

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter presents the review of the related literature which includes the concept of discourse. There are definition of discourse analysis, definition of discourse markers, the function of discourse markers, the types of discourse markers, theoretical framework, *The Devil Wears Prada*, previous study.

#### **A. Discourse Analysis**

Discourse analysis concerns about the study of the relationship between language and the contexts in which it is used.<sup>1</sup> It can be in the form of written text and spoken data whether formal or informal. Meanwhile, according to Brian Paltridge:

Discourse analysis focuses on knowledge about language beyond the word, clause, phrase and sentence that is needed for successful communication. It looks at patterns of language across texts and considers the relationship between language and the social and cultural context in which it used.<sup>2</sup>

Then, according to Schiffrin, "Discourse analysis consists of attempts to study the organization of language above the sentence or above the clause, and therefore to study larger linguistic unit, such as conversational exchanges or written texts".<sup>3</sup>

Discourse analysis is also concerned with language in use in the social contexts, and in particular with interaction or dialogue between speakers. Next,

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<sup>1</sup> McCarthy, M. *Discourse analysis for language teachers*. (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1991), 5

<sup>2</sup> Brian Paltridge, *Discourse Analysis*, (London: YHT Ltd, 2006), 2

<sup>3</sup> Deborah Schiffrin. *Discourse Markers* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1987), 1

discourse analysis can also be defined as the understand and comprehension of language and its use within conversation. Those theories are important since the analysis of discourse markers are parts of the analysis of discourse, and those theories many give explanation to the readers before they know about kinds of discourse analysis like discourse markers.

### **B. Discourse Markers**

Discourse marker is a word or phrase that marks typically as part of a dialogue. Discourse markers also give some meaning when used in sentence. Some researchers have been studying about discourse markers. And some researchers use different names to label discourse markers such as: cue phrases, discourse connectives, discourse signaling devices, pragmatic connectives, pragmatic markers, and many others.<sup>4</sup>

In this research, will be show the research from another researcher about discourse markers. The first research is the work undergone by Schiffrin. Schiffrin defines discourse markers as: “sequentially dependent elements that bracket units of talk”.<sup>5</sup> Discourse markers have function in relation to enduring talk and text.<sup>6</sup> In other words, that discourse markers as a set of linguistic expressions that described into six types, namely: Marker of Information Management, Marker of

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<sup>4</sup> Begona Belles Fortuno, *“Discourse Markers within the University Lecture Genre: A Constrative Study between Spanish and North American Lectures”* (Dissertation, Humanities and Social Sciences Faculty of Universitat Jaume, Spanish,2006) ,98-99.

<sup>5</sup> Schiffrin, .57.

<sup>6</sup> Deborah Schiffrin, *Discovering the context of an utterance.* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press,1987),11.

Response, Discourse Connectives, Markers of Cause and Results, Markers of Temporal Adverb, and the last is Information and Participation.

The second approach is the one provided by Fraser. Fraser goes on defining discourse markers as: "A class of lexical expressions drawn primarily from the syntactic classes of conjunctions, adverbs, and prepositional phrases. With certain exceptions, they signal a relationship between the interpretation of the segment they introduce, S2, and the prior segment, S1".<sup>7</sup>

And the last approach to the study of discourse markers is provided by researchers working in the field of discourse coherence. Beginning with Rhetorical Structure Theory proposed by Mann and Thompson. The researchers have addressed the nature of relations between the sentences of a text such that "the content of one sentence might provide elaboration, circumstances, or explanation for the content of another".<sup>8</sup> The work of these researchers has resulted in various accounts of discourse coherence, where the discourse relations are sometimes made explicit by the use of discourse markers (they call them "cue phrases")

### **C. The types and the function of Discourse Markers**

In this research, types of discourse markers according to Schiffrin<sup>9</sup>, there are six types, namely: Marker of Information Management, Marker of Response, Discourse Connectives, Markers of Cause and Results, Markers of Temporal

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<sup>7</sup> Begona Belles Fortuno, "Discourse Markers within the University Lecture Genre: A Constrative Study between Spanish and North American Lectures" (Dissertation, Humanities and Social Sciences Faculty of Universitat Jaume, Spanish, 2006), 102.

<sup>8</sup> Bruce Fraser, "What are discourse markers?", *Journal of Pragmatics*, no.31, (1990), 937.

<sup>9</sup> Schiffrin, 57

Adverb, and the last is Information and Participation.

Those types of discourse markers will be explained below :

### 1. Marker of Information Management

Schiffirin believed that *oh* is used as exclamation or interjection. When it is used alone, without the syntactic support of a sentence, it indicates strong emotional states, e.g. surprise, fear, or pain.<sup>10</sup>

This is example of "*oh*" as exclamation:

**Speaker 1** : *Is this what you are looking for?*

**Speaker 2** : "**Oh!**" *Gesh, yes!*

It can also initiate utterances, followed either by a brief pause or without pause preceding the rest of the tone unit. For example:

**Speaker 1** : "**Oh**", *they will know later on.*

**Speaker 2** : *Do not they go to the party? "**Oh**" maybe there are too old.*

Marker of *oh* is a marker of information management covers *oh* in repair and *oh* in the status of information. *Oh* in repair can be divided into two parts, which are repair initiation and repair completion. While in information status, *oh* mark to changes, which are the recognition of familiar information and the receipt of new information.<sup>11</sup>

### 2. Marker of Response

The usual dialogic functions identified for *well* as a discourse marker are used in the beginning of utterances which reject, cancel or disagree with the content or tenor of the foregoing discourse. *Well* often begins turns, serving as

<sup>10</sup> Deborah Schiffirin, "*Approach to Discourse*". (Cambridge: Blackwell Publisher).11

<sup>11</sup> *Ibid*, 73

a left hand discourse bracket. This is one example of *well*:

**Speaker 1** : Where you would like to teach? If you have choose your favorite spot what is that?

**Speaker 2** : Uh, "*well*" I like Japan.

### 3. Discourse Connectives

#### a. And

The word *and* is use to coordinate ideas and to continue a speaker's action in spoken language, it is considered as marker when it connects narrative sections, action, or turns. However, *and* is not considered as a marker when it connects nouns (e.g. *John and Sue went to the beach*) and verb phrases (e.g. *John went to the beach and Swam in the ocean*) since the conjoined unites in such cases were not discourse units but clause internal constituents.<sup>12</sup> This is the example of *and* as a marker:

**Speaker** : *I go on trips with 'em, I bring 'em here, we have supper, or dinner here, "and" I don't see any problem because I'm workin' with college graduates.*<sup>13</sup>

#### b. But

The word "*But*" according to Schiffrin, indicates 'adversative' relations in discourse. It conveys contrast between two ideas or topics or it can be used to mark the denial of the speaker's expectation of something.

(a) She drives a Porsche, **but** her husband drives a Kia.

<sup>12</sup> Schiffrin.. *Discourse Markers*.. 152.

<sup>13</sup> Hosnol Wafa , "*Discourse Markers Used by James Bond as the Main Character of Casino Royale*" (Thesis Sarjana, UIN Maulana Malik Ibrahim, Malang, 2009), 13

(b) She is a lecturer of psychology at Oxford, **but** she does not know how to spell SCHIZOPHRENIA.

As can be noticed, *but* in (a) indicates that there is a contrast between two clauses 'driving a Porsche' and 'driving a Kia'. It is true that both are cars. However, Porsche is a German manufacturer while Kia is a Korean one. In addition, Porsche is much more expensive than Kia which means that it will cost you more to drive a Porsche. As for *but* in (b), it indicates that there is a denial of expectation relation between the two clauses. Knowing how to spell the word SCHIZOPHRENIA would be an expectation of a lecturer of psychology at Oxford. However, this expectation is denied by the second clause

c. Or

The marker *or* (as a coordinator like *and* and *but*) is used as an option marker. This would mean that "*or*" is exclusive since there is only one member of the disjunction can hold. Besides, "*or*" can also be inclusive since either one member or both members of the disjunct can hold. Schiffrin states that "*or*" is an inclusive option marker in discourse because it provides recipients with a choice between accepting only one member of a disjunct, and both members of a disjunct. It is said that *or* is fundamentally different from *and* and *but* since it is not a marker of a speaker's action toward this own talk, but of a speaker's desire for a recipient to take action. Speaker's desire for recipient to take action, in this case, means giving the recipient a choice of ideas and in daily conversation *or* could promote an interaction response.<sup>14</sup> For example:

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<sup>14</sup> Ibid.,155

**Speaker** : *Its how there's an economic situation then they use race. "Or" they use nationality, "or" anti-Semitism, "or" what have you.*<sup>15</sup>

#### 4. Marker of Cause and Results

The marker *so* and *because* can mark idea units, information states, and action. They have semantic meanings, which are realized at both sentence and discourse levels. The marker *because* conveys a meaning of cause or event, and *so* conveys a meaning of result. A fact-based causal relation between *cause* and *result* hold between idea units, such as between the events, states, and so on. The following example will show a fact-based relation marked by *so* and *because*:<sup>16</sup>

**Speaker** : *Well we were going up to see our son to night, but we're not seeing the younger one's gonna come for dinner "because" he's working in the neighborhood. "So" that's out.*

#### 5. Marker of Temporal Adverb

##### a. Now

Schiffrin claims that *now* is used to indicate a speaker's progression through a discourse which contains an ordered sequence of subordinating parts. It is also used to indicate the upcoming shift in talk, or when the speaker wants to negotiate the right to control what will happen next in talk. *Now* also used as a time deictic providing temporal index in discourse time.<sup>17</sup> For examples:

<sup>15</sup> Wafa, *Discourse Markers*, 14

<sup>16</sup> Schiffrin., *Discourse Markers*, 157.

<sup>17</sup> *Ibid*, 160

**Speaker** : *Ok. I can see that I've convinced you. "Now" go find the next random bad guy who will advance the plot.*<sup>18</sup>

b. Then

*Then* is used in discourse to indicate succession between prior and upcoming talk a succession from one topic to another. Consider an example below, in which the first and second *then* indicate a temporal succession between two events and *then* in third to indicates a succession to a different topic. For example:

**Speaker** : *I arrived at home very late this evening. I was exhausted. I took a hot bath, and **then** I had a light dinner. When I finished my dinner, I switched the TV on and watched my favourite programme, and **then** went to bed. I woke up very early in the morning because I heard some noise coming from the living room, **then** I remembered that I forgot to switch the TV off before I go to seep.*

## 6. Information and Participation

Schiffrin believes that the basic meaning of "*I mean*" is to forewarn upcoming adjustments. Unlike "um" and "uh" which represent pauses, the term "*you know*" do not represent natural pauses in speech. Marker "*you know*" is cognitively process and used by speaker. Marker "*you know*" encourages

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<sup>18</sup> Ibid



addresses to think about the comprehensibility of what has just be said. This is example of I mean and you know:

**Speaker** : *How do you get on with this fellow hart? I mean he is a nice fellow normally, but he is a hell of a big head in some ways you know Reynard.*

Holker cited in Bai Ruexue listed four basic features that characterize discourse markers.<sup>19</sup>

- 1.) They do not affect the truth conditions of an utterance
- 2.) They do not add anything to the propositional content of an utterance
- 3.) They are related to the speech situation and not to the situation talk about
- 4.) They have an emotive, expressive function rather than a referential, denotative, or cognitive function. Meanwhile, there are three informal functions of discourse markers: to fill pauses in conversation, to act as nervous glitches in speech, the markers have become part of our collective lexicon.<sup>20</sup> Also, markers (e.g., *um, like, uh, you know, well, by the way*) said communicators in linguistic or conversational consistency and coherence.<sup>21</sup> Next, Walrod stated that discourse markers serve as cues to interpretation. They may be signals of attitudes and emotions.

Holker stated that discourse markers are words that have specific expressions, which can help people to interpret what another person is saying. These expressions have so little meaning that they are not usually thought as

<sup>19</sup> Holker, D. *Discourse Markers*. (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1987), 167

<sup>20</sup> Davis, J. 1992, January To er (UM) is human. 1922

<sup>21</sup> Bussman, R. 1984. *The Rutledge Dictionary of language and linguistics*. New York: Oxford UP.

belonging to the language.<sup>22</sup> However, discourse markers serve important purpose in conversation since they are used to indicate whether one is ready to speak or want to keep speaking, and to show how one responds to what someone has just said. Thus, if we succeed in learning to recognize discourse markers, we will be able to guess more accurately, what another person is trying to say. In addition, if we can use discourse markers correctly in our own speech, our conversation will flow more smoothly. Holker also discussed some discourse markers:

1. Oh

The discourse marker *oh* is typically found at the beginning of replies where it is used to show that you have just been told something new. For example:

**Doctor** : *I think you probably have what we call dry eyes.*

**Patient** : *Oh.*

After combines *oh* with a word or phrase that confirms that you now understanding, such as *oh I see* or *oh right*, or that evaluates the new information, for example *oh good*, *oh heavens*, *oh dear*, or *oh no*. for example:

**Travel Agent** : *You flights are all confirmed.*

**Customer** : *Oh wonderful thank you*

If someone reminds you of something, you had forgotten you typically start your reply with *oh*. For example:

**Speaker 1** : *Remember he wanted to merge the group. Do not you remember?*

**Speaker 2** : *oh yeah. oh yes. Of course.*

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<sup>22</sup> Holker, J.E. 1989 Discourse markers. Cambridge:Wadsworth Publishing Company. 97

It is also used to accept someone's answer to your question. For example:

**Speaker 1** : *Is that too sweet?*

**Speaker 2** : *Yes.*

**Speaker 1** : *Oh.*

*Oh* says that you accept the truth of the answer or statement that you have just heard. You can however combine it with *really* or with a question to show surprise, for example *oh did you?* This passes the talk back to the other speaker who will usually confirm what they have just said. They will also often add to what they have just said.<sup>23</sup> For example:

**Speaker 1** : *I went up to Leeds.*

**Speaker 2** : *Oh, did you?*

**Speaker 1** : *Yeah...saw Kathryn Clarke.*

In the British English, *oh* is used to introduce quoted speech, either your own or someone else's.

## 2. Well

*Well* is another expression used to signal the start of reported speech. *Well* is also like *oh* in that it is also used at the beginning of a speaking turn, but unlike *oh* it indicates that you think there is something slightly wrong with what has just been said. You start your reply with *well* when answering someone who has just said something factually incorrect or made a false assumption.<sup>24</sup> For example:

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<sup>23</sup> Hoey, M. 2004, February. *Spoken discourse: Discourse markers oh, well, and like*. Retrieved Juni 30<sup>th</sup>, 2014, 50

<sup>24</sup> *Ibid*, 67.

**Speaker 1** : *I mean it might take us another months before we get out, three months.*

**Speaker 2** : *well I would say six months.*

You can also begin your answer with “*well*” if someone asks you a question which assumes something that is not in fact true, for example:

**Speaker 1** : *What, he did the whole lot?*

**Speaker 2** : *well yeah, I think, he did not do everything.*

Here the first speakers is expecting the answer yes and the second speaker is answering no in a roundabout way.

Another for “*well*” is to round off a topic near the end of a conversation. For example:

**Speaker** : *well I'll let you get back to work.*

There are also many linguists that state their opinion about discourse markers:

Holmes proposed discourse markers such as *short of*, *you see* and “*well*”. The word *sort of* is classified as a hedge, while *well* and *you see* where described as “meaningless particles” and assigned to the same category as “pause filler”, such as *uh*, *um*, and *ah*.<sup>25</sup> In addition, Lakoff argued that this kind of words shows the lacking confidence of the speakers and uncertainty. Then, some linguists such as Clark, Finegan, Levinson, Stenstrom, Wennerstrom, Rose proposed markers as filled pauses the lexicalized one. Meanwhile, some other linguists called those

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<sup>25</sup> Holmes, J. *An introduction to sociolinguistic*. (England: Pearson Education. 2001).

words as pragmatic markers.<sup>26</sup>

Holmes defines pragmatic markers, which is similar to discourse markers: Forms which typically occur in informal speech such as *well, you see, you know, anyway, of course, and I think*. A Linguist such as Holmes called discourse markers as “fillers” to give the speaker a planning time in the beginning or in the middle of his/her speech. On the other hand, discourse marker was termed as ‘hedges’ that functions to reduce the strength of a statement or ‘boosters’ with an emphatic function.<sup>27</sup>

Holmes and Schiffrin have the same concept about the function of discourse markers. According to them discourse markers *so* functions to summarize the information of speaker’s utterance. The discourse markers *and* is inserted on the preceded speech of the speakers, and markers *well* is expressed as a disagreement toward information stated in the discourse.<sup>28</sup> Then Jucker & Smith believed that the basic meaning of *you know* is to invite addresses inference. Moreover, Fox Tree and Schrock listed some function of *you know* and *I mean* in a conversation: Interpersonal, turn management, repairing, monitoring, and organizing.

Then, since the word “*well*” seems to be the most popular discourse marker in English, Willis classifies the functions of markers into several categories:

1. To show we have come to the conversation.
2. To preface an answer to a question to show that we have heard the

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<sup>26</sup> Lakoff in Holmes, J.. *An introduction to sociolinguistic*. (England: Pearson Education.,2001)

<sup>27</sup> Holmes, J.. *An introduction to sociolinguistic*. (New York: Addition Wesley Longman Publishing, 1992)

<sup>28</sup> Schiffrin.. *Discourse Markers*.,157

question and are considering our answer. We often do this if we are unable to answer a question directly.

3. To change or correct something we have said.
4. To add a comment to something or introduce a story we want to tell.

It is difficult to say what is the meaning of word such as well, right, okay and so, but it is possible to show how they are used. Willis stated this opinion that these words are often used in spoken English, and it will be better if we can relate them to our first language correctly.

Those theory above are needed in this research to help me in determining words or phrases in someone speech which are included in discourse markers. However, the researcher use Schiffrin's theory in this study since it is more complete.

In addition some treatments of well have not aimed to find a unitary explanation of all these uses. For example, Lakoff restricted her analysis to her use of well in question-answer exchanges. She argued that well is used by a speaker in an answer to a question if he sense some sort of insufficiency in this answer, whether because he is leaving it to questioner to fill in information on his own or because he is about to give additional information himself. Thus the speaker of the example B (well, yes) adapted from Lacoff would be taken to be suggesting that his answer in not a complete answer on its own because he believes that there were extenuating circumstances.<sup>29</sup>

Example     A     : did you kill your wife?

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<sup>29</sup> Blakemore Diane , *The Semantic and Pragmatic of Discourse Markers*. (Cambridge: Cambridge University press 2002).132

B : well, yes.

In here, Fraser also explained about the types of discourse markers. Fraser divided that there are four types of discourse markers, namely:<sup>30</sup>

1. Constrictive Markers, such as : *but, alternatively, although, despite, even so, in spite of (this/that) etc.*
2. Elaborative Markers, such as: *and, above all, also, beside, for example, otherwise, rather, similarly, etc.*
3. Implicative Marker, such as: *so, after all, as a conclusion, as a consequence, etc.*
4. Temporal Marker, such as: *then, after, as soon as, before, eventually, finally, first, etc.*

The table below will be explaining more the six types of discourse markers from Schiffirin.

**Tabel. 1.1: Types of Discourse Marker, function and the example of Discourse marker**

Types of Discourse Markers		Function	Example of Discourse Marker
Marker of Information Management	Oh	To use as exclamation or interjection	A : <i>Is this what you are looking for?</i> B : <i>"Oh!" Gesh, yes!</i>

<sup>30</sup> Begona Belles Fortuno, 103

Marker of Response	well	To use in the first utterances which function to reject, cancel, or disagree	<p>A : <i>Where you would like to teach? If you have choose your favorite sport what is that?</i></p> <p>B : <i>Uh, "well" I like Japan.</i></p>
Discourse Connective	and	To use coordinate ideas and continue a speaker's action in spoken language	<i>I go on trips with 'em, I bring 'em here, we have supper, or dinner here, "and" I don't see any problem because I'm workin' with college graduates</i>
	but	To indicates a contrast between two ideas or topics	<i>She drives a Porsche, but her husband drives a Kia.</i>
	or	To use as an option marker.	<i>Its how there's an economic situation then they use race. "Or" they use nationality, "or" anti Semitism, "or" what have you.</i>
Marker of Cause and Result	so	To use conveys a meaning of result	<i>Well we were going up to see our son to night, but we're not seeing the younger one's gonna come for dinner because he's working in the neighborhood. "So" that's out.</i>



	because	To use conveys a meaning of cause	<i>Well we were going up to see our son to night, but we're not seeing the younger one's gonna come for dinner <b>because</b> he's working in the neighborhood. So that's out.</i>
Marker of Temporal Adverb	now	To indicate a speaker's progression through a discourse which contains an ordered sequence of subordinating parts.	<i>Ok. I can see that I've convinced you. "<b>Now</b>" go find the next random bad guy who will advance the plot.</i>
	then	To indicate succession between prior and upcoming talk a succession from one topic to another	<i>I arrived at home very late this evening. I was exhausted. I took a hot bath, and <b>then</b> I had a light dinner. When I finished my dinner, I switched the TV on and watched my favourite programme, and <b>then</b> went to bed. I woke up very early in the morning because I heard some noise coming from the living room, <b>then</b> I remembered that I forgot to switch the TV off before I go to seep.</i>
Information and Participation	You know	To indicate encourages addresses to think about the comprehensibility of what has just be said	<i>How do you get on with this fellow hart? I mean he is a nice fellow normally, but he is a hell of a big head in some ways "<b>you know</b>" Reynard.</i>

	I mean	To indicate encourages addresses to think about the comprehensibility of what has just be said	<i>How do you get on with this fellow hart? I mean he is a nice fellow normally, but he is a hell of a big head in some ways you know Reynard.</i>
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#### **D. Theoretical Framework**

In this research, the researcher used one theory that is Schiffrin's theory. The researcher used this theory because of Schiffrin's relevance in the description of discourse markers. Discourse markers According to Schiffrin: "as sequentially dependent elements that bracket units of talk".<sup>31</sup> And from the theory the researcher can be analyzed discourse markers into six types, namely: Marker of Information Management, Marker of Response, Discourse Connectives, Markers of Cause and Results, Markers of Temporal Adverb, and the last are Information and Participation.

#### **E. The Devil Wears Prada**

The Devil Wears Prada by Lauren Weisberger is the story of Andrea Sachs, a 23 year old woman who aspires to write for The New Yorker one day. After graduating from Brown University and traveling Europe for the summer, Andrea returns home and looks for a job while staying with her friend Lily in New York. Andrea receives a call from Elias Clark, a major magazine publisher

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<sup>31</sup> Deborah Schiffrin.. *Discourse Markers* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press,1987),11

and is surprised to find that they have read her resume and would like to speak with her about a position they have available.

Andrea interviews at Elias Clark and learns that Miranda Priestly, the Editor in Chief of Runway Magazine is looking for a new assistant, a job, Andrea is informed many times over, that a million girls would kill to have. Though Andrea is not sure that being an assistant is what she wants to do she finds out from Emily, Miranda's current assistant, that if someone works for Miranda for a year and does well, Miranda considers them ready for promotion and helps them find the position they are for. Meeting Miranda, Andrea is pleasantly surprised by the grace a woman with such power shows and is pleased with how the interview goes.

Andrea is at her boyfriend Alex's apartment when she gets a call informing her she has gotten the job for Miranda. A bit stunned by the fast pace at which the office would like her to start, Andrea manages to put them off until she finds an apartment in the city. Alex is pleased for Andrea, knowing that the position at Runway will get her one step closer to her dream of being a writer for The New Yorker. Andrea knows that Alex, her boyfriend of three years, is a wonderful man and how lucky she is to have such an understanding partner. Andrea's family and her friend Lily, a student, are also happy for her, and all work together getting her ready to start her new job.

Andrea's first few days at Runway are a training period, as Miranda is on vacation. Despite this the days are hectic and Emily drills Andrea on how things are in the office and making sure that she anticipates Miranda's wishes and

performs her duties in such a way that Miranda will find little fault in them. The days are long and a bit stressful but Andrea feels that she is ready when Miranda returns from Europe.

Andrea soon discovers that working for Miranda is as far from easy as anything can be. Miranda has worked her way up to her position from a poor childhood and controls every factor of her life in order to make sure she will never be in such a position again. Andrea learns that there is almost no pleasing her boss and Miranda has no problem at all informing Andrea that she is incompetent at best. Andrea's days get longer and her duties soon begin to take a toll on her life outside of work.

While Andrea struggles to make sure that a hot breakfast waits for Miranda each morning, even if she has to throw out four meals before her boss arrives, or find the review of an unknown restaurant in one of the twelve newspapers that Miranda reads daily, life changes outside of the office for her. Lily, Andrea's friend since grammar school, sinks deeper into a drinking problem, one that Andrea has been in denial of for months. Alex, the understanding boyfriend, begins to question Andrea's commitment to her boss rather than her friends and family. Andrea is aware that her life is spiraling out of control to a certain degree, but cannot seem to stop herself from trying to please the implacable Miranda.

After traveling to Paris with Miranda for Fashion Week, choosing her job over time with Alex, things come to a head. Alex tells Andrea that they might need time apart and Andrea does not argue the point. Andrea's family is

disappointed as well, as they have not seen her in months. Andrea, close to the end of her year with Miranda is unwilling to give up the time she has spent working with the hellish woman. While in Paris Andrea meets up again with Christian Collinsworth, a writer she had met in New York. The two spend an evening together and despite the fact that she has a good time Andrea cannot help compare the man to Alex. Returning to the hotel the night of the party Andrea discovers two calls, one from Alex and one from her mother. Both inform her that Lily has been in an accident and is in a coma. Andrea is devastated but worries that if she leaves Paris Miranda will fire her. After taking a call from her father Andrea informs Miranda of her friend's condition, but reassures her boss that she is committed to stay in Paris and do her job. Miranda, having spoken to Andrea about possibly calling *The New Yorker* when they return to America informs Andrea that she is pleased that she has made the right decision and that Andrea reminds her of herself when she was younger.

Andrea is taken aback by this statement, realizing that she is becoming the woman she has detested working for for almost a year. When Miranda has another unwarranted tirade Andrea snaps and quits, finally breaking free and doing the right thing.

Andrea and Lily move in with Andrea's parents for a few months while Lily recuperates from her injuries and Andrea writes. Before long Andrea is surprised that several of her stories will be purchased, specifically one that she has written that is similar to her own relationship with Alex. Andrea is pleased. Writing is what she has always dreamed of and despite the fact that she is not

writing for The New Yorker yet, she knows that she can accomplish what she wants on her own and does not need a year working for a woman such as Miranda to get it.

#### **F. Previous Study**

Some researchers from different university have done the study of discourse markers. One of them was done by Hosnol Wafa in 2010 conducted a research about "*Discourse Markers Used By James Bond As The Main Character Of "Casino Royale"*". Here, his objective of this study is to find out the discourse markers utterances used by James Bond in "Casino Royale" movie and what is the message content of that utterances. Wafa used descriptive qualitative approach and he analyzed discourse markers such as marker of information management, marker of response, discourse connectives, markers of cause and results, temporal adverb and the last markers Information and participation. He also used Schiffrin theory, Wafa also discussing implicit meaning of the utterances that used by James Bond.