

An analysis of the Move Structure features and lexico- grammatical features used the original literary narrative to “To Build a Fire”.

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CHAPTER 1: Introduction

Rationale and Significance of the Problem

Over the last three decades, there has been an increasing amount of research carried out in the fields of genre, both within and across the various use of language domains. For example those carried by Dudley-Evans(1986), Hopkins & Dudley-Evans (1988); Rothery (1986); Swales (1990); Bhatia (1993); Holmes (1997); Williams (1999); Henry & Roseberry (2001) and Shamraz (2002) to name but a few. Genre analysis has become a popular framework for evaluating many types of texts. Analysis can be taken from several sources such as thesis documents, articles, research articles, dissertations, text-books, reports and editorials. All of the above can be combined to serve as a tool for developing educational practices in rhetoric, linguistics, grammar use, and composition- studies, English for both specific and Academic purposes. This interest has been motivated by the need for a comprehensive model for text analysis.

For the purposes of this text, the researchers has decided to do a text analysis using a literary text. The text that was chosen for this particular genre study was the original short story by the author Jack London. The narrative is called “To Build a Fire”. The narrative is fifteen pages in length, with a total of 7096 words in the text. The Rothery (1986) schematic was chosen as the methodological model that could be used for the process of an analysis of the text. The process of this schematic involve 3 moves which are as follows: Move 1Orientation, Move 2 Complication and finally Move 3 Resolution. Following this three step process the narrative was broken down into these three constituent parts. Following this process the narrative form now broken into its three parts of Orientation, Complication and Resolution were separated and the discourse was examined for its Micro features. In particular looking for the Lexico-grammatical features of the narrative.

The final reason that this particular text was chosen by the researcher was that in his capacity as a lecturer at university level he has been responsible for the teaching of several teaching courses in the field of literature. And the narrative that was chosen for this particular case study was selected as it has been taught by the researcher several times during the running of the class. So the findings of the research would hopefully provide an insight into new learning methodologies and teaching strategies when teaching literary narratives. Literature can also be classified according to historical periods, genres, and the influence of political periods of historical change. While the concept of genre has broadened over the centuries, in general, a genre consists of artistic works that fall within a certain central theme; examples of genre include romance, mystery, crime, fantasy, erotica, and adventure, among others.

Objective of the study

1. To examine the generic patterns of a narrative text using a 3 step move structure.
2. To analyze the Lexico-grammatical structure of a literary narrative.

Significance of the study

This study will emphasize the patterns of a narrative discourse, using the Rothery (1986) schematic. The move structure is composed of a 3 move structure as follows: Move 1 Orientation, Move 2 Complication, Move 3 Resolution. This 3 move process is followed by an examination of the Lexico-grammatical features of the narrative.

The process will highlight the usefulness of using the above schematic in order to promote a readers understanding of the vocabulary and grammatical features of the narrative. The study could help to promote better teaching and learning of ESL, especially in the field of generic analysis.

Scope of the study

Content : An analysis of the Move Structure features and lexico- grammatical features used the original literary narrative to “To Build a Fire”.

Definition of Terms

1 Genre analysis is generally accepted to be based on two central assumptions. The first the features of a similar group of texts depending on the social context of their creation and secondly the specific features that can be described in a way that relates a text other texts like it. See Hyland (2002:114.) A useful model for analysis of literary text is the Rothery (1986) schematic for the analysis of a narrative text.

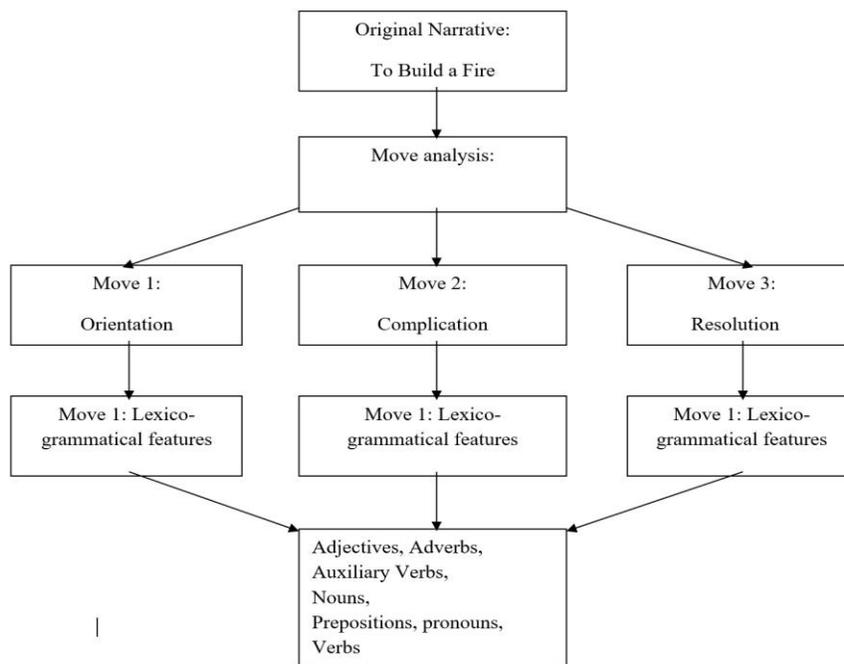


2 Literature may consist of texts based on factual information. A category that may also include polemical works such as biography, and reflective essays, or it may consist of texts or narratives that are based upon imagination such as fiction, poetry, or drama. The term literature focuses on the narrative “To Build a Fire” by Jack London.

3 Move Structure refers to the 3 step move structure according to the Rothery (1986) schematic.

4 Lexico- Grammatical features refers to the Micron analysis of grammatical features of the text and include: 4.1 Adjectives 4.2 Adverbs 4.3 Auxiliary verbs 4.4 Articles 4.5 Conjunctions 4.6 Nouns 4.7 prepositions 4.8 pronouns 4.9 verbs

Figure 1 Conceptual Framework



CHAPTER II: LITERATURE REVIEW

Genre studies is an academic subject which studies genre theory as a branch of general critical theory in several different fields, including the literary or artistic, linguistic, or rhetorical. Literary genre studies is a structure centered approach to the study of genre and genre theory in literary theory, it also can be applied to the study of film studies theory, and other cultural theories. The study of a genre in this way examines the structural elements that combine in the telling of a narrative and finds patterns in

collections of the narratives. When these elements known as orsemiotic codes begin to carry inherent information, a genre can be seen to emerge.

A linguistic genre study is known as Systemic Functional Linguistics SFL, and is also sometimes referred to as the Sydney School of genre analysis. SFL scholars have come to believe that language structure is an integral part of a text's social context and function. SFL scholars often conduct research that focuses on genres usefulness in pedagogy. English for Specific Purposes ESP is another school of literary genre studies that examines the pedagogical implications of genre. ESP scholars focus on how genre can help non-native English speakers, often it is studied at upper-level academic program who are learning how to use the language and its conventions through the application of genre such as the study of discourse analysis.

Definition of Systemic Functional Linguistics

According to Haliday (1994) Systemic Functional Linguistics SFL is a theory of language centered on the idea of language function. While SFL accounts for the syntactic structure of language, it places the functionality of language as central in its preference to more structural techniques, which place the elements of language and their combinations as central. SFL starts at social context, and looks at how language both acts upon, and is constrained by, this social context. A central notion is is that language is analyzed in terms of four strata: Context, Semantics, Lexico-Grammatical and Phonology-Graphology. Context concerns the Field or what is going on in the study, Tenor looks at the social roles and relationships between the participants and the Mode is the aspects of the channel of communication such as monologic/dialogic, spoken/written, +/- visual-contact. Systemic semantics includes what is usually called 'pragmatics'. Semantics is divided into three components which are as follows

- Ideational Semantics or the propositional content;
- Interpersonal Semantics is concerned with speech-function, exchange structure, expression of attitude;
- Textual Semantics is the study of how the text is structured as a message, for example theme-structure, given/new, rhetorical structure.

The Lexico-Grammatical concerns are about the syntactic organization of words into utterances. Even here, a functional approach is taken, involving analysis of the utterance in terms of roles such as Actor, Agent/Medium, Theme, and Mood

Definition of English for Specific Purposes

English for specific purposes ESP, not to be confused with specialized English, is a sphere of teaching the English language for groups and categories such as Business English, Technical English, Scientific English, English for medical professionals, English for hotels and catering, English for tourism, English for the Arts etc. Aviation English as ESP is taught to pilots, air traffic controllers and civil aviation cadets who are going to use it in radio communications ESP can be also considered as an avatar of language for specific purposes. And according to Dudley Evans and St. John (1998) they define ESP to identify several key roles for the ESP practitioner which are as follows:

- Defined to meet specific needs of the learners
- Makes use of underlying methodology and activities of the discipline it serves
- Is centered on the language appropriate to these activities in terms of grammar, lexis, register, study skills, discourse and genre.
- *Variable Characteristics*
- May be related to or designed for specific disciplines
- May use, in specific teaching situations, a different methodology from that of General English
- Is likely to be designed for adult learners, either at a tertiary level institution or in a professional work situation. It could, however, be for learners at secondary school level
- Is generally designed for intermediate or advanced students
- Most ESP courses assume some basic knowledge of the language systems

Observations:

According to Addison who stated that "One of the most fundamental claims of modern linguistic analysis is that all languages have a **grammar** It could not be any other way. If a language is spoken, it must have a phonetic and phonological system; since it has words and sentences, it must also have morphology and a syntax; and since these words and sentences have systematic meanings, there must obviously be semantic principles as well. Of course, these are the very things that make up a grammar." And according to Greenbaum (1996) who stated that "Ancient attitudes to grammar still survive: many people are in awe of it, know little about it, tend to fear or dislike it, often find it baffling or boring if exposed to it at school, and yet a minority is fascinated by it: a field in which precise scholarship and nit-picking pedantry have co-existed for centuries."

The Role of Grammar in the Teaching of Writing

“We would aim at a program embracing deep and wide knowledge of grammar as highly useful, perhaps proclaiming that ignorance of grammar is far more limiting than knowledge, that it creates a vacuum within which dysfunctional prescriptive norms are enforced. We would aim for a program that values home languages as the foundation for the evolution of a highly effective writing voice. What our students know already is much too deep to be taught, and we cannot afford to foster distrust. We need to get down to the business of helping them put that fine instrument to work in the creation of a range of effective texts, using a conscious understanding of language as an important adjunct in that process.” This is the view of Kolln and Hancock (2005).

Applications of Grammatical Study

According to Greenbaum and Nelson (2002) who are quoted as stating “There are several applications of grammatical study: (1) A recognition of grammatical structures is often essential for punctuation; (2) A study of one’s native grammar is helpful when one studies the grammar of a foreign language; (3) A knowledge of grammar is a help in the interpretation of literary as well as nonliterary texts, since the interpretation of a passage sometimes depends crucially on grammatical analysis; (4) A study of the grammatical resources of English is useful in composition: in particular, it can help you to evaluate the choices available to you when you come to revise an earlier written draft.”

Syntax and Morphology

Grammar is concerned with how sentences and utterances are formed. In a typical English sentence, we can see the two most basic principles of grammar, the arrangement of items (syntax) and the structure of items (morphology) for example:

I gave my sister a sweater for her birthday.

The meaning of this sentence is obviously created by words such as *gave, sister, sweater* and *birthday*. But there are other words (*I, my, a, for, her*) which contribute to the meaning, and, additionally, aspects of individual words and the way they are arranged which enable us to interpret what the sentence means.” This is according to Carter and McCarthy (2006).

Definition of Linguistics?

Linguistics is the study of language. Knowledge of linguistics, however, is different from knowledge of a language. Just as a person is able to drive a car without understanding the inner workings

of the engine, so, too, can a speaker use a language without any conscious knowledge of its internal structure. Conversely, a linguist can know and understand the internal structure of a language without actually speaking it. A linguist, then, is not an individual who speaks more than one language, more accurately called *polyglot* or *bilingual* or *multilingual*. Rather, a linguist is concerned with language as a human phenomenon. Linguists study grammar, the social and psychological aspects of language use, and the relationships among languages, both historical and present-day. The field of linguistics, like any complex field, includes several major divisions.

Formal Linguistics

Formal linguistics is the study of the structures and processes of language, that is, how language works and is organized. Formal linguists study the structures of different languages, and by identifying and studying the elements common among them, seek to discover the most efficient way to describe language in general. There are three main schools of thought in formal linguistics according to Chomsky (1957)

(1) The *traditional, or prescriptive*, approach to grammar is probably familiar to most of us. This the theory according to Crystal (1980) It is what we are usually taught in school. "A noun is a person, place, or thing" is a typical definition in a traditional grammar. Such grammars typically prescribe rules of correct or preferred usage.

(2) *Structural linguistics*, a principally American phenomenon of the mid-20th century, is typified by the work of Leonard Bloomfield, who drew on ideas of the behaviorist school of psychology. Structuralisms are primarily concerned with phonology, morphology, and syntax (described below). They focus on the physical features of utterances with little regard for meaning or lexicon (Crystal, 1980). They divide words into form classes distinguished according to grammatical features. For example, a noun is defined in terms of its position in a sentence and its inflections, such as the -s for plural.

(3) The *generative/transformational* approach to the study of grammar was introduced by Noam Chomsky in 1957 in his seminal work, *Syntactic Structures*. Here he traced a relationship between the "deep structure" of sentences (what is in the mind) and their "surface structure" (what is spoken or written). For example, the surface structure of the sentence, "The postman was bitten by the dog," was derived from the deep structure, "The dog bit the postman," through the application of a passive transformation. From transformational/generative grammar arose the theory of Universal Grammar. This widely accepted theory starts from the perception that all languages share certain linguistic features



(universals). The goal of this theory is to explain the uniformity of language acquisition among humans despite ostensible differences in their native languages.

Phonetics is the study of the sounds of language and their physical properties. Phonetics describes how speech sounds are produced by the vocal apparatus (the lungs, vocal cords, tongue, teeth, etc.) and provides a framework for their classification.

Phonology involves analyzing how sounds function in a given language or dialect. For example, /p/ has two possible sounds in English depending on its position in a word. If you place a sheet of paper near your mouth and pronounce the words *pin* and *spin*, the paper will vibrate after the /p/ in the first word but not after the same sound in the second word. This puff of air occurs when /p/ is in the initial position of a word in English. Phonologists examine such phonetic shifts to construct theories about linguistic sounds in one language that can be used in comparing linguistic systems. The analysis of sounds in different languages can be very useful for foreign language teachers.

Morphology is the study of the structure of words. Morphologists study minimal units of meaning, called *morphemes*, and investigate the possible combinations of these units in a language to form words. For example, the word "imperfections" is composed of four morphemes: *im* + *perfect* + *ion* + *s*. The root, *perfect*, is transformed from an adjective into a noun by the addition of *ion*, made negative with *im*, and pluralized by *s*.

Syntax is the study of the structure of sentences. Syntacticians describe how words combine into phrases and clauses and how these combine to form sentences. For example, "I found a coin yesterday" is embedded as a relative clause in the sentence, "The coin that I found yesterday is quite valuable." Syntacticians describe the rules for converting the first sentence into the second.

Semantics is the study of meaning in language. The goal of semantic study is to explain how sequences of language are matched with their proper meanings and placed in certain environments by speakers of the language. The importance of meaning is revealed in the following well known example from Chomsky (1957): "Colorless green ideas sleep furiously." Though grammatical, this sentence is largely meaningless in ordinary usage.

Applied Linguistics

The findings of linguistics, like the findings of any other theoretical study, can be applied to the solution of practical problems, as well as to innovations in everyday areas involving language. This is the mandate of applied linguistics. Applied linguists draw from theories of language acquisition to develop first and second language teaching methodologies and to implement successful literacy programs; they may draw from theories of

sociolinguistics to develop special teaching strategies for speakers of nonstandard English. Applied linguists may also engage in language planning by developing alphabets and grammars for unwritten languages and by writing dictionaries. They are sometimes asked to be expert witnesses in legal cases involving language. Computer corporations employ applied linguists to examine speech synthesis and speech recognition by automated machines. In short, applied linguists apply the theories and tools of formal linguistics, sociolinguistics, and psycholinguistics in a wide variety of socially useful ways.

Macro Structure in Linguistics

In linguistics and discourse analysis, *semantic macrostructures* are the overall, global meanings of discourse, usually also described in terms of *topic, gist, or upshot*. These semantic macrostructures (global meanings or topics) are typically expressed in for instance the headlines and lead of a news report, or the title and the abstract of a scholarly article. Macrostructures of discourse are distinguished from its microstructures, that is, the local structures of words, clauses, sentences or turns in conversation. Macrostructures may be derived from microstructures by operations such as abstracting that is, leaving out or summarizing specific details. Semantic macrostructures or topics define what is called the global coherence of discourse.

Macro Features

Micro features linguistics is a branch of linguistics that concerns itself with the study of language systems in the abstract, without regard to the meaning or notional content of linguistic expressions. In micro-linguistics, language is reduced to the abstract mental elements of syntax and phonology. It contrasts with macro-linguistics, which includes meanings, and especially with sociolinguistics, which studies how language and meaning function within human social systems. The term *micro-linguistics* was first used in print by George L. Trager, in an article published in 1949 in *Studies in Linguistics: Occasional Papers*. This is according to Mathews (2002).

Related Researches

In 2010 Hasrati conducted a research into the area of the area of genre analysis, particularly those conducted in Iran, have exclusively used text analysis. While such investigations have led to important understandings of generic features of texts, it can be argued that incorporating interview data for triangulation can lead to better understanding of generic features of texts. Along this line, this paper reports the results of a qualitative study of Persian RA abstracts written by native speakers of Persian. Taking a macro and a micro structure framework, this article will look into the ‘moves’ and ‘author identity’ in such RA abstracts. Two

patterns are often associated with English academic prose: *Introduction-Methods-Results-Discussion* and CARS (Create-a-research-space) and according to Lores (2004). This, however, did not seem to be the case in most RA abstracts under study. The other feature of Persian RA abstracts to be explored is the absence of first person pronoun. One preliminary hypothesis would be to attribute this to a carry-over of positivistic traditions (Hyland, 2001), though qualitative interviews pointed to a close link between lack of reference to self and modesty as a cultural norm among the participants under study.

Hull (1987) postulates that students can use grammatical analysis of narratives to examine literary patterns and to understand patterns of texts and be able to source the grammatical patterns and correct them. In Hull's study the sources of sentence level errors and were located by comparing the performance of more skilled and less skilled college students as they attempt to analyze and correctly identify the grammar structures in use. The students were required to give feedback on the location of any grammatical patterns that were identified or highlighted. Findings found that more skilled students were able to identify the grammatical patterns in use than those of a lower level ability. Both groups performed similarly on the assignments that were assigned to them using an identical schematic. Analysis of the students work showed that three strategies were required to make to changes: consulting, intuiting and comprehending with varying tasks and conditions. The study was divided into non-native speakers and native speaking students both studying English and a comparison of the student's understanding of the narratives. The researcher concludes by using this schematic teachers of students using original narratives can use this method to identify and increase students understand of an authors original narrative.

Blackwell (1999) states that narrative structures are readily available in our culture and people automatically draw on them in most meaning-making activities. The research interview is one of many such activities. Narrative structures influence how informants remember their experience and subsequently tell researchers about it in an interview. Researchers also draw upon narrative structures because they hear and understand in narratives. Informal or implicit interpretation as opposed to explicit interpretation are discussed. The "iceberg" metaphor is used to describe the two kinds of interpretation. The tip of the iceberg is explicit interpretation, which is what researchers write in their research reports. The biggest part, however, is informal interpretation. It is out of sight and usually unexamined because it is built into the strategies researchers employ to make sense of data.



CHAPTER III : METHODOLOGY

This report topic “An examination of the Macro Features and micro Lexico Grammatical Features of the Original Narrative: To Build a Fire. This chapter indicates the procedure and the details of the study in terms of the following: Main data source, data collection method and the data analysis process.

Main Data Source

The main data source of the study consisted of the Original Narrative: “To Build a Fire” by the author Jack London.

Data Source

“To build a Fire” by Jack London. First published in *The Century Magazine*, v.76, August, 1908.

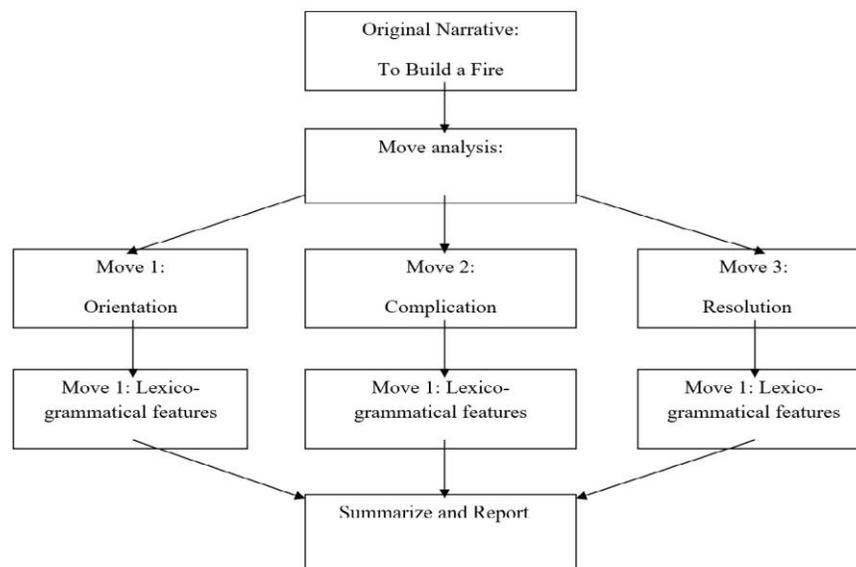
Data Collections

The text will be analyzed and broken into a 3 move Macro Feature and then followed by Lexico-Grammatical features.

Data Analysis

This study use a methodology following Rothery’s (1986) 3 step move model which is modeled as follows: Move 1 Orientation, Move 2 Complication, Move 3 Resolution. This 3 move process is followed by an examination of the Lexico-grammatical features of the narrative.

Figure 2 : The flowchart below demonstrates the diagram of the data analysis



CHAPTER IV: RESULTS



The data analysis firstly broke down the narrative into Rothery's (1986) 3 step move structure. Secondly 10 sentences were selected from each part of the move structure. Thirdly the ten sentences were examined for their Lexico Grammatical context. This chapter will discuss the results of discourse analysis that was carried out on the original short story: To Build A Fire by Jack London. The objective of the research was to establish the move structure of this novel. A three step move structure was applied using Rothery's (1986) which is defined by him as follows. The analysis of the schematic or generic structure of a text. This structure can be applied to several types of genre analysis and was chosen to meet the needs of this analysis. The length of the text is a total of 7096 words giving an average of 473 words per page. After investigation the text can be classified into three types of move structure as follows: Move 1 Orientation, Move 2 Complication and finally Move 3 Resolution. The results of the Move structure are given below:

Table 1 the frequencies of the moves of the narrative are as follows:

| Move | Name | Frequency |
|--------|--------------|-----------|
| Move 1 | Orientation | 28 |
| Move 2 | Complication | 44 |
| Move 3 | Resolution | 28 |

Macro Features:

Move 1: Orientation.

The story is set in the set during the period of the Alaskan gold rush which was from 1896 through to 1899. The area is known as the Yukon territory and the discovery of gold in the region caused a rapid migration of about 100,000 people. The story highlights on an unnamed individual who is the region as one of those s walking prospectors, his age or nationality remains unspecified but from the tone of story you can deduce that he is around 20-30 years of age. The story specifies that the individual is in the process of walking from around the Yukon region with the intention of looking at creating a business opportunity by transporting timber through the river system in the spring thaw to be used by the influx of newcomers to the region in creating new housing and infrastructure. This is backdrop of the narrative and

so the narrative begins around the beginning of his walk which he knows that he must complete with in a certain time frame, as the time of year is in the midst of the Alaskan winter in the middle of an extreme cold snap and added to this the days in this part of the Northern Hemisphere are extremely short and cold.

Move 2: Complication.

The complication of the story is the extreme environment that the man and his colleagues have to live and work in. This story is set in Alaska around 110 years ago and there are no means of communication or transport, except by travelling on foot or by dog sled. Both of these methods of transport are extremely hazardous. The temperature is minus 75 degrees and man is simply not designed to live in this kind of environment, f his bodily extremities are exposed, such as his hands, feet, ears and nose, they can be lost to frost bite and in a given amount of time a human being can simply freeze to death. There are many hazards to faced by people traveling on this route. The route itself is only a faint tract which can be covered and lost by snow in only a few short minutes. Every step is faced with danger the top layer is about three feet of snow which can cover many hidden dangers, under the snow are various thicknesses of ice which be as little as three centimeters thick through to one meter thick. Added dangers are the distance between small communities or mining camps, which can mean walking in these conditions upwards of several hours The last complication of this narrative is the fact that this man is attempting this journey on his own, except for the company of a husky dog that is there to help protect him, he has proceeded in this venture despite the counsel of several more experienced residents that have advised him not to travel alone.

Move 3: Resolution.

The resolution of the story is that during the process of his journey, several events conspire together, which see the man exposed to these dangerous conditions and they come together leading the man in a desperate struggle to preserve his life after falling knee deep into a hidden ice pool. Despite several desperate and vigorous attempts he succumbs to these events and tragically loses his life through hypothermia with only his travelling companion the husky dog surviving the narrative.

Lexical and grammatical features

In the next part of this analysis the Lexical and grammatical features will examined looking at the following grammatical categories: Adjectives, Adverbs, Auxiliary, verbs, Nouns, Prepositions, Pronouns, and Verbs. The frequency of these grammatical functions will be analyzed and discussed.



Micro Structure: features of Lexical and grammatical features of the language in use.

The following are sample group of the lexical features used in Moves 1-3 respectively.

Move 1 Ten examples are included:

Day had broken cold and gray.: *Day* (noun) *had broken* (verbs) *cold and gray* (adjectives)

Where a dim little trail travelled eastwards.: *where* (adverb) *a* (article) *dim little* (adverbs) *trail* (noun) *eastwards* (adverb)

There was no sun nor hint of sun, though there was not a cloud in the sky.: *There* (adverb) *was* (verb) *no* (adverb) *sun* (noun) *nor hint* (adverbs) *of* (preposition) *sun* (noun), *though* (conjunction) *there* (adverb) *was* (verb) *not* (adverb) *a cloud* (noun) *in* (preposition) *the* (article) *sky*. (noun)

He was used to the lack of sun.: *He* (pronoun) *was* (verb) *used* (adjective) *to* (preposition) *the* (article) *lack* (noun) *of* (preposition) *sun* (noun)

The Yukon lay a mile wide and hidden under three feet of snow.: *The* (article) *Yukon* (noun) *lay* (verb) *a* (article) *mile* (noun) *wide* (adjective) *and* (conjunction) *hidden* (verbs) *under* (preposition) *three* (noun) *feet* (noun) *of* (preposition) *snow*. (noun)

This dark hair-line was the main trail.: *This* (pronoun) *dark* (verb) *hair-line* was (verbs) *the* (article) *main* (adjective) *trail*. (noun)

The trail was faint.: *The* (article) *trail* (noun) *was* (verb) *faint*. (adjective)

He was a warm whiskered man, but the hair on his face did not protect his high cheek bones.: *He* (pronoun) *was* (verb) *a* (article) *warm whiskered* (adjectives) *man*, (noun) *but* (conjunction) *the* (article) *hair* (noun) *on* (preposition) *his* (pronoun) *face* (noun) *did* (verb) *not* (adverb) *protect* (verb) *his* (pronoun) *high* (adjective) *cheek bones*. (nouns)

At the man's heels trotted a dog, a big native husky.: *At* (preposition) *the* (article) *man's heels* (nouns) *trotted* (verb) *a* (article) *dog*, (noun) *a* (article) *big native* (adjectives) *husky* (noun)

It was seventy five below zero.: *It* (pronoun) *was* (verb) *seventy-five* (nouns) *below* (preposition) *zero* (noun)

In a month no man had come down that silent creek.: *In* (preposition) *a* (article) *month* (noun) *no* (adverb) *man* (noun) *had* (verb) *come* (verb) *down* (adverb) *that* (pronoun) *creek*. (noun)



Analysis of Lexico-grammatical: Move 1

Table 2

| Grammar Structure | Frequency |
|-------------------|-----------|
| Nouns | 28 |
| Verbs | 16 |
| Articles | 12 |
| Auxiliary Verbs | 0 |
| Conjunctions | 4 |
| Adverbs | 12 |
| Adjectives | 6 |
| Prepositions | 10 |
| Pronouns | 6 |

Move 2 Ten examples are included:

Fifty degrees below zero meant eighty odd degrees of frost.: *Fifty degrees* (nouns) *below* (preposition) *zero* (noun) *meant* (verb) *eighty* (noun) *odd* (adjective) *degrees* (noun) *of* (preposition) *frost* (noun)

There was a sharp , explosive crackle that startled him.: *There* (adverb) *was* (verb) *a* (article) *sharp,* *explosive* (adjectives) *crackle* (noun) *that* (pronoun) *startled* (verb) *him* (pronoun)

They hid pools of water under the snow that might be three inches deep, or three feet.: *They* (pronoun) *hid* (verb) *pools* (noun) *of* (preposition) *water* (noun) *under* (preposition) *the* (article) *snow* (noun) *that* (adjective) *might* (aux.verb) *be* (verb) *three inches* (nouns) *deep* (verb) *or* (conjunction) *three feet* (nouns)

And to get his feet wet in such a temperature meant trouble and danger.: *And* (conjunction) *to* (preposition) *get* (verb) *his* (pronoun) *feet wet* (nouns) *in* (preposition) *such* (adjective) *a*(article) *temperature* (noun) *meant trouble* (nouns) *and* (conjunction) *danger.* (noun)

Usually the snow above the hidden pools had a sunken, candied appearance that advertised danger.: *Usually* (adverb) *the* (article) *snow* (noun) *above* (adverb) *the* (article) *hidden* (verb) *pools* (noun) *had* (verb) *a sunken* (adjective) *candied* (adjective) *appearance* (noun) *that* (adjective) *advertised* (verb) *danger.* (noun)

Suddenly it broke through, floundered to one side, and got away to firmer footing.: *Suddenly* (adjective) *it* (pronoun) *broke* (verb) *through,* (preposition) *floundered* (verb) *to* (preposition) *one* (noun) *side,* (noun) *and* (conjunction) *got* (verb) *away* (adverb) *to firmer* (adjective) *footing.* (noun)

He tried to take a mouthful, but the muzzle prevented it.: *He* (pronoun) *tried* (verb) *to* (preposition) *take* (verb) *a mouthful,* (noun) *but* (conjunction) *the* (article) *ice-muzzle* (noun) *prevented.* (verb)

He wet himself halfway to the knees before he floundered out to the firm crust.: *He* (pronoun) *wet* (noun) *himself* (pronoun) *halfway* (adverb) *to* (preposition) *the* (article) *knees* (noun) *before* (preposition) *he* (pronoun) *floundered* (verb) *out* (adverb) *to* (preposition) *the* (article) *firm* (verb) *crust.* (noun)

He must dry out his foot gear.: *He* (pronoun) (aux.verb) *dry* (verb) *out* (adverb) *his* (pronoun) *foot gear.* (nouns)

When it is seventy five below zero a man must not fail in his first attempt to build a fire.: *When* (adverb) *it* (pronoun) *is* (verb) *seventy five* (nouns) *below* (adverb) *a* (article) *man* (noun) *must* (aux.verb) *not* (adverb) *fail* (verb) *in* (preposition) *his* (pronoun) *first* (adjective) *attempt* (verb) *to* (preposition) *build* (verb) *a* (article) *fire.* (noun)

Analysis of Lexico-grammatical: Move 2

Table 3

| Grammar Structure | Frequency |
|--------------------------|------------------|
| Nouns | 29 |
| Verbs | 18 |
| Articles | 9 |
| Auxiliary Verbs | 3 |
| Conjunctions | 4 |
| Adverbs | 18 |
| Adjectives | 6 |
| Prepositions | 12 |
| Pronouns | 11 |

Move 3 Ten examples are included

He strode up and down, stamping his feet and threshing his arms, until reassured by the returning warmth.: *He* (pronoun) *strode* (verb) *up and down,* (adverbs) *stamping* (verb) *his* (pronoun) *feet* (noun) *and* (conjunction) *threshing* (verb) *his* (pronoun) *arms,* (noun) *until* (adverb) *reassured* (verb) *by* (preposition) *the* (article) *returning* (verb) *warmth.* (noun)

Then he got out the matches and proceeded to make a fire.: *Then* (adverb) *he* (pronoun) *got* (verb) *out* (adverb) *the* (article) *and* (conjunction) *to* (preposition) *make* (aux.verb) *a* (article) *fire.* (noun)

For the moment the cold was outwitted.: *For* (preposition) *the* (article) *moment* (noun) *the* (article) *cold* (noun) *was* (verb) *outwitted.* (verb)

He filled his pipe and took his comfortable time over a smoke.: *He* (pronoun) *filled* (verb) *his* (pronoun) *pipe* (noun) *and* (conjunction) *took* (verb) *his* (pronoun) *comfortable* (adjective) *time* (noun) *over* (preposition) *a smoke.* (verb)

The fire was a success he was safe.: *The* (article) *fire* (noun) *was* a (verb) *success* (noun) *he* (pronoun) *was*(verb) *safe.* (adjective)

There was the fire, snapping and crackling and promising life.: *There* (adverb) *was* (verb) *the* (article) *fire,* (noun) *snapping and crackling* (verbs) *and* (conjunction) *promising* (verb) *life.* (noun)

After a time he was aware of the first faraway signals of sensation in his beaten fingers.: *After* (preposition) *a* (article) *time* (noun) *he* (pronoun) *was* (verb) *aware* (adjective) *of* (preposition) *the* (article) *first* (noun) *faraway* (adjective) *signals* (noun) *of* (preposition) *sensation* (noun) *in* (preposition) *his* (pronoun) *beaten* (verb) *fingers.* (noun)

The running made him feel better.: *The* (article) *running* (verb) *made* (aux.verb) *him* (pronoun) *feel* (adjective) *better.* (adjective)

The sight of the dog put an idea in his head.: *The* (article) *sight* (noun) *of* (preposition) *the* (article) *dog* (noun) *put* (verb) *an* (article) *into* (verb) *head.* (noun)

A good idea he thought, to sleep off to death.: *A* good (adjective) *idea* (noun) *he* (pronoun) *thought* (noun) *to* (preposition) *sleep* (verb) *off* (adverb) *to* (preposition) *death.* (noun)

Analysis of Lexico-grammatical: Move 3

Table 4

| Grammar Structure | Frequency |
|--------------------------|------------------|
| Nouns | 23 |
| Verbs | 21 |
| Articles | 8 |
| Auxiliary Verbs | 3 |
| Conjunctions | 4 |
| Adverbs | 21 |
| Adjectives | 6 |
| Prepositions | 11 |
| Pronouns | . 13 |

CHAPTER V: CONCLUSION

This concludes the analysis of the narrative. The purpose of the study was analyze an original short by the author Jack London, the title of this narrative is To Build a Fire which has a total of 7096 words and is 15 pages in narrative length. The purpose of the analysis was to check the move structure according to Rothery's (1986) schematic structure which is a follows:

Move 1 Orientation Move 2 Complication Move 3 Resolution

Following this three step process the narrative was broken down into these three constituent parts. Following this process the narrative form now broken into its three parts of Orientation, Complication and Resolution were separated and the discourse was examined for its Micro features. In particular looking for the Lexico-grammatical features of the narrative.

DISCUSSIONS

In discussing the findings of this study the researcher would like to highlight some of the key issues raised from the findings. The researcher of this study is often responsible for the teaching of several literature course at Rajahabt University in Chiangrai and is always seeking new information or methods that might enable the students who are learning these courses. This particular narrative has been used by the researcher several times whilst teaching literature at the University over the past five years. The researcher has found that the students have difficulty grasping the idea of the story which was originally published in a teenage publication. They struggle with understanding the vocabulary and the author's intent in using the said vocabulary. Through the process of using Rothery's (1986) schematic model for the breakdown of understanding the 3 Move process the researcher believes that using this model can firstly help teachers understand the authors text more fully and in turn can be used to provide better teaching of the narrative to students reading this or any other original text. Secondly the students could also learn by this process and be able to breakdown and understand the text better for them-selves. Finally the researcher would like to discuss the micro features of the narrative by analyzing the narrative and breaking it down into its lexico-grammatical level both students and teachers alike can gain more benefit of understanding the way grammatical features are used in narratives, which can only promote both better understanding by both teachers and students alike.

RECOMMENDATIONS

1. Students and teachers can use Rothery's (1986) process to promote their understanding of original narratives.
2. Students and teachers can use the Lexico grammatical breakdown of the narrative in order to increase their understanding of original narratives.

Recommendations for further research

1. Further research could be carried out various and larger types of narratives.
2. Other research methodologies could be chosen and analyzed.

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