǎ:m ?ùtsǎ:hàkam

(These expositions) have government agents, which are directly concerned, manage (them) such as the Ministry of Agriculture and Co-operative, the Department of Community Development, the Department of Industrial Promotion, etc.

(3) sŭŋ nùejŋa:n làw ní: kô: dâ:j càt ŋa:n kan mâ:k
ma:j jù: læ:w

Such agents have arranged so many expositions.

(Phujatkan, 6 March 2000: pp. 9)

nùejŋa:n làw ní: in (3) refers back to both nuəj rā:t c^háka:n, which we can see from a repetition of “nùej” and “nùejŋa:n” is also a superordinate of “nùej rā:tc^háka:n” , and kràsueŋ kàsè:t læ? sàhàkɔ:n krom phátthána: c^humc^hon krom sòŋšə:m ʔùtsǎ:hàkam , which we can see from “nùejŋa:n” being a general term of “kràsueŋ... ʔùtsǎ:hàkam” and the demonstrative word “làw ní:” is used to represent a plural noun.

Example 25

(1) mi: pa:t^hàʔkàt^hǎ: rŭeŋ sè:tt^hàkìt ka:nmuəŋ t^haj lǎŋ lŭəktâŋ k^hǒ:ŋ na:jók rátt^hàmontri: c^huen lì:kp^haj

There was a lecture on “Thai Economics and Politics after Election” of Prime Minister Chuan Leekpai.

(2) læ? dâ:j t^hà:jt^hô:t sòt p^hà:n c^hôŋ k^hà:w ne:c^hân c^hæ:nnæw k^hǒ:ŋ k^he:bên t^hi:wi: ju: bi: si:

and had been put on the air through the Nation channel of UBC’s cable T.V.

(3) p^ha:jlǎŋ cà:k t^hî: pa:t^hàʔkàt^hǎ: còp loŋ

After ending of the lecture,

(4) t^ha:ŋ sàt^hǎ:ni: c^hôŋ ní: dâ:j nam bùkk^hon sǎ:m
t^hân

this channel brought three people

(5) ma: sàñě: k^hwa:mhěn kìəwkàp pa:t^hàʔkàt^hǎ:

k^hrán ní:

to comment on this lecture.

(Phujatkan, 14 August 2000: pp. 9)

From the example (25), pa:t^hàʔkàt^hǎ: k^hrán ní: refers back to all of the underlined part of (1) and pa:t^hàʔkàt^hǎ: in (4) whereas sàt^hǎ:ní: c^hôŋ ní: in (5) presupposes the underlined noun phrase in (3).

Example 26

(1) t^húrákìt ʔàsǎŋhǎ: rímásáp k^hə:j k^hrɔ:ŋ ʔandáp nùŋ

Real estate business used to possess the first rank

(2) naj ka:nt^hûm ŋən p^hûə ka:nk^hô:tsàna:

in spending money for advertising.

(3) tǎ: nǎj c^hûəŋ pi: sǔ:ŋphan hâ:ró:j sî:sìpʔèt
t^hũŋ sǔ:ŋp^han hâ:ró:j sî:sìpsǔ:ŋ

But between the year 1998 and 1999,

(4) t^húrákìt pràp^hê:t ní: klàp mâj tìt jù: naj

ʔandáp nùŋ t^hũŋ sìp k^hǔ:ŋ t^húrákìt

this kind of business does not reach even any of the top ten rank of business

(5) t^hî: c^háj ŋòp k^hô:tsàna: sǔ:ŋ sùt

which spend money for an advertisement.

(Phujatkan, 26 June 2000: pp. 9)

In example (26), the t^húrákìt pràp^hê:t ní: in (3) refers back to the noun phrase t^húrákìt ?àsǎṅhǎ: rímásáp in (1).

(2) Verb Phrase

A verb phrase is represented by a noun phrase plus a following demonstrative determiner that follows. Only one example is found in the researcher's data.

Example 27

(1) mé: naj rájǎ? rǎ:k mi: pràc^ha:c^hon kawlǐ:tâ:j
camnuən mâ:k

Although, at the first time, there was a great number of South Korean people

(2) mâ:j hěndûej kàp ka:nlon^hun cà:k tà:ṅ pràt^hê:t

who did not agree to a foreign investment,

(3) tà: pàtcùban k^hwa:mk^híthěṅ t^hamno:ṅ daṅ klà:w

...

at present, such opinion...

(Phujatkan, 24 April 2000: pp. 9)

k^hwa:mk^híthěṅ t^hamno:ṅ daṅ klà:w in (3) refers back to the verb phrase in (2).

(3) Temporal Phrase

A temporal phrase may be referred to by a temporal word plus following demonstrative determiner. Examples follow.

Example 28

(1) p^hû: bɔ: ríhǎ:n lǎɛʔ cǎ:wná:t^hî k^hǒ:ŋ bi: ʔɔ:
ʔaj kô: dâ:j jók t^hi:m paj c^hí:cæ:ŋ

The administration and officers of BOI went to explain

(2) lǎɛʔ tò:p k^hamt^hǎ:m tò: nák loŋt^hun lǎɛʔ p^hû:
sǒncaj mûe want^hî: jî:sìphâ: kàráʔkàda:k^hom t^hî: p^hà:n
ma:...

and answer questions to investors and interested people on the past 25 July
(2000)...

(3) k^hamt^hǎ:m t^hî: mi: p^hû: sò:pt^hǎ:m kan mâ:k ma:j
naj wan nán...

The question which was asked by many people on that day...

(Phujatkan, 7 August 2000: pp. 9)

wan nán in (3) identifies by reference to want^hî: jî:sìphâ:
kàráʔkàda:k^hom t^hî: p^hà:n ma: in (2).

Example 29

(1) naj c^hûeŋ t^hî: sè:tt^hàkìt k^hǒ:ŋ pràt^hê:t k^hàjǎ:j
tue naj rádàp sǔ:ŋ

At the time when the economic of (our) country expanded at high level,

(2) p^ha:rákìt t^hî: bi: ʔɔ: ʔaj kràt^ham

a mission, which BOI had done,

(3) kô: càʔ mûŋ nén paj t^hî: k^hwa:mrûetrew naj
ka:nháj bɔ:ríka:n dâ:n ka:nloŋt^hun

was to stress on giving quick service on investment (to investors)

(4) k^hro:ŋsâ:ŋ lǎe? rábòp ɲa:n naj rájá? nán cun
t^hù:k kamnòt k^hún

So a structure and work system, at that time, was established.

(Phujatkan, 28 May 2000: pp. 9)

rájá? nán refers back to the temporal phrase
c^hûeŋ t^hî: sè:tt^hàkìt k^hǒ:ŋ pràt^hê:t k^hàjǎ:j tuə naj
rádàp sǔ:ŋ in (1).

3. Discourse Level

A discourse unit - a unit beyond the sentence - may be referred to by a noun phrase plus a following demonstrative determiner.

Example 30

(1) jà:ŋraj kô:ta:m dâ:j mi: p^hû: wíp^há:k wíca:n
kan mâ:k

Anyway, there are so many people criticize

(2) wâ: ɲa:n bi: ?o: ?aj fæ: pen ɲa:n càpc^hà:j bâ:ŋ
that the BOI fair is a jumble fair,

(3) mâj sòŋsǎ:m hàtt^hàkam t^haj bâ:ŋ

(it) does not promote Thai handicraft,

(4) mâj sàdæ:ŋ sǐnk^há: kàsè:ttàkam bâ:ŋ

(it) does not exhibit agricultural products,

(5) sàdæ:ŋ tà: sǐnk^há: t^hî: p^hàlìt naj tà:ŋ
pràt^hê:t bâ:ŋ

(it) does exhibit foreign goods only,

(6) mâj dâ:j sàdæ:ŋ t^hékno:lo:ji: k^hǒ:ŋ k^hon t^haj
bâ:ŋ

(it) does not show any technology of Thai people,

(7) pen rû:pbæ:p ŋa:n t^hî: lá:sàmǎj...

(it) is an outmoded fair arrangement...

(8) p^hǒm k^hít wâ: k^hǒ: wíp^hâ:k wíca:n làw ní: ba:ŋ
sùen kô: mi: hè:tp^hǒn

I think that some of these criticisms are reasonable.

(Phujatkan, 6 March 2000: pp. 9)

k^hô: wíp^hâ:k wíca:n làw ní: refers to the discourse, beginning from the sentence in (2) to the sentence in (7).

Example 31

(1) má:wâ: ʔùtsǎ:hàkam k^hrûeŋnûnhòm k^hǒ:ŋ pràt^hê:t
t^haj jaŋ k^hoŋ damnə:nka:n paj dâ:j k^hô:nk^hâ:ŋ di: naj
p^ha:wáʔ sè:tt^hàkìt pàtcùban

Although the clothing industry of Thailand can still proceed rather good at the present economic critical time,

(2) tà: kô: jaŋ mi: ka:nklà:w kan sàmǎ: naj wê:twon
wíc^ha:ka:n sàmǎ: wâ:

there is always a remark from a realm of technocrat that

(3) k^hrûeŋnûnhòm pen ʔùtsǎ:hàkam tàwan tòk din
sansét ʔindastrî:

clothing is a “Sunset Industry”.

(4) do:j ʔâ:ŋ wâ: pràt^hê:t t^haj mâj sǎ:mâ:t k^hæŋk^hǎn
kàp pràt^hê:t ʔù:n ʔù:n t^hî: mi: k^hâ:câ:ŋ ræ:ŋŋa:n tà

kwà: dâ:j

By claiming that Thailand cannot compete with other countries, which have lower wages of labour.

(5) ʔùtsǎ:hàkam ní: cwŋ lì:k nǐ: c^háta:kam mâj p^hón

This industry; therefore, cannot avoid to be affected by the economic crisis.

(6) ka:nwík^hróʔ k^hâ:ŋ tón mâj wâ: càʔ pen ka:nwík^hróʔ
wícaj kan jà:ŋ ciŋcaŋ

The above analysis, no matter whether it is a serious analysis

(7) rǔ: pen p^hiəŋ k^hâ: ka:nwík^hróʔ jà:ŋ p^hǐwp^hě:n...

or only a superficial analysis...

(Phujatkan, 27 March 2000: pp. 9)

ka:nwík^hróʔ k^hâ:ŋ tón in (6) refers back to the sequence of sentences from (3) to (5).

Example 32

(1) p^ha:jlǎŋ cà:k t^hí: kawlǐ:tâ:j pràsòp wíkrìt
sè:tt^hàkìt mûə pi: sǒ:ŋp^han hâró:j sì:sìp

After South Korea faced an economic crisis in 1997,

(2) kawlǐ:tâ:j tōŋ k^hâw k^hro:ŋka:n k^hǒ:ŋ ʔaj ʔem
ʔép tò: cà:k t^haj léʔ ʔindo:ni:sie

She was third country to accept IMF's project, following Thailand and Indonesia.

(3) naj rájáʔ rê:k dâ:j pràsòp wíkrìt nàk má:k

At the beginning, (South Korea) had faced the (economic) crisis crucially

(4) mâj wâ: cà? pen k^hâ: ñen wə:n t^hî: ?ò:n tuə loŋ
mâ:k

such as a so weakening of the value of the von,

(5) ka:ntè:pto: t^ha:ŋ sè:tt^hàkìt tìt lóp

an economic growth is in deficit,

(6) ka:nplòt k^hon ña:n ?òk camnuən mâ:k

laying off a great number of workers,

(7) bo:rísàt lóm lála:j mâ:kma:j...

many companies became bankrupt, etc...

(8) k^hăw dâ:j klà:w t^hũŋ ka:nloŋt^hun do:j troŋ
cà:k tà:ŋ pràt^hê:t

She said about the foreign direct investment

(9) do:j c^háj k^hamp^hũ:t wâ: jìŋ pu:n nát diəw dâ:j
nók hâ: tuə

by using a saying that “Shooting five birds with one bullet”,

(10) klà:wk^hu: kâ:k^hă:j panhă: mâ:k ma:j dan klà:w
k^hâ:ŋ tòn...

namely solving so many problems mentioned above...

(Phujatkan, 14 August 2000: pp. 9)

panhă: mâ:kma:j dan klà:w k^hâ:ŋ tòn in (10) represents the underlined part from (4) to (7).

4.1.3 Comparative Reference

In Halliday and Hasan’s work (1976), comparative references are expressed through adjectives or adverbs which serves to compare items which can be divided into two types: general comparison and particular comparison. In this study

however comparative references are expressed through adjectival verbs or adverbs. The comparative references in this study are divided into general comparison and comparison in degree of intensity.*

4.1.3.1 General Comparison

A general comparison deals with a comparison in respect of likeness and unlikeness.

A comparison in respect of likeness and unlikeness takes place when topics under discussion share sameness or similarities in qualities, experiences or involvement in events, etc. General comparative references in Thai are such as c^hên kan, c^hên diəw kan, mǔən ‘same’, diəw kan ‘identical’, klâj k^hiəŋ kan ‘just about the same’, k^hlá:j k^hlɯŋ kan ‘similar’.

For the unlikeness, the form of difference is employed, such as tà:ŋ, tə:k tà:ŋ ‘different’, k^hon láʔ+Cl ‘differently’, ʔù:n , ʔù:n ʔù:n ‘other’. Examples of general comparison follow-the first three are examples of identity, the second one is an example of similarity, and the last three are examples of difference.

Example 33

(1) p^hrúttikam k^hǒ:ŋ p^hû: bə:ríp^hô:k naj lô:k t^hun
níjom nán

A behaviour of consumers of the capitalist world

(2) mi: láksànáʔ t^hi: pen sǎ:kən

has the characteristic of being universal,

* ‘Comparison in degree of intensity’ in this study is used to replace Halliday and Hasan’ s particular comparison.

(3) mi: láksàná? c^hàp^hó?

has the characteristic of specific,

(4) lá? pen k^hwa:msămp^han ráwà:ŋ p^hrúttìkam

k^hǒ:ŋ p^hû: bɔ:ríp^hô:k

and is also a relation between the behaviour of consumers

(5) kàp sàp^hâ:p t^ha:ŋ sè:tt^hàkìt lá? sǎŋk^hom naj

lô:k

and the condition of economic and society of the world.

(6) lá? pen prà:kòttàka:n t^hî: mâj dâ:j kè:t k^hûn

tà: naj sǎŋk^hom tàwan tòk t^hâwnán

And it is the phenomenon which does not occur only in the western society.

(7) p^hu: bɔ:ríp^hô:k naj sǎŋk^hom tàwan ?ò:k ?e:ŋ

kô: mi: láksàná? p^hísè:t

The consumers of the eastern society themselves have those characteristics

(8) t^hî: mǔen kàp p^hû: bɔ:ríp^hô:k naj lô:k tàwan

tòk dûej c^hên kan

as same as of the western consumers too.

(Phujatkan, 15 May 2000: pp. 9)

mǔen 'same' and c^hên kan 'same' are the comparison items of identity between the behavioural characteristics of the western consumers and of the eastern consumers.

Example 34

(1) sùen cèt duən râ:k k^hǒ:ŋ pi: sǒ:ŋp^han hâ:ró:j

sì:sìpsă:m mi: ŋen loŋt^hun do:j tron cà:k tà:ŋ

pràt^hê:t cètp^han pè:tró:j hâ:sìp lá:n rĭen sàhàrá:t

As for the first seven months of the year 2000, (South Korea) had foreign direct investing money of about 7.85 billion US dollars,

(2) p^hê:m k^hûn jĭ:sìp pè:sen mûe prièpt^hĭep kàp
rájáj? diəw kan k^hǒ:ŋ pi: sǒ:ŋp^han hâ:ró:j sĭ:sĭpsǒ:ŋ

an increase about of 20 per cent for the same period of the year 1999.

(Phujatkan, 14 August 2000: pp. 9)

diəw kan 'identical' in (2) has to be interpreted by recourse to cèt duən rĕ:k k^hǒ:ŋ pi: sǒ:ŋp^han hâ:ró:j sĭ:sĭpsǎ:m in the previous part of the discourse.

Example 35

(1) nô:kcà:k ka:nlonjt^hun doj tron lă:w

In addition to the direct investment,

(2) sǎmràp ka:nlonjt^hun naj rû:p sú: hûn naj
tălà:t lák sáp nán

the investment by stock purchasing in the stock market

(3) kô: dâ:j pè:t sě:ri: c^hên diəw kan

is allowed to trade freely as well.

(Phujatkan, 14 August 2000: pp. 9)

The reference item c^hên diəw kan 'same' can be retrieved from ka:nlonjt^hun doj tron in (1).

Example 36

(1) ka:n t^hî: cà? sùksă: nájo:ba:j ja:njon hâj
k^hâwcaj lúik sún nán

In studying an automobile policy (of any country) profoundly,

(2) cà? tôŋ priəp t^hîəp ráwà:ŋ prà^hê:t tà:ŋ tà:ŋ
(we) must compare it with those of other countries.

(3) do:j cà? k^hǒ: klà:w t^hũŋ să:m prà^hê:t k^hu:
t^haj kawli:tâ:j lă? ma:le:siə

(Here, I) will speak of (the policies of) three countries-- Thailand, South Korea and Malaysia,

(4) sũŋ dâ:j rê:m tôn p^hàlît naj rájá? we:la: klâj
k^hiəŋ kan pràma:n sî:sìp pi: ma: lă:w

which began to produce (cars) at just about the same time, about forty years ago.

(5) naj rájá? rê:k kô: mi: nájo:ba:j k^hlá:j k^hlũŋ
kan

At the beginning, the policies of these three countries were similar to each other,

(Phujatkan, 4 September 2000: pp. 9)

klâj k^hiəŋ kan ‘just about the same’ in (4) has to be interpreted by recourse to să:m prà^hê:t k^hu: t^haj kawli:tâ:j lă? ma:le:siə in (3) whereas k^hlá:j k^hlũŋ kan ‘similar’ in (5) refers to the automobile policies of three countries-- Thailand, South Korea, and Malaysia.

Example 37

(1) ...sǐ: k^hǒ:ŋ pu:n si:men sũŋ pen k^hǒ:ŋ màj

...The colour of new cement

(2) cà? mi: sǐ: tà:ŋ cà:k sǐ: k^hǒ:ŋ p^hú:n bɔ:ríwe:n
klâj k^hiəŋ

differs from the colour of the area near by.

(Phujatkan, 17 July 2000: pp. 9)

The comparison item of difference tà:ŋ is used to compare “sǐ: k^hǒ:ŋ pu:n si:men sũŋ pen k^hǒ:ŋ màj” with “sǐ: k^hǒ:ŋ p^hú:n bɔ:ríwe:n klâj k^hiəŋ”.

Example 38

(1) daŋnán p^hâ:k rát cà? tŏŋ pen p^hú: nam naj ka:n
ce:ráca: p^húə háj t^haj pen k^hô: jók wén

...Therefore, the public sector must be the leader in negotiation to make Thailand acquire an exemption,

(2) rǔ: jù: nô:k nǔə kòt rábìəp daŋ klà:w

...or stay beyond the regulations as mentioned (above).

(3) lǎ? k^hoŋ k^hwa:msǎ:mâ:t naj ka:n k^həŋk^hǎn kàp
pràt^hê:t ʔù:n dâ:j

And maintain a capability to compete with other countries.

(Phujatkan, 28 August 2000: pp. 9)

ʔù:n “other” is used to differentiate between Thailand and other countries.

Example 39

(1) ka:n t^hî: càʔ sùksă: nájo:ba:j ja:njon hâj
k^hâwcaj lúk sún nán

In studying an automobile policy (of any country) profoundly,

(2) càʔ tôn prìəp t^hîəp ráwà:ŋ pràt^he:t tà:ŋ tà:ŋ
(we) must compare it with those of other countries.

(3) do:j càʔ k^hǒ: klà:w t^hũŋ să:m pràt^hě:t k^hu:
t^haj kawli:tâ:j lăʔ ma:le:sie

(Here, I) will speak of (the policies of) three countries – Thailand, South Korea and Malaysia,

(4) sún dâ:j rê:m tôn p^hàlìt naj rájáʔ we:la: klâj
k^hiəŋ kan pràma:n sî:sìp pi: ma: lă:w

which began to produce (cars) at just about the same time--about forty years ago.

(5) naj rájáʔ rə:k kô: mi: nájo:ba:j k^hlá:jk^hlũŋ
kan

At the beginning, the policies of these three countries were similar to each other

(6) t̄ə: nájo:ba:j naj rájáʔ lăŋ dâ:j p^hăn præ: paj
k^hon láʔ t^hít láʔ t^ha:ŋ

but their policies have evolved differently from each other later.

(Phujatkan, 4 September 2000: pp. 9)

The difference comparison item k^hon láʔ t^hít láʔ t^ha:ŋ ‘differently’ is interpreted by recourse to the underlined part să:m pràt^hě:t...t^haj kawli:tâ:j lăʔ ma:le:siə in (3).

4.1.3.2 Comparison in Degree of Intensity

Comparison in degree of intensity expresses comparability between things in respect of a particular property--quantity or quality. It is also expressed by means of adjectives or adverbs, such as k^hûn, k^hûn ʔì:k, k^hûn paj ʔì:k, ‘increasing in degree’, k^hûn jà:ŋ rûətrew ‘increasing in degree quickly’, lon ‘decreasing in degree’, lon mâ:k, lon paj mâ:k ‘decreasing in degree so much’, ʔì:k, ‘more’, kwà:, kwà: kan ‘than’, cà:k nâ: mu: pen lăŋ mu: (idm.) ‘better’, t^hâw t^hiəm, t^hâw t^hiəm kan ‘equally’. Examples of particular comparison follow.

Example 40

(1) nájo:ba:j naj ka:nc^hákcu:ŋ bansàt k^hâ:mc^hâ:t

The policy of inducing multi-national corporations

(2) ma: tâŋ sǎmnákŋa:n p^hu:míp^hâ:k naj pràt^hê:t

t^haj

to establish regional headquarters in Thailand

(3) pràsòp p^hõn sǎmrèt naj ráđàp nùŋ

succeeds at some level...

(4) jà:ŋraj kô:ta:m t^haj jaŋ mi: cùt ʔò:n lă:j

pràka:n

However, Thailand has still many weak points

(5) t^hamhâj pràsòp p^hõn sǎmrèt nó:j kwà: prà^hê:t
ʔù:n

that makes Thailand meet with less success than other countries do.

(Phujatkan, 5 June 2000: pp. 9)

From the example (40), kwà: compares between the degree of success which Thailand and other countries meet.

Example 41

(1) k^hraj t^hî: càʔ paj t^ham t^húrákìt jù: naj tà:ŋ
caŋwàt naj k^hè:t sǎ:m

Whoever did business in the provinces of zone 3,

(2) càʔ dâ:j ráp pràjò:t sǔ:ŋ sùt mâ:k kwà: caŋwàt
ʔù:n ʔù:n t^hî: jù: sùen kla:ŋ

would get the most advantage-more than other people who did business in the provinces of the central region.

(3) wát^hùʔ pràsõŋ p^hûe duŋ hâj ʔùtsǎ:hàkam paj
jù: naj tà:ŋ caŋwàt mâ:k k^hûn kwà: pàtcùban

The objective of this was to push industries to go to rural areas more than now.

(Phujatkan, 7 August 2000: pp. 9)

In example (41), kwà: compares the provinces in zone 3 with the provinces in the central region. While k^hûn kwà: in (3) compares between a number of industries in rural areas in the future and at the present.

Example 42

(1) jà:ŋraj kô:di: mǎ:wâ: naj c^hûeŋ trajmâ:t rê:k
k^hǒ:ŋ pi: sǒ:ŋp^han hâ:ró:j sî:sìpsǎ:m

Although in the first quarter of the year 2000,

(2) p^ha:wá? ʔùtsǎ:hàkam k^hô:tsàna: cà? mi: næ:wnó:m
t^hî: di: k^hûn jà:ŋ mâ:k

a situation of the advertising industry has a so much better trend,

(3) tǎ: do:j wŋcɔ:n k^hǒ:ŋ t^húrákìt pràp^hê:t ní:
with a circle of this kind of business,

(4) cà? mi: p^ha:wá? t^hî: lót lon mûe k^hâw sù:
trajmâ:t t^hî: sǎ:m sũŋ pen rúdu: fǒn

the advertisement will be on decrease in the third quarter, which is the rainy season.

(Phujatkan, 26 June 2000: pp. 9)

In example (42), the word lon ‘decreasing in degree’ is used to compare the situation of the advertising industry in the first quarter of the year 2000 with that of the third quarter of the same year.

Example 43

(1) na:j c^háwálít nîmlá?ɔ: na:jók sàma:k^hom
ʔùtsǎ:hàkam k^hrûeŋ nûnhòm t^haj dâ:j klà:w ju:njan jà:ŋ
nàknên

Mr. Chawalit Nimla-or, the president of the Association of Thai Clothing Industry, insisted firmly

(2) wâ: p^hû: p^hàlìt t^haj jaŋ mi: sàkkàʔjáp^hâ:p
 p^hiəŋ p^hɔ: t^hî: càʔ k^həŋk^hǎn kàp k^hû: k^həŋ sǎmk^han t^háŋ
 sǔ:ŋ klùm

that Thai producers have still enough potential to compete with two groups of important rival:

(3) klùm t^hî: mi: t^hékno:lo:ji: t^hâw t^hiəm kan
 pentônwâ: tâ:jwǎn kawli:tâ:j hôŋkoŋ...

group (of countries) that have equal technology (to Thailand) such as Taiwan, South Korea, Hong Kong, etc...,

(4) klùm pràt^hê:t t^hî: mi: k^hâ:ræ:ŋ t^hù:k kwà:
 pentônwâ: ʔindo:ni:sie wíətna:m...

group of countries that have lower wage of labour more than (Thailand) such as Indonesia, Vietnam...

(Phujatkan, 27 March 2000: pp. 9)

Here the particular comparison items t^hâw t^hiəm kan in (3) and kwà: in (4) compare between Thailand and Taiwan, South Korea, Hong Kong, etc., and between Thailand and Indonesia, Vietnam... respectively.

4.1.4 Numerative Reference

Some numeral phrase or noun phrase plus following numeral word points to another noun phrase that comes before or follows.

Example 44

(1) t^ha:ŋ sàt^hǎ:ni: c^hôŋ ní: dâ:j nam bùkk^hon sǎ:m
t^hân

This channel brought three people

(2) ma: sà:ně: k^hwa:mhěn kⁱəwkàp pa:t^hàʔkàt^hǎ:

k^hráj ní:

to comment on this lecture.

(3) bùkk^hon t^hân nùŋ sŭŋ mâj sâ:p nê: c^hát

One of them whom (I) don't know certainly

(4) wâ: ma: p^hû:t naj t^hǎ:náʔ nák wíc^ha:ka:n

whether he had talked in a state of technocrat

(5) rŭ: nák t^húrákìt kan nê:

or business man.

(Phujatkan, 14 August 2000: pp. 9)

In example (44), bùkk^hon t^hân nùŋ 'person / classifier / one' in (3) points back to bùkk^hon sǎ:m t^hân 'person / three / classifier' in (1).

Example 45

(1) sǎ:hè:t sǎmk^han t^hî: t^hamhâj ka:np^hátt^hána:

(cause) (important) (at) (make) (give) (development)

bùkk^hála:ko:n k^hô:ŋ p^hâ:k ka:nsŭksǎ: t^haj

(personnel) (of) (sector) (education) (Thailand)

(2) mâj sò:tk^hló:ŋ kàp tàlà:t ræ:ŋŋa:n nán

(not) (agree) (with) (market) (labour) (that)

(3) sǎ:hè:t sǎmk^han pràka:n nùŋ kô: k^hu: t^hî:

(cause) (important) (point) (one) (P.Mk.) (be) (at)

p^hà:n ma: nùəjŋa:n k^hô:ŋ rát...

(past) (come) (office) (of) (government)

‘One of the main causes which makes the development of personnel of Thai educational sector does not satisfy the needs of the labour market is that formerly, the government agents...’

(Phujatkan, 21 August 2000: pp. 9)

The noun phrase plus following numeral word sǎ:hè:t sǎmk^han pràka:n nùŋ in (3) refers back to the noun phrase sǎ:hè:t sǎmk^han in (1).

Example 46

(1) ...lǎe? nǎp pen bòtbà:t ?ì:k bòtbà:t nùŋ k^hǒ:ŋ
sǎmnákɲa:n k^háná? kammáka:n sòŋsǎ:m ka:nloŋt^hun

...And this is another role of the Office of the Board of Investment

(2) t^hí: cà? pen p^hú: pràsǎ:n c^huəm jo:ŋ hǎj p^hú:
p^hàlìt ræ:ŋɲa:n lǎe? p^hú: câ:ŋ ɲa:n

of being the co-ordinator, linking the labourer producer and the employer together

(3) dǎ:j rûəmmu: kan naj ka:nphátthána: fǐ:mu:
ræ:ŋɲa:n t^haj

to join for developing skills of Thai labourers.

(4) sūŋ nò:kcà:k pràjò:t cà? tòk jù: kàp t^hán
sǒ:ŋ fà:j lǎe:w...

Besides the profit, which will be obtained by both sides....

(Phujatkan, 21 August 2000: pp. 9)

The numeral phrase t^hán sǒ:ŋ fà:j refers back to the two noun phrase p^hú: p^hàlìt ræ:ŋɲa:n lǎe? p^hú: câ:ŋ ɲa:n which come earlier.

Example 47

(1) na:j c^háwálít nîmláʔo: na:jók sàma:k^hom
ʔùtsǎ:hàkam k^hrúəŋ nûŋhòm t^haj dá:j klà:w ju:njan
jà:ŋ nàknæn

Mr. Chawalit Nimla-or, the president of the Association of Thai Clothing Industry, insisted firmly

(2) wá: p^hú: p^hàlìt t^haj jaŋ mi: sàkkàʔjáp^hâ:p
p^hiəŋp^ho: t^hî: càʔ k^həŋk^hǎŋ kàp k^hú: k^həŋ sǎmk^han t^háŋ
sǔ:ŋ klùm

that Thai producers have still enough efficiency to compete with two groups of important rival:

(3) klùm t^hî: mi: t^hékno:lo:ji: t^hâw t^hiəm kan
pentônwâ: tâ:jwǎn kawli:tâ:j hôŋkoŋ...

group of countries that have equal technology (to Thailand) such as Taiwan, South Korea, Hong Kong, etc...

(4) klùm pràt^hê:t t^hî: mi: k^hâ:ræ:ŋ t^hù:k kwà:
pentônwâ ʔindo:ni:sie wîətna:m...

group of countries that have lower wage of labour more than Thailand such as Indonesia, Vietnam...

(Phujatkan, 27 March 2000: pp. 9)

k^hú:k^həŋ sǎmk^han t^háŋ sǔ:ŋ klùm points forward to the underlined noun phrase klùm t^hî: mi: t^hékno:lo:ji: t^hâw t^hiəm kan in (3) and klùm pràt^hê:t t^hî: mi: k^hâ:ræ:ŋ t^hù:k kwà: in (4).

4.2 Ways in which Reference Items Function within a Discourse

There are two different ways in which reference items can function within a discourse. They can function in an anaphoric way. Or they can function in a cataphoric way.

4.2.1 Anaphoric Way

This is a way in which reference items points ‘backwards’ to a previously mentioned entity, process or state of affairs.

The majority of references which has been found in the researcher’s data are anaphoric because it is more natural for a referring element to depend on a preceding one as Halliday and Hasan (1976) has said:

“In the text it is natural for the element occurring second to depend for its interpretation on the one occurring first; hence, anaphora is the unmarked and cataphora is the marked term in the opposition. Cataphora occurs only as an EXPLICIT relation, with the first element always being one that is inherently presupposing.”

Examples of anaphoric reference follow.

Example 48

(1) p^hû: k^hon sùən jàj cà? p^hája:ja:m ?aw c^háná?
k^hwa:mrú:sùk dò:tdiəw lə? kaŋwon lúk lúk

Most of people try to overcome (their) feeling of loneliness and deep anxiety

(2) dûəj ka:nhǎ: k^hwa:mbant^hə:ŋ hâj kə: tue ?e:ŋ
naj láksànà? tà:ŋ tà:ŋ

by trying many things to keep themselves entertained.

(3) c^hên ka:nbɔ:ríp^hô:k sǎ:ŋ sǐəŋ cà:k ʔùtsǎ:hàkam
bant^hə:ŋ

Such as allowing themselves to be dazzled by light and sound from the entertainment industry,

(4) ka:nsâ:ŋ k^hwa:mp^huŋp^hɔ: caj hâj kà: ton ʔe:ŋ
dûəj ka:nsú: sǐnk^há: màj màj

and making satisfaction for themselves by shopping new products.

(Phujatkan, 15 May 2000: pp. 9)

Both the ton ʔe:ŋ in (4) and tue ʔe:ŋ in (2) presuppose by pointing back to the noun phrase p^hû: k^hon sùən jàj in(1).

Example 49

(1) t^hunníjom tŏŋka:n klùm k^hon t^hî: rú:sùk mi:
ʔìtsàrà? lǎ? pen tue k^hǒ:ŋ tue ʔe:ŋ

Capitalism needs a group of people who have a free spirit and be themselves.

(2) màj tòk jù: naj ʔamnâ:t rǔ: làkka:n rǔ: k^hwa:mk^hít
daj pen p^hísè:t

(They) are not especially under any power, rule, or thought.

(3) p^hróm t^hî: cà? dâ:jráp k^hamsàŋ lǎ? pàtìbàt
ta:m sǐŋ t^hî: na:jcâ:ŋ k^hâ:twǎŋ cà:k p^hûək k^hǎw

(They) must be ready to follow an order, and behave in the way that their employer expects to get from them.

(Phujatkan, 15 May 2000: pp. 9)

Here the word p^hûək k^hǎw in (3) points back to the noun phrase klùm k^hon in (1).

Example 50

(1) mi: kràsǎ: k^hà:wsǎ:n k^hô:mu:n t^hî: rábù? p^hû:
kràt^ham p^hît jù: mâ:k ma:j

There is a flow of information and news, which names wrongdoers.

(2) sũŋ lǎ:j k^hon pen bùkk^hon t^hî: mi: chũ:sǐəŋ
Many of them are famous persons.

(3) bâ:ŋ kô: nǐ: paj tà:ŋ pràt^hê:t
Some have fled by going aboard.

(4) bâ:ŋ kô: pen jâ:t mit k^hǒ:ŋ nákká:nmuəŋ
Some are friends and relations of politicians.

(Phujatkan, 3 July 2000: pp.9)

The word bâ:ŋ in (3) and (4) refers back to lǎ:j k^hon in (2).

Example 51

(1) sîŋ t^hî: k^huəŋ k^hamnuəŋ t^hũŋ naj t^hǎ:ná? p^hû:
p^hàlît

Things which (you), as in a state of the manufacturer, should take into consideration

(2) k^hu: k^hwa:msũ:sàt lá? k^hunnát^ham naj ka:np^hàlît
sĩnk^há:

are loyalty and moral principles in manufacturing products,

(3) do:j c^hàp^hó? p^hû: t^hî: p^hàlît p^hûə sòŋ ?ò:k

especially the entrepreneur who manufactures (goods) for exporting.

(4) klà:wk^hu: k^huən ráksǎ: k^hunnáp^hâ:p k^hǒ:ŋ sǐnk^há:

hâj dâ:j mâ:ttràt^hǎ:n

That is (you) should maintain the quality of products conforming to standards.

(5) c^hên mâj plo:m pon

Such as not adulterate,

(6) mâj sàj sǎ:nk^he:mi: t^hî: pen ʔantàra:j tò:

p^hû: bɔ:ríp^hô:k

not add chemical substances which are harmful to the consumers,

(7) rǔ: kèp kìəw k^hànàʔ t^hî: p^hû:t p^hǒn rǔ:

p^hǒnlámá:j jaŋ mi: sǎ:n tòkk^há:ŋ rǔ: jaŋ mâj k^hróp kamnòt

kèpkìəw

or not harvest crops or fruits, which the (chemical) substances have been still left or do not reach a time to harvest.

(8) p^hróʔ nân t^hâwkàp t^hân t^hamla:j ʔàna:k^hót k^hǒ:ŋ

tue ʔe:ŋ lǎʔ p^hûən rûəm c^hâ:t

Since that means you frustrate the future of yourself and compatriots.

(Phujatkan, 28 August 2000:pp. 9)

The demonstrative pronoun nân in (8) refers back to the underlined part in (5), (6), and (7).

Example 52

(1) sùən cèt duən rǎ:k k^hǒ:ŋ pi: sǒ:ŋp^han hâ:ró:j

sì:sìpsǎ:m mi: ŋən loŋt^hun do:j troŋ cà:k tà:ŋ pràt^hê:t

cètp^han pè:tró:j hâ:sìp lá:n rǐən sàhàrát

As for the first seven months of the year 2000, (South Korea) had foreign direct investing money of about 7.85 billion US dollars,

(2) p^hê:m k^hûn jî:sìp pə:sən mûe prìəpt^hîep kàp
 rájǎ? diəw kan k^hǒ:ŋ pi: sǒ:ŋp^han hâ:ró:j sî:sìpsǒ:ŋ
 an increase about of 20 per for the same period of the year 1999.

(Phujatkan, 14 August 2000: pp. 9)

The word diəw kan presupposes by pointing back to the temporal phrase cèt duən rə:k k^hǒ:ŋ pi: sǒ:ŋp^han hâ:ró:j sî:sìpsǎ:m in (1).

4.2.2 Cataphoric Way

This is a way in which a reference item points forward to a certain item mentioned later. It draws us further into the text in order to identify the element to which the reference item refers, as in:

Example 53

(1) bùkk^hon t^hân nùŋ sũŋ mǎj sâ:p nê: c^hát

... One of them whom I don't know certainly,

(2) wâ: ma: p^hû:t naj t^hǎ:ná? nák wíc^ha:ka:n

whether he had talked in a state of technocrat

(3) rǔ: nák t^húrákìt kan nê:..

or business man...

(4) mûe nák wíc^ha:ka:n t^hân nán dâ:j ?àt^híba:j

p^hê:m tə:m...

When that technocrat had explained further....

(Phujatkan, 14 August 2000: pp. 9)

The noun phrase bùkk^hon t^hân nùŋ in (1) points forward to the noun phrase nák wíc^ha:ká:n t^hân nán in (4).

Example 54

(1) ...p^hû: p^hàlìt t^haj jaŋ mi: sàkkàjáp^hâ:p p^hiəŋp^ho:
t^hî: cà? k^həŋk^hǎn kàp k^hû: k^həŋ sǎmk^han t^háŋ sǔ:ŋ
klùm

...Thai producers have still enough potential to compete with two groups of important rival:

(2) klùm t^hî: mi: t^hékno:lo:ji: t^hâw t^hiəm kan
pentônwâ: tâ:jwǎn kawlǐ:tâ:j hôŋkoŋ...

a group (of countries) that have equal technology to (Thailand) such as Taiwan, South Korea, Hong Kong, etc.,

(3) klùm pràt^hê:t t^hî: mi: k^hâ:ræ:ŋ t^hù:k kwà:
pentônwâ: ʔindo:ni:sie wíətna:m...

and a group of countries that have lower wage of labour than (Thailand) such as Indonesia, Vietnam...

(Phujatkan, 27 March 2000: pp. 9)

The noun phrase k^hû:k^həŋ sǎmk^han t^háŋ sǔ:ŋ klùm points forward to the two succeeding noun phrases klùm t^hî: mi: t^hékno:lo:ji: t^hâw t^hiəm kan in (2), and klùm pràt^hê:t t^hî: mi: k^hâ:ræ:ŋ t^hù:k kwà: in (3).

This chapter deals with cohesive devices in terms of reference that accounts for semantic relation. The next chapter will discuss on substitution which involves grammatical relation.

CHAPTER V

SUBSTITUTION

Substitution is the replacement of one linguistic item that has come before or follows another.

Substitution differs from reference on that substitution is a relation in the wording rather than in the meaning. Substitution is presupposition at the level of words and structures. A substitute item has to have the same class of words as that for which it substitutes.

Halliday and Hasan (1976) pointed out:

‘Substitution is a relation between linguistic items, such as words or phrases; whereas reference is a relation between meanings. In terms of the linguistic system, reference is a relation on the semantic level, whereas substitution is a relation on the lexicogrammatical level, the level of grammar and vocabulary, or linguistic ‘form’.

This chapter like the chapter on reference will consider two aspects of substitution, namely types of substitution, and ways in which substitute items function within a discourse.

5.1 Types of Substitution

Halliday and Hasan identify three sub-types of substitution, corresponding to the grammatical function of the substitute item: nominal, verbal and clausal. Halliday and Hasan identify a list of the items that occur as substitutes--nominal: ‘one’, ‘ones’,

‘same’, verbal: ‘do’, and clausal: ‘so’, ‘not’. For details see the chapter on literature review (Chapter 2).

In Chanawangsa’s work (1986), she found only clausal substitution in Thai. The clausal substitutes in her study are *daŋ ní:*, *daŋ nán* , *jà:ŋ ní:*, and *jà:ŋ nán*. Her example of this was already shown in chapter two.

According to the researcher’s data, there are two types of substitution: nominal substitution and discursal substitution.

It should be noted here that, particularly in this study, within the scope of study already mentioned earlier, verbal substitution is not found. However, examples of spoken language can always be presented such as

A: *dæ:ŋ t^hǔ: bâ:n kwà:t bâ:n rǔ: jaŋ*

Daeng, have you swept and clean the floor?

B: *t^ham læ:w k^hâ?*

Yes, I have done.

The verbal substitute *t^ham* in (B) replaces the verb phrase *t^hǔ: bâ:n kwà:t bâ:n* in (A).

5.1.1 Nominal Substitution

In Halliday and Hasan’s work (1976), they found that ‘one’ and ‘ones’ substitute for nominal phrases in English.

Although, in Thai, there is no linguistic item which can substitute for every nominal phrases as ‘one’ or ‘ones’ does in English, in this study, nominal substitution is sometimes found to be full foreign translation (English particularly) and sometimes loan abbreviation such as

Example 55: loan translation

(1) krà: suəŋ ka: ntà: ŋpràt^hê: t lǎə? ka: nk^há: ráwà: ŋ
 pràt^hê: t lǎə? sàp^ha: hǒ: ka: nk^há: lǎə? ʔùtsǎ: həkam
 kawli: jaŋ c^hə: n pràt^hê: t tà: ŋ tà: ŋ naj ʔe: c^hiə

The Ministry of Foreign Trade and Korean Chamber of Commerce and Industry also invited other countries in Asia,

(2) t^hî: rîək wâ: “ʔi: mé: cîŋ ma: kê: t”,

which are called “Emerging Markets”,

(3) paj nam sǎnǎ: lû: t^ha: ŋ lǎə? ʔo: kà: t ka: nlon^th^un

...

to present avenues and opportunities for investing...

(4) t^hâ: c^hên nán

If so,

(5) rátt^hàba: n kawli: t^hâ: j kô: k^hoŋ c^huəmân wâ:

the South Korean government may believe that

(6) p^hâ: k t^húrákìt k^hǒ: ŋ k^hǎw k^hêm k^hǎŋ p^ho:

her business sector has already been vigorous enough

(7) t^hî: cà? ʔò: k paj t^hamma: hǎ: kin nô: k pràt^hê: t

lǎə: w

to invest aboard.

(8) cuŋ k^hwǒnk^hwǎ: j c^hə: n pràt^hê: t “tǎlà: t màj”

ma: hâj k^hô: mu: n...

So (the South Korean government) attempts to invite “Emerging Market” countries to inform...

(Phujatkan, 24 April 2000: pp. 9)

The loan element ʔi: mé: cîŋ ma: kê: t (Emerging Markets) in (2) is translated into Thai tǎlà: t màj in (8).

Example 56: loan abbreviation

(1) pràt^hê:t p^hátthána: lé:w sùen jàj cà? t^hũ:

Most developed countries regard

(2) wâ: wísă:hàkìt k^hànà:t kla:ŋ lé? k^hànà:t jôm

pen kràdù:k sǎnlǎŋ k^hǒ:ŋ c^hâ:t

small and medium size enterprises (SMEs) as the backbone of the nation.

(3) jà:ŋraj kô:ta:m klàp pra:kòt k^hô: t^hétciŋ

(however) (turn back) (appear) (fact)

But in reality,

(4) wâ: naj ka:ncàttâŋ kìtcàka:n màj màj k^hǒ:ŋ

ʔés ʔem ʔi: (an abbreviation, namely SMEs, standing for the Thai
'wísă:hàkìt k^hànà:t kla:ŋ lé? k^hànà:t jôm').

in establishing new businesses of SMEs,

(5) mi: jù: màj t^hũŋ k^hrũŋ

less than half of them

(6) t^hî: cà? jù: rô:t dâ:j kə:n kwà: sǎ:m t^hũŋ hâ:

pi:

can remain more than 3-5 years.

(Phujatkan, 10 July 2000: pp. 9)

The ʔés ʔem ʔi: 'SMEs' in (4) substitutes for the Thai noun phrase wísă:hàkìt k^hànà:t kla:ŋ lé? k^hànà:t jôm in (2).

5.1.2 Discoursal Substitution

Some item, which has no clear meaning in itself, is employed to substitute for a unit beyond a sentence that comes before or follows. There are four

substitute items found: ‘daŋ ní:’, ‘rû:p ní:’, ‘c^hên ní:’, and ‘c^hên nán’.

These items do differ from demonstrative reference items such as ‘lâw ní:’ which are used to substitute a discourse in that demonstrative items will follow a noun phrase, which has a meaning covering or relating to all of the content of a discourse it refers to whereas discursal substitute items have no clear meaning in themselves or their meaning do not relate to the content of the discourses they substitute for at all.

Moreover, the noun phrase plus following demonstrative item functions as a subject or object of a sentence structure while the discursal substitute item does not.

The following is an example of demonstrative reference used to presuppose a discourse that comes before. The noun phrase plus following demonstrative item k^hô: wíp^hâ:k wíca:n lâw ní: in (8) refers to a sequence of sentences from (2) to (7).

Example 57

(1) jâ:ŋraj kô:ta:m dâ:j mi: p^hû: wíp^hâ:k wíca:n
kan mâ:k

Anyway, there are so many people who criticize

(2) wâ: ŋa:n bi: ?o: ?aj fæ: pen ŋa:n cãpc^hâ:j
bâ:ŋ

That the BOI fair is a mixed fair,

(3) mâ:j sòŋsě:m hàtt^hàkam t^haj bâ:ŋ

(it) does not promote Thai handicraft,

(4) mâ:j sàdæ:ŋ sĭnk^há: kàsè:ttàkam bâ:ŋ

(it) does not exhibit agricultural goods,

(5) sàdæ:ŋ tæ: sɯ́nk^há: t^hí: p^hàlìt naj tà:ŋ
pràt^hê:t bâ:ŋ

(it) does exhibit foreign goods only,

(6) mâj dâ:j sàdæ:ŋ t^héknò:lò:jí: k^hǒ:ŋ k^hon
t^haj bâ:ŋ

(it) does not show any technology of Thai people,

(7) pen rû:pbà:p ɲa:n t^hí: lá: sàmǎj...

(it) is an outmoded fair arrangement...

(8) p^hǒm k^hít wâ: k^hô: wíp^hâ:k wíca:n làw ní:
ba:ŋ sùen kô: mi: hè:tp^hǒn

I think that some of these criticisms are reasonable.

(Phujatkan, 6 March 2000: pp. 9)

In example (57), the noun phrase k^hô: wíp^hâ:k wíca:n ‘criticism’ has the meaning covering all of the content of a sequence of sentences from (2) to (7). Besides, we are able to perceive that k^hô: wíp^hâ:k wíca:n relates to the sentences from (2) to (7) by the verb wíp^hâ:k wíca:n ‘criticize’ which occurs before these sentences.

While the meaning of discursal substitutes is not relevant to the meaning of discourse, which the discursal substitutes replace at all. Examples of discursal substitution follow.

Example 58

(1) ...sǎmràp mâ:ttràka:n tà:ŋ tà:ŋ t^hí: kawlǐ:tâ:j
damnə:n ka:n kâ:k^hǎj paj lá:w

Some of measures (for solving the economic problem), which the South Korean government had carried out,

(2) sǎ:mâ:t sà:rùp dâ:j daŋ ní:

can be summed up as follows.

(3) pràka:n rǎ:k naj duən p^hrútsà?cìka:jon sǒ:ŋp^han
hâ:ró:j sî:sìp?è:t dâ:j mi: ka:n?ò:k kòtmǎ:j
sòŋsǎ:m ka:nloŋt^hun cà:k tà:ŋ pràt^hê:t c^hàbàp màj...

Firstly, in November of the year 1998, there was a new issue of the foreign investment promotion law...

(4) pràka:n t^hî: sǒ:ŋ pè:t ?o:kà:t hâj tà:ŋ c^hâ:t
ma: sù: kìtcàka:n t^hî: pràsòp panhǎ: t^ha:ŋ ka:nŋən...

Secondly, (the South Korean government) offered foreigners an opportunity to take over businesses which faced financial problems...

(5) pràka:n t^hî: sǎ:m pè:t sǎ:ri: ka:nloŋt^hun
cà:k tà:ŋ pràt^hê:t mâ:k k^hûn...

Thirdly, (the South Korean government) opened a freer investment for foreign countries...

(6) pràka:n t^hî: sî: mâ:ttràka:n ?ì:k pràka:n
nùŋ t^hî: rîək wâ: rátt^hàba:n kawlí:tâ:j klâ:hǎ:n mâ:k

Fourthly, one more measure which made the South Korean government looks very brave

(7) k^hu: ka:n?ànújâ:t hâj tà:ŋ c^hâ:t sù: t^hî:din
dâ:j jà:ŋ sǎ:ri:...

was its granting permission to foreigners to buy land freely...

(8) pràka:n t^hî: hâ: nô:kcà:k ka:nloŋt^hun do:j tron
lǎ:w

Fifthly, besides the direct investment,

(9) sǎmràp ka:nloŋt^hun naj rû:p sù: hûn naj
tàlà:t làksáp nán

The investment in the form of buying stocks in the stock exchange

(10) kô: dâ:j pè:t sě:ri: c^hên diəw kan

had been freely opened as well.

(Phujatkan, 14 August 2000: pp. 9)

In example (58), the word dan ní: in (2) points forward by substitution for the whole sentences from (3) to (10).

Example 59

(1) tuəjà:ŋ cà:k panhă: klâj tuə t^hî: p^hû:k^hïən
jà:k hâj mi: ka:nkê:k^hăj

An example of problems near us which the author wants (the government) to solve

(2) kô: k^hu: ka:np^hánan p^hôn ka:nk^həŋk^hăn fútbôn
júrò:p mîə duən t^hî: lă:w

is a bet on the European Football tournament last month,

(3) t^hî p^hû: k^hon naj muəŋlŭəŋ hâj k^hwa:msămk^han
jîŋ kwà: ka:nlŭəktâŋ p^hû:wâ: kruŋt^hê:p máhă:nák^ho:n

which the people in the capital give more importance than the election of the Bangkok governor.

(4) mâjwâ: p^hû:k^hïən hăn paj t^ha:ŋ năj

No matter the author turns to any place,

(5) kô: mák dâ:jjin ka:nlên p^hánan naj sùk fútbôn
k^hǒ:ŋ t^hûk k^hû:

(the author) often hears stories of football betting on every match.

(6) mă:tə: dək nákrïən lék lék kô: jaŋ mi: ka:nlên
p^hánan

Even very young students also bet on this.

(7) tà:ŋ k^hon tà:ŋ mi: t^hî: hâj paj t^hæ:ŋ p^hõn ka:n
k^hæŋk^hăn k^hõ:ŋ tæ: láʔ k^hû:

Everyone has places to bet on the results of each match, and these places will have different haggling rates from each other.

(8) mi: ka:np^hánan ŋen pen làk lá:n

There are millions of baht for betting (in the places).

(9) hà:k sǎŋk^hom t^haj jaŋ k^hoŋ pen c^hên ní: tò: paj...

If Thai society is still so...

(Phujatkan, 21 July 2000: pp. 9)

Here the discursal substitute c^hên ní: substitutes all of the underlined parts from (2) to (8) which come before.

Example 60

(1) k^hâ:níjom k^hõ:ŋ ro:ŋriən t^hî: mi: c^hû: sǎŋ
dò:ŋdaŋ nán kè:t cà:k ʔàraj

Values of famous schools come from what?

(2) kè:t cà:k mi: k^hru: sǎ:n di:

(It) comes from (these schools) that have teachers who teach well,

(3) rǔ: ka:ncàtkà:n di:

or have good management?

(4) t^hâ: pen c^hên nán

If so,

(5) t^hammaj mâj kràca:j k^hru: t^hî: sǎ:n di:

Why does (the government) not distribute the teachers who teach well,

(6) rǔ: càtkà:n di: paj ro:ŋriən ʔù:n bâ:ŋ

or manage the other schools better ?

(Phujatkan, 21 July 2000: pp. 9)

The discursial substitute c^hên nán , which is equivalent to 'so' in English, refers to the underlined parts from (1) to (3).

Example 61

(1) k^ham wínítc^hǎj k^hǒ:ŋ sǎ:n rátt^hàt^hammánu:n cuŋ
dâ:j p^hiəŋ k^hô: júti?

...The judgement of the Constitutional Court therefore only says

(2) wâ: núəhǎ: k^hǒ:ŋ rā:ŋ p^hrārā:tc^hábanjət t^hun
rátwísǎ:hàkìt p^ho:sǒ:... māj k^hàt rǔ: jǎ:ŋ kàp rátt^hàt^hammá
nu:n t^hâw nán

that "a content of the Enterprise Fund Bill of the year..., does not object or counter to the Constitution.

(3) māj dâ:j ráprɔ:ŋ ka:nkràt^ham k^hǒ:ŋ k^háná? rátt^hà
montri: rǔ: rátt^hà?sàp^ha:

(This Bill) does not assure an action of the Cabinet or the Parliament in drafting it--whether this bill is in accordance with the Constitution or the intent of the people or not.

(4) māj p^hù:kp^han ka:nkràt^ham k^hǒ:ŋ k^háná? rátt^hà
montri: rǔ: rátt^hà?sàp^ha: naj ?àna:k^hót

(This Bill) does not commit the action of the Cabinet or the Parliament in the future, whether they use it in the way that satisfies the intent of the people or not.

(5) hà:k mi: ka:nkràt^ham t^hî: māj c^hô:p kè:t k^hûm naj
?àna:k^hót do:j ?a:sǎj rā:ŋ kòtmǎ:j ní:

If there is an action which violates the rules or does not satisfy the intent of the people by having recourse to this Bill,

(6) kô: k^huən c^háj konkaj k^hǒ:ŋ rátt^hà?sàp^ha: lé?

pràc^ha:c^hon

(we) should employ the mechanics of the Cabinet and the people,

(7) rîəkró:ŋ hâj pràppruŋ râ:ŋ kòtmă:j ní: hâj mòʔsǝm

kə: sət^hă:náka:n t^hî: kə:t k^hûm

calling for an adjustment.

(8) kô: càʔ kə:t p^hǝn di:

This will bring about a good result

(9) lăʔ t^hù:ktôŋ ta:m làk ka:npòkk^hrɔ:ŋ rábó:p

pràc^ha: t^híppàtaj

and conform to the democratic regime rule,

(10) t^hî: mi: p^hrâʔ máhă:kàsət pen pràmúk

which has a king as the chief of state."

(11) klà:w do:j sàrùp lă:w mǎe: p^hǝn k^ham wínítc^hǎj

k^hǝ:ŋ sǎ:n rátt^hàt^hammánu:n càʔ ʔò:k ma: naj rû:p ní: kô:

ta:m...

In summary, although the judgement of the Constitutional court is so,...

(Phujatkan, 13 March 2000: pp. 9)

The substitute item rû:p ní: in (1), which is equivalent to 'so', replaces the entire underlined part, from (2) to (10).

5.2 Ways in Which Substitute Items Function Within a Discourse

Substitute items can function both in the anaphoric way and cataphoric way as referential items.

5.2.1 Anaphoric Substitution

The vast majority of substitution is anaphoric. Because it is more

natural that the first mention, especially in a written language, should carry clear content which is easy to interpret since there is no much situational context to help in interpretation. Examples follow.

Example 62

(1) pràt^hê:t p^hátt^hána: lǎ:w sùən jàj cà? t^hǔ:

Most developed countries regard

(2) wâ: wísă:hàkìt k^hàná:t kla:ŋ lǎ? k^hàná:t jôm

pen kràdù:k sǎnlǎŋ k^hǒ:ŋ c^hâ:t

small and medium size enterprises (SMEs) as the backbone of the nation.

(3) jà:ŋraj kô:ta:m klàp pra:kòt k^hô: t^hétcìŋ

(however) (turn back) (appear) (fact)

But in reality,

(4) wâ: naj ka:ncàttân kìtcàka:n màj màj k^hǒ:ŋ

rés rəm ri: (an abbreviation, namely SMEs, standing for the Thai ‘wísă:hàkìt k^hàná:t kla:ŋ lǎ? k^hàná:t jôm’).

in establishing new businesses of SMEs,

(5) mi: jù: màj t^hǔŋ k^hrŭŋ

less than half of them

(6) t^hî: cà? jù: rô:t dâ:j kə:n kwà: sǎ:m t^hǔŋ hâ:

pi:

can remain more than 3-5 years.

(Phujatkan, 10 July 2000: pp. 9)

The rés rəm ri: ‘SMEs’ in (4) refers back to the noun phrase wísă:hàkìt k^hàná:t kla:ŋ lǎ? k^hàná:t jôm in (2).

Example 63

(1) tuəjà:ŋ cà:k panhă: klâj tuə t^hî: p^hû:khǐən
jà:k hâj mi: ka:nkê:k^hăj

An example of problems near us which the author wants (the government) to solve

(2) kô: k^hu: ka:n^hánan p^hǒn ka:nk^hæŋk^hăn fútbon
júró:p mûə duren t^hî: lă:w

is a bet on the European Football tournament last month,

(3) t^hî p^hû: k^hon naj muəŋlǔəŋ hâj k^hwa:msămk^han
jîŋ kwà: ka:nlúəktâŋ p^hû:wâ: kruŋt^hê:p máhă:nák^ho:n

which the people in the capital give more importance than the election of the Bangkok governor.

(4) mâjwâ: p^hû:k^hǐən hăn paj t^ha:ŋ năj

No matter the author turns to any place,

(5) kô: mák dâ:jjin ka:nlên p^hánan naj sùk fútbon
k^hǒ:ŋ t^hûk k^hû:

(the author) often hears stories of football betting on every match.

(6) mă:tə: dək nákríən lék lék kô: jaŋ mi: ka:nlên
p^hánan

Even very young students also bet on this.

(7) tà:ŋ k^hon tà:ŋ mi: t^hî: hâj paj t^hæ:ŋ p^hǒn ka:n
k^hæŋk^hăn k^hǒ:ŋ tə: lá? k^hû:

Everyone has places to bet on the results of each match, and these places will have different haggling rates from each other.

(8) mi: ka:n^hánan ŋən pen làk lá:n

There are millions of baht for betting (in the places).

(9) hà:k sǎŋk^hom t^haj jaŋ k^hoŋ pen c^hên ní: tò: paj...

If Thai society is still so...

(Phujatkan, 21 July 2000: pp. 9)

Here the discursal substitute c^hên ní: substitutes all of the underlined parts from (2) to (8) which come before.

5.2.2 Cataphoric Substitution

There is only one example of cataphoric substitution found as follows.

Example 64

(1)...săm rəp mɑ:ttrəkɑ:n tɑ:ŋ tɑ:ŋ t^hî: kawli:tɑ:j
damnə:n kɑ:n kə:k^hǎj paj læ:w

Some of measures (for solving the economic problem), which the South Korean government had carried out,

(2) sǎ:mɑ:t sərùp dɑ:j dəŋ ní:

can be summed up as follows.

(3) prəkɑ:n rə:k naj duən p^hrútsà?cìkɑ:jon sǒ:ŋp^han
hɑ:ró:j sì:sìp?èt dɑ:j mi: kɑ:n?ò:k kòtmǎ:j
sòŋsǎ:m kɑ:nlɔŋt^hun cà:k tɑ:ŋ prət^hê:t c^hàbàp màj...

Firstly, in November of the year 1998, there was a new issue of the foreign investment promotion law...

(4) prəkɑ:n t^hî: sǒ:ŋ pè:t ?ò:kɑ:t hɑj tɑ:ŋ c^hâ:t
ma: sú: kìtcàkɑ:n t^hî: pràsòp panhǎ: t^ha:ŋ kɑ:nŋen...

Secondly, (the South Korean government) offered foreigners an opportunity to take over businesses which faced financial problems...

(5) prəkɑ:n t^hî: sǎ:m pè:t sǎ:ri: kɑ:nlɔŋt^hun
cà:k tɑ:ŋ prət^hê:t mɑ:k k^hûn...

Thirdly, (the South Korean government) opened a freer investment for foreign countries...

(6) pràka:n t^hî: sí: mâ:ttràka:n ʔì:k pràka:n nùn
t^hî: rîøk wâ: rátt^hàba:n kawlí:tâ:j klâ:hă:n mâ:k

Fourthly, one more measure which made the South Korean government looks very brave

(7) k^hu: ka:nʔànújâ:t hâj tà:ŋ c^hâ:t sú: t^hî:din
dâ:j jà:ŋ sě:ri:...

was its granting permission to foreigners to buy land freely...

(8) pràka:n t^hî: hâ: nô:kcà:k ka:nlon^ht^hun do:j tron
lâ:w

Fifthly, besides the direct investment,

(9) sămràp ka:nlon^ht^hun naj rû:p sú: hûn naj tàlà:t
làksáp nán

The investment in the form of buying stocks in the stock exchange

(10) kô: dâ:j pè:t sě:ri: c^hên diəw kan
had been freely opened as well.

(Phujatkan, 14 August 2000: pp. 9)

The word dan ní: in (2) points forward by substitution for the whole sentences from (3) to (10).

Next chapter will discuss cohesive devices in terms of ellipsis.

CHAPTER VI

ELLIPSIS

Ellipsis occurs when some essential structural element is omitted from an utterance and can only be recovered by referring to an element in the preceding text.

According to the description of Halliday and Hasan, substitution and ellipsis are the same process as they said that

‘...substitution as the replacement of one item by another, and ellipsis as the omission of an item. Essentially the two are the same process; ellipsis can be interpreted as that form of substitution in which the item is replaced by nothing.’

(Halliday and Hasan, 1976:88)

As with the chapter on reference, this chapter will consider two aspects of ellipsis: types of ellipsis and ways in which presupposing items function within a discourse.

6.1 Types of Ellipsis

There are three types of ellipsis here: phrasal ellipsis, sentential ellipsis, and discoursal ellipsis.

6.1.1 Phrasal Ellipsis

Some phrase, which is mentioned before or later, is replaced by nothing. There are four sub-types of phrasal ellipsis: nominal ellipsis, verbal ellipsis, prepositional ellipsis and conjunctive ellipsis.

6.1.1.1 Nominal Ellipsis

Nominal ellipsis means ellipsis within the nominal group. There are two sub-types of nominal ellipsis: partial ellipsis and complete ellipsis.

6.1.1.1.1 Partial Ellipsis

Partial ellipsis occurs when some part of a nominal group is replaced by nothing. The elliptical part can be any morpheme, word, or phrase of a nominal head or modifiers as in:

Example 65

(1) jà:ŋra:j kô:ta:m naj ka:npràkò:p t^húrákìt bon
ʔintə:nèt

Anyway, in doing business on the internet,

(2) jaŋ tōŋ p^hàc^hə:n kàp panhá: t^ha:ŋ dâ:n tōnt^hun
(the entrepreneurs) have to face the problems of capital,

(3) ∅ t^ha:ŋ t^héknò:lo:ji:
technology,

(4) léə? ∅ ka:ntàlà:t t^hî: sŭ:ŋ mâ:k
and marketing which are very high.

(Phujatkan, 3 July 2000: pp. 9)

The ∅ in (3) and (4) substitutes for the Head noun panhá: in (2).

Example 66

(1) naj sùen k^hǒ:ŋ rábòp p^ha:nít ʔilékt^hro:nìk nán
(in) (part) (of) (system) (commerce) (electronics) (that)

(2) pràt^hê:t t^haj rê:m mi: ka:ntù:ntue jà:ŋciŋcaŋ

(country) (Thailand)(begin) (have) (to be aroused) (seriously)

mûe pràma:n sǒ:ŋ t^hũŋ sǎ:m pi: t^hî: p^hà:n ma:

(when) (about) (two) (to) (three)(year) (at) (pass) (come)

(3) do:j pràt^hê:t t^haj mi: wépsáj

(by) (country) (Thailand) (have) (web-site)

(4) t^hî: t^ham t^húrákìt p^hà:n rábòp ø ʔìlékt^hrɔ:nìk

(at) (do) (business) (pass) (system) (electronics)

p^hiəŋ ró:jláʔ hòk k^hǒ:ŋ wépsáj t^háŋmòt

(only) (per cent) (six) (of) (web-site) (all)

(5) láeʔ naj camnuen ní: mi: p^hiəŋ ró:jláʔ kâ:w t^hâwnán

(and) (in) (number) (this) (have) (only) (per cent) (nine) (only)

(6) t^hî: t^hũ: pen ka:nk^há: naj rábòp ø ø jà:ŋ sombu:n

(at) (carry) (be) (trade) (in) (system) (completely)

(Phujatkan, 3 July 2000: pp. 9)

As regards an E-commerce system, Thailand has only recently begun to be aroused from it about two or three years ago. There are only six per cent of all web-sites existing in Thailand which do business through the electronic system. And in this amount (of six per cent), there are only nine per cent which are absolutely regarded as a trade in the system.

In example (66), the ø in (4) substitutes for the morpheme p^ha:nít of the compound noun rábòp p^ha:nít ʔìlékt^hrɔ:nìk in (1). Whereas the ø ø in (5) replace the two morphemes p^ha:nít and ʔìlékt^hrɔ:nìk.

Example 67

(1) ka:nk^hô:tsàna: k^hǒ:ŋ t^haj rê:m mi: ma:

An advertisement of Thailand began

(2) tâŋtâ: k^hon t^haj rê:m mi: ka:nsú: k^hǎ:j kan

at the same time that Thai people started to trade.

(3) naj sàmǎj rê:k rê:k ka:nk^hô:tsàna: ø kô: cà? c^háj

wít^hi: ŋâ:j ŋâ:j...

In the beginning, the advertisement used easy ways...

(Phujatkan, 26 June 2000 pp. 9)

The ø is used to substitute for the possessive phrase k^hǒ:ŋ t^haj which functions as Modifier of the nominal group "ka:nk^hô:tsàna: k^hǒ:ŋ t^haj" in (1).

6.1.1.1.2 Complete Ellipsis

Complete ellipsis occurs when whole parts of a nominal group mentioned before has been left out of a succeeding sentence.

Example 68

(1) ka:nplienplæ:ŋ pen sìn t^hî: lì:klîeŋ
mâj dâ:j

Change is a thing which (we) cannot avoid,

(2) ø pen sàtcàt^ham k^hǒ:ŋ lô:k

(it) is a reality of the world,

(3) lǎe? ø mi: láksàna? pen pra:kòttàka:n t^ha:ŋ sǎŋk^hom

and (it) seems as the social phenomenon

(4) t^hî: kè:t k^hûm tàlòt we:la:

which occurs all the time.

(Phujatkan, 8 May 2000: pp. 9)

The noun phrase ka:npliənp læ:ŋ in (1) has been left out of the sentences in (2) and (3).

Example 69

(1) mûə pi: sǎ:ŋp^han sî:ró:j hòksìphâ: sǎmdèt p^hraʔ
 mŋkùtklâ:w sàdèt pràp^hâ:t mont^hon pàktâ:j

In 1922, His Majesty King Rama VI had made a trip to the southern precinct (of Thailand).

(2) lǎəʔ ø soŋ sàdèt læ:j paj jaŋ pràt^hê:t ma:le:siə
 lǎəʔ sǐŋk^hápo:

And (he) had gone further to Malaysia and Singapore.

(Phujatkan, 6 March 2000: pp. 9)

ø in (2) substitutes for the noun phrase sǎmdèt p^hraʔmŋkùtklâ:w in (1).

Example 70

(1) naj pi: sǎ:ŋp^han hâ:ró:j sî:sìpsò:ŋ sàt^hǎ:náka:n
 k^hǎ:ŋ ʔùtsǎ:hàkam k^hô:tsàna: t^haj rê:m mi: p^ha:wáʔ
 t^hî: di: k^hûm

In 1999, the situation of the Thai advertising industry began to get better.

(2) do:j ∅ mi: ʔàttra: ka:nk^hàjǎ:j tuə p^hê:m k^hûm
 ró:jláʔ kâ:w

(It) increased 9 % from the earlier year.

(Phujatkan, 26 June 2000: pp. 9)

ʔùtsǎ:hàkam k^hô:tsàna: t^haj in (1) is substituted by zero in (2).

Example 71

(1) naj sàmǎj rê:k rê:k ka:nk^hô:tsàna: kô: càʔ c^háj
 wít^hi: ɲâ:j ɲâ:j

At the start, there were easier ways we used in advertising

(2) c^hên ka:n ti: k^hó:ɲ ró:ɲ pà:w

such as beating a gong and shouting with a loud voice,

(3) rǔ: c^háj wít^hi: k^hǐən k^hô:k^hwa:m ta:m fǎ: p^hànǎɲ
 kamp^hæ:ɲ wát

or writing matters on a wall of a temple

(4) do:j ∅ c^háj ɲóppràma:n naj ka:nk^hô:tsàna: t^hî: mǎj
 mâ:k nák

with not much budget.

(5) nûəɲcà:k p^hû: k^hô:tsàna: tōŋka:n p^hiəɲ k^hê: pràkà:t
 rûəɲ ra:w tà:ɲ tà:ɲ hâj pràc^ha:c^hon sâ:p t^hâwnán

Because an advertiser only wanted to announce some story to the people.

(Phujatkan, 26 June 2000: pp. 9)

The ∅ in (4) substitutes for the noun phrase p^hû: k^hô:tsàna: in (5) by pointing forward.

Example 72

(1) mâ:ttràka:n sòn̄sě:m ka:nlon̄t^hun ní: ?à:t cà? mâj
sòn̄ p^hõn paj t^hî: kàsè:ttràkõ:n do:j tron̄

This investment promotion measure may not affect agriculturalists directly

(2) t̄: ∅ cà? sòn̄ p^hõn t^ha:ŋ ?õ:m mâ:k kwà:

but (it) may affect indirectly.

(Phujatkan, 7 August 2000: pp. 9)

∅ in (2) substitutes for the noun phrase mâ:ttràka:n sòn̄sě:m ka:nlon̄t^hun ní: in (1).

6.1.1.2 Verbal Ellipsis

Verbal ellipsis means ellipsis within the verbal group. Verbal ellipsis occurs when one or more words from a previous verbal group is/are presupposed by zero. As with nominal ellipsis, there are two types of verbal ellipsis: partial and complete.

6.1.1.2.1 Partial Ellipsis

A process which some element of a previous verbal group is replaced by nothing here is called a partial verbal ellipsis. Partial verbal ellipsis, which the researcher found in this dissertation, is an ellipsis of auxiliary verb that the lexical verb or main verb remains intact.

Example 73

(1) rát k^huən hâj k^hwa:msõncaj naj rûeŋ p^ha:nít

ʔilékth^hro:nìk pen ka:n rēṅdùen

The government should pay attention to the subject of E-commerce urgently.

(2) t^háṅ ní: ka:nsànàpsànŭn p^ha:nít ʔilékth^hro:nìk

k^hǒ:ṅ nùejṅa:n daj

(The government's) E-commerce support to any unit

(3) k^huən pen láksànàʔ t^hî: càp tōṅ dâ:j

should be concrete,

(4) ∅ pen láksànàʔ k^hǒ:ṅ k^hô:mu:n thûə paj

be general information

(5) lăəʔ k^huən pen láksànàʔ t^hî: k^hâwcaj ṅâ:j mâ:k

kwà:

and be easier to understand.

(Phujatkan, 3 July 2000: pp. 9)

∅ stands for the auxiliary verb k^huən. The elliptical element, however, can be retrieved from both the preceding and following information given by (3) and (5) respectively.

Example 74

(1) do:j kòtmă:j ní: t^ham hâj t^húrákìt k^hànà:t lék

According to this law, (it) makes small businesses,

(2) t^hî: còt t^hábiən pen hâ:ṅ hûnsùen rŭ: bo:rísàt

camkàt

which are registered as limited partnerships or companies,

(3) tōṅ câ:ṅ nák banc^hi:

have to hire an accountant

(4) rǔ: ∅ câ:ŋ səmnákŋa:n banc^hi:

or an accounting firm

(5) p^hu̯ə c^hu̯əj loŋ banc^hi: háj

to record financial accounts,

(6) láʔ t̄oŋ câ:ŋ p^hu̯: sò:p banc^hi: truət láʔ loŋ na:m

and have to hire another accountant to inspect and sign (on the accounts).

(Phujatkan, 13 March 2000: pp. 9)

The ∅ in (4) is the omission of the auxiliary verb t̄oŋ. The omitted element can be recovered from both the preceding and following information given by (3) and (6) respectively, which have the auxiliary verb t̄oŋ before a modal verb ‘câ:ŋ’.

Example 75

(1) jà:ŋra:j kô:di: ka:nfú:ntuə t^ha:ŋ sè:tt^hàkìt

(anyway) (recovery) (way) (economy)

k^hǒ:ŋ kawlǐ:tâ:j naj k^hráŋ ní:

(of) (South Korea) (in) (time) (this)

Anyway, how much will the economic recovery of South Korea at this time

(2) c̄àʔ jâŋju:n t^hǎ:wɔ:n

(will) (last) (endure)

endure

(3) láʔ ∅ mánk^hoŋ k^hh̄: nǎj

(and) (stable) (only) (where)

and be stable?

(4) rǔ c̄àʔ pen k^hh̄: ka:nk^hàjǎ:j tuə b̄è:p w̄u:pw̄a:p

(or) (will) (be) (only) (expanding) (body) (type)

Or (this) will be just a sudden temporary economic growth.

(Phujatkan, 24 April 2000: pp. 9)

In example (75), the ∅ in (3) is the omission of the auxiliary verb càʔ which can be recovered from the sentences (2) and (4), which have the auxiliary verb càʔ before a modal verb ‘jâŋjw:n’ and ‘pen’ respectively.

6.1.1.2.2 Complete Ellipsis

Complete ellipsis is that all elements of the verbal group have been left out.

Example 76

(1) tǎ: t^hâ: raw dâ:j títta:m khà:w jà:ŋ tò:nûeŋ

But if we continuously follow the news,

(2) raw càʔ p^hóp

we will find

(3) wâ: kòtmǎ:j ch̀àbàp ní: pen kòtmǎ:j t^hî: mi:

panhǎ: k^hô:nk^hâ:ŋ mâ:k

this law has many problems

(4) wâ: pen kòtmǎ:j t^hî: mi: k^hô:k^hwa:m kh̀àt jǎ:ŋ

that it is the law, which has conflict substances

(5) rǔ: ∅ tra: kh̀ûn do:j mâj t^hù:k tôŋ ta:m b̀òt

banjàt k^hǒ:ŋ rátt^hàt^hammánu:n

or was made by violating the provisions of the Constitutional Law.

(Phujatkan, 13 March 2000: pp. 9)

In example (76), ∅ is used to replace the verbal group and the complement

pen kòtmǎ:j which come before in (4).

Example 77

(1) bùkk^hon t^hân nùŋ sũŋ mâj sâ:p nê: c^hát

...One (of them) whom (I) don't know certainly

(2) wâ: ma: p^hû:t naj t^hǎ:ná? nák wíc^ha:ka:n

that (he) came to talk in a state of technocrat

(3) rǔ: ø nák t^húrákìt kan nê:...

or businessman...

(Phujatkan, 14 August 2000: pp. 9)

From the example (77), all of elements of the verbal group plus following prepositional phrase ma: p^hû:t naj t^hǎ:ná? in (2) are substituted by zero in (3).

Example 78

(1) naj c^hûeŋ sǒ:ŋ sǎ:m pi: t^hî: p^hà:n ma: p^hû:

pràkò:pka:n pràma:n sǒ:ŋró:j t^hũŋ sǎ:mró:j ra:j

In the past two or three years, about 200-300 of entrepreneurs

(2) sũŋ sùeŋ jàj pen p^hû: pràkò:pka:n pô:n sǐnk^há:

tàlà:t rádàp kla:ŋ lǎ? rádàp bon

that most of them are goods suppliers to a middle and upper market,

(3) lon^th^un náp mù:n lá:n bà:t p^hûe pràp plien k^hrûeŋ

càk

had invested around ten billion baht to change their (old) machines.

(4) nûeŋcà:k t^hù:k p^ha:wáʔ ka:nk^hæŋk^hǎn bì:p baŋk^háp
hâj tōŋ rî:p pràptuə

Since (these entrepreneurs) had been forced by a competitive condition to overhaul (their business).

(5) sūŋ hà:k mâj damnə:nka:n lă:w

And if (they) had not to do so,

(6) ʔo:kà:t t^hî: càʔ tōŋ lê:k kîtcàka:n mi: sǔ:ŋ mâ:k
the possibility (they) had to wind up (their) business is very high.

(Phujatkan, 27 March 2000: pp. 9)

damnə:nka:n in (5) substitutes for loŋt^hun náp mù:n lá:n bà:t p^hûe pràp plîen k^hrûeŋcàk in (3). In Thai, sometime we will say formally as damnə:nka:n loŋt^hun náp mù:n lá:n bà:t p^hûe pràp plîen k^hrûeŋcàk or we can say in short form as damnə:nka:n if there is some verb phrase mentioned in a preceding sentence so the verb phrase loŋt^hun náp mù:n lá:n bà:t p^hûe pràp plîen k^hrûeŋcàk in (3) is omitted from the sentence (5) completely.

6.1.1.3 Prepositional Ellipsis

Prepositional ellipsis is a deletion of a prepositional word or phrase from a sentence, which has come before or follows.

Example 79

(1) banda: p^hô: mǎ: p^hû: pòkk^hrɔ:ŋ cuŋ mâj jɔ:m hâj
bùt lă:n lâwriən ø

Parents or guardians therefore do not allow their children to study

(2) rǔ: t^ham ɲa:n na:j sǎ:k^hǎ: nǐ:

or work in this field.

(Phujatkan, 27 March 2000: pp. 9)

The ∅ is employed to substitute for by pointing forward to the prepositional word 'na:j' plus following noun phrase 'sǎ:k^hǎ: nǐ:' in (2).

Example 80

(1) k^hoŋ mâj tōŋ klà:w t^hǔŋ k^hwa:mjîŋjǎj k^hǒ:ŋ ɲa:n
bi: ʔo: ʔaj fæ: sǒ:ŋp^han

It is not necessary to talk about how great the BOI fair 2000 was

(2) p^hróʔ man sǎ:mâ:t p^hísù:t hâj hěn dâ:j dûəj
k^hànà:t p^hú:nt^hî:

because this can be proved by its size of area,

(3) ∅ k^hànà:t ka:nloŋt^hun

size of investment

(4) lǎʔ ∅ camnuən k^hon ma: t^hîəw c^hom ɲa:n

and the number of people visiting it.

(Phujatkan, 17 April 2000: pp. 9)

The prepositional word dûəj has been left out in (3) and (4).

Example 81

(1) na:j sǐŋk^hápo: k^homp^híwtê: mi: pràma:n sǐpkâ:w

cùt pè:t sǎ:ŋ k^hrûeŋ tǝ: camnuen pràc^ha:kɔ:n nùŋ p^han k^hon

In Singapore, there are around 19.82 computers per 1000 people.

(2) ø hōŋkoŋ mi: pràma:n sǐp cùt sǎ:m sǎ:ŋ k^hrûeŋ
tǝ: camnuen pràc^ha:kɔ:n nùŋ p^han k^hon

(In) Hong Kong, there are around 10.32 (computers) per 1000 people.

(3) ø kawli:tâ:j mi: pràma:n sǎ:m cùt pè:t k^hrûeŋ
tǝ: camnuen pràc^ha:kɔ:n nùŋ p^han k^hon

(In) South Korea, there are around 3.8 (computers) per 1000 people.

(4) læʔ ø ma:le:siə mi: pràma:n nùŋ cùt kâ:w sǐ:
k^hrûeŋ tǝ: camnuen pràc^ha:kɔ:n nùŋ p^han k^hon

And (in) Malaysia, there are around 1.94 (computers) per 1000 people.

(Phujatkan, 3 July 2000: pp. 9)

The ø in (2), (3) and (4) is used to replace the preposition na.j in (1).

Example 82

(1) p^hǒn kràt^hóp cà:k ka:npràp k^hro:ŋsâ:ŋ t^húrákìt ní:

An effect from this business re-engineering

(2) sǎmràp p^hû: bɔ:ríp^hô:k càʔ dâ:j pràjò:t cà:k
ka:np^hê:m pràsitt^híp^hâ:p

for consumers, they will get a benefit from an increasing efficiency (of manufacturing systems)

(3) læʔ ø ka:nlót tǝnt^hun k^hǎ:ŋ p^hû: pràkò:pka:n

and (from) a capital decreasing by entrepreneurs.

(Phujatkan, 1 May 2000: pp. 9)

The prepositional word cà:k in (2) is omitted in (3).

6.1.1.4 Conjunctive Ellipsis

Conjunctive ellipsis is a deletion of the conjunction that is mentioned at some other point of the text. Examples follow.

Example 83

(1) ...săm̀r̀ap naj rájáj? pa:nkla:ŋ campen t̀oŋ l̀ot k̀h̀à̀nà:t l̀á? b̀ot̀b̀à:t p̀h̀â:k r̀át j̀à:ŋ c̀iŋcaŋ

...For the moderate stage, (the government) needs to seriously decrease the size and role of the public sector

(2) do:j p̀h̀ê:m b̀ot̀b̀à:t k̀h̀õ:ŋ p̀h̀â:k ʔ̀è:kkàc^hon naj k̀h̀ro:ŋka:n loŋt^hun k̀h̀õ:ŋ r̀át

by increasing the role of the private sector in government's investing projects,

(3) ∅ t̀h̀à:j ʔ̀o:n ŋa:n cà:k p̀h̀â:k r̀át h̀âj p̀h̀â:k ʔ̀è:kkàc^hon m̀â:k k̀h̀ûn

transferring more works from the public sector to the private sector,

(4) l̀á? ∅ l̀ot kamləŋ k̀h̀on naj p̀h̀â:k r̀á:tch̀áka:n loŋ paj ʔ̀ì:k

and more decreasing official power of the public sector.

(Phujatkan, 12 June 2000: pp. 9)

The conjunctive element 'do:j' in (2) is replaced by ∅ in (3) and (4).

Example 84

(1) nô:kcà:k ní: jaŋ k^huən ʔànújâ:t hâj nùəj
râ:tc^háka:n

Moreover, (the government) should allow bureaucratic units

(2) sǎ:mâ:t hǎ: ra:jdâ:j p^hûə c^háj naj ka:ndamnə:n
ŋa:n ʔe:ŋ

to earn income from their proceeding work,

(3) do:j mâj tōŋ sòŋ ra:jdâ:j k^hâw k^hlaŋ

by not sending the income to the Ministry of Finance

(4) p^hûə pen ræ:ŋ cu:ŋ caj k^hǒ:ŋ sùən râ:tc^háka:n

in order to be an inducement of these units (in working)

(5) lǎʔ ǒ c^hûəj lót p^ha:râʔ dâ:n ŋóppràma:n k^hǒ:ŋ
rát dûəj

and help to decrease the budget responsibility of the government too.

(Phujatkan, 12 June 2000: pp. 9)

The ǒ in (5) is used to replace the conjunction 'p^hûə' in (4).

Example 85

(1) jîŋ kwà: nán ka:nt^ham t^húrákìt t^ha:ŋ dâ:n p^ha:nít
ʔilékt^hro:nìk

Besides, the business doing on E-commerce

(2) jaŋ càʔ thamhâj ŋən fé: lót loŋ

also makes an inflation decrease.

(3) nûəŋcà:k tōnt^hun naj ka:nphàlìt lót loŋ

Because a capital in manufacturing decrease

(4) lǎɛʔ ∅ ka:nk^hæŋk^hǎn t^hî: p^hê:m k^hûn

but a competitiveness increases.

(Phujatkan, 10 July 2000: pp. 9)

The ∅ in (4) substitutes for the conjunctive element ‘nûeŋcà:k’ which has come before in (3).

6.1.2 Sentential Ellipsis

Sentential ellipsis is a substitution of a sentence which has come before by nothing. Only two examples of it have been found in this study as in:

Example 86

(1) p^ha:nít ʔìlékt^hrɔ:nìk càʔ kè:t dâ:j c^há:

The E-commerce will occur late

(2) t^hâ: pràc^ha:c^hon c^ha:wt^haj mâj sâ:p wâ: man

k^hɯ: ʔàraj

if Thai people do not know what it is,

(3) ∅

(4) t^hâ: mâj dâ:j p^hátt^hána: rábòp sù: sǎ:rǎʔ

sǒnt^hê:t hâj paj dâ:j t^hûe t^hũŋ naj ra:k^ha: t^hù:k
loŋ kwà: t^hî: pen jù:

if (we) do not develop the information communicative system to go everywhere at lower price,

(5) ∅

(6) t^hâ: ka:nrǎpɔ:ŋ t^húrákam tà:ŋ tà:ŋ t^hî: kè:t

k^hûn kàp rábòp tha:ŋ thúrákìt rǔ: k^hwa:mplò:tp^haj k^hǒ:ŋ

k^hô:mu:n mâj di: p^ho:

if an assurance of any business doing, which happens to a business system or information safely, is not good enough.

(Phujatkan, 10 July 2000: pp. 9)

The ø in (2), (4), and (6) is employed to replace the opening sentence
p^ha:nít ?ilékth^hro:nik cà? k^hè:t dâ:j c^há:

Example 87

(1) ka:nbo:ríp^hô:k k^hô:ŋ p^hâ:k ?è:kkàc^hon naj pi:
sô:ŋp^han hâ:ró:j sî:sipsô:ŋ k^hàjă:j tuə t^hũŋ ró:jlá?
p^hè:t cùt p^hè:t

The consumption of private sector had increased by 8.8 per cent in 1999.

(2) sũŋ sǎmnákŋa:n sòŋsǎ:m ka:nk^há: ráwà:ŋ pràth^hè:t
ná? kruŋ sow p^ha:jtâ:j kràsueŋ p^ha:nít k^hô:ŋ
t^haj dâ:j ra:jŋa:n

The office of the International Trade Promotion under the Ministry of Commerce of Thailand, at Soul reported

(3) wâ: ø pen p^hõn ma: cà:k ka:n t^hî: pràc^ha:chon
mi: ra:jdâ:j p^hê:m k^hũn

This results from an increasing income of the people.

(Phujatkan, 24 April 2000: pp. 9)

The ø substitutes for all elements of the opening sentence.

6.1.3 Discoursal Ellipsis

Discoursal ellipsis is a substitution of a sequence of sentences by zero. There is only one example of discoursal ellipsis found and it is a cataphoric relation as in:

Example 88

(1) rát k^huən mi: ka:nwa:ŋ p^hǎ:n pràc^ha:sǎmp^han

The government should have a public relations plan

(2) p^hûə hâj pràc^ha:c^hon t^hûəpaj

for people

(3) ∅₁

(4) ∅₂

(5) lǎə? (p^hûə) (hâj) p^hâ:k ?è:kkàc^hon

and a private sector

(6) dâ:j rápsâ:p k^hô:mu:n

to get more information

(7) lǎə? mi: k^hwa:mk^hâwcaj kîəwkàp p^ha:nít

ʔilékt^hro:nìk hâj mâ:k k^hûn

and understand about the E-commerce.

(Phujatkan, 10 July 2000: pp.9)

In example (88), ∅₁ Substitutes for by pointing forward to dâ:j rápsâ:p k^hô:mu:n in (6) while ∅₂ substitutes for lǎə? mi: k^hwa:mk^hâwcaj kîəwkàp p^ha:nít ʔilékt^hro:nìk hâj mâ:k k^hûn in (7).

6.2 Ways in Which Elliptical Items Function Within a Discourse

Elliptical items can function both in the anaphoric and cataphoric way as substitutes items do.

6.2.1 Anaphoric Ellipsis

The vast majority of ellipsis is anaphoric. Because it is more natural that an elliptical element will occur behind a full form element especially in a written language which the first mention should be clear since there is no much situational context to help in interpretation. Examples of anaphoric ellipsis follow.

Example 89

(1) ...do:j c^hàp^hóʔ bi: ʔo: ʔaj mák càʔ t^hù:k co:mti:
jù: sàmě:

...especially BOI is often attacked

(2) wâ: ø sòŋsě:m tæ: tà:ŋ c^hâ:t
that (it) only supports foreigners

(3) hâj ʔawrát ʔawprìəp k^hon t^haj
to take advantage of Thai people.

(Phujatkan, 20 March 2000: pp. 9)

In example (89), ø in (2) points back to bi: ʔo: ʔaj in (1).

Example 90

(1) ŋa:n bi: ʔo ʔaj fæ: sǒ:ŋp^han sũŋ càt k^hũn
ráwà:ŋ want^hî: sǎ:m t^hũŋ sìpcèt kump^ha:p^han sǒ:ŋ
p^han hâ:ró:j sì:sìpsǎ:m

The BOI fair 2000, which is scheduled from 3-17 February 2000

(2) náp wâ: pràsòp p^hǎn sǎmrèt jà:ŋ ɲótɲa:m

meets with great success.

(3) ∅ mi: p^hû: k^hâwc^hom pen pràwàtka:n

There were a record number of people visiting this fair.

(Phujatkan, 6 March 2000: pp. 9)

∅ in (3) presupposes to ɲa:n bi: ʔo ʔaj fæ: sǒ:ŋp^han in (1).

Example 91

(1) p^hǎm hěn

I think

(2) wâ: p^hû: t^hî: tàtsǐn

the people who judge,

(3) wâ: ɲa:n bi: ʔo: ʔaj lá: sàmǎj

that the BOI fair is outmoded

(4) rǔ: mǎj ∅ nán...

or not...

(Phujatkan, 6 March 2000: pp. 9)

The ∅ in (4) refers back to lá: sàmǎj in (3).

6.2.2 Cataphoric Ellipsis

There are only two examples of cataphoric ellipsis. The first one is nominal ellipsis and the second one is prepositional ellipsis as follows.

Example 92

(1) kràsǎ: ka:nlót tōnt^hun ka:n̄ən dūəj k^hrūəŋmu: t^ha:ŋ ka:n̄ən sāmǎj màj

The current of capital reducing with a new financial mechanism

(2) kla:j pen rūəŋ jō:t hít sǎmràp t^húrákìt t^haj
is very popular in Thai business.

(3) p^hrǒ? nō:kcà:k ∅ cà? dâ:j ŋən t^hù:k lǎ:w
Besides lowering sums of investment,

(4) câ:wk^hǒ:ŋ kìtcàka:n jaŋ dâj kamraj cà:k...
owners of businesses will gain a profit from...

(Phujatkan, 24 July 2000: pp. 9)

∅ in (3) points forward to the nominal group câ:wk^hǒ:ŋ kìtcàka:n in (4).

Example 93

(1) banda: p^hô: mâ: p^hû:pòkk^hrɔ:ŋ cuŋ mâj jɔ:m hâj
bùt lǎ:n lâwriən ∅

Parents or guardians therefore do not allow their children to study

(2) rǔ: t^ham ŋa:n naj sǎ:k^hǎ: ní:
or work in this field.

(Phujatkan, 27 March 2000: pp. 9)

The ∅ in (1) refers forward to the prepositional phrase naj sǎ:k^hǎ: ní: in (2).

Next chapter will discuss on repetition which accounts for semantic cohesion and grammatical cohesion.



CHAPTER VII

REPETITION

Repetition occurs when a lexical item or pattern which has been mentioned previously is repeated again. And the presupposing item either has the same referent as the item which it presupposes or there is some referential relationship between them.

Halliday and Hasan (1976) classify repetition as a part of lexical cohesion in a category of reiteration which also includes a synonym, a near-synonym, a superordinate, and a general word. While de Beaugrande and Dressler (1981) call repetition as RECURRENCE.

de Beaugrande and Dressler identify that the motivation in employing repetition is 'to insist upon relationships among elements or configurations of content within the text' (1981:59).

From this view, the researcher thinks that the motivation in using repetition can be accounted for avoiding confusion as to what is being referred to or what subject is being talked about. There are two categories of repetition here : complete and partial.

7.1 Complete Repetition

Complete repetition refers to the repetition of all parts of a linguistic form-or in other words, the same linguistic item has been said more than once. There are four levels at which complete repetition can occur-word, phrase, sentence, and discourse.

7.1.1 Word Repetition

A word which appears in the earlier part of the discourse is repeated. Words which are repeated in this study are noun, verb, adverb, and conjunctive word.

Example 94: nominal repetition

(1) daŋnán nákriən naj rábòp t^háwí? p^ha:k^hi:

Thus the students of “Dual Vocational Training”

(2) cà? mi: sàt^hǎ:ná? pen t^háŋ nákriən naj

sàt^hǎ:ban k^hǒ:ŋ krom ʔa:c^hi:wá? sùksǎ:...

have a status of both the students of colleges under Vocational Education Department...

(Phujatkan, 21 August 2000: pp. 9)

In example (94), the same noun ‘nákriən’ has been said twice in (1) and (2).

Example 95: verbal repetition

ka:npliènp^læ:ŋ pen sìn t^hî: lì:k liəŋ mâj dâ:j

Change is the thing which we cannot avoid.

(2) pen sàtcàt^ham k^hǒ:ŋ lô:k

(It) is the reality of the world

(3) lǎ? mi lǎksàrà?

and it has a characteristic

(4) pen pra:kòttàka:n t^ha:ŋ sǎŋk^hom

of being a social phenomenon

(5) t^hî: kè:t k^hûn tàlò:t we:la:

which occurs all the time.

(Phujatkan, 8 May 2000: pp. 9)

The verb 'pen' has been repeated twice in (2) and (4).

Example 96: conjunctive repetition

(1) p^hû: p^hàlìt t^haj jaŋ mi: sàkkàʔjáp^hâ:p p^hiəŋ
p^ho:

Thai manufacturers have still enough potential

(2) t^hî: càʔ k^həŋk^hǎn kàp k^hû: k^həŋ sǎmk^han t^háŋ
sǒ:ŋ klùm

to compete with two groups of important rivals :

(3) klùm t^hî: mi: t^hékno:lo:ji: t^hâw t^hiəm kan
pentônwâ: tâ:jwǎn kawlí:tâ:j hôŋkoŋ...

group (of countries) that have equal technology (to Thailand) such as
Taiwan, South Korea, Hong Kong, etc...,

(4) klùm pràt^hê:t t^hî: mi: k^hâ:ræ:ŋ t^hù:k kwà:
pentônwâ: ʔindo:ni:sie wîətna:m...

group of countries that have lower wage of labour than (Thailand), such as
Indonesia, Vietnam,...

(Phujatkan, 27 March 2000: pp. 9)

The conjunctive word pentônwâ: in (3) occurs again in (4).

7.1.2 Phrasal Repetition

Phrasal repetition is the repetition of phrase which has gone
before completely.

Phrases which are found to be repeated are noun phrase, verb phrase, temporal phrase and prepositional phrase.

Example 97: noun phrase repetition

(1) kò:n kè:t wíkrìt rátt^hàba:n kawlí:tâ:j mâj k^hôj
tô:nrâp ka:nlon^thun cà:k tà:ŋ pràt^hê:t

Before facing crisis, the South Korean government hardly welcome foreign investments.

(2) do:j ráwà:ŋ pi: sǒ:ŋp^han hâ:ró:j sǎ:msìppè:t
t^hũŋ sǒ:ŋp^han hâ:ró:j sî:sìp[?]èt mi: ka:nlon^thun cà:k tà:ŋ
pràt^hê:t c^hàliè mâj kə:n nũŋ ró:j ra:j tò: duən

Between 1995-1998, there were the foreign investments (in South Korea) not over 100 companies a month on the average (only).

(Phujatkan, 24 April 2000: pp. 9)

The noun phrase ‘ka:nlon^thun cà:k tà:ŋ pràt^hê:t’ has been mentioned twice in (1) and (2).

Example 98 : noun phrase repetition

(1) naj c^hũeŋ t^hî: sè:tt^hàkìt k^hǒ:ŋ pràt^hê:t k^hàjǎ:j
tuə naj rádàp sǔ:ŋ

At the time when the economic of the country grew up at high level,

(2) p^ha:rákìt t^hî: bi: ʔo: ʔaj kràt^ham

a mission, which BOI had done,

(3) kô: cà? mũŋ nén paj t^hî: k^hwa:mrûətrew naj

ka:nhâj bə:ríka:n dâ:n ka:nlon^thun

was to stress on giving quick service on investment (to investors).

(4) k^hro:ŋsâ:ŋ lǎə? rábòp ɲa:n naj rájǎ? nán cuŋ t^hù:k kamnòt k^hũn...

So the structure and work system, at that time, was established...

(5) kò:nnâ: nán bi: ʔo: ʔaj kô: dâ:j pràp plien
k^hro:ŋsâ:ŋ lǎə? rábòp ɲa:n paj lǎ:w k^hráŋ nùŋ

Before that (time) BOI used to adjust its structure and work system once.

(Phujatkan, 8 May 2000: pp. 9)

In example (98), 'k^hro:ŋsâ:ŋ lǎə? rábòp ɲa:n' in (4) is repeated in (5).

Example 99: verb phrase repetition

(1) ...ra:k^ha: sǐnk^há: kàsè:t k^hǒ:ŋ pi: ní: lót loŋ
pràma:n ró:jlǎə? hâ:...

The price of agriculture products this year decreases five per cent...

(2) sũŋ t^hũ: wâ: tám t^hî: sùt naj rô:p hâ: pi:

It is the lowest price in five years.

(3) nũœçà:k k^hwa:m tœŋka:n k^hǒ:ŋ tàlà:t lót loŋ

This results from the demand of a market is decreasing.

(Phujatkan, 28 August 2000: pp. 9)

From the example (99), the verb phrase 'lót loŋ' in (1) is repeated in (3).

Example 100: temporal phrase repetition

(1) p^hũ: bœ:ríhǎ:n lǎə? câ:wnâ:t^hî: k^hǒ:ŋ bi: ʔo: ʔaj

kô: dâ:j jók t^hi:m paj c^hí:cæ:ŋ

The administration and officers of BOI went to explain

(2) lǎɛʔ tò:p k^hamt^hǎ:m tò: nák loŋt^hun lǎɛʔ p^hû: sǒncaj
mûe want^hî: jî:sìphâ: kàráʔkàda:k^hom t^hî: p^hà:n ma:...

and answer questions to investors and interested people on the past 25 July (2000)...

t^hî: ciŋ mûe want^hî: jî:sìphâ: kàráʔkàda:k^hom t^hî:
p^hà:n ma: jà:k ma: faŋ bi: ʔo: ʔaj c^hí:cæ:ŋ...

Actually, on the past 25 July, I would like to listen to the explanation of BOI...

(Phujatkan, 7 August 2000: pp. 9)

The temporal phrase ‘mûe want^hî: jî:sìphâ: kàráʔkàda:k^hom t^hî: p^hà:n ma:’ in (2) has been said again in (3).

Example 101: prepositional phrase repetition

(1) mǎe: k^hâ: k^hrɔ:ŋc^hî:p naj pràt^hê:t t^haj k^hô:nk^hâ:ŋ
 tà:m kô:ta:m

Although a cost of living in Thailand is rather low,

(3) tǎe: bɔ:ríka:n p^hú:nt^hǎ:n naj pràt^hê:t t^haj
 jaŋ mâj ʔûe ʔamnuej tò: ka:ndamroŋ c^hi:wít jà:ŋ mi:
 k^hwa:msùk nák

the infrastructure service of Thailand does not help much to live happily.

(Phujatkan, 5 June 2000: pp. 9)

In example (101), The prepositional phrase ‘naj pràt^hê:t t^haj’ in (1) is repeated in (2).

7.1.3 Sentential Repetition

All of elements of a sentence structure in an earlier part of the discourse are repeated. Examples follow.

Example 102

(1) ráwà:ŋ pi: sǒ:ŋp^han hâ:ró:j hâ: t^hũŋ sǒ:ŋp^han
hâ:ró:j sî:sìp kawlǐ:tâ:j mi: mu:nk^hâ: ka:nlon^thun do:j
tron^h cà:k tà:ŋ prà^thê:t p^hiəŋ jî:sìpsì: cùt hòk p^han lá:n
rĭən sàhàrát t^hâwnán

Between 1962-1997, South Korea had had the value of foreign direct investment just about 24.6 billion US dollars.

(2) náp tâŋtè: prà^thâ:na:t^hípodi: k^him dæ: cuŋ
k^hâw ráp tamnəŋ mŭə duən kump^ha:p^han sǒ:ŋp^han hâ:ró:j
sî:sìp^hèt

Since the President Kim Dae-Jung went into office in February of the year 1998,

(3) kawlǐ:tâ:j dâ:j mi: ka:npràppruŋ kòt rábìəp
dâ:n ka:nlon^thun p^hróm mâ:ttràka:n sòŋsǎ:m ka:nlon^thun

South Korea had overhauled the investment rules and the investing promotion policy.

(4) t^hamhâj con t^hũŋ sĭn pi: sǒ:ŋp^han hâ:ró:j sî:
sìpsǒ:ŋ kawlǐ:tâ:j mi: mu:nk^hâ: ka:nlon^thun do:j tron^h cà:k
tà:ŋ prà^thê:t jî:sìpsì: cùt sî: p^han lá:n rĭən sàhàrát

This made, at the end of the year 1999, South Korea had the value of foreign direct investment about 24.4 billion US dollars.

(Phujatkan, 24 April 2000: pp. 9)

All elements of the sentence ‘kawlǐ:tâj mi: mu:nk^hâ:
ka:nloŋt^hun do:j troŋ cà:k tà:ŋ pràt^hê:t’ in (1) are repeated in (4).

7.1.4 Discoursal Repetition

More than one sentence which have been mentioned previously are repeated. Discoursal repetition has been found only once as in

Example 103

(1) ka:npliənp læ:ŋ pen sɪŋ t^hî: lî:k liəŋ mâj dâ:j

Change is the thing which we cannot avoid.

(2) pen sàtcàt^ham k^hǒ:ŋ lô:k

(It) is the reality of the world.

(3) lǎe? mi: láksàná? pen pra:kòttàka:n t^ha:ŋ sǎŋk^hom

And (it) has a characteristic of being a social phenomenon

(4) t^hî: kè:t k^hûn tàlò:t we:la:...

which occurs all the time...

(5) ka:npliənp læ:ŋ k^hǒ:ŋ ?oŋko:n pen sɪŋ t^hî: lî:k

liəŋ mâj dâ:j

Organization changing is the thing which (we) cannot avoid.

(6) lǎe? mi: láksàná? pen pra:kòttàka:n t^ha:ŋ sǎŋk^hom

And (it) has the characteristic of being the social phenomenon

(7) t^hî: kè:t k^hûn tàlò:t we:la:

which occurs all the time.

(Phujatkan, 8 May 2000: pp. 9)

The two sentences --‘lǎe? mi: láksàná? pen pra:kòttàka:n

t^ha:ŋ sǎŋk^hom' in (3) and 't^hî: kə:t k^hûn tǎlò:t wə:la:' in (4) -- are repeated.

7.2 Partial Repetition

Some element(s) of a linguistic unit which has been stated before is/are repeated. The linguistic unit may be a word, phrase, sentence, or discourse. There are three different types of partial repetition : repetition of an item of a different form class, repetition of an item of a same form class, and parallelism (de Beaugrande and Dressler, 1981).

7.2.1 Repetition of an Item of a Different Form Class

Repetition of an item of a different form class is called by de Beaugrande and Dressler (1981) as 'partial recurrence'. This kind of repetition refers to the shifting of an item which comes earlier to a different form class. According to the researcher's data, there is only the shifting between a noun and a verb. For example:

Example 104

(1) dûəj hè:t ní: bi: ʔo: ʔaj cuŋ dâ:j rûəmmu: kàp
krom ʔa:c^hi:wáʔ sùksǎ: kràsueŋ sùksǎ:

With this reason, BOI therefore cooperates with the Vocational Education Department under Ministry of Education,

(2) sūŋ pen nùəjŋa:n p^hâ:k rát

which is the unit of public sector

(3) t^hî: p^hàlìt ræ:ŋŋa:n fǐ:mu:

in producing skilled labourers,

(4) damnə:n k^hro:ŋka:n

carry out the project

(5) t^hî: mi: c^hû: wâ: ʔa:c^hi:wáʔ sùksă: rábòp
 t^háwíʔ p^ha:k^hi: rǔ: di:wí:t^hi: du:ʔál wo:k^he:c^hânnâl
 t^hre:nnîŋ

which is entitled “Ar-cheewasuksa Rabop Thawiphakee” or “Dual Vocational Training (DVT.)”.

(6) k^hro:ŋka:n ní: pen ka:nrûemmu: ráwà:ŋ
 krom ʔa:c^hi:wáʔ sùksă: kàp ro:ŋga:n rǔ: sàt^hă:n pràkò:p
 ka:n

This project is the co-operation between the Vocational Education Department, and factories or establishments

(7) naj ka:np^hâlît bùkk^hála:ko:n hâj mi:
 t^háj k^hwa:mrú: lăʔ k^hwa:mc^hamna:n

in producing personnel to gain a knowledge and skill.

(Phujatkan, 21 August 2000: pp. 9)

In example (104), the verb ‘p^hâlît’ (to produce) in (3) is shifted to the noun ‘ka:np^hâlît’ (producing) in (7).

Example 105

(1) t^hî:ciŋ bi: ʔo: ʔaj dâ:j sòŋsǎ:m

Actually, BOI has promoted

(2) lăʔ hâj k^hwa:msămk^han tò: p^hâ:k kàsè:t ma:
 na:n lă:w...

and paid attention to the agricultural sector quite a long time...

(3) míc^hâj p^hê:ŋ càʔ ma: hěn k^hwa:msămk^han naj
 tɔ:n ní:

It is not true that (BOI) has just concentrated on (the agricultural sector).

(4) t̄æ: pr̄àden k̄ô: k̄h̄u: w̄â:

The point is that

(5) ka:nhâj k̄h̄wa:msămk̄h̄an t̄æ: d̄ə:m nán d̄â:j

camk̄àt j̄ù: naj k̄h̄è:t p̄h̄u:míp̄h̄â:k r̄ũ: k̄h̄è:t s̄ă:m pen làk

Formerly, (investment promotion) had been limited only in rural areas or zone 3.

(Phujatkan, 7 August 2000: pp. 9)

The verb 'h̄âj' which literally means 'to give' in (2) is shifted to the noun 'ka:nhâj' which literally means 'the giving' in (5).

7.2.2 Repetition of an Item of the Same Form Class

Repetition of an item of the same form class refers to the process which some element(s), or (a) basic word(s) of different noun / verb phrases is / are repeated. This kind of the repetition may occur between noun phrases or verb phrases. Examples follow.

Example 106

(1) kàsè:ttràk̄o:n pen kr̄àd̄ù:k s̄ănlăŋ k̄h̄õ:ŋ

c̄h̄â:t

Agriculturists are the back bone of the country.

(2) p̄h̄â:k kàsè:t pen p̄h̄â:k t̄h̄î: s̄ămk̄h̄an k̄h̄õ:ŋ

pr̄àt̄h̄ê:t

The agricultural sector is the important sector of the country.

(3) k̄ô: w̄ăŋ w̄â:

I hope that

(4) nájo:ba:j sòŋsǎ:m ka:nlonṭ^hun màj k^hon
cà? mi: sùen c^hûəj p^hátt^hána: kìtcàka:n kàsè:t

The new 'Investment Promoting Policy' may help to develop the agricultural business

(5) lé? sâ:ŋ ra:jdâ:j tò: kàsè:ttrako:n p^hê:m
k^hûn

and the agriculturists will earn more money.

(Phujatkan, 28 August 2000: pp. 9)

The basic word 'kàsè:t' has been repeated in (2), (4), and (5).

Example 107

(1) ...nûəŋcà:k pàtcùban mi: mâ:ttràka:n
lé? kòt rábìəp mâ:kma:j

...Because at present, there are so many measures and rules

(2) t^hí: sòŋ p^hǒn kràt^hóp tò: ka:nsòŋ ?ò:k
k^hǒ:ŋ t^haj t^háj t^ha:ŋ troŋ lé? t^ha:ŋ ?ò:m...

which affect the Thai export both directly and indirectly...

(3) daŋ nán p^hâ:k rát cà? tōŋ pen p^hû:nam naj
ka:nce:nrâca:

So the public sector has to be the leader in negotiation

(4) p^hûə hâj t^haj pen k^hô:jôkwén

to make Thailand get an exception

(5) rǔ: jù: nô:knǔə kòt rábìəp daŋ klà:w

or stay beyond the rules as mentioned (above).

(Phujatkan, 28 August 2000: pp. 9)

Only 'kòt rábìəp' from 'mâ:ttràka:n láə? kòt rábìəp' in (1) is repeated in (5).

Example 108

- (1) ...ka:nk^hàjǎ:j tuə k^hǒ:ŋ p^hâ:k kàsè:t lót
 (extension) (body) (of) (agricultural sector) (decrease)
nó:j t^hǒj loŋ do:j lamdàp
 (few) (retreat) (down) (by) (order)
- (2) cà:k t^hî: k^hə:j mi: mu:nk^hâ: ka:nsòŋ?ò:k pen
 (from) (at) (used to) (have) (value) (export) (be)
 sàtsùen t^hǔŋ ró:jlá? jî:sìppə:t cut hâ: naj pi:
 (proportion) (to) (per cent) (28) (point) (5) (in) (year)
 sǒ:ŋp^han hâ:ró:j sǎ:msìpsǒ:ŋ
 (2532)
- (3) dâ:j lót loŋ lǔə p^hiəŋ ró:jlá? sìpsǒ:ŋ naj pi:
 (get) (decrease)(down)(remain)(only) (per cent) (12) (in) (year)
 sǒ:ŋp^han hâ:ró:j sî:sìpsǒ:ŋ
 (2542)

...The extension of the agricultural sector had gradually decreased -- the proportion of exporting value decreases from 28.5 per cent in 1989 to 12 per cent in 1999.

(Phujatkan, 28 August 2000: pp. 9)

From the example (108), the verb phrase lót loŋ 'decrease' which is the parts of the verb phrase 'lót nó:j t^hǒj loŋ' in (1) are repeated in (3).

7.2.3 Parallelism

Parallelism is the reusing of structures or surface formats but filling them with new elements. For example:

Example 109

(1) ...raw jaŋ tɔŋka:n k^hǎ:j sɨnk^há: t^haj paj t^huə
lô:k

We still want to sell Thai goods to all other countries around the world.

(2) raw jaŋ tɔŋka:n nák t^hɔŋt^hɨəw tà:ŋ pràt^hê:t

We still need foreign travelers.

(3) raw jaŋ tɔŋka:n ŋentra: tà:ŋ pràt^hê:t ma: c^hamrá?
nî:

We still need money from other countries to pay debt.

(Phujatkan, 20 March 2000: pp. 9)

Here, a series of similar are expressed through ‘raw jaŋ tɔŋka:n’ (we still need).

Example 110

(1) raw k^hə:j dâ:jjin k^ham sùp^ha:sit t^hî: wâ:

We used to hear a proverb as

(2) jiŋ pu:n ná t diəw dâ:j nók sǎ:ŋ tuə

“Shooting two birds with one bullet.”

(3) tǎ: t^hî: kawli:tâ:j nán

But in South Korea,

(4) k^hǎw dâ:j klà:w t^hũŋ ka:nlon^th^un do:j tron
cà:k tà:ŋ pràt^hê:t

The people, there, talk about the foreign direct investment

(5) do:j c^háj k^hamp^hû:t wâ:

by saying that

(6) jiŋ pu:n nát diəw dâ:j nók hâ: tuə

“Shooting five birds with one bullet.”

(Phujatkan, 14 August 2000: pp. 9)

In this passage, the two proverbs in (2) and (6) are expressed in a parallel discourse ‘jiŋ pu:n nát diəw dâ:j nók (number) tuə’, which consists of two sentences ‘jiŋ pu:n nát diəw’ and ‘dâ:j nók (number) tuə’.

Example 111

(1) sápp^hája:ko:n mánút t^hî: mi: k^hunnáp^hâ:p
k^hǒ:ŋ pràt^hê:t nán

The human resources with (high) quality of (our) country

(2) cà? tōŋ mâj rák c^hâ:t dūəj pà:k

must not love the country by words,

(3) cà? tōŋ mâj t^hòk t^hĩəŋ kan naj rŭəŋ ráj sǎ:rǎ?...

must not argue about nonsense...

(4) tronkank^hâ:m cà? tōŋ p^hû:t kan dūəj hè:t p^hǒn

On the contrary, we must talk to each other with reason.

(5) t^húk k^hon cà? tōŋ rú:càk t^ham ŋa:n t^ham ka:n

Everybody must learn to work

(6) lǎ? cà? tōŋ t^ham naj sìn

and must do things

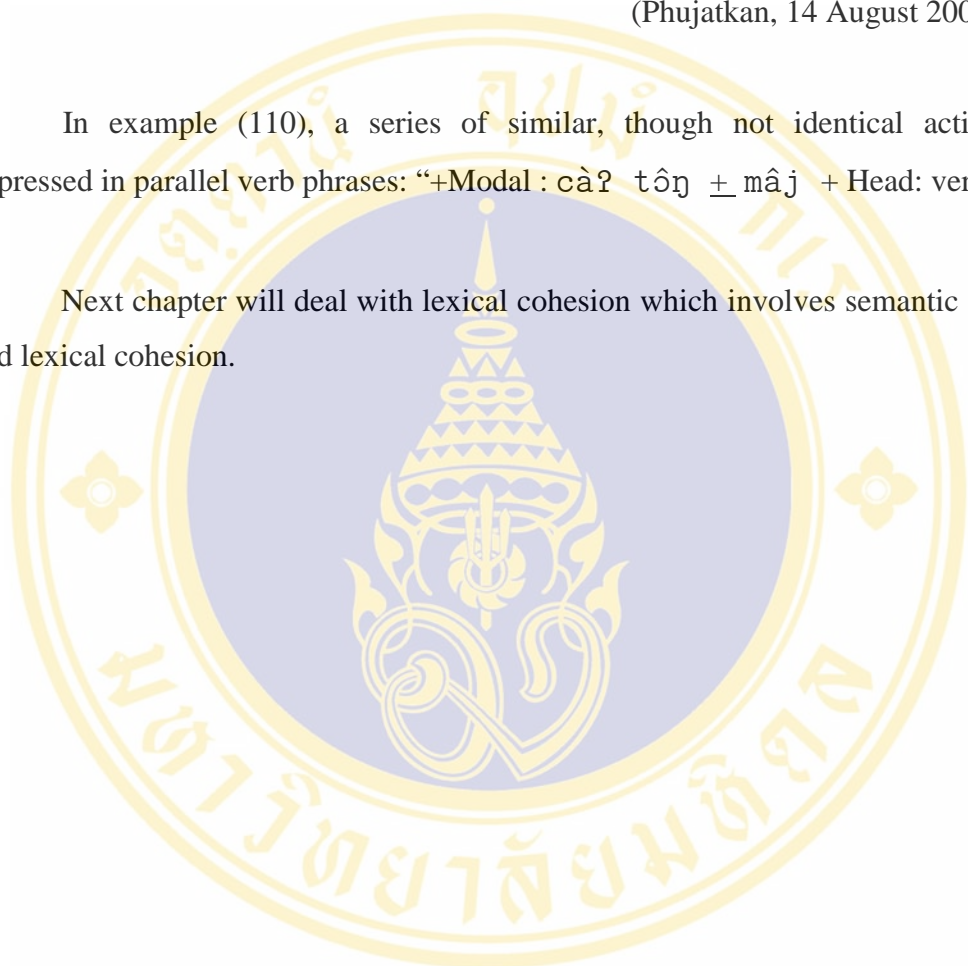
(7) t^hî: pen pràjò:t tò: pràt^hê:t c^hâ:t

which are useful to the country.

(Phujatkan, 14 August 2000: pp. 9)

In example (110), a series of similar, though not identical actions, are expressed in parallel verb phrases: “+Modal : cà? tōŋ ± mâj + Head: verb’

Next chapter will deal with lexical cohesion which involves semantic cohesion and lexical cohesion.



CHAPTER VIII

LEXICAL COHESION

Lexical cohesion occurs when more than one words or phrases in a discourse are semantically related in some way – in other words, they are related in terms of their meaning.

Lexical cohesion differs from reference, substitution and conjunction, as its cohesive effect is more delicate. Halliday and Hassan stated that

‘The effect of lexical, especially collocational, cohesion on a text is subtle and difficult to estimate. With grammatical cohesion the effect is relatively clear: if one comes across the word *he*, for example, there is no doubt that some essential information is called for, and that the identity of the *he* must be recovered from somewhere. Reference items, substitutes and conjunction all explicitly presuppose some element other than themselves.

In lexical cohesion, however, it is not a case of there being particular lexical items which always have a cohesive function. A lexical item may enter into a cohesive relation, but by itself it carries no indication whether it is functioning cohesively or not. That can be established only by reference to the text.’

(Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 288)

There are five different sub-types of lexical cohesion in this study: synonyms, antonyms, superordinates, general words, and collocation.

8.1 Synonyms

Synonyms refer to two words or phrases which have the same meaning.

Example 112

(1) p^hǒm p^hêŋ càʔ dâ:j mi: ʔo:kàt paj r^áppr^{àt}h^a:n
ʔa:hă:n naj p^hátta:k^ha:n c^hû: daŋ

I had just an opportunity to eat at one of the more famous.

(2) læʔ kamlaŋ pen t^hî: níjom hæŋ nùŋ

and popular restaurants,

(3) do:j càt rá:n pen pr^{àp}h^ê:t t^hî: ʔà:t rîøk wâ:
rá:n ʔa:hă:n bæ:p ʔon ju: k^hæ:n ʔí:t

where is arranged as what we may call “ALL YOU CAN EAT
RESTURANT”.

(4) k^hun sǎ:mâ:t kin ʔa:hă:n t^hî: k^hǎw càt ma: hâj
dâ:j t^húk c^hánít t^húk pr^{àp}h^ê:t...

There, you can eat all of kinds of food, which are served by a waiter...

(Phujatkan, 19 June 2000: pp. 9)

The word kin ‘eat (infml.)’ in (4) refers back to r^áppr^{àt}h^a:n ‘eat (fml.)’
in (1), of which it is a synonym.

Example 113

(1)ka:nk^hà:t k^hlæ:n ræ:ŋŋa:n fĩ:mu: t^hî: mi:
k^hwa:mc^hamna:n

The shortage of skilled labourers

(2) lǎəʔ tɾoŋ kàp k^hwa:mtôŋka:n k^hǒ:ŋ p^hâ:k ʔùtsǎ:
hàkam

that meets industrial requirements

(3) pen panhǎ: sǎmk^han k^hǒ:ŋ p^hâ:k ʔùtsǎ:hàkam
t^haj...

is a vital problem of Thai industrial sector...

(4) mǎ:wâ: rǎ:ŋŋa:n sùennùŋ càʔ dâ:j ráp ka:nfùk
fǒn ma: lǎ:w

Although there are a number of labourers whom have already been trained,

(5) tǎ: kô: mâj sǎ:mâ:t ʔò:k paj pràkò:p ʔa:c^hî:p
dâ:j jà:ŋ mi: pràsitt^híp^hâ:p

they cannot work efficiently

(6) nûeŋcà:k t^háksàʔ t^hî: riən ma: nán mâj tɾoŋ kàp
k^hwa:mtôŋka:n k^hǒ:ŋ ro:ŋŋa:n rǔ: sàthǎ:n pràkò:pka:n
due to their skills are not needed by factories or establishments.

(Phujatkan, 21 August 2000: pp. 9)

The word t^háksàʔ ‘skill’ in (6) is a synonym of k^hwa:mc^hamna:n ‘skill’ in (1).

Example 114

(1) ...nûeŋcà:k t^hǔ: pen pàtcaj sǎmk^han

...(The Foreigner Direct Investment Promoting Policy) is a significant factor

(2) t^hî: sòŋ p^hǒn tò: ka:nfú:n tuə t^ha:ŋ sè:tt^hàkìt
k^hǒ:ŋ pràt^hê:t

which has affected the economic recovery of the country.

(3) ka:n t^hî: rátt^hàba:n dũŋdù:t ka:nlonŋt^hun cà:k
tà:ŋc^hâ:t

The government's effort to attract foreign investment

(4) lǎe? k^hǎ:j rátt^hàwísă:hàkìt kà: tà:ŋc^hâ:t

and sell enterprises to foreigners

(5) cà? sòn p^hõn kràt^hóp tò: k^hwa:mmânk^hoŋ k^hõ:ŋ
c^hâ:t...

will affect the security of the nation...

(Phujatkan, 24 April 2000: pp. 9)

The word c^hâ:t 'nation' in (5) refers to pràt^hê:t 'country' in (2), which are synonyms in Thai.

8.2 Antonyms

Antonyms refer to a pair of words or phrases which are related by a type of oppositeness. In Halliday and Hasan (1976), and in Chanawangsa (1986) work, they studied only antonyms between nouns. Besides noun phrases, this study found antonyms between verb phrases, prepositional phrases, adjective phrases and temporal phrases can create lexical cohesion in Thai.

Example 115: antonyms between noun phrases

(1) ... lǎe? ka:nnamk^hâw k^hàjǎ:j tuə t^hũŋ jî:sìppà:t
cùt sǎ:m pə:sen

... And the imports extended to 28.3 per cent.

(2) mi: ka:nwík^hró?

There was a criticism

(3) wâ: sǎ:hè:t t^hî: ka:nsòŋʔò:k k^hǒ:ŋ kawlítâ:j
k^hàjǎ:j tuə...

that the cause which made the exports of South Korea extend...

(Phujatkan, 24 April 2000: pp. 9)

In example (115), the noun phrase ka:nsòŋʔò:k 'exports' is an antonym of ka:nnamk^hâw 'imports'.

Example 116: antonyms between verb phrases

(1) ... nûeŋcà:k k^hwa:mtôŋka:n k^hǒ:ŋ tàlà:t lô:k
lót lon

... the demand of the world market has decreased,

(2) k^hànàʔt^hî: p^hǒn p^hàlìt p^hê:m k^hûn

the product has increased.

(Phujatkan, 28 August 2000: pp. 9)

The verb phrase p^hê:m k^hûn 'has increased' in (2) refers back to lót lon 'has decreased' in (1), which is an antonym.

Example 117: antonyms between prepositional words

(1) ... tà:ŋc^hâ:t càʔ sú: t^hî:din dâ:j

... Foreigners can buy land

(2) kô:tò:mûe c^háj pen t^hî: tân ro:ŋŋa:n

whenever they use it to establish factories.

(3) do:j càʔ tōŋ pen p^hú:nt^hî: naj ník^hom ʔùtsǎ:hà

kam

And this property must be land inside an area of an industrial zone.

(4) hà:k pen p^hú:nt^hî: nô:k ník^hom ʔùtsǎ:hàkam

lǎ:w...

If the land is outside the industrial zone...

(Phujatkan, 14 August 2000: pp. 9)

The prepositional word nô:k ‘outside’ points back to the antonym naj ‘inside’ which appears in (3).

8.3 Superordinates

Superordinates have meanings that are more general than the meanings of some lexical items.

Example 118

(1) ŋa:n bi: ʔo: ʔaj fæ: sǎ:ŋp^han mi: næ:wk^hít làk

The BOI fair 2000 has a significant concept

(2) t^hî: tǎ:ktà:ŋ cà:k nít^hátsàka:n ʔù:n ʔù:n

which differs from other exhibitions

(3) t^hî: k^hə:j càt ma:

which have been arranged previously.

(Phujatkan, 6 March 2000: pp. 9)

The word nít^hátsàka:n ‘exhibition’ points back to ɲa:n bi: ʔo: ʔaj fæ: sǒ:ɲp^han ‘the BOI fair 2000’ in (1) and nít^hátsàka:n is a superordinate of ɲa:n bi: ʔo: ʔaj fæ: sǒ:ɲp^han.

Example 119

(1) ka:n t^hî: càʔ sùksǎ: nájo:ba:j ja:njon hǎj
k^háwcaj lúik súŋ nán

In studying an automobile policy (of any country) profoundly,

(2) càʔ tōŋ priəpt^hîep: ráwà:ŋ pràt^hê:t tà:ŋ tà:ŋ

(we) must compare it with those of other countries.

(3) do:j càʔ k^hǒ: klà:w t^hũŋ sǎ:m pràt^hê:t k^hu: t^haj
kawli:tâ:j lǎeʔ ma:le:sie

(Here, I) will speak of (the policies of) three countries- Thailand, South Korea and Malaysia,

(4) sũŋ dâ:j rê:mtôn p^hàlìt naj rájáʔ we:la: klâj
k^hiəŋ kan pràma:n sî:sìp pi: ma: lǎe:w

which began to produce (cars) at just about the same time-about forty years ago.

(5) naj rájáʔ rê:k kô: mi: nájo:ba:j k^hlá:jk^hlũŋ kan

At the beginning, the policies of these three countries were similar to each other

(6) tǎe: nájo:ba:j naj rájáʔ lǎŋ dâ:j p^hǎn præ: paj
k^honlát^hítlát^ha:ŋ

but their policies have evolved differently from each other later.

(Phujatkan, 4 September 2000: pp. 9)

Here ná:jo:ba:j ‘policy’ in each (5) and (6), is a superordinate of ná:jo:ba:j ja:njon ‘automobile policy’ in (1) - in other words, ná:jo:ba:j ja:njon is a hyponym of ná:jo:ba:j. The word pràt^hê:t ‘country’ in (2) is the superordinate of t^haj ‘Thailand’, kawlı:tâ:j ‘South Korea’ and ma:le:sie ‘Malaysia’ in (3) - in other words t^haj, kawlı:tâ:j and ma:le:sie are the hyponyms of pràt^hê:t.

8.4 General Words

Halliday and Hasan (1976) identified general words as ‘the superordinate members of major lexical sets’.

According to Halliday and Hasan, general words can be regarded as the highest points in the lexical taxonomy. And the meaning of the general words must include the meaning of other members of the same lexical sets. The researcher found only one example of this in her data.

Example 120

(1) cà:k ka:npràmə:n p^hǒn cùt cò:t lé:w co:n t^hî:
dâ:j p^hǒn t^hî: sùt

From the assessment, “the Park and Drive Points” which work most efficiently

(2) cà? jù: ta:m sǔ:nka:nk^há: jàj

are at many big department stores

(3) t^hî: mi: t^hî:cò:trót sàdùək dâ:jkà fiwcê:
p^há:k rangsìt si:k^hôn sàk^hwæ:

which have comfortable car parks such as the Future Park (at Rangsit), the Secon Square, etc.,

(4) lé? sàt^hǎ:nt^hî: jù: klâj ləŋ c^humc^hon

and places which are near to community centers.

(Phujatkan, 17 April 2000: pp. 9)

The word sàt^hǎ:nt^hî: ‘place’ is a general word of sǔ:nka:n k^há: jàj (big department stores) in (2), and fiwcê: p^há:k raŋsìt ‘the Future Park (at Rangsit)’ and si:k^hôn sàk^hwæ: ‘the Secon Square’ in (3), whereas sǔ:nka:nk^há: jàj is a superordinate of fiwcê: p^há:k raŋsìt and si:k^hôn sàk^hwæ:.

8.5 Collocation

Collocation is achieved through the association of lexical items that regularly co-occur.

Some linguists, including Halliday and Hasan (1976), admit that lexical collocation is difficult to estimate because it includes all of the items that are semantically related. It is a problem in forming sets of lexical items which regularly co-occur as Nunan (1993) points out

‘The problems arise because collocation is expressed through open rather than closed class items. ‘Closed’ lexical items include all grammatical words- such as pronouns, conjunctions and prepositions-membership of which is finite. In contrast, there is no limit to the items that can be used to express collocation. This means that it is difficult to establish sets of regularly co-occurring words and phrases.

An additional problem is the fact that many **lexical relationships** are text-as well as context-bound. This means that

words and phrases that are related in one text may not related in another. For example, the words *neighbor* and *scoundrel* are not related at all. However, in the following text, they are synonyms.

*My neighbour has just let one of his trees fall into my garden.
And the scoundrel refuses to pay for the damage he has caused.'*

Collocation includes synonyms, antonyms, superordinates, and general words. It also includes pairs of words drawn from the same ordered series such as wan can 'Monday' wanp^hút 'Wednesday', or from unordered lexical sets such as sǐ:lǔəŋ 'yellow' sǐ:fá: 'light blue'. The members of lexical sets may be related as part to whole, like rót jon 'car'...hâ:mló: 'brake', or they may be co-hyponyms of the same superordinate, i.e. both members of the same more general class, such as kin 'eat'... dù:m 'drink' (both hyponyms of bɔ:ríp^hô:k 'consume').

Collocation also involves pairs of words whose meaning relation is not easy to classify in systematic semantic terms, like k^hru: 'teacher'... ro:ŋriən 'school', wǐ: 'comb' ...p^hǒm 'hair'. The cohesive effect of such pairs tend to share the same lexical environment. Within a discourse, lexical items often constitute a long cohesive chain. Examples follow.

Example 121

(1) pàtcùban mi: p^honʔè:k p^hícìt kunláʔwánít
ʔoŋk^hámontri:

At present, (this foundation) has the General Phijit Kullawanit, the Privy Councillor,

(2) sũŋ raw rú:cák t^hân di: kàp c^hǎ:ja: t^hân wâ:

bík sǔə

whom we well know as (the epithet) “Big Tiger”,

(3) pen pràt^ha:n mu:nnít^hí?

as its chairman.

(4) cà:k də:m t^hî: t^hân pen c^ha:j c^hâ:t t^háhă:n

Formerly, he was a warrior.

(5) tōŋ t^ham sùk sǒŋ^hra:m prà:p

ʔàrìʔ râ:tc^háʔsàttru: naj lǎj sàmǒ:nráp^hu:m

He had to fight a war to quell enemies in many battlefields.

(6) p^ha:jlǎŋ kàsǐən ʔa:júʔ râ:tc^háka:n t^hân kô:

plǐən ma: pàtìbàt p^ha:rákìt naj sǒŋ^hra:m t^ha:ŋ

sè:tt^hàkìt

After retiring, he has changed to fight in an economic war.

(Phujatkan, 27 March 2000: pp. 9)

From this example, the compound noun c^ha:j c^hâ:t t^háhă:n ‘warrior’ in (4) is a superordinate of p^honʔè:k ‘general’ in (1). sùk ‘war’ in (5) is a synonym of sǒŋ^hra:m ‘war’ in (5) and (6). While the word bík ‘Big’ in (2), prà:p ‘quell’ in (5) ʔàrìʔ râ:tc^háʔsàttru: ‘enemy’, sàmǒ:nráp^hu:m in (5) and the verb phrase pàtìbàt p^ha:rákìt in (6) tend to appear in similar contexts to the rest of the underlined parts from (1) to (6).

Example 122

(1) ... do:j jók tuəjà:ŋ pràt^hê:t kawli:tâ:j

...(They) talked about the example of the South Korean case,

(2) wâ: sǎ:mâ:t fú:nfu: sè:tt^hàkìt k^hûn ma: jà:ŋ
rûetrew

when (South Korea) recovered her economic situation very quickly

(3) nûeŋcà:k nájo:ba:j c^hâ:tníjom t^ha:ŋ sè:tt^hàkìt
by using the economic nationalist policy

(4) do:j kì:tkan ka:nlont^hun cà:k tà:ŋpràt^hê:t
which had obstructed foreign investment.

(Phujatkan, 14 August 2000: pp. 9)

The verb phrase fú:nfu: sè:tt^hàkìt ‘recover an economic situation’ in (2), and the two noun phrases nájo:ba:j c^hâ:tníjom t^ha:ŋ sè:tt^hàkìt ‘an economic nationalist policy’ in (3) and ka:nlont^hun cà:k tà:ŋpràt^hê:t ‘foreign investment’ in (4) tend to occur in the same lexical environment.

Next chapter will deal with cohesive devices in terms of conjunction.

CHAPTER IX

CONJUNCTION

Conjunction is a cohesive device signaling semantic relationships that hold between two sentences or even paragraphs. In other words, the researcher realize how a sentence relates to another succeeding one by recourse to the meaning of conjunction.

The use of a conjunction differs from other forms of reference, substitution and ellipsis in that it is not a device for reminding the reader of previously mentioned entities, actions and states of affairs. It is not what linguists call an anaphoric relation, but rather, it is a cohesive device because it signals relationships that can only be fully understood through reference to other parts of the discourse as Halliday and Hasan (1976) stated that

‘ 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.’

(Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 226)

Consider the following example in which the researcher sees the sentence which has a causal conjunctive element เพราะ ‘because’ in (4) presupposes the

existence of other components, a sequence of sentences from (1) to (3), which expresses the result as Halliday and Hasan mentioned above.

Example 123

(1) k^hro:ŋka:n ní: cà? pen pràjò:t do:j troŋ kà:
ro:ŋŋa:n lǎ? sàt^hǎ:n pràkò:p ka:n

This project will directly be useful for factories and establishments

(2) naj ka:nk^hát lûøk p^hánákŋa:n t^hî: mi: k^hwa:m
sǎ:mâ:t lǎ? k^hwa:mc^hamna:n

in selecting persons who have the capabilities and skills

(3) ta:m t^hî: ro:ŋŋa:n tōŋka:n

which meet the factories' s needs

(4) p^hró? náksùksǎ: cà? dâ:jráp ka:nfùk ?òprom jà:ŋ
tò:nûeŋ naj sǎ:k^hǎ:

due to (these) students will be trained continuously from the field

(5) t^hî: ro:ŋŋa:n kamlaŋ tōŋka:n rǔ: k^hà:tk^hlæ:n

of which the factories are needing or lacking.

(Phujatkan, 21 August 2000: pp. 9)

In this chapter, two aspects of conjunction are studied: types of conjunctive relations and positions of conjunction.

9.1 Types of Conjunctive Relations

The classification of conjunctive relations in this study is based on the specific meanings of each conjunction, and the meanings of sentences which has preceded or followed conjunctive elements.

According to this criteria, the conjunctive relations can be divided into 21 categories (more than that Chanawangsa' s 16 categories): additive, alternative, adversative, conditional, temporal, causal, resultative, purposive, procedural, enumerative, topic changing, emphatic, exemplificatory, elaborating, appositive, concluding, continuative, quotation, inferential, inclusive, and apart from.

9.1.1 Additive Relations

Some information that comes before is added by another. Or what is being added is the same subject matter of what has been said before. This relation is expressed through pràcùəp kàp, kô:…dûəj, lǎəʔ, nô:kca:k ní:…jaŋ…(dûəj), t^hǎ:m, t^háŋ…lǎəʔ, p^hró:mka:p, ruəmt^háŋ, nô:kca:k…jaŋ…dûəj, ʔì:kt^háŋ, nô:knǔə… kô:jaŋ, t^háŋjaŋ, ruəmt^hǔŋ. Examples follow.

Example 124

(1)…(sǒmdèt p^hráməŋkùtklâ:w) dâ:j soŋ t^hô:t p^hránê:t t^hǔŋ
wít^hǐ: c^hi:wít hǎŋ k^hwa:mca:rə:n lǎ:j jà:ŋ naj tà:ŋ
pràt^hê:t

…Since (King Rama VI) saw ways of civilized life of European countries

(2) pen t^hî: tōŋ p^hrárâ:tc^há hǎrútt^haj jà:ŋjîŋ
that really pleased him,

(3) cuŋ càʔ prò:tklâ:w p^hrárâ:tc^hát^ha:n lát^híʔ
ka:ndamnə:n c^hi:wít bə:p daŋklâ:w hâj mi: k^hûn naj
pràt^hê:t sàjǎ:m

he therefore wanted to bring those civilized ways to use in Siam.

(4) pràcùəp kàp klâj t^hǔŋ c^hûəŋ rájǎʔ we:la: soŋ k^hûn
k^hrɔ:ŋ rá:t k^hróp siphâ: pi:

Moreover, it's near the 15th anniversary of his ascension the throne.

(5) cʉŋ soŋ p^hrárá:t^háp^hra:róp t^hî: càʔ càt ŋa:n k^hlá:j
 k^hlá:j kàp ŋa:n ʔékp^o: naj bà:p thî: càt naj t^háwî:p
 júrò:p

he said that he wanted to set up a fair like the Expo arranged in Europe.

(Phujatkan, 6 March 2000: pp. 9)

The additive conjunctive element pràcùəp kàp 'and' in (4) indicates that what follows is the same subject matter of what has come before.

Example 125

(1)...náksùksǎ: t^hî: k^hâw rûəm k^hro:ŋka:n

Students who joined the project

(2) càʔ sùksǎ: t^háŋ t^ha:ŋ p^hâ:k t^hrít^sàʔdi: cà:k krom
 ʔa:c^hi:wáʔsùksǎ:

have to learn both a theory from the Department of Vocational Education

(3) lǎəʔ k^hâw ráp ka:nfùk p^hâ:k pàtìʔbàt naj ro:ŋŋa:n
 and practical experience from a factory.

(Phujatkan, 21 August 2000: pp. 9)

The information in (3) is the addition of what has come before.

9.1.2 Alternative Relations

There is another option than the one which has been mentioned before. Alternative relation in this study is expressed through the word rǎi: 'or' as in

Example 126

(1) ...ka:nruəm kìtcàka:n mák càp klùm jù: naj p^hu:mí?p^hâ:k
diəw kan

...The merger often occurs between companies in the same region

(2) c^hên pen ka:nk^hûep ruəm kìtcàka:n k^hǝ:ŋ bɔ:rí?sət
p^ha:jnaj ?àmè:rí?ka: rǔ: p^ha:jnaj t^háwî:p júró:p

such as the merger of companies within the United States or within Europe

(3) rǔ: ruəm kìtcà?ka:n p^ha:jnaj pràt^hê:t hâj pen nùŋ diəw
or the merger of companies of any country into one.

(Phujatkan, 1 May 2000: pp. 9)

The alternative conjunctive element rǔ: ‘or’ in (3) indicates that what follows is another choice for the statement that comes before in (2).

9.1.3 Adversative Relations

Adversative relations indicate that what follows is in contrast with what has been said previously or what follows is surprising in view of what has preceded it. This relation is expressed through mæ:wâ:, mæ:wâ:...tæ:,

mæ:...tæ:, mæ:...kô:ta:m...tæ:, mæ:...klàp, t^hánt^hî:
‘although’, t^hronkank^hâ:m ‘on the contrary’, naj k^hwa:mpenciŋ lǎ:w

‘in reality’, t^hǔŋ krànáŋ kô:ta:m, jà:ŋraj kô:di:,

kô:ta:m...tæ:, jà:ŋraj kô:ta:m ‘however’, tæ:, t^háwâ: ‘but’,

k^hàná?t^hî: ‘while’, t^hæ:nt^hî:...klàp ‘instead’, t^hî:ciŋ...tæ:

‘actually...but’.

Example 127

(1) mǎe:wâ: ræ:ŋŋa:n sùen nùŋ cà? dâ:jráp ka:nfùkfǒn ma:
lǎe:w

Although there are a number of labourers who have already been trained,

(2) tǎe: kǒ? mâj sǎ:mâ:t ?ò:k paj pràkò:p ?a:c^hî:p dâ:j
jà:ŋ mi: pràsìtt^hí?phâ:p

they cannot work efficiently.

(Phujatkan, 21 August 2000: pp. 9)

From the example (127), what follows the conjunctive element tǎe: in (2) is in contrast with what follows the conjunctive element mǎe:wâ: in (1).

Example 128

(1) sápp^há?ja:ko:n mánút t^hî: mi: k^hunná?phâ:p k^hǒ:ŋ
pràt^hê:t nán

The human resources with (high) quality of (our) country

(2) cà? tǒŋ mâj rák c^hâ:t dûej pà:k

must not love the country by words,

(3) cà? tǒŋ mâj t^hòkt^hǐŋ kan naj rûeŋ ráj sǎ:râ?...
must not argue about nonsense...

(4) t^hronkank^hâ:m cà? tǒŋ p^hû:t kan dûej hè:tp^hǒn

On the contrary, we must talk to each other with reason.

(5) t^húk k^hon cà? tǒŋ rú:càk t^ham ŋa:m t^ham ka:n

Everybody must learn to work

(6) lǎe? cà? tǒŋ t^ham naj sǐŋ

and must do things

(7) t^hî: pen pràjò:t tò: pràthê:t c^hâ:t

which are useful to the country.

(Phujatkan, 14 August 2000: pp. 9)

The adversative conjunctive element t^hronkank^hâ:m ‘on the contrary’ in (4) indicates that what follows is in contrast to what has preceded sections (1) to (3).

Example 129

(1) t^hî:cin mûe want^hî: jî:sip hâ: kàrá?kàda:k^hom t^hî:
p^hà:n ma: jà:k ma: faŋ bi: ?o: ?aj c^hí:cæ:ŋ

Actually, on the past 25 July 2000, (I) wanted to listen to the explanation by BOI

(2) lǎe? faŋ t^hân na:jók p^hû:t dūəj

and the prime minister.

(3) tǎe: baŋ?ə:n tít t^húrá? dùən lǎe? sǎmk^han

But (I) was bound by urgent business

(4) mâj sǎ:mât ma: rûəm ɲa:n dâ:j

and couldn’ t attend the meeting.

(Phujatkan, 7 August 2000: pp.)

From the above example, what follows the conjunctive element tǎe: ‘but’ in (3) is in contrast to what has preceded from (1) to (2).

9.1.4 Conditional Relations

This relation indicates that some circumstance will occur if another one occurred, or if someone did something. Conditional relation is expressed through

t^hâ:...kô:, hà:k, t^hâ:, t^hâ:kà:k...kô: ‘if’, kô:tò:mûe
 ‘whenever’, mûe ‘when’, nô:kcà:k ‘except’.

Example 130

(1) t^hâ: kà:k sàt^hă:náka:n ræ:ŋŋa:n t^haj jaŋ mi: næ:wnó:m
 pen c^hên ní: jù:

If the situation of Thai labourers still tends to be like this,

(2) kô: ?à:t pen pàtcaj nùŋ t^hî: cà? k^hàt k^hwă:ŋ ka:ntàtsǐn
 caj k^hǒ:ŋ nák loŋt^hun t^hî: cà? ma: loŋt^hun naj pràt^hê:t
 t^haj

it will be one factor which obstructs the decision of investors to invest in Thailand.

(Phujatkan, 21 August 2000: pp. 9)

From the example (130), the decision of investors to invest in Thailand be negative if the situation of Thai labourers tends to be like the present situation.

Example 131

(1) ko:rá?ni: k^hǒ:ŋ pràt^hê:t t^haj nán tà:ŋc^hâ:t cà? sú:
 t^hî:din dâ:j

As for Thailand, foreigners can buy land,

(2) kô:tò:mûe c^háj pen t^hî: tâŋ ro:ŋŋa:n
 whenever they use it to establish factories.

(Phujatkan, 14 August 2000: pp. 9)

From the example (131), kô:tò:mûe ‘whenever’ indicates that what

follows, the land employment in establishing the factories, is the condition under which foreigners can buy land in Thailand.

9.1.5 Temporal Relations

Sentences in a discourse can relate to each other by time. And their relation can be expressed through the use of temporal conjunctive elements. Temporal relation, in this study, is classified into four sub-types: starting-point, sequential, simultaneous, and precedent.

The starting-point relation is expressed through mûe ‘when’, tântæ: ‘since’ as in

Example 132

(1) naj chûeŋ hâ: pi: thî: phân ma: kro:ŋsâ:ŋ thúra?kît
kħǎ:ŋ ?utsă:hà?kam pîtro:liêm lă? pîtro:kħe:mi: plîen paj
mâ:k...

In the past five years, the business structure of the petroleum and petro-chemical industry had changed so much...

(2) naj prathê:t tâwantòk ka:nplîenplæ:ŋ ní: kè:t kħûn mâ:k
tântæ: kla:ŋ thótsà?wát thî: jî:sìp

In western countries, this change occurred quite a lot since the middle of the 20th decade.

(Phujatkan, 1 May 2000: pp. 9)

The temporal conjunctive element tântæ: ‘since’ in (2) specifies the starting-point of time when the business structure of petroleum and petro-chemical industry in western countries changed so much.

The sequential relation is expressed through p^ha:jlǎŋ, lǎŋ, lǎŋcà:k, p^ha:jlǎŋ cà:k, tò:cà:k ‘after’, cà:k nán ‘after that’, tò:ma:i, t^hàtma:i ‘later’.

Example 133

(1) lǎŋcà:k t^hî: pràt^hê:t pràsòp p^ha:wá? wíkrìt naj pi:
sǒ:ŋ p^han hâ:ró:j sî:sìp

After the country has faced the (economic) crisis of 1997,

(2) p^hâ:k kàsè:t dâ:j klàp ma: dâ:jráp k^hwa:msǒncaj ʔì:k
k^hrǎŋ

the agricultural sector will come to (our) attention again.

(Phujatkan, 28 August 2000: pp. 9)

lǎŋcà:k ‘after’ specifies that the activity in (2) is related to the former by occurring at a later time.

The simultaneous relation is expressed through the temporal conjunctive elements ‘while, whereas’ k^hànà? diew kan , naj we:la diew kan ‘at the same time’ and k^hànà? nán ‘at that time’.

In the following example (134), k^hànà?t^hî: ‘whereas’ indicates that the activity in (1), Thai people gave up an attempt to invest in any business, and the activity in (2), foreign investment increased, had occurred concurrently.

Example 134

(1) tà: naj c^hûəŋ t^hî: kè:t wíkrìt runræ:ŋ pi: sǒ:ŋp^han hâ:

ró:j sì:sìp ?èt t^hũŋ sǎ:ŋp^han hâ:ró:j sì:sìp sǎ:ŋ k^hon
 t^haj mòt ræ:ŋ t^hî: cà? loŋt^hun

During the period of facing the economic crisis crucially (from 1998 to 1999), Thai people had given up an attempt to invest,

(2) k^hànà?t^hî: ka:nloŋt^hun cà:k tà:ŋ pràt^hê:t klàp k^hàjǎ:j
 tuə t^hâ:mkla:ŋ wíkrít

whereas foreign investment had increased.

(Phujatkan, 20 March 2000: pp. 9)

The precedent relation can be expressed through kò:n 'before'. In example (135), kò:n indicates that the activity in (4) occurs before the one in (3).

Example 135

(1) k^hamt^hǎ:m ræ:k t^hammaj bi: ?o: ?aj p^hê:ŋ hâj
 k^hwa:msǎmk^han kàp p^hâ:k kàsè:t

The first question: why does BOI just begin to pay attention to the agricultural sector,

(2) lǎe? t^hammaj p^hê:ŋ cà? kamnòt hâj pen kítcà?ka:n t^hî:
 cà? hâj k^hwa:msǎmk^han pen p^hísè:t naj tɔ:n ní:

and why does BOI just stipulate the agricultural sector to get special attention on this day?

(3) kò:n tò:p k^hamt^hǎ:m ní:

Before answering this question,

(4) jà:k cà? t^ham k^hwa:mk^hâwcaj sǐə kò:n nít nũŋ wâ:...

I want to give you to understand that ...

(Phujatkan, 7 August 2000: pp. 9)

9.1.6 Causal Relations

Causal relation indicates that what follows the conjunctive element is the cause of what has preceded. Causal relation can be expressed by nûəŋcà:k and p^hróʔ ‘because, since’. Examples follow.

Example 136

(1) ...k^hro:ŋka:n ní: càʔ pen pràjò:t do:j troŋ kə:
ro:ŋna:n léʔ sàt^hǎ:n pràkò:p ka:n

...This project will directly be useful for factories and establishments

(2) naj ka:nk^hát lûək p^hánákŋa:n t^hî: mi: k^hwa:msǎ:mâ:t léʔ
k^hwa:mc^hamna:n ta:m t^hî: ro:ŋna:n tōŋka:n

in selecting capable and skilled persons that meet the factories’ s needs

(3) p^hróʔ náksùksǎ: càʔ dâ:jráp ka:nfùk ʔòprom jà:ŋ tò:nûəŋ
naj sǎ:k^hǎ: t^hî: ro:ŋnan kamləŋ tōŋka:n rǔ: k^hà:tk^hlæ:n
due to (these) students will be trained continuously in the field which the factories
need or lack.

(Phujatkan, 21 August 2000: pp. 9)

From the example (136), what follows the conjunctive element p^hróʔ ‘because’ in (3) is the cause of what has come before in (1) and (2).

Example 137

(1) nô:kcà:k ní: mǎ:wâ: ræ:ŋna:n sùəŋ nùŋ càʔ dâ:jráp
ka:nfùkfǒn ma: lé:w

And although there are a number of trained labourers,

(2) t̚ə: k̚ɔ: m̚aj s̚ǎ:m̚á:t ʔò:k paj pr̚àk̚ò:p ʔa:c̚h̚í:p d̚á:j j̚à:ŋ
mi: pr̚às̚ìtt̚h̚íʔp̚h̚â:p

they cannot work efficiently

(3) n̚ûɛŋc̚à:k t̚h̚áks̚àʔ t̚h̚í: riɛn ma: nán m̚aj t̚roŋ k̚àp
k̚h̚wa:mt̚ôŋka:n k̚h̚ǒ:ŋ ro:ŋŋa:n r̚ũ: s̚àt̚h̚ǎ:n pr̚àk̚ò:p ka:n
due to their skills are not needed by the factories or establishments.

(Phujatkan, 21 August 2000: pp. 9)

In example (137), what follows the conjunctive element n̚ûɛŋc̚à:k ‘because’ in (3) is the cause of what has come before in (1) and (2).

9.1.7 Resultative Relations

A resultative conjunctive element indicates that what follows is a result of what has preceded. Resultative relation is expressed through t̚h̚am̚h̚â:j ‘this makes...’, s̚òŋ p̚h̚ǒn h̚â:j ‘this results that’, con, cun, j̚ôm, daŋnán ‘so, therefore’, k̚ô: ‘verb phrase prominence marker’.

Example 138

(1) h̚à:k pen r̚û:pb̚à:p ní:t̚h̚áts̚àʔka:n t̚h̚í: lá: s̚àmǎj

If (the BOI fair 2000) is an outmoded pattern of exhibition

(2) m̚aj t̚roŋ k̚àp k̚h̚wa:mt̚ôŋka:n k̚h̚ǒ:ŋ t̚àl̚à:t lé:w

and does not meet the market needs,

(3) k̚ô: c̚àʔ m̚aj mi: k̚h̚ra:j du:

the people will not visit (it).

(Phujatkan, 6 March 2000: pp. 9)

The resultative conjunctive element kô: (verb phrase prominence marker) in (3) indicates that the people do not visit the BOI fair 2000 is the result of its outmoded pattern of arrangement which does not meet the market needs.

Example 139

(1) t̄ə: naj c^huəŋ t^hî: k̄ə:t wíkri:t runræ:ŋ pi: s̄ɔ̄:ŋp^han
 h̄a:ró:j s̄i:s̄i:p ʔət t^hũŋ s̄ɔ̄:ŋp^han h̄a:ró:j s̄i:s̄i:p s̄ɔ̄:ŋ k^hon
 t^haj m̄ət ræ:ŋ t^hî: càʔ loŋ t^hun

During the period of facing the economic crisis crucially (from 1998 to 1999), Thai people had given up an attempt to invest in any business.

(2) k^hànáʔt^hî: ka:nloŋt^hun do:j troŋ cà:k tà:ŋ prà^hê:t
 klàp k^hàjǎ:j tuə t^hâ:mklai:ŋ wíkri:t

But foreign investment had increased.

(3) s̄àtsuən k^hro:ŋka:n t^haj t^háŋs̄in cun d̄a:j l̄ót loŋ l̄ũə
 j̄i:s̄i:p s̄ă:m p̄ə:sen

The proportion of Thai (investment) projects therefore decreased to 23 %.

(Phujatkan, 20 March 2000: pp. 9)

The conjunctive element cun ‘therefore’ in (3) indicates that what follows is the result of what has come before.

9.1.8 Purposive Relations

A purposive conjunctive element indicates that what follows is the purpose of what has preceded. Purposive relation can be expressed by p^huē and wátt^hùʔpràsõŋ p^huē. In example (140), p^huē ‘in order to’ expresses the

purpose that the Vocational Education Department let the private sector to develop a course of study.

Example 140

(1) ...krom ʔa:c^hi:wáʔsũksǎ: càʔ pè:t ʔo:kà:t hâj p^hâ:k
ʔè:kkàʔc^hon pen p^hû: lûøk læʔ p^hátt^háʔna: làksù:t ʔe:ŋ

...The Vocational Education Department will let the private sector be the selector and develop a course of study and training

(2) p^hûe hâj dâ:j bùkk^háʔla:kɔ:n t^hî: tron kàp k^hwa:mtôn
ka:n mâ:k t^hi: sùt

in order to get personnel whom meet its needs most.

(Phujatkan, 21 August 2000: pp. 9)

Example 141

(1) k^hraj t^hî: càʔ paj t^ham t^húráʔkít jù: naj tà:ŋcaŋwát
naj k^hè:t sǎ:m

Whoever does business in the provinces of zone 3,

(2) càʔ dâ:jráp pràjò:t sũ:ŋ sùt mâ:k kwà: caŋwát ʔù:n ʔù:n
t^hî: jù: sùen kla:ŋ

will get the most advantage – more than other people who does business in the provinces of the central region.

(3) wátt^hùʔpràsõŋ p^hûe duŋ hâj ʔùtsǎ:hàkam paj jù: naj tà:ŋ
caŋwát mâ:k k^hûn kwà: pàtcùʔban

The objective of this is to push industries into rural areas more than now.

(Phujatkan, 7 August 2000: pp. 9)

From the above example (141), what follows the conjunctive element wátt^hùp̀ràsǒŋ p̀h̀w̃ə ‘the objective is to’ is the purpose of what has preceded in (1) and (2).

9.1.9 Procedural Relations

Procedural relation indicates that the activity which follows the conjunctive element is the procedure of what has preceded. The procedural relation can be expressed through dò:ǰ ‘by’ as in

Example 142

(1) sǎmràp t^hân t^hî: mâj k^hàp rót ma:

As for the people who won't drive (to the fair)

(2) rǔ: mâj mi: rótjon sùen bùkk^hon

or have no car,

(3) kô: ma: ŋa:n dâ:ǰ

they can reach the fair

(4) dò:ǰ də:nt^ha:ŋ paj hǎ: cùt t^hî: pen pâ:ǰ cò:t rót

p^hísè:t t^hî: càt wáj...

by going to the special bus stops which are provided...

(Phujatkan, 17 April 2000: pp. 9)

The procedural conjunctive element dò:ǰ specifies that what follows is the procedure of what has come before from (1) to (3).

9.1.10 Enumerative Relations

Enumerative conjunctive elements indicate the order of presentation

of a series of items. This relation is expressed through pràka:n r̄k ‘first’... pràka:n t^hî: s̄:ŋ ‘second’... pràka:n t^hî: s̄:m ‘thirdly’... pràka:n sùtt^há:j ‘finally’... , k^hamt^hă:m r̄k ‘first question’... k^hamt^hă:m t^hî: s̄:ŋ ‘second question’... k^hamt^hă:m t^hî: s̄:m ‘third question’...etc.

Example 143

(1)...sămr̄p m̄:ttr̄k̄ka:n t̄:ŋ t̄:ŋ t^hî: r̄att^hàba:n kaw
l̄i:t̄a:j damn̄:n ka:n k̄k^hăj paj l̄é:w

Some of measures (for solving the economic problem), which the South Korean government had carried out,

(2) s̄:m̄:t s̄r̄up d̄a:j daŋ ní:

can be summed up as follows.

(3) pràka:n r̄k naj duən p^hr̄útsà?cì?ka:jon s̄:ŋp^han
h̄a:r̄ó:j s̄i:s̄i:p ?èt d̄a:j mi: ka:n?ò:k k̄òtm̄a:j
s̄òns̄m̄ ka:nl̄oŋt^hun cà:k t̄:ŋ pr̄at^hê:t c^hàb̄ap màj...

Firstly, in November of the year 1998, there was a new issue of the foreign investment promotion law...

(4) pràka:n t^hî: s̄:ŋ p̄:t ?o:k̄:t h̄aj t̄:ŋ c^hâ:t ma:
s̄ú: k̄itc̄a?ka:n t^hî: pr̄as̄òp panh̄a: t^ha:ŋ ka:nŋən...

Secondly, (the South Korean government) offered foreigners an opportunity to take over businesses which faced financial problems...

(5) pràka:n t^hî: s̄:m̄ p̄:t s̄:ri: ka:nl̄oŋt^hun
cà:k t̄:ŋ pr̄at^hê:t m̄:k k^hûn...

Thirdly, (the South Korean government) opened a freer investment for foreign countries...

(6) pràka:n t^hî: s̄i: m̄:ttr̄k̄ka:n ?i:k pr̄aka:n

nùŋ t^hî: rîøk wâ: rátt^hàʔba:n kawlí:tâ:j klâ:hă:n mâ:k

Fourthly, one more measure which made the South Korean government look very brave

(7) k^hw: ka:nʔànúʔjâ:t hâj tà:ŋ c^hâ:t sú: t^hî:din

dâ:j jâ:ŋ sě:ri:...

was its granting permission to foreigners to buy land freely...

(8) pràka:n t^hî: hâ: nô:kcà:k ka:nloŋt^hun do:j troŋ

lâ:w

Fifthly, besides the direct investment,

(9) sǎmràp ka:nloŋt^hun naj rû:p sú: hûn naj

tàlà:t làksáp nán

the investment in the form of buying stocks in the stock exchange

(10) kô: dâ:j pè:t sě:ri: c^hên diəw kan

had been freely opened as well.

(Phujatkan, 14 August 2000: pp. 9)

From the example (143), pràka:n rǎ:k ‘firstly’ in (3) presupposes the presence of other elements coming later. And pràka:n t^hî: hâ: ‘fifthly’ in (8) presupposes what comes earlier.

9.1.11 Topic Changing Relations

A topic changing conjunctive element indicates that what follows is a different topic of what has preceded. Topic changing relation is expressed through tò:, sǎmràp, sùən ‘as for’, t^hánní: ‘all this’ and ʔànùŋ ‘moreover’. Examples follow.

Example 144

(1)...ŋən lǎj k^hâw camnuən mâ:k ní: náp pen pátcaj nùŋ

...This great number of capital inflow is regarded as one of the factors

(2) t^hî: krátûn hâj sèt^hàʔkít k^hǒ:ŋ kawlı:tâ:j fú:n tue
k^hûn jà:ŋ rûetrew

which stimulated the South Korean's economy to recover very fast.

(3) sǎmràp mâ:ttràʔka:n tà:ŋ tà:ŋ t^hî: rátt^hàʔba:n
kawlı:tâ:j damnə:nka:n kê:k^hǎj paj lé:w

As for the measures (for solving the economic problem) the South Korean government had carried out,

(4) sǎ:mâ:t sàrùp dâ:j daŋní:...

they can be summed up as follows...

(Phujatkan, 14 August 2000: pp. 9)

From the above example (144), what follows the conjunctive element sǎmràp 'as for' is another topic of what has come before in (1) and (2).

Example 145

(1) pràka:n t^hî: hâ: ka:ncàt ŋa:n pràp^hê:t ʔékpɔ: nán mâj
c^hâj pen rûəŋ c^hâ:t níjom

Fifthly, the fair arrangement, like Expo, is not a matter of nationalism

(2) t^hî: càʔ tōŋ sàdæ:ŋ c^hàp^hóʔ sǐnk^há: rǔ: t^hékno:lo:ji:
k^hǒ:ŋ pràt^hê:t ton ʔe:ŋ

which has to exhibit only goods or the technology of the country arranging the fair.

(3) tronkank^hâ:m càʔ nén mítt^hraʔp^hâ:p ráwà:ŋ pràt^hê:t

On the contrary, the Expo will focus on friendship among countries

(4) cà? pè:t ?o:kà:t háj kà: t^húk pràt^hê:t t^hî: cà? nam
 k^hǝ:ŋ di: t^hî: mi: jù: ma: sàdæ:ŋ

and offer an opportunity for every country to bring their goods to show.

(5) ʔà̀nù̀n cà:k pràsòpka:n naj ʔà̀dì:t t^hî: p^hà:n ma:
 rátt^hàʔba:n pràt^hê:t tà:ŋ tà:ŋ t^hî: càt ŋa:n ʔékpò: nán
 Incidentally, from past experience, the governments of countries which have arranged
 the Expo

(6) cà? māj kì:tkan bə:ríʔsàt cà:k tà:ŋ pràt^hê:t ʔù:n ʔù:n
 ma: sàdæ:ŋ sǐnk^há: rǔ: nít^hátsàka:n
 would not bar any company of other countries from coming to show their goods or
 exhibition.

(Phujatkan, 6 March 2000: pp. 9)

In example (145), what follows the conjunctive element ʔà̀nù̀n ‘by the way, moreover’ in (5) is a different topic of what has come before ,from (1) to (4).

9.1.12 Emphatic Relations

Emphatic relation indicates that the statement which follows the emphatic conjunctive element will be laid emphasis on. Emphatic relation is expressed through jîŋ kwà: nán, jîŋ paj kwà: nán ‘moreover’, də:j c^hàp^hóʔ ‘especially’, kô: ‘verb phrase prominence marker’ , lãmp^hãŋ...kô: ‘only...(verb phrase prominence marker)’ , t^hî: sǎmk^hãŋ ‘importantly’. For example:

Example 146

(1) mûə mi: ka:npràmu:n sápsǐn k^hæ:mkô: sǎ:mâ:t pràkà:t

p^hû: c^háná? pràmu:n p^ha:jnaj rájá? we:la: p^hiəŋk^hê:
 jî:sìp na:t^hi: t^hâwnán

When there is an asset auction, KAMCO announces the buyer's name only within 20 minutes

(2) lǎe? mi: ka:npè:tp^hě:j k^hô:mu:n t^háŋmòt t^hî: kîəwk^hôŋ
 kàp ka:nk^hǎ:j

and also discloses all relevant selling data.

(3) jîŋ paj kwà: nán rátt^hàba:n dâ:j kǎ:k^hǎj kòtmǎ:j

(extremely) (go) (more) (that) (government) (can) (rectify) (law)

naj dâ:n tà:ŋ tà:ŋ

(in) (side) (various)

Moreover, the government (of South Korea) rectifies various laws

(4) t^hamhâj tà:ŋ pràt^hê:t sǎ:mâ:t sú: sápsín tà:ŋ tà:ŋ dâ:j
 ŋâ:j k^hûn

which help foreigners to buy assets easily

(5) do:jc^hàp^hó? pè:t hâj sú: lǎe? k^hǎ:j t^hî:đin jà:ŋ sě:ri:

especially letting the foreigners buy and sell land freely.

(Phujatkan, 14 August 2000: pp. 9)

This extract is laid emphasis on what follows the conjunctive elements jîŋ paj kwà: nán ‘more than what mentioned earlier, or chiefly’ from (3) to (4) and do:jc^hàp^hó? ‘especially’ in (5).

9.1.13 Exemplificatory Relations

An exemplificatory conjunctive element indicates that what follows is an exemplification of what has come before.

In this research, three exemplificatory conjunctive elements have been found, namely pentônwâ:, c^hên, pa:t^híʔ ‘for example’, or ‘such as’.

Example 147

(1) ka:nruəm kítçàʔka:n mák càp klùm jù: naj p^hu:míʔphâ:k diew kan

Business merger usually takes place between companies within the same region

(2) c^hên pen ka:nk^hûəp ruəm kítçàʔka:n k^hǒ:ŋ bə:ríʔsàt p^ha:jnaj ʔàme:ríka: rǔ: p^ha:jnaj t^háwí:p jú:rò:p

such as the merger of companies within America or within Europe,

(3) rǔ: ruəm kítçàʔka:n p^ha:jnaj pràt^hê:t hâj pen nùŋ diəw or the merger of companies of any country into one,

(4) daŋ càʔ hěn dâ:j naj kə:ráʔni: k^hǒ:ŋ t^ho:t^hew fi:nâ: ʔéw naj fá:ràŋsè:t

as we can see from the case of Total, Fina, and Elf of France.

(Phujatkan, 1 May 2000: pp. 9)

From the above example (147), what follows the conjunctive element c^hên in (2) and (3) is an example of the statement in (1).

9.1.14 Elaborating Relations

In this relation, what follows an elaborating conjunctive element gives more detail of what has preceded. Elaborating relation is expressed through klà:wk^hu: ‘namely’, k^hu: ‘to be’, wâ: ‘(he said) that’, dâ:jkà: ‘namely’, for example in

Example 148

(1)...ka:nhâj k^hwa:msămk^han t̄ə: də:m nán dâ:j camkàt jù: naj
k^hè:t p^hu:mí?p^hâ:k rŭ: k^hè:t sǎ:m

Formerly, investment promotions) had been limited only in rural areas or zone 3,

(2) klà:wk^hu: nájo:ba:j də:m t^hî: c^háj tâŋt̄ə: pi: sǔ:ŋp^han
hâ:ró:j sǎ:msìp hòk nán k^hraj t^hî: cà? paj t^ham t^húrá?kìt
jù: naj tà:ŋ caŋwàt naj k^hè:t sǎ:m

namely, the former policy, which had been used since 1993, mentioned that whoever did business in the provinces of zone 3

(3) cà? dâ:jráp s̄itt^hí? l̄ə? pràjò:t sŭ:ŋ sùt ...

would get the most advantage...

(Phujatkan, 7 August 2000: pp. 9)

What follows the conjunctive element klà:wk^hu: ‘namely’ in (2) is the detail of the statement which has come before in (1).

9.1.15 Appositive Relations

An appositive conjunctive element indicates that what follows is the apposition of what precedes it.

In this study, only one appositive conjunctive element has been found: klà:wk^hu: ‘namely’. The appositive relation differs from the elaborating relation as follows. The elaborating relation is used when an author wants to give more details for something which is mentioned before the conjunctive element. Whereas the appositive relation will be used when the author wants to explain the meaning of what has preceded the conjunctive element.

Example 149

(1)...k^hǎw dâ:j klà:w t^hũŋ ka:nlonɿt^hun do:j troŋ cà:k tà:ŋ
pràt^hê:t

She (= South Korea) said about the foreign direct investment

(2) do:j c^háj k^hamp^hû:t wâ: jɿŋ pu:n náɿ diəw dâ:j nók hâ:
tuə

by employing a saying that “Shooting five birds with one bullet.”,

(3) klà:wk^hũ: kâ:k^hǎj panhă: mâ:kma:j daŋklà:w k^hâ:ŋtôn

which means that (South Korea) can solve many problems mentioned above (by promoting the foreign direct investment).

(Phujatkan, 14 August 2000: pp. 9)

This example shows that what follows the conjunctive element klà:wk^hũ:, which literally means ‘namely’, is the meaning of jɿŋ pu:n náɿ diəw dâ:j nók hâ: tuə “Shooting five birds with one bullet.” in (2).

9.1.16 Concluding Relations

A concluding conjunctive element indicates that what follows is the conclusion of the discourse. The concluding conjunctive element has been found once in this study: naj t^hî: sùt ‘finally’.

Example 150

(1) naj t^hî: sùt sǎ:n rátt^hà?t^hammá?nu:n kô: dâ:j mi:
k^ham wínítc^hǎj lǎ:w ta:m k^ham wínítc^hǎj t^hî: hâ:sìp t^háp
sǎ:ŋ p^han hâ:ró:j sî:sìp sǎ:ŋ mûə want^hî: sî:

p^hrútsàʔcìka:jon sǒ:ŋp^han hâ:ró:j sî:sìp sǒ:ŋ

Finally, the Constitutional Court has already made the judgement (the judgement No. 50/2542) on 4 November 1999, which is mentioned

(2) wâ: râ:ŋ p^hrârá:tc^háʔbanjàt t^hun rátt^hàʔwísă:hàʔkìt
 p^ho:sǒ:... mâj k^hàt rǔ: jâ:ŋ tò: rátt^hàʔt^hammáʔnu:n hæn
 râ:tc^háʔʔa:na:càk t^haj

that the State Enterprise Capital Bill of the year... does not obstruct or oppose the Constitution of the Kingdom of Thailand.

(Phujatkan, 13 March 2000: pp. 9)

From the above example (150), what follows the concluding conjunctive element naj t^hî: sùt ‘finally’ in (1) is the conclusion of the discourse.

9.1.17 Continuative Relations

A continuative conjunctive element is used to indicate a link or relatedness between the two parts of the discourse. The continuative conjunctive element conveys linkage without indicating any specific type of relationship like other conjunctive elements. However, it makes the discourse sound smooth.

Continuative relations are expressed through sûŋ ‘which, that’, do:j ‘by’ and t^háŋní: ‘anyhow’.

Example 151

(1) want^hî: sîp mi:na:k^hom sǒ:ŋp^han hâ:ró:j sî:sìp sǎ:m
 bo:ríʔsàt to:jo:tâ: sàñě: p^hǎ:n t^hî: càʔ sú: hûn
 p^hê:mtə:m

On 10 March 2000, Toyota Company proposed the plan to buy more shares

(2) p^hûe k^hûepk^hum kîtcà?ka:n k^hǒ:ŋ bə:rí?sàt hi:nô:
mə:tê: jà:ŋ dètk^hà:t

in order to control the business of Hino Motors Company completely.

(3) sûŋ pàtcù?ban to:jo:tâ: kô: t^hũ: hûn naj bə:rí?sàt
hi:nô: jù: lə:w jî:sìp pə:sen

Now, Toyota already holds 20 per cent of shares in Hino Motors Company.

(Phujatkan, 22 May 2000: pp. 9)

In example (151), sûŋ which literally means ‘which, that’ is not functioning as a relative pronoun since it does not refer to any particular noun phrase in the earlier part of the discourse. Instead, it is employed to indicate a link or relatedness between the two parts of the discourse: between (1) – (2), and (3).

Example 152

(1) sùen cèt duən rə:k k^hǒ:ŋ pi: sǒ:ŋp^han hâ:ró:j sî:sìp
sǎ:m mi: ŋen loŋt^hun do:j troŋ cà:k tà:ŋ pràt^hê:t cètp^han
pə:tró:j hâ:sìp lá:nriən sàhà?rát p^hê:m k^hûn jî:sìp
pə:sen mûe priəpt^hîep kàp rájáj diəw kan k^hǒ:ŋ pi: sǒ:ŋ
p^han hâ:ró:j sî:sìp sǒ:ŋ

As for the first seven months of the year 2000, (South Korea) had foreign direct investing money of about 7.85 billion US dollars, an increase of about 20 % for the same period of the year 1999.

(2) do:j ŋen lǎj k^hâw camnuən mâ:k ní: náp pen pàtcaj nùŋ
t^hî: kràtûn hâj sè:tt^hà?kîk k^hǒ:ŋ kawlǐ:tâ:j fú:n tue
k^hûn jà:ŋ rûetrew

This money is regarded as one factor which stimulated the South Korea' s economy to recover rapidly.

(Phujatkan, 14 August 2000: pp. 9)

The continuative conjunctive element dɔːj which literally means 'by' is used to link the first part of the discourse in (1) and the second one in (2) together.

9.1.18 Quotation Relations

A quotation conjunctive element indicates that what follows is the quotation which an author took from another source to support his idea or explanation which has preceded or follows the conjunctive element. Quotation relation in this study is the word ta:m 'according to'.

Example 153

(1) ta:m pràmuən kòtmǎ:j p^hæŋ léʔ p^ha:nít láksànàʔ k^hám
pràkan nán ka:npliən tuə lû:knî: pen bo:ríʔsət t^hî: càt
tâŋ k^hûm màj k^hâw ma: pen lû:knî: t^hæ:n rátt^hàʔwísǎ:hàʔ
kìt

According to the Civil and Commercial Code: Suretyship Title, the debtor swapping from any state enterprise to a public company limited, which is newly established,

(2) càʔ mi: p^hõn t^hamhâj nî: ta:m sǎnja: k^hám pràkan tōŋ
ráŋáp paj dūəj

will make the debt of the suretyship contract be null end void.

(Phujatkan, 13 March 2000: pp. 9)

In this relation, what follows the conjunctive element t̄a:m which literally means ‘according to’ is the quotation of the discourse.

9.1.19 Inferential Relations

An inferential conjunctive element indicates that what follows infers what has preceded it. Inferential relation is expressed through náp, nápwâ:, t̄hũ:, t̄hũ: dâ:j wâ: ‘to be regarded as’ and pen t̄hî: nâ: sǎŋkè:t wâ: ‘it is interesting to note that’.

Example 154

(1) s̄uən c̄èt duən r̄ê:k k̄h̄ǒ:ŋ pi: s̄ǒ:ŋp̄h̄an h̄â:r̄ó:j s̄i:s̄i:p
s̄ă:m mi: ŋən loŋt̄hun do:j t̄roŋ c̄à:k t̄à:ŋ pr̄àt̄h̄ê:t c̄ètp̄h̄an
p̄è:tr̄ó:j h̄â:s̄i:p lá:n r̄iən s̄àh̄à?r̄át p̄h̄ê:m k̄h̄ûn j̄i:s̄i:p
p̄e:s̄en m̄ûe pr̄ièpt̄h̄ièp k̄àp r̄ájà? diəw kan k̄h̄ǒ:ŋ pi:
s̄ǒ:ŋp̄h̄an h̄â:r̄ó:j s̄i:s̄i:p s̄ǒ:ŋ

As for the first seven months of the year 2000, (South Korea) has foreign direct investing money of about 7.85 billion US dollars, an increase of about 20 % for the same period of the year 1999.

(2) do:j ŋən lǎj k̄h̄âw camnuən m̄â:k ní: náp pen p̄àtcaj n̄uŋ
t̄h̄i: kr̄àt̄ûn h̄âj s̄è:tt̄h̄à?k̄it k̄h̄ǒ:ŋ kawl̄i:t̄â:j f̄ú:n tuə
k̄h̄ûn j̄à:ŋ r̄ûetrew

This money is regarded as one factor which stimulated South Korea’ s economy to recover rapidly.

(Phujatkan, 14 August 2000: pp. 9)

From this example (154), what follows the conjunctive element náp in (2)

infers what precedes in (1).

Example 155

(1) t^hî: sǎmk^han bôt banjàt naj mâ:ttra: sǎ:ŋrǒ:j sǎ:msìp
wák sǎ:ŋ lá? wák sǐ: k^hǒ:ŋ rátt^hà?t^hammá?nu:n jaŋ jǒ:mráp
làkka:n t^hî: wâ:

Significantly, the provision of Section 230, Paragraphs 2 and 4, of the Constitutional Law, concedes a rule as follows:

(2) kòtmǎ:j t^hî: mi: sàk rǔ: lamdàp c^hán tàm kwà: p^hrǎ?
râ:tc^há?banjàt

any law which has a lower rank or hierarchy than an act

(3) sǎ:mâ:t kǎ:k^hǎj p^hê:m tǝ:m p^hrǎ? râ:tc^há?banjàt dâ:j
dûe:j

can rectify and/or add some contents to the act.

(4) t^hũ: pen ka:nwa:ŋ làkka:n t^hûepaj...

This is regarded as a general rule setting...

(Phujatkan, 13 March 2000: pp. 9)

The conjunctive element t^hũ: ‘to be regarded as’ in (4) indicates that what follows is the inference of what has come earlier from (1) to (3).

9.1.20 Inclusive Relations

An inclusive conjunctive element indicates that what follows are parts of or are covered by the action which has preceded. The inclusive relation in this study is mâ:jwâ: cǎ?... (rǔ:) which literally means ‘no matter...(or).

Example 156

(1) p^ha:jlǎŋ cà:k t^hî: kawlı:tâ:j pràsòp wíkrìt sè:tt^hàʔkìt
mûe pi: sǒ:ŋp^han hâ:ró:j sî:sìp

After South Korea faced an economic crisis in 1997,

(2) kawlı:tâ:j tōŋ k^hâw k^hrɔ:ŋka:n k^hǒ:ŋ ʔaj ʔem ʔép pen
lamdàp t^hî: sǎ:m tò: cà:k t^haj léʔ ʔindo:ni:sie

she was third country to accept IMF's project, following Thailand and Indonesia.

(3) naj rájǎʔ rê:k dâ:j pràsòp wíkrìt nàk mâ:k

At the beginning, (South Korea) had faced the (economic) crisis crucially

(4) mâjwâ: càʔ pen k^hâ: ŋen wɔ:n t^hî: ʔò:n tue loŋ mâ:k
such as a so weakening of the value of the von,

(5) ka:ntè:pto: t^ha:ŋ sè:tt^hàʔkìt tít lóp

an economic growth is in deficit,

(6) ka:nplòt k^honŋa:n ʔò:k camnuen mâ:k

laying off a great number of workers,

(7) bɔ:ríʔsàt lóm lála:j mâ:kma:j...

many companies became bankrupt, etc...

(Phujatkan, 14 August 2000: pp.: 9)

The conjunctive element mâjwâ: càʔ which literally means ‘no matter...’ in (4) indicates that what follows, from (4) to (7), are parts of or are covered by the action which has preceded, naj rájǎʔ rê:k dâ:j pràsòp wíkrìt nàk mâ:k in (3).

Example 157

(1) làŋ ŋent^hun t^hî: sǒ:ŋ k^hw: ŋent^hun k^hǒ:ŋ tà:ŋ c^hâ:t

The second source of capital is the foreign capital.

(2) mâjwâ: cà? jù: naj rû:p nɛnkû: nɛn loŋt^hun naj tàlà:t
lâksáp rǔ: ka:nloŋt^hun do:j tronɔ̃ cà:k tà:ŋ pràt^hê:t

No matter it is in the form of loans, investing in a stock market, or foreign direct investment.

(Phujatkan, 20 March 2000: pp. 9)

From this example (157), what follows mâjwâ: cà? . . . rǔ: ‘no matter...or’ in (2) is covered by what has come earlier in (1).

9.1.21 ‘Apart from’ Relations

An apart from conjunctive element indicates that what follows is the exclusion of what has been said before. The apart from relation, in this study, is nô:kcà:k nán ‘apart from (that/those)’.

Example 158

(1) do:j c^hàliè naj c^huɛŋ sɨp pi: kò:n kè:t wíkrít
sè:tt^hà?kít pi: sǔ:ŋp^han hâ:ró:j sǎ:msɨp ?èt t^hǔŋ
sǔ:ŋp^han hâ:ró:j sɨ:sɨp sàtsuɛn k^hro:ŋka:n t^haj t^háŋsɨn
mi: t^hǔŋ sɨ:sɨp sǎ:m pə:sɛn k^hǒ:ŋ camnuɛn k^hro:ŋka:n t^hî:
dâ:jráp ?ànú?jâ:t sòŋsǎ:m t^háŋmòt

Approximately, the proportion of Thai projects (from all projects which had been promoted by BOI) in ten years before facing an economic crisis (from 1988 to 1997) was about 43 %

(2) k^hàná?t^hî: k^hro:ŋka:n t^hî: pɛn k^hǒ:ŋ tà:ŋ c^hâ:t t^háŋ
sɨn mi: sàtsuɛn p^hiɛŋ sɨpsɨ: pə:sɛn

whereas the proportion of foreign project was only about 14 %.

(3) nô:kcà:k nán pen k^hro:ŋka:n rûəm t^hun ráwà:ŋ t^haj
kàp tà:ŋ c^hâ:t ʔì:k sî:sìp sǎ:m pə:sen

Apart from those (about 43 %) were joint-venture projects between Thais and foreigners.

(Phujatkan, 20 March 2000: pp. 9)

The apart from conjunctive element nô:kcà:k nán ‘apart from those’ indicates that what follows is the exclusion of what has come before: from sàtsùen k^hro:ŋka:n t^haj ... in (1) to sîpsì: pə:sen in (2).

9.2 Positions of Conjunction

Conjunctive elements can occur in various places of sentences as follows: at the beginning of a sentence, in the middle of the sentence, at the end of the sentence, at the beginning of two sentences and two or more breaking parts of a conjunctive element occur within the same sentence. Examples follow.

Example 159: at the beginning of the sentence

(1)...ŋən lǎj k^hâw camnuən mâ:k ní: náp pen pàtcaj nùŋ

...This great number of capital inflow is regarded as one of the factors

(2) t^hî: kràtûn hâj sèt^hàʔkìt k^hǒ:ŋ kawlı:tâ:j fú:n tue
k^hûn jà:ŋ rûətrew

which stimulated the South Korean’s economy to recover very fast.

(3) sǎmçàp mâ:ttràʔka:n tà:ŋ tà:ŋ t^hî: rátt^hàʔba:n
kawlı:tâ:j damnə:nka:n paj lá:w

As for the measures (for solving the economic problem) the South Korean government had carried out,

(4) sǎ:mâ:t sàrùp dâ:j daŋní:...

they can be summed up as follows...

(Phujatkan, 14 August 2000: pp. 9)

The topic changing conjunctive element sǎmràp ‘as for’ occurs at the beginning of the sentence (3).

Example 160: in the middle of the sentence

(1) sùen cèt duən rǎ:k k^hǒ:ŋ pi: sǒ:ŋp^han hâ:ró:j sî:sìp
 sǎ:m mi: ŋen loŋt^hun do:j troŋ cà:k tà:ŋ pràt^hê:t cètp^han
 pè:tró:j hâ:sìp lá:n rǐen sàhà?rát p^hê:m k^hûn jî:sìp
 pè:sen mûe prièpt^hîep kàp rájáj? diəw kan k^hǒ:ŋ pi:
 sǒ:ŋp^han hâ:ró:j sî:sìp sǒ:ŋ

As for the first seven months of the year 2000, (South Korea) had foreign direct investing money of about 7.85 billion US dollars, an increase about of 20 % for the same period of the year 1999.

(2) do:j ŋen lǎj k^hâw camnuən mâ:k ní: náp pen pàtcaj nùŋ
 t^hî: kràtûn hâj sè:tt^hà?kìt k^hǒ:ŋ kawlí:tâ:j fú:n tuə
 k^hûn jà:ŋ rûetrew

This money is regarded as one factor which stimulated South Korea’ s economy to recover rapidly.

(Phujatkan, 14 August 2000: pp. 9)

From example (160), the inferential conjunctive element náp ‘to be regarded as’ occurs in the middle of the sentence (2).

Example 161: at the beginning of two sentences

(1) mǎ:wâ: ræ:ŋŋa:n sùən nùŋ cà? dâ:jráp ka:nfùkřǒn ma:
lǎ:w

Although there are a number of labourers who have already been trained,

(2) tǎ: kǒ? mâj sǎ:mâ:t ?ò:k paj pràkò:p ?a:c^hî:p dâ:j
jà:ŋ mi: pràsìtt^hí?phâ:p
they cannot work efficiently.

(Phujatkan, 21 August 2000: pp. 9)

In example (161), the adversative conjunctive element mǎ:wâ:...tǎ:, which literally means in Thai ‘although...but’, occur at the beginning of both sentence (3) and (4).

Example 162: at the end of the sentence

(1) bà:p t^hî: sǒ:ŋ cà? pen ka:nruəm kîtcà?ka:n t^hî: jù:
naj t^húrá?kîtt diəw kan k^hâw dūəj kan

The second type is the merging of the companies dealing with the same business

(2) c^hên p^hû: p^hàlîtt p^hlâ:tsà?tîk p^ho:lî:sàtajri:n ruəm
kan lǔə sî: ra:j cà:k də:m kâ:w ra:j mûə sǒ:ŋ pi: kò:n
such as the merging of nine polystyrene plastic producers into four for the last 2 years.

(Phujatkan, 1 May 2000: pp. 9)

In example (162), the temporal conjunctive element mûə, which literally means ‘when’, occurs at the end of the sentence (2).

Example 163: two or more breaking parts of a conjunctive element occur within the same sentence

naj sùen k^hǒ:ŋ bi: ʔo: ʔaj nô:knǔə cà:k ka:npàtìʔbàt ta:m
 rábìep tà:ŋ tà:ŋ lǎ:w kô: jaŋ dâ:j du:læ: hâj ka:nloŋt^hun
 do:j troŋ cà:k tà:ŋ pràt^hê:t kè:t pràjò:t sǔ:ŋ sùt...

As for BOI, besides acting according to rules (which are mentioned above), it also helps the foreign direct investment to give the most advantage...

(Phujatkan, 8 May 2000: pp. 9)

In example (163), three breaking parts of the additional conjunctive element nô:knǔə...lǎ:w...kô: jaŋ which literally mean in Thai ‘besides...already...yet (also)’ occur within the same sentence.

Next chapter will deal with conclusion discussion and suggestion.

CHAPTER X

CONCLUSION DISCUSSION AND SUGGESTION

This study is intended to explore the cohesive devices in Thai language based on economic articles taken from the columns “Setthasart-Noktamra”, an economic article of Phujatkan newspaper, which are published weekly on Monday, from editions starting from the month of January in the year 2000 to December 2000.

There are six cohesive devices found in this research: reference, substitution, ellipsis, repetition, lexical cohesion, and conjunction.

10.1 Reference

Reference is a process which helps a reader to interpret an information by reference to another that comes previously or follows.

Reference in this study is studied in two aspects: types of reference and ways in which reference items function within a discourse.

10.1.1 Types of Reference

There are four different types of referential cohesion as follows:

10.1.1.1 Pronominal Reference

Pronominal reference is reference by employing pronouns to identify things or individuals that are mentioned earlier.

Pronominal reference is divided into four different types:

personal pronoun, reflexive pronoun, possessive pronoun and partitive pronoun.

10.1.1.2 Demonstrative Reference

Demonstrative reference is reference by locating the referent on a scale of proximity.

Demonstrative reference is divided into two sub-types as follows: demonstrative pronoun and demonstrative determiner.

10.1.1.3 Comparative Reference

Comparative reference is reference by comparing between things.

Comparative reference is divided into two different types as follows: general comparison and comparison in degree of intensity.

10.1.1.4 Numerative Reference

Numerative reference is reference by employing numeral phrase or noun phrase plus following numeral word to point back or forward to another noun phrase.

10.1.2 Ways in Which Reference Items Function within a Discourse

There are two different ways in which reference items can function within a discourse: anaphoric--a reference item points backward to a previously mentioned entity, process or state of affairs-- and cataphoric--a reference item points forward to a certain item mentioned later.

10.2 Substitution

Substitution is the replacement of one linguistic item that has come before or follows by another.

Substitution in this study is studied in two aspects: types of substitution and ways in which substitute items function within a discourse.

10.2.1 Types of Substitution

There are two types of substitution as follows:

10.2.1.1 Nominal Substitution

Nominal substitution is a process which an author uses some noun phrase to replace another one that comes earlier. Nominal substitution in this study found to be full foreign translation and loan abbreviation.

10.2.1.2 Discoursal Substitution

Discoursal Substitution is a process which an author employs some item to replace a sequence of sentences that comes previously or follows.

10.2.2 Ways in Which Substitute Items Function within a Discourse

As with referential items, substitute items can function both in the anaphoric way and cataphoric way.

10.3 Ellipsis

Ellipsis occurs when some essential structural element, which is mentioned before or later, is omitted from an utterance.

This study considers two aspects of ellipsis: types of ellipsis and ways in which presupposing items function within a discourse.

10.3.1 Types of Ellipsis

There are three different types of ellipsis as follows:

10.3.1.1 Phrasal Ellipsis

Phrasal ellipsis is an omission of a phrase that comes before or follows from a sentence structure. There are four sub-types of phrasal ellipsis: nominal ellipsis, verbal ellipsis, prepositional ellipsis and conjunctive ellipsis.

10.3.1.2 Sentential Ellipsis

Sentential ellipsis occurs when some sentence which has come before is omitted from a discourse.

10.3.1.3 Discoursal Ellipsis

Discoursal ellipsis is an omission of a sequence of sentences.

10.3.2 Ways in Which Elliptical Items Function within a Discourse

Elliptical items can function both in the anaphoric and cataphoric way as reference items and substitute items do.

10.4 Repetition

Repetition occurs when a lexical item or pattern which has been mentioned before is repeated again. In this study, there are two types of repetition: complete and partial.

10.4.1 Complete Repetition

Complete repetition is the repetition of all parts of a linguistic form. There are four levels at which complete repetition can occur: word, phrase, sentence and discourse.

10.4.1.1 Word Repetition

A word which has come in the previous part of the discourse is repeated. Words that are repeated here are noun, verb, adverb and conjunctive word.

10.4.1.2 Phrasal Repetition

Phrasal repetition is the repetition of phrase which has come previously completely. Phrases which are repeated are noun phrase, verb phrase, temporal phrase and prepositional phrase.

10.4.1.3 Sentential Repetition

Sentential repetition is the repetition of all elements of a sentence structure that comes before.

10.4.1.4 Discoursal Repetition

A sequence of sentences which have been mentioned earlier are repeated.

10.4.2 Partial Repetition

Some element(s) of a linguistic unit which has been mentioned previously is/are repeated. There are three types of partial repetition: repetition of an

item of a different form class, repetition of an item of a same form class, and parallelism.

10.5 Lexical Cohesion

Lexical cohesion occurs when more than one words or phrases in a discourse are semantically related in some way. There are five different sub-types of lexical cohesion here: synonyms, antonyms, superordinates, general words and collocation.

10.5.1 Synonyms

Synonyms refer to two words or phrases which have the same meaning.

10.5.2 Antonyms

Antonyms refer to a pair of words or phrases which are related by a type of oppositeness. In this study, antonyms can occur between noun phrases, verb phrases, prepositional phrases, adjective phrases and temporal phrases.

10.5.3 Superordinates

Superordinates have the meanings that are more general than the meanings of some lexical items.

10.5.4 General Words

General words in this study mean the highest points in the lexical taxonomy.

10.5.5 Collocation

Collocation is achieved through the association of lexical items that regularly co-occur.

10.6 Conjunction

Conjunction is used to signal semantic relationships that hold between two sentences or even paragraphs. Here, two aspects of conjunction are considered: types of conjunctive relations and positions of conjunction.

10.6.1 Types of Conjunctive Relations

There are 21 conjunctive relations in this study: additive, alternative, adversative, conditional, temporal, causal, resultative, purposive, procedural, enumerative, topic changing, emphatic, exemplificatory, elaborating, appositive, concluding, continuative, quotation, inferential, inclusive, and apart from.

10.6.2 Positions of Conjunction

Conjunctive elements can occur in various places of sentences as follows: at the beginning of a sentence, at the middle of the sentence, at the end of the sentence, at the beginning of two sentences and two or more breaking parts of a conjunctive elements occur within the same sentence.

Discussion

Although this study brings to use Halliday and Hasan's (1976) work as basis for analysis, most outcome of this study are different from those of Halliday and Hasan due to some adaptations are made for the practical purposes of the study.

As for Chanawangsa's (1986) work, she also studied according to the work of Halliday and Hasan (1976) but her findings are different greatly from the findings in this study. Since she studied both spoken and written data corpus and studied only a piece of articles. But this thesis studied about 28 pieces of economic articles, which the language that authors used, is very different from each other (style) and more complicated.

Findings in this thesis which are different from those of Halliday and Hasan can be summed up in the following table:

| Chapter | Halliday & Hasan | the Researcher's Findings |
|-----------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 1. Reference | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • There are three types of reference: personal, demonstrative and comparative. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • There are four types of reference: pronominal, demonstrative, comparative and numerative. • There are four sub-types of pronominal reference as follows: personal pronoun, reflexive pronoun, possessive pronoun and partitive pronoun. |
| 2. Substitution | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • There are three sub-types of substitution: nominal, verbal and clausal. • 'One' and 'ones' substitute for nominal phrases in English. • There are no anaphoric and cataphoric relations. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • There are two sub-types of substitution: nominal and discoursal. • Nominal substitution is found to be full foreign translation and loan abbreviation. • There are anaphoric and cataphoric relations. |

| | | |
|-----------------------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <p>3. Ellipsis</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • There are three types of ellipsis: nominal, verbal and clausal. • There are no anaphoric and cataphoric relations | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • There are three types of ellipsis: phrasal (nominal, verbal, prepositional and conjunctive), sentential and discoursal. • There are anaphoric and cataphoric relations. |
| <p>4. Repetition</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Halliday and Hasan classify repetition as a part of lexical cohesion in a category of reiteration which also includes a synonym, a near-synonym, a superordinate and a general word. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • There are two categories of repetition: complete and partial. • Complete repetition can occur at four levels: word, phrase, sentence, and discourse. • Partial repetition consists of three different types: repetition of an item of a different form class, repetition of an item of the same form class and parallelism. |
| <p>5. Lexical Cohesion</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Halliday and Hasan study only antonyms between nouns. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • This study found antonyms between noun phrases, verb phrases, prepositional phrases, adjective phrases and temporal phrases. |

| | | |
|-----------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 6. Conjunction | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • There are four major types of conjunction: additive, adversative, causal and temporal. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • There are twenty one of conjunctive relations: additive, alternative, adversative, conditional, temporal, causal, resultative, purposive, procedural, enumerative, topic changing, emphatic, exemplificatory, elaborating, appositive, concluding, continuative, quotation, inferential, inclusive, and apart from. |
|-----------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|

Comparison between Chanawangsa's (1986) work and this study's results are as follows:

| Chapter | Chanawangsa | The Researcher's Findings |
|---------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 1. Reference | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • There are three types of reference: pronominal, demonstrative and comparative. • There are four sub-types of pronominal reference: personal pronouns, pronominally used nouns, zero pronouns and possessives. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • There are four types of reference: pronominal, demonstrative, comparative and numerative. • There are four sub-types of pronominal reference as follows: personal pronoun, reflexive pronoun, possessive pronoun and partitive pronoun. |

| | | |
|-----------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <p>2. Substitution</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • She found only clausal substitution | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • There are two types of substitution: nominal substitution and discorsal substitution. |
| <p>3. Ellipsis</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • There are three types of ellipsis: nominal, verbal and clausal | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • There are three types of ellipsis: phrasal (including nominal, verbal, prepositional and conjunctive), sentential and discorsal. |
| <p>4. Repetition</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • There are three levels at which repetition can occur: word, phrase and clause. • At the word level, there are only nominal and verbal repetition. • At the phrase level, there is only noun phrase repetition. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • There are four levels at which repetition can occur: word, phrase, sentence and discourse. • At the word level, there are nominal repetition, verbal repetition, and conjunctive repetition. • At the phrase level, there are noun phrase repetition, verb phrase repetition, temporal phrase repetition and prepositional phrase repetition. |
| <p>5. Lexical Cohesion</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • She studies only antonyms between nouns. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • This study found antonyms between noun phrases, verb phrases, prepositional phrases, adjective phrases and temporal phrases. |

| | | |
|-----------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 6. Conjunction | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • There are sixteen conjunctive relations: additive, enumerative, alternative, comparative, contrastive, concessive, e x e m p l i f i c a t o r y , reformulatory, causal, purposive, resultative, conditional, inferential, temporal, transitional, and continuative. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • There are twenty one of conjunctive relations: additive, alternative, adversative, conditional, temporal, causal, resultative, purposive, procedural, enumerative, topic changing, emphatic, e x e m p l i f i c a t o r y , elaborating, appositive, concluding, continuative, quotation, inferential, inclusive, and apart from. |
|-----------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|

Suggestion

This study is about cohesion in economic articles from the Phujatkan newspaper, employing Halliday and Hasan's (1976) and de Beaugrande and Dressler's (1981) frameworks as the working hypothesis. The researcher thinks that their frameworks can be applied to the study of cohesion in Thai to a more extensive topics and areas, such as:

1. The study of cohesion in minority's languages in Thailand like Chong, Ka-song, etc.,
2. The study of cohesion in other types of discourse, such as procedural (how-to- do-it book, cooking book, etc.), hortatory (sermons, addressees of important people), etc.
3. The study of cohesion in other topics, such as expository discourse (editorial, scientific article), etc.
4. The study of cohesion from a spoken language, such as an interview of famous people on television or radio.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Brown, Gillian and Yule George. (1984). **Discourse Analysis**. London: The Pitman Press Bath.
- Callow, Kathleen. (1974). **Discourse Consideration in Translating the Word of God**. Grand Rapids: Zondervan.
- de Beaugrande. Robert-Alain and Wolfgang Ulrich Dressler. (1981). **Introduction to Text Linguistics**. London: Longman.
- Halliday, M.A.K. and Ruqaiya Hasan. (1976). **Cohesion in English**. London: Longman.
- Longacre, Robert E. (1983). **The Grammar of Discourse**. New York: Plenum Press.
- Nunan, David. (1993). **Introducing Discourse Analysis**. Harmondsworth, Middlesex: Penguin Books.
- Chatchawadee Sornlump. (1983). **A Participant Analysis in Thai Narrative Discourse**. M.A., Linguistics, Faculty of Graduate Studies, Mahidol University.
- Vichin Panupong. (1970). **Inter - Sentence Relations in Modern Conversational Thai**. Bangkok: The Siam Society.
- Wipah Chanawangsa. (1986). **Cohesion in Thai**. Ph. D., Linguistics, Faculty of the Graduate School, Georgetown University.
- Yajai Chuwicha. (1986). **Cohesion in Thai**. M.A., Linguistics, Faculty of Graduate Studies, Mahidol University.
- ชลธิชา บำรุงรักษ์. (2540). การวิเคราะห์ภาษาระดับข้อความประเภทต่างๆ ในภาษาไทย. เอกสารประกอบการบรรยายวิชา ก. ๘๑๘ ระบบข้อความในภาษาไทยขั้นสูง (Advanced Thai Discourse). ภาควิชาภาษาศาสตร์ คณะศิลปศาสตร์ มหาวิทยาลัยธรรมศาสตร์.
- เพียรศิริ วงศ์วิภานนท์. (2530). ปริจเฉท: แนวใหม่ในการศึกษาทฤษฎีสัมพันธไทย. วารสารและวรรณคดีไทย ปีที่ 4 (ฉบับที่ 2) คณะอักษรศาสตร์ จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย.

- เพียรศิริ วงศ์วิภานนท์. (2529). **ลักษณะเฉพาะของโครงสร้างความเรียงในภาษาไทย: ความถ้อยที่ถ้อยเข้าใจกันของผู้เขียนและผู้อ่าน**. เอกสารในการสัมมนาเรื่องความเป็นไทที่ควรดำรงไว้เสนอที่จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย. 26 กุมภาพันธ์ ถึง 2 มีนาคม 2529.
- สมทรง บุรุษพัฒน์. **บทนำสู่การศึกษาภาษาในระดับที่สูงกว่าประโยค. ภาษาและวัฒนธรรม 6.** (กรกฎาคม-ธันวาคม 2529) : 1-10.
- สุขุมมาดี ขำหิรัญ. (2541). **ภาษากับการเปลี่ยนแปลง**. เอกสารประกอบการสอนวิชา วทภษ 534 : สถาบันวิจัยภาษาและวัฒนธรรมเพื่อพัฒนาชนบท มหาวิทยาลัยมหิดล.
- ทัศนีย์ เจริญพร. (2534). **ลักษณะการเชื่อมโยงความในศิลาจารึกอีสานระหว่างพุทธศักราช 1893-2466**. วิทยานิพนธ์ศิลปศาสตรมหาบัณฑิต คณะศิลปศาสตร์ มหาวิทยาลัยธรรมศาสตร์.
- นิตย์สุดา อภินันทาภรณ์. (2534). **ลักษณะการเชื่อมโยงในการรายงานข่าวอาชญากรรมของหนังสือพิมพ์ไทยรัฐ: การศึกษาภาษาระดับข้อความ**. วิทยานิพนธ์ศิลปศาสตรมหาบัณฑิต คณะศิลปศาสตร์ มหาวิทยาลัยธรรมศาสตร์.
- ประภาพร มณีโรจน์. (2529). **การใช้รูปแบบคำนามเพื่อบอกความต่อเนื่องในข้อเขียนภาษาไทย**. วิทยานิพนธ์อักษรศาสตร์มหาบัณฑิต สาขาวิชาภาษาศาสตร์ จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย.
- พลสุข นาวิก. (2533). **ลักษณะการเชื่อมโยงความในภาษาระดับข้อความในภาษาไทยถิ่นเหนือจังหวัดเชียงใหม่**. วิทยานิพนธ์ศิลปศาสตรมหาบัณฑิต คณะศิลปศาสตร์ มหาวิทยาลัยธรรมศาสตร์.



APPENDIX

The two following extracts are examples of the researcher's data which are taken from the column "Settasart Noktamra" of the Phujatkan newspaper dated on 17 April 2000 and 10 July 2000 respectively.

“เป็นที่ทราบกันดีอยู่แล้วว่าระบบขนส่งมวลชนทางบกในหลายประเทศที่เจริญแล้วรัฐจะเป็นผู้ดำเนินการ เนื่องจากต้องลงทุนสูงมากแล้วจะต้องเก็บค่าโดยสารในราคาที่สูงโดยผู้โดยสารไม่เดือดร้อน หรือบางประเทศอาจจะให้สัมปทานเอกชนดำเนินการในบางเส้นทาง เพื่อให้การบริการที่ดีและก่อให้เกิดการแข่งขันกัน

ในกรณีของประเทศไทยก็คล้ายกับต่างประเทศ คือ มีทั้งการดำเนินกิจการของรัฐและของเอกชน แต่หากการดำเนินงานต้องประสบกับการขาดทุนอย่างต่อเนื่องก็จะเป็นภาระของรัฐบาลไปตลอดและก็คงจะอยู่ได้ไม่นานแน่ จึงอยากจะขอยกกรณีตัวอย่างถึงระบบขนส่งมวลชนของงานบีไอไอแอฟที่ประสบความสำเร็จมาลองวิเคราะห์ดูกัน

คงไม่ต้องกล่าวถึงความยิ่งใหญ่ของงานบีไอไอแอฟ 2000 ที่ผ่านมากันแล้ว เพราะสามารถพิสูจน์ได้ด้วยตนเองแล้วคิดว่า การเดินทางโดยรถสาธารณะมีความสะดวกและรวดเร็วเพียงไร

ผู้จัดได้คาดการณ์ไว้ว่าจะมีผู้เข้าชมและร่วมงานในครั้งนี้อยู่ประมาณ 3-4 ล้านคน โดยเฉลี่ยวันละ 2 แสนคน และวันหยุดราชการวันละ 3 แสนคน แต่ผลปรากฏว่ามีประชาชนให้ความสนใจกันมากเกินคาด โดยประมาณรวมตลอด 15 วันมี 4.6 ล้านคน และในจำนวนนี้มีถึง 1.56 ล้านคนหรือคิดเป็นร้อยละ 35 ของผู้มางานทั้งหมดที่ใช้บริการรถ ขสมก. ซึ่งหากมิได้มีการจัดระบบ

ขนส่งและจราจรไว้อย่างดีย่อมจะประสบปัญหาวิกฤติแน่

ประชาสัมพันธุ์ได้ผล

จากที่คาดว่าจะมีผู้เข้าชมงานประมาณครึ่งหนึ่งเดินทางมาด้วยรถยนต์ส่วนตัว ในขณะที่พื้นที่จอดรถในเมืองทองธานีมีรองรับรถได้เพียง 10,000 คัน ผู้จัดงานจึงมีนโยบายให้ประชาชนใช้รถสาธารณะที่จะจัดไว้ให้ ที่เรียกว่าระบบ “Park and Ride ”

(Phujatkan, 17 April 2000: pp. 9)

“ในปี ค.ศ. 2000 เป็นปีของการปรับตัวครั้งยิ่งใหญ่ของโลกและของประเทศไทย เพราะระบบพาณิชย์อิเล็กทรอนิกส์จะมีผลต่อระบบเศรษฐกิจแบบใหม่ เศรษฐกิจแบบใหม่ที่ว่าคือ การดำเนินธุรกิจด้วยระบบที่ต่างไปจากระบบเดิมอย่างสิ้นเชิง กล่าวคือ ความไวของการจัดระบบการผลิต การตลาด การขายมีประสิทธิภาพมากขึ้น โดยมีค่าใช้จ่ายในการดำเนินการน้อยลง

ด้วยการอาศัยเทคโนโลยีทางด้านคอมพิวเตอร์ ระบบสื่อสาร และอินเทอร์เน็ตที่มีระบบเชื่อมโยงทั่วโลกเข้าด้วยกัน เพื่อทำการแลกเปลี่ยนข้อมูลอัตโนมัติตลอด 24 ชั่วโมง โดยการใช้สื่อตัวนี้ได้ถูกนำมาผสมผสานกับระบบเศรษฐกิจต่าง ๆ แต่ละประเทศจนกลายเป็นระบบพาณิชย์อิเล็กทรอนิกส์ หรือภาษาอังกฤษที่เรียกว่า “E-Commerce ”

ปัจจุบันเกือบทุกบริษัททั่วโลกกำลังให้ความสนใจในเรื่อง E-Commerce เป็นอย่างมาก ต่างเร่งปรับปรุงหรือพัฒนาระบบคอมพิวเตอร์และการสื่อสารเพื่อพัฒนาตัวเอง และเพื่อสู้กับการแข่งขันทางธุรกิจในยุคของเศรษฐกิจใหม่ของโลก เพราะฉะนั้นจะเห็นได้ว่า หลาย ๆ บริษัทได้กำหนดในเป้าหมายของบริษัทว่า E-Commerce is our mission

ในการประกอบการทางด้านพาณิชย์อิเล็กทรอนิกส์นั้น ผู้ซื้อ ผู้ขาย และซัพพลายเออร์จะสามารถเข้าถึงกันได้ง่าย สามารถเปรียบเทียบราคา คุณภาพของสินค้าเพื่อประกอบการตัดสินใจในการประกอบธุรกิจได้ง่ายขึ้น ซึ่งจะลดบทบาทของพ่อค้าคนกลางและทำให้ต้นทุนการซื้อและขายลดลง เกิดการแข่งขันที่มีประสิทธิภาพในการทำงานของกลไกราคาที่เป็นไปอย่างสมบูรณ์มากขึ้น นอกจากนี้ยังจะทำให้ผู้ซื้อและผู้ขายเข้าถึงทรัพยากร เพื่อที่จะนำไปจัดสรรหรือนำไปสู่การผลิตที่มีประสิทธิภาพมากยิ่งขึ้น”

(Phujatkan, 10 July 2000: pp. 9)

BIOGRAPHY

| | |
|------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| NAME | Miss. Supadtra Kohkaew |
| DATE OF BIRTH | 22 September 1970 |
| PLACE OF BIRTH | Phetchburi, Thailand |
| INSTITUTIONS ATTENDED | Thammasat University, 1992 : Bachelor of Arts Mahidol University, 2003 : Master of Arts (Linguistics) |
| POSITION&OFFICE | Specific Area Development Office (SADO), National Economic and Social Development Board (NESDB) Bangkok, Thailand Position : Policy and Planning Analyst |