1. Rationale

Man has always wanted to understand the nature of language, and perhaps this is also what linguists and grammarians aim at. As mentioned by Thomas Bloor and Meriel Bloor, (1995) they “have struggled to understand more about how human language is structured and to explain how communication takes place”. Grammar, among other branches of linguistics, therefore, can be seen as the most useful tool to satisfy this desire of man.

Among the many trends of grammar that have contributed to the achievements in discovering the nature of language, there is a very new version of the field – systemic functional grammar, which was developed by celebrities in linguistics study such as M.A.K. Halliday, R. Hassan, D. Morley, Th. Bloor etc. Compared with traditional grammar, which focuses on written language and deals with rules of correct usage, functional grammar deals with both spoken and written language and focuses on the functions of language. It is closer to our language in daily life, and thus can help us to see and understand human language more deeply and comprehensively. It can be said without exaggeration that functional grammar is ‘an effective tool of analysis, which solves the issues left out by traditional grammar’.

In Vietnam functional grammar has received considerable attention and been studied by many grammarians, among which there are Cao Xuân Hảo (1991) with Tiếng Việt: So sánh ngữ pháp chức năng, Hoàng Văn Văn (2005) with Ngữ pháp kinh nghiệm của cử tiengu Vịt: Mô tả theo quan điểm chức năng hệ thống, and many other postgraduates at Vietnam National University - Hanoi with invaluable studies on different topics in this new trend of grammar. In fact, they all have contributed a lot to the study of this field and inspired me to choose functional grammar as the theoretical framework for my MA thesis.

With these ideas in mind, I chose to study more about one phenomenon in language - expansion - from the perspective of functional grammar. As shown by the title “Expansion and its realization in the short story The Law of Life by Jack London”, there are two main reasons for my choice of the topic:
1. Firstly, the study of expansion, an interesting grammatical phenomenon, enables us to understand the logico-semantic relations that structure a text. In other words, it will provide us with an effective tool to discover the features behind a text. Thus, studying expansion relation in English will contribute a lot to the teaching and learning English in Vietnam.

2. Secondly, a mastering of the phenomenon will undoubtedly be the basis for analyzing real texts so as to understand them better. Therefore, I would like to analyze a randomly chosen text in terms of expansion to see how the findings can help to understand some features of the text and the intention of the writer. In this thesis, the text chosen is the short story “The Law of Life” by the famous American writer, Jack London.

2. Aims of the study

The study attempts to
- examine some basic notions related to clause complexes and types of expansion relations in a clause complex;
- study how expansion relations are employed in the story “The Law of Life” by Jack London;
- offer some suggestions for teaching and learning.

3. Scope of the study

As stated above, the relation above clause is very complex and cannot be dealt with thoroughly in this short study. Within the framework of a minor M.A. Thesis, the study does not cover all aspects of this but limits to one of the two subtypes of logico-semantic relations between clauses from the functional grammar perspective, i.e. only expansion is taken into consideration. The focus of the study, however, does not lie in the theoretical findings but it is hoped that, on the basis of these, will enlighten the analysis of a short story written by a noted American writer.

4. Data collection

Data will be collected from clauses in the short story “The Law of Life” by the famous American writer - Jack London. The examples illustrating the argumentation are taken

5. Methods of the study
The study is conducted as an attempt to understand more about the nature of expansion relation in English and the representation of this relation in the mentioned short story. Given this nature of the study, the descriptive and analytical methods will be used as the principal methods. The descriptive method is concerned with the description of concepts related to expansion. The analytical method is resorted to when analyzing the text.

6. Design of the study
The study is designed into 3 parts.
Part A introduces the reasons for choosing the topic, the aims of the study, the methodology, the scope, and the design of the study.
Part B, the main part of the thesis, consists of three chapters.
Chapter 1, entitled Theoretical Background, re-examines some basic notions of systemic functional grammar in general and of relations in clause complex in particular. The ultimate purpose of this chapter is to formulate a framework for the study on expansion.
Chapter 2 investigates the expansion relation in English. In this chapter expansion relation is discussed in detail, with the hope to provide a framework for the analysis of the text chosen.
Chapter 3 is a research on expansion in an American short story to see how different types of expansion are used in a text of the narrative genre and to see how the findings fit the characteristics of this kind of text.
Finally, part C serves as the conclusion which summarizes the results of the study. The implications for teaching and learning English as well as the suggestions for further research will also be given in this part.
This chapter reviews a range of literature related to the study. The purpose of the review is to establish a theoretical framework for the study on expansion from the systemic functional perspective. The chapter is organized into six parts: (1) An overview of systemic functional grammar, (2) the concepts of function, macro-function and metafunction, (3) the three metafunctions of language, (4) grammatical rank scale, (5) clause and clause complex in English.

1.1. Systemic functional grammar: an overview

In order to explain how human language works, linguists have tried to approach it from different points of view. For example, generative grammarians such as Noam Chomsky attempt to give a set or rules that will correctly predict which combinations of words will form grammatical sentences. These rules will predict the semantics and morphology of a sentence. For these linguists, grammar is not the result of communicative function and is not simply learned from the environment. Therefore, they do not pay due attention to meaning and think that description alone is sufficient to language rules. In this respect, generative grammar takes a point of view totally different from functional theories.

With the appearance of systemic functional grammar, a grammar model developed by Michael Halliday, the study of language is seen from a new perspective. For Halliday, language is “a network of systems, or interrelated sets of options for making meaning” (Halliday 1994: 15), thus language is “systemic”. The term ‘functional’ is used to indicate that the approach is concerned with meaning. Therefore the grammar is “the study of how meanings are built up through the use of words and other linguistic forms such as tone and emphasis” (Bloor, 1995: 1). This makes up the differences between the two models of grammar. In other words, functional grammar differs from other grammar models in the way it treats the language. According to functional grammarians, language is a social activity which always takes place in a context. Therefore it is not a prescriptive grammar...
which tells us what we can and we cannot say, or it is not a grammar of etiquette, as Martin (1997: 3) puts it. It enables us to see and understand more about language in context, provides us with “a tool for understanding why a text is the way it is” (Martin et al, 1997: 3).

In short, functional approaches to grammar can be differentiated from formal or generative approaches to grammar by their focus on the communicative, as opposed to cognitive, aspect of language. The roots of systemic functional grammar lie in sociology and anthropology rather than psychology and computer science.

1.2. Functions

Function is a common term both in systemic and non-systemic linguistics. In systemic linguistics, there are three terms for particular types of function: micro-function, macro-function and metafunction.

1.2.1. Micro-function

Functional grammar defines micro-function as functionally defined constituent, e.g. Subject, Actor, Theme. Let’s consider the following example

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>This teapot</th>
<th>the duke</th>
<th>gave to my aunt</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Theme</td>
<td>Subject</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Actor</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1.2.2. Macro-function

According to Halliday, macro-function refers to the language use in early child-language, such as functions of imagination, discovery, interaction etc.

1.2.3. Metafunction

Metafunction is the generalized functional principle of linguistic organization. Halliday identifies three metafunctions: the ideational, the interpersonal and the textual. Each of these three metafunctions is about a different aspect of the world, and is concerned with a different mode of meaning of clauses. Each of these three kinds of meaning, according to Halliday (1994: 34) “forms part of a different functional configuration, making up a separate strand in the overall meaning of the clause”. Thus we can see that all the three functions do not exist separately or operate independently and discretely but they “operate
simultaneously in the expression of meaning” (Bloor, 1995: 9). Therefore all the three functions are of equal importance as they all belong to the stratum of discourse semantics and they are all ‘semantically relevant’. Similarly, Morley also agrees with this “All important feature regarding the organization of this semantic stratum is that although each of the components is discrete and distinct in its own right, they all contribute to the overall meaning of the structure of the text.” (Morley, 2000: 16).

1.3. Three metafunctions – three aspects of meaning in a clause

1.3.1. Ideational metafunction

The ideational metafunction is about the natural world in the broadest sense, and is concerned with clauses as representation. It expresses speakers’ experience including the elements of the external world and those of consciousness. The ideational function reflects the field parameter of register and can be classified into two subfunctions: the experiential and the logical. The experiential function is largely concerned with content or ideas. The logical function is concerned with the relationship between ideas.

Experiential meanings are realized through the system of TRANSITIVITY. Halliday (1994: 107) states that transitivity construes the world of experience into a manageable set of process types. In the transitivity system of English, six process types are recognized: material, mental, relational, behavioral, verbal and existential. He goes on to analyze the process into three components: the process itself, the participants in the process and circumstances associated with the process.

Logical meanings are realized by relationship of co-ordination (or parataxis) or subordination (or hypotaxis) between one clausal unit and another. Experiential grammar of the clause produces the constituency structures whereas logical meanings are associated with the interdependency structures. The following example is analyzed on the basis of experiential and logical meaning:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Actor</th>
<th>Process: material</th>
<th>circumstance</th>
<th>Process: material</th>
<th>goal</th>
<th>circumstance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>His hand went to the fire and</td>
<td>he pulled a burning stick from it</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
His hand went to the fire and he pulled a burning stick from it

1 + 2

1.3.2. Interpersonal metafunction

The interpersonal metafunction is about the social world, especially the relationship between speaker and hearer, and is concerned with clauses as exchanges. As Halliday (1994: 68) puts it: “The most fundamental types of speech role, which lie behind all the more specific types that we may eventually be able to recognize, are just two (i) giving, and (ii) demanding”. This means there are two roles in exchange: giving and demanding. He goes on to analyze the nature of the commodity being exchange into (a) goods and service and (b) information. This analysis can be illustrated in the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Commodity exchange</th>
<th>(a) goods and service</th>
<th>(b) information</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(i) giving</td>
<td>‘offer’</td>
<td>‘statement’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Would you like this teapot?</td>
<td>he’s giving her the teapot</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(ii) demanding</td>
<td>‘command’</td>
<td>‘question’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>give me that teapot</td>
<td>what is he giving her?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Source: Halliday, 1994: 69)

When analyzing a clause as an exchange of interactive event, Halliday realizes the two components in a clause: the Mood and the Residue. The Mood is the component carrying the syntactic burden of the exchange and ‘carries the argument forward’ (Halliday, 1994:71). It consists of two parts: (1) the Subject, which is a nominal group, and (2) the Finite operator, which is part of a verbal group. The Residue, according to Halliday, consists of functional elements of three kinds: Predicat, Complement, and Adjunct. The following example shows the analysis of a clause with respect to its interpersonal metafunction:
Microsoft have expanded in China recently

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Finite</th>
<th>Predicator</th>
<th>Adjunct</th>
<th>Adjunct</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MOOD</td>
<td>RESIDUE</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1.3.3. Textual metafunction

The textual metafunction is about the verbal world, especially the flow of information in a text, and is concerned with clauses as messages. It is described by Halliday (1994: 97) as the ‘relevance’ or the enabling function. As a message structure, a clause consists of a Theme accompanied by a Rheme. The Theme is the element which serves as the point of departure of the message, and the Rheme is the part in which the Theme is developed. According to Eggins (1994: 275) the Theme typically contains familiar, or given, information, i.e. information which has been given somewhere in the text, or is familiar from the context.

Let’s have a look at the following example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The tribe</th>
<th>could not wait for its death</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>THEME</td>
<td>RHEME</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This analysis of the three metafunctions helps to form a comprehensive picture of language in all its levels: phonology, lexico-grammar, and semantics – and the social context in which language (communication) occurs’. Functional grammar, therefore, as Hoang Van Van (2006: 161) points out, provides linguists ‘a very rich pool of instruments which helps researchers to tackle not only phonological but also grammatical (syntax), semantic and discoursal problems of a text.’

1.4. Grammatical rank scale

Hallidayan linguistics employs the notion of rank. Rank can be understood as the hierarchy of units and reflects the basic realization patterns.

Rank orders units into a hierarchy according to their constituency relation: the highest ranking units consist of units of the rank immediately below, these units consist of
units at the next rank below, and so on, until we arrive at the units of the lowest rank, which have no internal constituent structure. Rank is thus a theory of the global distribution of the units of the grammar.

The English grammatical rank scale, which consists of four ranks: clause, group, word, morpheme, is illustrated by Thompson as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Example</th>
<th>Source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Clauses</strong></td>
<td>e.g. lllComputer facilities are free of charge lll If this applies to you lll are made up of one or more tick this box lll</td>
<td>Thompson (1996: 22)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>groups</strong></td>
<td>e.g. computer facilities ] are [free of charge] lll into e.g. lll [ Mark \ and I] are made up of one or more [tried \ to help] lll</td>
<td>Thompson (1996: 22)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>words</strong></td>
<td>e.g. [[computer} {facilities}]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>morphemes</strong></td>
<td>e.g. {(compute)(er)} {(facility)(s)}</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1.5. Clause and clause complex

1.5.1. Clause and its position in functional grammar

As can be seen from the rank scale, the clause is the largest unit in the scale. Halliday argues that the sentence is not a unit of grammar, but a unit of written expression, and therefore “biased towards the description of written language”. Functional grammar, with the focus on ‘language in use’, not on ‘sentences in books’, on the other hand, tends to refer to ‘clause’ as ‘a constituent unit in the grammar’ (Halliday, 1994: 16). In fact, clause can be seen as the basic unit of functional grammar because ‘it has a special place in expressing meaning because at this rank we can begin to talk about how things exist, how things happen and how people feel in the world around us. It is also at the rank of clause that we usually use language to interact with others’ (Bloor,
1995: 7). In functional grammar, clause is the point of origin of the systems of Transitivity, Mood and Theme, realized by three simultaneous structural layers. (transitivity structure, modal structure and thematic structure)

1.5.2 Clause simplex and clause complex

In Halliday’s grammar, clauses can be divided into clause simplex and clause complex. Clause simplex contains one clause, whereas clause complex contains a Head clause together with other clauses that modify it. In this way, a clause complex can be seen as the equivalent of a sentence in traditional grammar. Also, in traditional grammar, the sentence can be classified into four types, according to the number and class (main or subordinate) of clauses they contain: simple sentence, compound sentence, complex sentence and compound-complex sentences. This classification, as pointed out by Morley (2000: 70), is ‘rather arbitrary and as such not particularly helpful’. He claims that the analysis of a text based on such a classification would only give a partial indication of the degree of the complexity of its sentence structure. The notion of ‘clause complex’ as Halliday (1994: 216) states, ‘enables us to account in full for the functional organization of sentences’. We now come to a very important aspect of this notion: the relationship between clauses in a clause complex.

1.5.3 Relationship between clauses in clause complexes

The relationship between clauses in clause complexes tells us about the logical meaning, one of the two important components of Halliday’s ideational metafunction. (The other is experiential meaning which is realized by TRANSITIVITY).

According to Halliday, clauses in a clause complex are interrelated in terms of two systems: those of TAXIS and LOGICAL - SEMANTIC TYPE.

1.5.3.1 Taxis

Taxis, or interdependency, indicate the logical interdependency between clauses in a clause complex, i.e. it shows whether one clause is dependent on or dominates another, or whether they are of equal status. Taxis are of two kinds: parataxis and hypotaxis. Parataxis is the logical interdependency between clauses where the clauses in the nexus are of equal status, “the relation between two like elements of equal status, one
initiating and the other continuing” (Halliday 1994: 218). Paratactic relation, in principle, is logically symmetrical and transitive. For example, with the clause complex: ‘John ran away, and Fred stayed behind.’ We can change the position of the two clauses without changing the meaning: “Fred stayed behind, and John ran away.” Therefore, the relationship is symmetrical. And the sentences “Joe watched TV, and Mary washed the clothes” and “Mary washed the clothes and Peter cleaned the floor” imply “Joe watched TV, and Peter cleaned the floor”. In parataxis, the two elements are independent, so “we only need to distinguish them by the order in which the speaker has chosen to say them”. This is done by using the numbers:

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{John ran away,\
\text{and}\
\text{Fred stayed behind}}
\end{array}
\]

1 2

Hypotaxis, in Halliday’s (1994: 221) definition is “the binding of elements of unequal status”. The dominant element is free, but the dependent element is not. The hypotactic relation is logically non-symmetrical and non-transitivity. For example, “I stayed at home because it rained” does not mean “It rained because I stayed at home”. Or “I was happy because I had passed the exam” and “I had passed the exam because I had worked hard” does not imply “I was happy because I had worked hard”. The relation of hypotaxis between a dominant unit and a dependent one is signaled in the notation by labeling the clauses with the Greek alphabet, using an alpha (\(\alpha\)) for the dominant, a beta (\(\beta\)) for a clause dependent on it, and a gamma (\(\chi\)) for one dependent on that, and so on.

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{The stiff crackling noises of frozen animals’ skin told him}\
\text{that the chief’s tent was being torn down}
\end{array}
\]

\(\alpha\)

\(\beta\)

It should be noted that paratactic and hypotactic relationships may be combined in a single clause complex:

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{Your grandmother knew}\
\text{my sickness meant death,}\
\text{and that there were no cure}
\end{array}
\]
1.5.3.2. Logico-semantic type

Clauses in a clause complex linked together not only in terms of taxis, but also in terms of a particular logico-semantic relationship. This relationship, in its turn, is divided into expansion and projection.

In a nexus related by expansion, the secondary clause picks up the message of the primary one and expands on it. This may be done in one of three ways: by elaborating, by extending, or by enhancing. Elaborating means saying the same thing over again, either by direct repetition, or by rewording it, clarifying it, or giving an example.

\[ \text{They weren't show animals; we just had them as pets.} \]

Extending means adding something new, giving an exception to it, or offering an alternative.

\[ \text{The window in the room was open and half noises came of from the street} \]

Enhancing means giving some further information that is related in a systematic way by a semantic feature of time, cause, condition or concession.

\[ \text{When the morning came, the other shepherds returned from Bethlehem} \]

The relationship of projection is different from that of expansion. In a nexus related by projection, the secondary clause is instated by the primary clause as what somebody said (locution) or thought (idea). According to Halliday, in locution type, one clause is
projected through another, which presents it as a locution, a construction of wording; and in the type of idea, one clause is projected through another, which presents it as an idea, a construction of meaning. In other words, locutions are projected verbal events and ideas are projected mental events (Thompson 1996: 27).

“Oh, it will be clear tomorrow and hot as June,” said Stuart. (locution)

“1   2

You’d think there’d be a warning (idea)

α  β

Projection relationship can be either paratactic or hypotactic. Paratactic projection clauses are typically ‘direct speech’. In paratactic projection, projecting and projected clauses may occur in any order or projecting clauses may interrupt projected clauses. For example:

“He said, ‘Get in there, Hunt.’”

1   2

‘That’s all we need,’ he said.

1   2

“There is wood next to you and the fire burns bright,” the son said, “the morning is grey and the cold is here. It will snow soon, even now it is snowing.”

1   2   3   4

Hypotactic projection clauses are typically ‘reported speech’ and are labeled to indicate their grammatical dependency. In hypotactic projections, the projecting clauses usually precede projected clauses:

The boss said that he could see you now

α   β

I told him I gave the prison guard money to buy him a good dinner

α   β

(Melville, 1996: 66)
1.5.3.3. Summary
Up to now, we have focused on different methods of combining clauses in clause complexes. The relationship between clauses can be seen from two dimensions: taxis and logico-semantic. Taxis, which show the interdependency between the clauses in the nexus, are of two types: paratactic (the equality in status) and hypotactic (the inequality). Logico-semantic relations are divided into two types: expansion and projection. The relations of expansion will be the focus of the next chapter.
2.1. Introduction

This chapter is an attempt to re-examine expansion, a type of logico-semantic relations in clause complexes in English, based on Halliday’s functional grammar. In this chapter, three types of expansion are investigated in detail. The findings will serve as the framework for the analysis in the next chapter, with the hope to discover the features hidden in the text.

2.2. Expansion

As discussed in the previous section, expansion is one of the two types of logico-semantic relations between clauses in a clause complex. (The other is projection, which is not the focus of our study). In expansion, ‘one clause expands on the meaning of another in various ways’ (Thompson, 1996: 200). For example, the second clause below adds more information to the first clause:

\[\text{The beef animal is the buffalo and its meat is surprisingly tender}\]

2.3. Types of expansion

According to Halliday (1994: 219), in expansion, the secondary clause expands the primary clause by one of the three following ways: elaborating it, extending it or enhancing it. In other words, expansion can be classified into three subtypes: elaboration, extension and enhancement.

2.3.1. Elaboration

In elaboration, the secondary clause gives more information to the information in the initial clause. According to Halliday, (1994: 225) the secondary clause ‘does not introduce a new element into the picture but rather provides a further characterization of one that is already there’. This is done by restating, clarifying, refining, or adding a descriptive attribute or comment. The equal sign (=) is used to denote this relation, which involves both parataxis and hypotaxis. We shall explore each below.
2.3.1.1. Paratactic elaboration (1=2)

In a paratactic elaborating clause complex ‘an initial clause is restated, exemplified or further specified by another’ (Martin et al., 1997: 171). Paratactic elaboration can be divided into three subtypes: exposition, exemplification and exemplification.

The first type of elaboration is **exposition**. In exposition, the secondary clause restates the thesis of the primary one in different words (Halliday, 1994: 226). Let’s have a look at the following example:

*He looked a fright; his clothes were damp, dirty and torn.*

In this sentence ‘*his clothes were damp, dirty and torn*’ restates the meaning of the proposition ‘*He looked a fright*’.

Typical conjunctive expressions used in this relation are ‘*in other words*’, ‘*that is to say*’, ‘*or/ rather*’, and in writing ‘*i.e.*’

The second type of paratactic elaboration is **exemplification**, in which case the secondary clause develops the meaning of the primary clause by further specifying it, or giving an example. The conjunctions used in this type are ‘*for example*’, ‘*for instance*’, ‘*in particular*’ and in writing ‘*e.g.*’

*She’s an excellent scholar – she got 100 percent in maths.*

(Morley, 1996: 87)

The third type is **clarification**, in which the secondary explains the meaning of the primary clause, or ‘clarifies the thesis of the primary clause’ (Halliday, 1994: 226).

The conjunctive expressions listed by Morley and Halliday are *in fact, actually, at least, as a matter of fact, to be precise*, and in writing, *i.e. or viz.* This relation can also be implicitly expressed by juxtaposing, and in writing, by a colon (:) or a semicolon (;)

*They weren’t show animals; we just had them as pets.*

(Halliday, 1994: 226)

2.3.1.2. Hypotactic elaboration (α = β)

In a hypotactic elaborating complex, the dependent clause provides some description or comment on the thing(s) mentioned in the primary clause or on the whole primary
clause. These dependent clauses are called ‘non-defining relative clauses’. For example:

*He’s not on the phone, which makes it difficult to get in touch with him.*

(Graver, 2001: 130)

*Lagos, which is the capital of Nigeria, is a port.*

(Deivitiis, 1989: 65)

Halliday (1994: 227) states that these dependent clauses function as ‘a kind of descriptive gloss to the primary clause’. They can be divided into finite and non-finite clauses.

- **Finite**

The secondary clause in this type ‘has the same form as a defining relative clause of the WH-type’ (Halliday, 1994: 227). However, it is necessary to pay attention to the difference between defining (restrictive) and non-defining (non-restrictive) relative clauses. According to Halliday (1994: 227) ‘in terms of meaning, these clauses do not define subsets, in the way that a defining clause does.’ For example, in “*The girl who talked to you yesterday [was very nice]*”, the defining clause *who talked to you yesterday* tells us which girl is being referred to. Compare with the above example *Lagos, which is the capital of Nigeria*, the non-defining clause *which is the capital of Nigeria* does not define the proper noun *Lagos*, but merely adds something to it by giving more information. In other words, non-restrictive (non-defining) relative clauses do not restrict the scope of their antecedents, but provide additional information about the antecedents or give a comment on them. Therefore, unlike restrictive relative clauses, which are rankshifted (or embedded) clauses functioning as Postmodifiers in a Nominal Group, non-restrictive clauses are considered by Halliday as dependent clauses.

The dependent clause in this type might refer to the whole primary clause or to one particular participant in the primary clause (usually a noun), in which case it often stands next to that participant. Look at the following examples:

*There were many people in the theater, which frightened him.*(1)
The President, who was visiting Rome, met the Pope. (2)

Clearly, in (1) the relative clause specifies the whole primary clause. In this case the relative is ‘which’ and the secondary clause is separated from the primary one by a comma. By contrast, in (2) the relative clause ‘who was in Rome’ the subject ‘the President’ is elaborated and the secondary clause is ‘enclosed’ in the primary one. The relative used in this type are often ‘which’, ‘who’ or ‘whose’. Halliday (1994: 227) uses the angle brackets to denote enclosure:

Inflation, which was necessary for the system, became also lethal.

Besides, the conjunctives might also be ‘where’ or ‘when’, which refer to expressions of place or time:

Florence, where I spent my childhood, is famous for its art galleries.

That year, when Giuliana studied with Carapetto, changed her whole life.

(Jacobs, 1996: 314)

The secondary clause might stand at the end of the primary one, as in the above examples or be enclosed in the primary one as in the following:

Hanoi, where I was born, is a very nice city.

According to Halliday, in spoken English, this relation is marked by tone concord, which means both primary and secondary clauses are spoken on the same tone. As Halliday (1994: 228) puts it, ‘this tone concord is the principal signal of the apposition relationship in English’.

- **Non-finite**

In English it is possible to substitute the finite secondary clauses with non-finite ones. In this case, the relation between clauses is still the same as with the finite clauses. The non-finite clause might refer to one element in the primary clause or to the whole of this clause, as in the case with the finite ones:

*I once worked on a project in Plymouth, helping to feed the homeless.*

Compare:

*I once worked on a project in Plymouth, which helped to feed the homeless.*
One difficulty arises here: the lack of a conjunctive element makes it difficult to determine the type of relationship between its clauses. In this case we should rely on the meaning and the context.

2.3.2. Extension

The second type of expansion is extension. According to Halliday (1994: 230) two clauses in a clause complex are connected by means of this relation if ‘one clause extends the meaning of another by adding something new to it’. Basically, there are two categories: addition (one clause adds to the meaning of another) and variation (one clause changes the meaning of another by contrast or by qualification). Extension might be paratactic or hypotactic; however, compared with paratactic extension, hypotactic extension is less frequently realized.

2.3.2.1. Paratactic extension (1 + 2)

In a paratactic extension the clauses in a nexus are linked together by conjunctions and, or, nor, but. Thus, Thompson (1996: 203) remarks ‘paratactic extension covers most of what is traditionally called coordination’. Paratactic extension includes addition, variation and alternation.

- Addition

Addition relation can be recognized through the use of conjunction and (positive addition), nor (negative addition) or but (adversative addition). For example:

*He had lived close to the earth and the law was not new to him.* (positive addition)

(London, 1996: 230)

*He felt sorrow but he did not think of his sorrow.* (adversative addition)

(London, 1996: 230)

*He had no money, nor did he know anyone he could borrow from.* (negative addition)

Sometimes this relation can be recognized without any conjunctive signals:

*He listened harder, it was the last time he would hear that voice.* (positive addition)

(London, 1996: 224)
• Variation

In paratactic variation, ‘one clause is presented as being in total or partial replacement of another’ (Halliday, 1994: 230). The typical conjunctive signals used with this meaning are instead, on the contrary, but, only. The pair either … or is also used with this meaning. Variation can be total variation or partial variation:

I didn’t go by car, but instead I took a plane. (total variation)

He runs the department well, except he rarely holds meetings. (partial variation)

• Alternation

In paratactic alternation, one clause is offered as alternative to another. The most typical conjunctive signals in this type are or, conversely, alternatively, on the other hand. For example:

Eat your dinner, or else you won’t get any ice-cream.

2.3.2.2. Hypotactic extension (α + β)

In a hypotactic extending complex, the secondary clause extends the meaning of the primary clause by adding some new element, giving an exception to it or offering an alternation. As in the case with hypotactic elaboration, the dependent clause may be finite or non-finite.

• Finite

Hypotactic extension of this type can be recognized through the use of conjunctions while, whereas. In this case, the meaning is ‘addition with contrast’ (Thompson, 1996: 203).

I drink black coffee while he prefers it with cream.

(English – Vietnamese Dictionary, 2004)

He earns £8,000 a year whereas she gets at least £20,000

The hypotactic form of subtractive relation is expressed by finite clauses with conjunctive signals except that, but for the fact that:

She remembered nothing about him except that his hair was black.
But for the fact that you had telephoned I would never have known.

Another type of hypotactic extension, alternation, is expressed by conditional structure ‘if… not’, which can be paraphrased by ‘either … or’. In this structure, the dependent clause always comes first.

If she isn’t his wife, then she must be his girlfriend.

- **Non-finite**

According to Halliday (1994: 231), in English ‘the non-finite form of hypotactic extending is an imperfective clause’. This clause can be preceded by a preposition or a preposition group such as ‘apart from, besides (additive), without (adversative), instead of (replacive), other than (subtractive).

Let’s play cards instead of watching television.

The play was badly acted, besides being too long.

However, in reality, there might not be any conjunctive signals as in the case of taxposition.

Dozens of people were stranded, many of them being children. (additive)

(Quirk and Greenbaum, 1987: 312)

### 2.3.3. Enhancement

In enhancement, the meaning of one clause is enhanced in terms of time, place, manner, cause and condition. In other words, the enhancing clause provides circumstantial features of time, place, cause, reason, condition, result etc. The symbol ‘X’ is used to signal enhancement:

\[ \text{He and Zingha moved closer on their stomach} \ll \text{so the wolves would not see them} \ll \]

\[ \alpha \quad X \quad \beta \]

(London, 1996: 232)

As with other types of expansion, enhancement might be either paratactic or hypotactic.
2.3.3.1. Paratactic enhancement (notation 1 x 2)

The enhancing clause is a coordinated one with a circumstantial feature. Typical conjunctions listed by Halliday are *then, so, for, but, yet, still* or a combination of *and* and another conjunctive element e.g. *and then, and afterwards, and at that time* etc.

Halliday distinguishes four subtypes of enhancement: temporal, spatial, manner and causal-conditional.

- **Temporal**

  Temporal relation can be signalled by a conjunction or a conjunction group such as *and then, and afterwards, first … then* (later time); *and just then, and at the same time, and at this time, now* (same time):

  *First, his feet would freeze, then his hands (would freeze).*

  *He listened, then waited for silence.*


  Conjunction ‘*and*’ is usually used to introduce an extending clause of addition, however, in narratives, it can be used with the meaning ‘*and then*’, and thus might be seen with enhancing meaning.

  *His hand went to the fire and he pulled a burning stick from it.*

  (London, 1996: 234)

- **Spatial**

  Spatial relation is introduced by ‘*and there*’ to denote the same place

  *He went to the entrance, and there he met an old man in a black suit.*

- **Manner**

  Manner consists of means and comparison. To introduce a paratactic enhancing clause of means, English uses conjunction group *and in that way, similarly*, whereas *and thus, and thereby, and so, and neither* are used to introduce a clause of comparison

  *He bought her a bunch of flowers, and in this way he wanted to make up with her.*

  *My sister doesn’t go to school on Sunday and neither do I.*
Causal-conditional

**Cause-effect** relation can be introduced by conjunctions *so, and therefore*, whereas effect-cause is expressed by *for*:

*She was hungry so she made a sandwich.*

*The princess was sad, for her father had died.*

(Deivitiis, 1989: 126, 127)

**Condition** may be positive, negative or concessive. Positive condition is introduced by *and then, and in that case*, negative condition by *otherwise, or else* and concessive condition by *yet, still, though, nevertheless*

*He might tell my father about my mistake, and then I don’t know what will happen to me.* (positive condition)

*Though he was ill, he went to work.* (concession)

(Deivitiis, 1989: 136)

*I want you to keep quiet; otherwise I’ll get very annoyed.* (negative condition)

((Deivitiis, 1989: 144)

**2.3.3.2. Hypotactic enhancement**

Hypotactic enhancing clauses are traditionally called adverbial subordinate clauses. In other words, as pointed out by Thompson (1996: 204), they ‘correspond very closely in function to Adjuncts, specifying aspects of the dominant process such as the time, reason, condition, etc.” As with elaboration and extension, a hypotactic enhancement clause may be finite or non-finite.

- **Finite**

As with paratactic enhancement, hypotactic enhancing clauses embraces temporal, spatial, manner, and causal-condition.

**Temporal relation** can refer to same time, later time or earlier time. Conjunctions used to introduce this relation include such subordinators as *after, before, since, until, when* etc. Temporal clauses are common in initial position. However, it can be found in the middle or at the end of the complex. For example:
When I placed the key in the door, I couldn’t open it.

(Melville, 1996: 62)

Our hostess, once everyone had arrived, was full of good humor.

(Quirk and Greenbaum, 1987: 321)

**Spatial clauses** are introduced by where, wherever, as far as
The next day, Kish started out for the shore where the land meets the ice.

(London, 1996: 110)

**Clauses of manner** are introduced by as, as if, as though, like etc.
I slung away much like a dog does when it has been shouted with its tail between its legs.

(Melville, 1996: 62)

He walked carefully among the plants as if he were walking among wild animals or poisonous snakes.

(Hawthorne, 1996: 148)

Inversion of subject-operator can be seen with clauses of comparison as in the following example:
The present owner collects paintings, as did several of his ancestors.

The **causal-conditional relation** consists of cause and condition. Clauses of cause can be introduced by because, as, since, seeing that, etc.
Because he used headcraft instead of witchcraft he rose from the poorest igloo to be the chief in the village.

(London, 1996: 120)

**Clauses of condition** might be positive, negative, or concessive, which can be introduced by if, as long as, provided that (positive condition), unless (negative condition), even if, even though, although (concession).
If Rapechini did this to his own daughter, what is he planning to do?

(Hawthorne, 1996: 162)

He built a raft to take him across even though it took him an extra day. (concession)

- **Non-finite**
Usually, a non-finite enhancing clause does not have a Subject, and in this case the Subject is also the Subject in the primary clause. When the Subject of the non-finite clause is expressed, it should appear in oblique or in possessive form. The meaning of non-finite clause is the same as its finite counterpart. Thus, non-finite enhancing clause can belong to one of these subtypes: time, manner, or cause.

_Nearing the entrance, I shook hands with my acquaintances._
(When / As I neared the entrance…)

_Her aunt having left the room, I declared my passionate love for Celia._
(When her aunt had left the room)

(Quirk and Greenbaum, 1987: 311)

The relation in this category might be expressed explicitly through the use of conjunctions or implicitly by taxposition.

_Being a man of ingenuity, he soon repaired the machine._

(Quirk and Greenbaum, 1987: 327)

2.3.4. Summary

So far expansion in English has been investigated thoroughly, from which some remarks can be made as follows.

1. Expansion refers to the relation between clauses in a clause complex in which one clause expands on another by one of three ways: by elaborating, by extending, or by enhancing. In this way expansion can be divided into three categories: elaboration, extension and enhancement, which are labeled =, +, and x respectively.

2. Each category of expansion is further divided into subtypes. Elaboration consists of exposition, exemplification and clarification; extension is divided into addition, variation and alternation; and enhancement is classified into temporal, spatial, manner and causal-conditional.

3. All of these may be combined with both types of interdependency, either parataxis or hypotaxis. In other words, these types of expansion are considered in terms of
taxis. In this way we have paratactic and hypotactic elaboration, paratactic and hypotactic extension, paratactic and hypotactic enhancement.

Chapter 3
EXPANSION RELATIONS BETWEEN CLAUSES IN CLAUSE COMPLEXES
IN THE SHORT STORY
“THE LAW OF LIFE”

3.1. Introduction
In the previous chapter, the relation of expansion between clauses in clause complexes has been investigated thoroughly. It is clear that expansion can be one of the three types: elaboration, extension or enhancement. In this chapter we will try to seek for the realization of this relation in the short story “The Law of Life” written by the noted American writer Jack London. In other words, this chapter will offer an analysis of the story in terms of expansion to find out some characteristics of the genre (narrative) as well as to understand the ideas expressed by the writer.

3.2. The chosen text
This text is taken from a collection of short American stories, entitled Twenty English – Vietnamese short stories, compiled and translated by Cat Tien and Ai Nguyet and published by Ho Chi Minh City Publishing House in 1996. The story “The Law of Life” was written by Jack London and first published in Mc Clure’s Magazine in 1901. Since its appearance, the story has made big impression on the reader and has been translated into many languages in the world. The story describes the thought of an old Indian, named Old Koskoosh, somewhere in the north, while waiting for death. Old Koskoosh, being too old to keep up with everybody, was abandoned in the snow by his tribe and his relatives. By the fire, waiting for the last hours of his life, Koskoosh thought about his youth and remembered the old days, especially about his experience
with the moose that he saw struggle with the wolves until it finally died. During this
time the old Indian was surrounded by the wolves himself, to which he had to
surrender in the end, when he realized ‘the law of life’ and accepted his death as
something inevitable.

3.3. A register analysis of the story
According to Halliday, language exists and must be studied in its context. Particular
aspects of a given context define the meanings likely to be expressed and the language
likely to be used to express those meanings. Thus, to arrive at a valid and accurate
interpretation of the given story (hence called the text), first we should understand
certain aspects of its context such as the topic, language users, the medium of
communication, i.e. its register. Register, as defined by Eggins (1994: 26), is “the
immediate situational context in which the text was produced”. It is seen as a linguistic
consequence of the interaction of aspects of context which are called by Halliday
“field, tenor and mode”. Field, tenor and mode determine the experiential meaning,
interpersonal meaning and textual meaning, respectively.

In order to understand a text, apart from its register, it is necessary to understand the
genre of the text. Genre is defined by Thompson (1996: 36) as ‘register plus purpose’.
Martin, cited in Eggins (1996: 26), also offers the definition of genre “a staged, goal-
oriented, purposeful activity in which speakers engage as members of our culture
(1984: 25). We shall try to give an analysis of the text in terms of its genre, field, tenor
and mode of the text as follows.

3.3.1. Genre
Genre is how people use language to achieve culturally appropriate goals and is seen
as a manifestation of language choices with a special purpose (Eggins 1996:25). The
text given, being a short story, belongs to the narrative genre. This can be shown
clearly through the use of lexis such as nouns that identify the character “Indian”,
“chief”, “daughter”, “son”, “tribemen” etc, the use of proper names “Koskoosh”,

“Sitcum-to-ha”, “Zing-ha”, “Koo-tee”, the adjectives that provide descriptions of the characters and settings “old”, “mighty”, “snowy”, the use of past tense verbs “was sitting”, “worked”, “listened”, “hated”… At the beginning of the story, the main character was introduced “an old Indian named Koskoosh” and the story is told from the point of view of this character. In the text, one can find many types of clauses, both clause simplexes and clause complexes, both expansion and projection. Moreover, although the story does not have many actions, it still goes through a development, which is the main character’s realization of “the law of life”. The peak of the story was reached at the end when old Koskoosh accepted his fate as something all living things in the world must undergo. The genetic structure of the text also strictly follows that of the narrative genre: orientation, complication, sequence of events, resolution and a coda. Thus, all these features together confirm that the text has achieved its social purpose – to tell the readers a story.

3.3.2. Field

Field of discourse refers to what is happening, to the nature of the social action that is taking place (Hoang Van Van, 2006: 40). In terms of field, the text is a short story written to entertain the readers and express the writer’s attitude to death from the main character’s point of view. He is an old man left in a clearing by his tribe and his son with only a fire and some wood to burn in a few hours. And during this short moment he realized and accepted his death as something unavoidable. In the text, one can find different process types, mostly material ones. Their role is to refer to the events the main character recounts. A significant number of mental processes express the character’s belief, opinion. Finally, there are many examples of relational processes identifying the character or assign the attributive function for entities in the text. The participants in the text include actor (old man, his son, the women, a child, the moose..), senser, identified and carrier, etc.

3.3.3. Tenor
Tenor is defined by Eggins (1994: 63) as “the social role relationships played by interactants”. In functional grammar, tenor is expressed in terms of interpersonal meaning, or the Mood system. As for the speech function in the text, we can see the two role relationships, one between the writer and the readers, and the other between the characters (the main character and his son). In this story, the writer plays the role of the narrator using neutral and daily lexis. The Mood in the text is mostly declarative. This is obvious as this text belongs to the narrative type. Most of the clauses in the text contain subject and finite verbs, in which the finite elements are combined with the past tense and there are very few modal elements (only ‘could’ to show ability and ‘would’ to denote future.

3.3.4. Mode

Mode, according to Eggins, is “the role language is playing in an interaction”. The Mode of a text is concerned with the channel in which communication takes place and the medium of communication. In its organic form, this is a written text as it is not a face-to-face communication, and the writer uses language to reflect on his experience. The channel in this text mostly belongs to the visual one. There is a high lexical density with a large number of content words. The mode also concerns with the Thematic structure of the text. However, the Theme-Rheme patterns will not be our concern in this small thesis.

3.4. The relation of expansion in the story
3.4.1. Data

1st ll (1) His eyes were old ll (2) and he could not see, ll (3) but his ears were wide open to every sound ll
2nd line (4) She was beating the dogs \( \alpha \) (5) trying to make them to stand in front of the snow sleds \( \beta \)
\[ \alpha = \beta \text{ (clarification)} \]

3rd line (6) The long snowy ride waited \( \alpha \) (7) while the short days of the Northland refused to linger \( \beta \)

4th line (8) The tribe could not wait for its death \( \alpha \) (9) and Koshkoosh was dying \( \beta \)

5th line (10) He was his son, the son of Koshkoosh \( \alpha \) (11) and Koshkoosh was being left to die \( \beta \)

6th line (12) As the women worked, \( \alpha \) (13) old Koskoosh could hear his son’s voice drive them to work faster \( \beta \)

7th line (14) He listened harder, \( \alpha \) (15) it was the last time he would hear that voice \( \beta \)

8th line (16) A child cried \( \alpha \) (17) and the women sang softly to quiet him \( \beta \)

9th line (18) It would die soon \( \alpha \) (19) and they would burn a hole in the frozen ground to bury it \( \beta \)

10th line (20) Listen to the dogs’ cry, \( \alpha \) (21) how they hated the work \( \beta \)

11th line (22) They had passed out of his life \( \alpha \) (23) and he must meet his last hours alone \( \beta \)
12th lll (24) A man stood beside him lll (25) and placed a hand gently on his old head lll + 2 (positive addition)

13th lll (26) He remembered the other old men, lll (27) whose sons had not done this lll but left without a good-bye lll

\[ \alpha = \beta_1 \text{ (clarification)} + \beta_2 \text{ (adversative addition)} \]

14th lll (28) His mind traveled into the past lll (29) until his son’s voice brought him back lll

\[ \alpha \times \beta \text{ (temporal)} \]

15th lll (30) the morning is grey lll (31) and the cold is here lll + 2 (positive addition)

16th lll (32) It will snow soon, lll (33) even now it is snowing lll + 2 (positive addition)

17th lll (34) Their loads are heavy lll (35) and their stomachs flat from little food lll + 2 (positive addition)

18th lll (36) The way is long lll (37) and they travel fast lll + 2 (positive addition)

19th lll (38) I am tired lll (39) and all is well lll + 2 (positive addition)

20th lll (40) He lowered his head to chest lll (41) and listened to the snow lll (42) as his son rode away lll

\[ \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 \text{ (positive addition)} \times \beta \text{ (temporal)} \]

21st lll (43) One by one, the fire would eat them lll (44) and step by step death would cover him lll + 2 (positive addition)

22nd lll (45) When the last stick was gone, lll (46) the cold would come lll \[ \alpha \text{ (temporal)} \]

23rd lll (47) First, his feet would freeze, lll (48) then his hands lll \[ l \times 2 \text{ (temporal)} \]
24th lll (49) The cold would travel slowly from the outside to the inside of him lll and he would rest lll

1 + 2 (positive addition)

25th lll (51) He felt sorrow lll (52) but he did not think of his sorrow lll

1 + 2 (adversative addition)

26th lll (53) He had lived close to the earth lll (54) and the law was not new to him lll

1 + 2 (positive addition)

27th lll (55) He placed another stick on the fire lll (56) and began to remember his past lll

1 + 2 (positive addition)

28th lll (57) And then he remembered lll (58) when he was a small boy, lll (59) how he watched the wolves kill a moose lll

α x ββ (temporal) x βα

29th lll (60) He was with his friend Zingha, lll (61) who was killed later in the Yucon River lll

α = β (clarification)

30th lll (62) He’s an old one, lll (63) he cannot run like the others lll (64) and is falling behind lll

1 x 21 (reason-result) + 22 (positive addition)

31st lll (65) The wolves had separated him from the others lll (66) and they will never leave him lll

1 + 2 (positive addition)

32nd lll (67) By day and night, never stopping, lll (68) binding at his nose, lll (69) binding at his feet, lll (70) the wolves stayed with him until the end lll

x β1 + β2 + β3 α

33rd lll (71) They could see the tragedy lll (72) as it happened lll

α x β (temporal)

34th lll (73) One wolf had been caught by the heavy feet of the moose lll (74) and kicked to death lll
1 + 2 (positive addition)

35th lll (75) The moose had fallen down ll (76) and crushed two wolves lll

1 + 2 (positive addition)

36th lll (77) He and Zingha moved closer on their stomach ll (78) so the wolves would not see them lll

α x β (reason – result)

37th lll (79) And the picture was so strong, ll (80) it had stayed with him all his life lll

1 + 2 (addition)

38th lll (81) His dull blind eyes saw the end again ll (82) as they had in the far-off past lll

α x β (manner: comparison)

39th lll (83) The fire began to die out ll (84) and the cold entered his body lll

1 + 2 (positive addition)

40th lll (85) No, it wasn’t wood ll (86) and his body shook ll (87) as he recognized the sound lll

1 + 2α (positive addition) x 2β (temporal)

41st lll (88) He saw the clean bones lying in a blood pool, the gray wolves, their shining eyes, their long wet tongues and sharp teeth, ll (89) and he saw them form a circle and move even slowly closer and closer lll

1 + 2 (positive addition)

42nd lll (90) His hand went to the fire ll (91) and he pulled a burning stick from it lll

1 + 2 (positive addition)

43rd lll (92) The wolf saw the fire ll (93) but was not afraid lll

1 + 2 (adversative addition)

44th lll (94) It turned ll (95) and shouted into the air to his brother wolves lll

1 + 2 (positive addition)

45th lll (96) They answered with hunger in their throats ll (97) and came running lll

1 + 2 (positive addition)

46th lll (98) He waved his burning stick at them ll (99) but they did not move away lll
1  + 2 (adversative addition)

47th ll (100) The circle grew smaller and smaller ll (101) and not one wolf stayed behind ll

1  + 2 (positive addition)

48th ll (102) It fell in the snow, ll (103) and the light went off ll

1  + 2 (positive addition)

49th ll (104) The circle of wolves moved closer ll (105) and once again the old Indian saw the picture of the moose ll (106) as it struggled ll (107) before the end came ll

1  + 2α (addition) x2βα (temporal) x2ββ (temporal)

Notes:

• Boundary Markers
  lll : clause complex boundary
  ll : clause boundary

• Type of dependency
  1, 2, 3, …: Parataxis
  α, β, χ, …: Hypotaxis

• Logico-semantic relations (Expansion)
  = : elaboration
  + : extension
  x : enhancement

• Others
  1st, 2nd, 3rd, …: number of clause complex in the text
  (1), (2), (3), …: number of clause in the text
3.4.2. Analysis

It should be noted here that although a text might be explored more comprehensively from many perspectives such as Transitivity, Mood, Theme and cohesion, in this analysis we just concentrate on the relation of expansion between clauses in clause nexuses in the text. For this reason, the data presented above only consist of clause complexes, which belong to the category of expansion. Many other clause simplexxes and clause complexes of projection type, which are not the focus of this study, are not included. Also excluded are the embedded clauses which function as Postmodifier in a nominal or adverbial group or as Head in a nominal group.

In the analysis, the ordinal numbers at the beginning of each clause complex are used to represent the number of clause complexes, while the ordinal numbers in brackets denote the number of clauses in the complexes. The conjunctive signals are underlined.

As shown in the data, in the text given there are 49 clause complexes with 107 clauses. At the first glance, it can be noticed that some of these complexes contain what Halliday calls ‘nesting’, i.e. there are different layers in the same nexus. For example, clause complex 49 contains 4 clauses connected in two layers with 4 relations belonging to two types of expansion (addition on the first layer and temporal on the second). This illustrates the view that the relation between clauses in the text is very complicated. Moreover, all the three types of expansion – elaboration, extension and enhancement - are present in the collected data. Of the highest frequency is extension, which can be seen in the clause complex numbered 1st, 4th, 5th, 7th, 8th, 9th, 10th, 11th, 12th, 15th, 16th, 17th, 18th, 19th, 20th, 21st, 24th, 25th, 26th, 27th, 30th, 31st, 34th, 35th, 37th, 39th, 40th, 41st, 42nd, 43rd, 44th, 45th, 46th, 47th, 48th, 49th (38 complexes). Except for the nexus containing clause 3, which is a finite clause and clause 32, which is a non-finite one, all of these complexes are of paratactic relation. Enhancement is also a rather dominant type with 12 complexes of addition. Elaboration is a very rare type, with only 3 complexes, all of which belong to clarification category (see appendix 2 for more detail). The classification of expansion in the text is presented in the table below.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of expansion</th>
<th>Paratactic</th>
<th>Hypotactic</th>
</tr>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Finite</td>
<td>Non-finite</td>
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<tr>
<td>Elaboration</td>
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<td>Exposition</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Causal-conditional</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: *Types of Expansion in the short story “The Law of Life”*

Looking at the table, we can draw some remarks as follows:

Firstly, as shown by the statistics in the table, the most frequent use of extension, with 38 clause complexes accounting for 72%, and the lowest frequency of elaboration (only 3 clause complexes, occupying 6%) indicate that the text is mainly organized to give more information, rather than explain by restating information in other ways. This is a typical feature of narrative, the genre this text belongs to. Another feature of narrative genre is shown in the fact that there are 12 enhancing clauses in the whole text (22%), 10 of which are of temporal subtype and two belongs to subtypes of manner and causal: the writer’s concern is to provide the readers with circumstantial elements of the facts, especially the sequence of events in the text (temporal category).

Secondly, it is clear from the analysis that there are only 7 implicit conjunctive structures (2nd, 7th, 10th, 16th, 30th, 32nd, 37th complexes) while those of explicit ones are 42. The fact that explicit conjunctions far more exceeds implicitss tell us that the writer does not leave much for the reader to decode but makes it simple for the
sake of the reader. This is also a feature of narratives, bearing in mind that the text is a story written to entertain the reader.

Thirdly, looking more closely at the use of conjunctive signals in the text, we can find that there is a very high percentage of conjunction ‘and’ used to connect the plots in the story. The temporal conjunctions (while, as, before, when, and then, then) are also used frequently to denote the chronological order of facts in the text. There is no spatial conjunction in the whole text; this can be explained by the fact that there is no need for it, as the story describes the thought of an old man waiting for his death in the same place in a clearing.

Finally, it should be commented that the use of conjunction ‘and’ in some nexuses does not only refer to extension (positive addition) but also denote enhancement (temporal). For example, in 12th A man stood beside him and placed a hand gently on his old head or in 42nd: His hand went to the fire and he pulled a burning stick from it. Clearly, conjunction and in these nexuses can also mean ‘and then’ to indicate the temporal sequence. Moreover, certain complexes can be interpreted in several ways, for example complex 49th: The circle of wolves moved closer and once again the old Indian saw the picture of the moose as it struggled before the end came. This clause can be analyzed as 1 + 2α x2βα x2ββ, with the fourth clause as the dependent clause of the third, or as 1 + 2αα x2αβ x2β, with the fourth clause dependent on the second and the third, and the third dependent on the second. Thus, this reflects the complexity of language in general and of expansion in particular.

3.4.3. Conclusion

So far, the expansion between clauses in a total of 49 clause complexes taken from the given text has been investigated thoroughly. It can be said that the aim of the analysis has been achieved: some of the features of the genre and the intention of the writer have been discovered through the study of this relation between clauses in the text. First, the fact that the text has little implicit conjunctive structure tells us that it belongs to narrative genre, whose aim is not to challenge the reader, but to entertain him. Also,
the high frequent use of a type of extension – addition - indicates that the text is mainly organized to extend – to give more information. Moreover, the use of enhancing clauses suggests that the writer is providing the reader with necessary circumstantial information (mostly temporal) so as to understand the sequence of events in the story. Finally, some nexuses in the text have very complicated structures, consisting of different layers showing the degree of grammatical depth between clauses in a clause complex – a feature tells us that the text belongs to written mode. Undoubtedly, these findings help to confirm the importance of the study of functional grammar and of its application in text analysis, so as to discover the semantic and stylistic features of different texts. It can be said without exaggeration that ‘systemic linguistics provides a very useful theoretical and analytical framework for exploring and explaining how texts mean.’ (Eggins, 1994:307).
Part C

CONCLUSION

1. Recapitulation

At this point, the writing of *Expansion and its realization in the short story The Law of Life by Jack London* has been finished. Now we shall sum up the results of the study.

In chapter 2 of the study, the theoretical background of the most important issues related to expansion has been mentioned and explored: an overview of Systemic Functional Grammar, its fundamental concepts such as three metafunctions, the rank scale, definition and types of clause complex.

In chapter 3, expansion in English has been re-examined. We are now sure that expansion, one of the two lexico-semantic relationships between clauses in a clause complex, consists of three types: elaboration, extension and enhancement. These three types are further divided into subtypes. Rather, elaboration is classified into exposition, exemplification and clarification; extension consists of addition, variation and alternation; and enhancement comprises of temporal, spatial, manner and causal-conditional relations. Each of these subtypes is then investigated in terms of taxis, or logical dependency between clauses: paratactic and hypotactic relations. This classification can be summarized in the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(i) paratactic</th>
<th>(ii) hypotactic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(a) elaboration</td>
<td>John didn’t wait;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>he ran away.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>= 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>John ran away,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>α</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>which surprised everyone.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>= β</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) extension</td>
<td>John ran away,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>and Fred stayed behind.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>+ 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>John ran away,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>α</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>whereas Fred stayed behind.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>+ β</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c) enhancement</td>
<td>John was scared,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>so he ran away.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>X 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>John ran away,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>α</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>because he was scared.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>X β</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Halliday (1994: 220)*
In chapter 4 of this study, an attempt to analyze a text in terms of expansion has been made. Through this analysis, some features of the narrative genre, the genre this text belongs to, have been discovered, supporting our view that functional grammar provides us with an effective tool for text analysis. With the findings in this chapter, we can say for sure that the study on expansion has helped us to understand the text better.

To some extent, it can be said that the study has achieved the aims set out in the introduction.

2. Implications

As it has been mentioned in the introduction, the study does not only aim at theoretical findings, but more importantly, it is hoped to utilize these results to apply in reality. With respect to this intention, the study can have the following implications:

First, the findings provide us with a useful tool to analyze a text in terms of expansion. In this way they help us to discover some of the features of different types of texts, which are very important for the understanding of English texts.

Second, this knowledge is extremely helpful in helping students develop their language skills, especially those of reading and writing, which involve a good understanding of logical and semantic relation between elements in a clause complex, and more broadly, in a text.

Third, the awareness of the expansion relations undoubtedly help English learners to avoid mistakes in English – Vietnamese and Vietnamese- English translation.

Finally, functional grammar is still quite new to Vietnamese learners. It is hoped that, with the knowledge acquired during the time conducting this study, the writer will have a chance to introduce Functional Grammar to English-major students at Nghe An Teacher Training College.
3. Suggestion for further study

This paper is only limited to the study on one of the two of the relation between clauses in a clause complex – expansion. There are still many other aspects that have not been touched such as the issue of embedded or down-ranked clauses. Also, the ambiguous cases where the relation between clauses is difficult to determine haven’t been mentioned. In the analysis, the text “The Law of Life” is only investigated in terms of expansion. We would have a deeper and more comprehensive interpretation of the text if it were considered from the perspectives of Theme, Mood, and Transitivity. Moreover, the text chosen is one that belongs to narrative genre. In the future, a text of another genre might be taken for another analysis.
REFERENCE

**Vietnamese**


**English**


