

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter examines related literature to describe theoretical perspectives and previous research findings regarding discourse and rhetorical analysis by looking at various knowledge related to discourse, discourse analysis, types of communication and types of rhetorical devices used in discourse.

What is Discourse?

There are many concepts of discourse, according to various theories and disciplines (Fairclough, 2003, p. 3). Discourse may be simply defined as the use of language in speech and writing in order to produce meaning; language in discourse is usually studied in order to see how the different parts of a text are connected (Hornby, 2000, p. 357).

However, there are also many other suggestions. Ellis (1999, p. 81) suggests that discourse may refer to a general term applying to either written or spoken language used for some communicative purpose; it is the intersection of language and communication. Schiffrin (2005, p. 21) suggests that discourse is often discussed from two approaches: structural and functional. The structural approach addresses the structure of language, such as grammar, while the functional approach addresses the functions of speech,

such as ways of speaking. Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000, p. 4) explain that discourse combines the spoken and written perspectives of language. This spoken or written language describes relationships of form and meaning with their communicative function or purpose and an audience.

Grosz and Sidner (1986) have proposed in their article in *Computational Linguistics* that discourse composes of three distinct but interacting components: a linguistic structure, an intentional structure, and an attentional state. The linguistic structure refers to the actual sequence of utterances. The intentional structure refers to the overall purpose of the discourse. And the attentional state refers to the focus of attention of the discourse participants.

Louwerse and Graesser (2005) have proposed in their article in *Encyclopedia of linguistics* that discourse is communication through the use of language. It requires a sender, a receiver, and a communicated message. Discourse forms a unified and coherent whole, which is agreed upon by both the sender and receiver. Cohesion deals with the interrelatedness between adjacent discourse segment and the interrelatedness of larger spans of discourse.

On the advertising side, Cook (2006, p. 2) stated that discourse combines text and context together. They act in a way which is perceived as meaningful and unified by participants.

The First Dhamma Discourse

In Buddhism, the first Dhamma discourse is the discourse of the Buddha called “Dhammacakkappavattana Sutta”. The meaning of this discourse is “the discourse on the turning of the wheel of Dhamma”. The key messages which the Buddha teaches in this discourse are “the Four Noble Truths” and “the Noble Eightfold Path”, which lead to freedom from suffering (Dhamma, 1997, p. ix).

Discourse Analysis

Brown and Yule (2003, p. viii) state that the term “discourse analysis” is used for a wide range of activities in different discipline; for instance, sociolinguists may be concerned with language in use, and psycholinguists may be concerned with problems of language comprehension. Johnstone (2003, p. 2) suggests that commonly, these activities involve “studying language and its effects”; therefore, discourse analysis may refer to the study of language in use. Paltridge (2006, pp. 3-4) indicates that discourse analysis targets knowledge of language beyond the text needed for successful communication, i.e., the relationship between language and its contexts. Paltridge also claims that discourse analysis targets how people organize the sequence of their messages in a conversation or a piece of writing.

Georgakopoulou and Goutsos (2004, pp. 22-23) stress that discourse analysis studies contexts and actual use; therefore, actual text is important in

studying because it constitutes appropriate situated evidence. He also notes that texts for analysis may be in different length; however, discourse analysis considers a text as a unit from beginning to end.

Gee (2011, p. 117, 123) describes the process of discourse analysis as dealing with two elements, transcription and validity. Transcription involves details of speech or writing, i.e. how language, contexts, and interactions work together, not the physical features. Validity consists of convergence, agreement, coverage, and linguistic details. Convergence refers to asking all possible questions. Agreement refers to seeking all possible sources of agreement. Coverage refers to covering all possible data related to the analysis data. Linguistic details refer to dealing with every possible relevant linguistic detail.

Communication Purposes

Ellis (1999, p. 82) provides his view that text is a string of language carrying the purposes of the communication. This string of language is the lexico-grammatical expression of a speaker's or writer's functional goals. The speaker or writer has options about how to use and organize language to serve his or her purposes.

Janoschka (2004, p. 85) writes in her doctoral dissertation that communication always has a certain purpose, which is to create a relationship between communication partners, i.e. to inform, to instruct, to persuade, or to entertain, and the choice of language use plays a major role here.



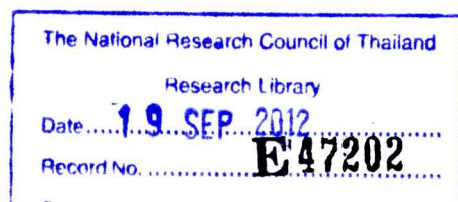
Informative Communication

Doty (1987, p. 128) suggests that “informative communication gives more knowledge to the listener. The information may involve an in-depth, lengthy explanation. It may include much detail, such as charts or lists. Or, the information may be brief and to the point. The goal of the interaction is to give some knowledge or to share ideas with other people”. Kinneavy (as cited in Rowan, 2003, pp. 410-411) suggests that “informative discourse is primarily designed to represent reality and secondarily shaped by the goal of making some claim accessible to lay audiences. It is suggested by the audience element of the communication heuristic”.

Jowett and O'Donnell (2006, p. 30) stated that information communication happens when people use information to share, explain, or instruct. Information and communication help people to understand more and remove uncertainty. They also stated that information communication provides informative messages which allow receivers to acquire, understand, and learn the information. Also, an informative discourse is a communication with an aim to create mutual understanding of data.

Persuasive Communication

According to Doty (1987, p. 127), “Using persuasion, the speaker tries to influence others with urging, coaxing statements. The messages advise and direct the listener into specific activities. The words of the speaker are intense and convincing. The speaker seems to be absolutely correct and trustworthy. The goal of the interaction is to produce action in the listener. The speaker is



trying to convince the listener, or to change the mind, attitude, belief, or behavior of the listener”. Stiff and Mongeau (2003, p. 10) provide a simple view that “persuasive communication represents any message that is intended to shape, reinforce, or change the responses of another, or others”.

Directive Communication

In Pettersson’s (2000, p. 72) view, “Directive communication amounts to the conveyance to the addressee of the fact that one has a certain wish, the implicit expectation being that the addressee will fulfill this wish (which will benefit her directly or indirectly)”. Key (1981, p. vii) stated in his study that when the informative communication is used, verbal language works as a carrier; however, when directive communication is used, nonverbal language works dominantly as the carrier.

Rhetorical Devices

Brendan (2008, p. 3) suggests that rhetoric refers to a tool used in speaking or writing with the aim to persuade, inform, entertain, or express the thought of the speaker or writer. He also advises that rhetorical devices help to strengthen the message from sender to receiver seamlessly; therefore, the speaker or writer needs to choose the devices with a powerful effect.

There are many rhetorical devices; however, only certain devices are frequently used. Some of the frequent used rhetorical devices are as follows:

Alliteration

Hervas, Robinson, and Gervas (2007, p. 537) states that alliteration deals with repetition of sound within a text, which may be the repetition of consonant sounds at the beginning of the words, sounds in stressed syllables, or sounds at any point in the utterance. Sauer (2008, p. 9) has the view that alliteration occurs to make a text more stylized and enable listener to better remember what they have heard. Examples of alliteration are (1) a part of the speech of President G.W. Bush in 2001 “. . . we shall not falter, we shall not fail”, and (2) a part of the speech of President J. F. Kennedy in 1961 “Let us go forth to lead the land we love”.

Exemplification

Berger (2011, p. 83) suggests that exemplification involves using samples to support the speaker’s position. Murphy and Rankin (2004, p. 29) indicate that exemplification or example is the most frequently used rhetorical strategy. An example of exemplification is “Children like packaged breakfast foods, such as Wheaties, Cheerios, and Rice Krispies”.

Repetition

Resseguie (1998, p. 12) indicates that repetition is a rhetorical device repeating a word or phrase to stress the meaning of that word or phrase. Zhang (2005, p. 117) suggests that in addition to a word or phrase, repetition can be of sound, sentence, or synonym. However, repetition of a synonym is

not common. Howard (2010, p. 30) provides an example of repetition from a part of the speech of British Prime Minister Winston Churchill as follows:

We shall not flag or fail. We shall go on to the end. We shall fight in France, we shall fight on the seas and oceans, we shall fight with growing confidence and growing strength in the air, we shall defend our island, whatever the cost may be, we shall fight on the beaches, we shall fight on the landing grounds, we shall fight in the fields and in the streets, we shall fight in the hills. We shall never surrender.

Rhetorical question

Jung and Schrott (2003, p. 360) suggest that a rhetorical question is an interrogative sentence which is used in a special occasion. Murphy and Rankin (2004, p. 89) add that a rhetorical question is a question which is posed to a listener, but the speaker do not expect an answer. An example is “Smoking causes lung cancer. Who knew?”

Simile

Brendan (2008, p. 41) suggests that simile is used when the speaker or writer compares two related things. Urbanek and Grantham (2008, p. 58) states that simile is a device used to make comparison. The words “like” or “as” are commonly used in simile. An example is “Good coffee is like friendship: rich and warm and strong”.

Summary

This chapter reviews related literature to provide an understanding of various studies and concepts related to the research such as discourse, discourse analysis, and communicative effect. The natures of different types of rhetorical devices are also described, and examples are given. The types of communication include informative, persuasive, and directive communication. The rhetorical devices include alliteration, antithesis, exemplification, repetition, rhetorical question, and simile. Suggestions, comments, or recommendations from various authors and researches are also included to help readers learn from their different views.