

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

In this research, the writer needs a related theory as guideline to analyze the data that had been collected. Afterward, any conclusion can be drawn. In brief, the discussion is on grammatical and lexical cohesion. The framework of the theory is used in analyzing the data. Furthermore, the writer also puts related previous study in this chapter as comparison.

2.1 Review of Related Theories

2.2 Cohesive Devices

Cohesion is the grammatical or lexical relationship between the different elements of a text. Since cohesive relations are not concerned with structure, they may be found within (a) sentence(s). Halliday and Hasan stated that cohesion refer to “relations of meaning that exist within the text, and that define it as a text” (1980) and according to McCarthy, “Cohesion occurs where the interpretation of some element in

the discourse is dependent on that of another”. While cohesive devices in a text or language are “the tools, means, words that are used in sentences as the link between one part and other part of sentences in the texts.” (1985, p.4) In other words, cohesive devices are the tools to show the relationship between parts of a text or sentences in a text. Since it is the relationship between one part and other part of sentences in the texts, so it deals with grammar and vocabulary. Thus, there are grammatical cohesion that consists of reference, substitution, ellipsis and conjunction, while lexical, consists of reiteration and collocation.

2.2.1 Grammatical Cohesive Devices

It is the grammatical items that are used in a text to connect sentences within it; articles can be the good example. Spoken and written discourses display grammatical connections between individual clauses and utterances. These grammatical links can be classified in to sub-categories of cohesive devices:

2.2.1.1 Reference/co-reference

When an item appears later in a text, which has the same meaning with the item that appears formerly, so reference shows the same thing in a text that appears in the second time. Halliday and Hasan said that “*reference* is to say, instead of being interpreted semantically in their own right, they make reference to something else for their interpretation” (1980, p.31) According to them, reference can be seen from both situational (exophora reference) and textual (endophora reference) context.

Exophoric/exophora reference is “not simply a synonym for referential meaning” (Halliday and Hasan, p.33). The item referred is not in the text or referred to another item in the text but it is referred to other item outside the text. Since each cohesive link has cohesive device and presupposed item but in this case, the reader cannot see the presupposed item in the text because the link in exophora seems not complete.

Endophoric/endophora reference is the relationship where their interpretation lies within the text. It occurs when an item in the text refers to another item in the text. So, in endophora, the reader can see the referred item in the text. This reference is divided into *anaphora* and *cataphora* reference.

Anaphora reference is the reader has to look back for the referred item in the text in order to find the interpretation of the item. Brown and Yule stated that it means, “the reader looks back in the text for their interpretation”. (p. 192)

Cataphora reference is the reference, which the referred item is in the following part in the text. Therefore, in order to find the interpretation of the item, the reader has to look forward the text. McCarthy stated it is “the reverse of anaphora reference and is relatively straightforward.” (p. 42) In addition Brown and Yule stated that it means, “the reader looks forward in the text for their interpretation”. (p. 192)

Personal reference is reference through the category of person. This reference is used to refer to relevant persons and objects in the text. It includes three classes of personal pronouns, possessive determiners, and possessive pronouns.

Person	Personal Pronoun	Possessive Adjective	Possessive Pronoun
Speaker	I, Me	My	Mine
Addressee (s), with/ without other person (s)	You	Your	Yours
Speaker and other person (s)	We, Us	Our	Ours
Other person; male	He, Him	His	His
Other person; female	She, Her	Her	Hers
Other person; objects	They, Them	Their	Theirs
Object, passage of text	It	Its	Its

This reference have the system known as person where it is used in the special sense of role; first person, second person, and third person where three of them can be singular or plural. (Halliday and Hasan, p. 43-44)

Example: Do you remember the man we saw in the park? This house is his.

In addition, Indonesian applied the same rule as in English, the table shown below filled with the words in Indonesian.

Person	Personal Pronoun	Possessive Adjective	Possessive Pronoun
Speaker	Aku, Saya	-ku	Punyaku
Addressee (s), with/ without other person (s)	Kamu	-mu	Punyamu, Kepunyaanmu
Speaker and other person (s)	Kami, Kita	(milik) kita	Kepunyaan Kita
Other person; male	Dia	(milik) -nya	Kepunyaannya
Other person; female	Dia	(milik) -nya	Kepunyaannya
Other person; objects	Mereka	(milik) mereka	Kepunyaan Mereka
Object, passage of text	Dia	(milik) -nya	Kepunyaannya

Demonstrative reference is identification of the distance as the scale of where the referred item located. Demonstrative reference is divided into neutral and selective demonstrative. The neutral is indicated by the and the selective is divided into two

types: participant and circumstantial. The examples of circumstantial (adverbial) demonstratives are *here*, *there*, *now*, and *then*. Hence, the examples of participant (nominal) demonstratives are *this*, *these*, *that*, *those*, and *the*. (p. 57)

Grammatical Class.	Determiner	Adverb
Near	This, These	Here (Now)
Far	That, Those	There, Then

Example: Mary bought a new Mercedes. – – That is what I want to buy.

The table shown below filled with the words in Indonesian, because the same rule can be applied as in English.

Grammatical Class.	Determiner	Adverb
Near	Ini	Sini (Sekarang)
Far	Itu	Situ, Kemudian

Comparative reference is indirect reference by means of identity or similarity.

This reference is divided into two: “general and particular comparison. General comparison expresses likeness and unlikeness, without respect to any particular property.” (p.76) For example, the word *different* in the sentence “they were two different things” means different to each other. “Particular comparison expresses comparability between things in respect of a particular property: quantity or quality.” (p. 80) The example for quantity is *more* in more mistakes. And, the example of quality comparison is easier task; or faster in Michael ran faster.

Grammatical Class.	Determiner	Adverb
General comparison		
Identical	Same, Equal, Identical	Identically
Similarity	Similar, Additional	Similarly, Likewise
Difference	Other, Different, Else	Differently, Otherwise
Particular comparison	Better, More, etc	So, More, Less, Equally

The table shown below is using the words in Indonesian.

Grammatical Class.	Determiner	Adverb
General comparison		
Identical	Sama	Sama dengan
Similarity	Mirip	Mirip dengan, Sama seperti
Difference	Lain, Beda, Selain	Berbeda dengan
Particular comparison	Lebih, Kurang	Lebih dari, Kurang dari

2.2.1.2 Substitution

Substitution is the referred item is replaced by another item in the text. Brown and Yule said substitution is “the replacement of an expression that is obvious from the context by another element in a text” (p.201).

Nominal substitution occurs when a noun in the previous sentence is substituted by another word or element usually by *one* and *same*. Nevertheless, the meaning of the nominal group containing the substitute is never exactly the same as the nominal group that is presupposed. This the basic difference between personal and demonstrative reference and nominal reference between personal substitution in reference, there is a total referential identity between the reference item and that which it presupposes; nothing is to be added to the definition.

Example: 1. I like to read this short story because the long one would make me boring.

2. I love you. - - I wish I could say the same to you.

The verbal substitution in English is *do*. (Halliday and Hasan, p. 112) Which may substitutes either for a verb or for a verb plus certain other elements in the clause.

Example: Do John visit you everyday? - - He can't do at weekends,
because he has to visit his parents.

Clausal substitution is the substitution in which the presupposed item is a clause. There are three environments in which clausal substitution takes place: report, condition, and modality. In each of these environments may take either of two forms, positive which is expressed by so or negative by not. (Halliday and Hasan, p. 130)

Example: The children work very hard in the garden. – They must do.
Is there going to be an earthquake? – It says so.

2.2.1.3 Ellipsis

Ellipsis is omitting some items in the text, which is required by the grammar, but the writer thinks the items are clearly understandable by the reader, for that reason it does not need to be repeated. Actually, ellipsis is *substitution by zero* or in other words, the item referred is substitute or replaced by nothing. Here is the case where ellipsis occurred, when sentences or clauses whose structure has the missing information. The missing information is like an empty slot and in ellipsis, nothing is inserted into the slot but the item itself. There are three types of ellipsis and three of them are discussed below.

Nominal ellipsis means ellipsis with the nominal group, the structure of the nominal group is that a head with optional modification. The modifying elements include some which precede the head and some which follow it. In other words, in nominal ellipsis, “the noun may be omitted and replaced by deictic, numerative or ephitet.” (Halliday and Hasan, p. 147) The function of head is normally served by common noun, pronoun expressing the Thing.

1. *Deictic is a determiner* which consists of:

- a) Specific deictics : possessive, demonstratives, and “the”.
- b) Non-specific deictics : each, every, any, either, no, a, neither, some.
- c) Post deictics : other, same, different, identical, usual, regular, certain, odd, famous, well know, typical, obvious.

2. *The numerative is expressed by numerals* which consists of:

- a) Ordinals : first, next, last, second, third, one, two
- b) Cardinals : the three, those three, the same three
- c) Indefinite Quantifiers : much, many, more, most, few, several, a little, lots

3. *Ephitet is fulfilled by an adjective*, which consists of *superlative* and *comparative*.

The words use : cheap, high, big

4. *Classifier is a noun*.

Example: Here are my two white silk scarves. I can lend you one if you like.

In the second sentence, the words “*white silk scarves*” is omitted after the word *one*.

Verbal ellipsis is the omission of verb. There are two types of verbal ellipsis; they are lexical ellipsis and operator ellipsis. In lexical ellipsis, it is the lexical ellipsis that is always omitted. Lexical ellipsis is ellipsis ‘from the right’; it always involves omission of the last word, which is the lexical verb. Any verbal group consisting of a modal operator only can be recognized as operator ellipsis. Unlike lexical ellipsis, operator ellipsis is ellipsis ‘from the left’ that involves the omission of operators. In this ellipsis, the subject also is always omitted from the clause.

Example: The cat won’t catch mice in winter.

1. It will in summer. (lexical ellipsis)
2. No, the dog catch rabbits (operator ellipsis)

Clausal ellipsis often occurs in the form of question answer. In this case, the answer whether yes or no or other response can be considered as the substitute.

Example: Can you put my car in the parking lot?

1. Yes (I can)
2. If you get out.(indirect response)

Both answers sentence 1. and 2. are the substitutes for the question as the clause. Yes in 1. substitutes “I can put your car in the parking

lot” and “if you get out” in 2. also substitutes “I can put your car in the parking lot (if you get out).”

2.2.1.4 Conjunction

Conjunction is the relation of a wit of idea with the others. (McCarthy, p. 46)

By using conjunction, we see the way in which what is to follow is systematically connected to what has gone before. Conjunction does not depend either on referential meaning or on identity or association of wording.

Additive relation of conjunction is the addition to things that have been said or discussed earlier. It is different from those of co-ordination relation. Additive relation often seems to have the sense of ‘*there is something more to be said*’ while co-ordination not. Additive devices such as and, in addition to, moreover, furthermore, or, similarity, for example, in particular, likewise.

Example: Exercise such as jogging, yoga, aerobic, body language,
are good for your health, and, drinking water eight
glasses per day is also good for your health.

Adversative is one part of conjunction and the basic meaning of the adversative relation is *contrary to expectation* or the things that expected from the previous sentence is different from the end of the whole text. The expectation may come from the content of what is being said or from the communication process.

Adversative devices such as but, however, nevertheless, yet, on the other hand, in fact, conversely.

Example: This type of the machine is the oldest. However, it is the most powerful one.

Causal is another part of conjunction. The causal relation includes the relation of result, reason, and purpose. The devices of causal are because, as the result, so, consequently, for this reason.

Example: Her parents do not have time for her while she needs them the most. Therefore, she uses drugs to get their attention.

Temporal conjunction is the relation between two sentences may be simply one of the sequence in time. It means that one is subsequent to the other. Temporal conjunction uses some words like then, subsequently, before, after that, finally.

Example: Mr. and Mrs. Gordon get an accident while flying to visit their daughter. On another occasion, Sara, their lovely daughter is partying with her friends.

2.2.2 Lexical Cohesive devices

Lexical cohesive device is exact repetition of words and the role played by certain basic semantic relations between words in creating textuality. Lexical relation is the stable semantic relationships that exist between words and which are the basis of

descriptions given in dictionary and thesauri. This lexical cohesion can be divided into two types, reiteration and collocation.

2.2.2.1 Reiteration

Reiteration is placing exactly the same item in the following sentence in the text or when one lexical item refers back to another to which it is related by having a common referent. McCarthy stated Reiteration means either restating an item in a later part of the discourse by direct repetition or else reasserting its meaning by exploiting lexical relations. (p. 65)

A reiterated item may be a repetition of the same item in the previous text, a synonymy or near-synonymy, a super ordinate and a hyponymy or a general word. This items mostly accompanied by reference item typically 'the'.

Repetition

There are two forms of repetition: A. Wholly repeated

 B. Partially repeated.

Example: 1. *The Prime Minister* recorded her thanks to the Foreign Secretary. *The Prime Minister* was most eloquent.
(Wholly repeated)

2. Dr. E. C. R. Reeve chaired the meeting. Dr. Reeve invited Mr. Phillips to report on the state of the gardens. (Partially repeated)

Synonymy and near synonymy is the same thing as paraphrase and it has been used with reference to lexical items. In other words, it is two or more forms, with very closely related meaning or pairs of words that have the same or nearly the same meaning in one or more connotation or association in the same language.

Super-ordinate and subordinate is a general term and it can have many hyponyms.

Example: Henry bought a new *Jaguar*. He practically lived in the *car*.

In this example, *car* is superordinate of *Jaguar*.

Hyponymy or general word is a relationship between two words, in which the meaning of one of the words includes the other word.

For example: daffodil is a hyponym of flower.

Antonymy is a word which is opposite in meaning to another word.

For example: like...hate, wets...dry, hot...cold

2.2.2.2 Collocation

Collocation is the reoccurrence of an item in the text but the repeated item is not exactly the same with the referred item but the item, in some way, is typically much the same with one another because they tend to occur in similar environment. Halliday and Hasan stated that *Collocation* is “the various lexical relations that do not depend

on referential identity and not of the form of reiteration accompanied by ‘*the*’ or demonstrative.” (1980, p.287) Collocation includes pair of words drawn from the same series and part to whole also part to part. In other words, collocation is a certain word that can only occur with certain word.

Pair of words that have opposite meaning

For example: basement...roofs, roads...rail, red...green

Pair of two words drawn from the same series

For example: dollar...cent, north...south, colonel...brigadier.

Part to whole

For example: car...brakes, box...lid

Part to part

For example: mouth...chin, verse...chorus (on refrain)

One of the reasons is that based on the observation on the theory needed for this research, the writer thought that the theory proposed by *Halliday and Hasan* have been the most suitable for this research.

2.3. Review of Previous Studies

In this part, the writer used the previous studies done by Ong in order to give better understanding in analyzing the data because her study has the similarity with this research. It is because Ong chosen the data in article form. Her study deals with

language problem mainly about cohesiveness. Working by the theories of Halliday and Hasan cohesiveness of language She proved that *Jawa Pos* is cohesive either in grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion. The writer needs her study because she works on the data, which is using the same language as the data taken by the writer that is Indonesian.

Besides Ong, a previous study done by Rosdiana is also used since the field of her study is the same as this study. Rosdiana used cohesion to analyze the article issued in “Intisari” magazine. She reported an empirical study in which she analyzes and tabulates the result of the correct and incorrect of cohesive devices in her data. She reported her findings in percentage, which she found that the result of the correct cohesive devices used in the article is 94.35 percent. Meanwhile, the incorrect usage of cohesive devices has the percentage of 5.65 percent. Besides that she found that the most cohesive device occurred in the article is the part of lexical cohesion; repetition-wholly repeated. The second place is from grammatical cohesion; anaphora reference. Her study intended to give better knowledge in cohesive devices. Besides that, the writer is interested on the idea of using tabulation in analyzing the data because it is easier to analyze the data, which is put in the table.