

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter presents the brief explanation about some theories which are related to the problems of the study, namely discourse analysis, cohesion, cohesive devices, and the function of cohesive devices.

2.1 Discourse Analysis

Michael McCarthy (1991) in his book *Discourse Analysis for Language Teachers* gives brief overview about discourse analysis. Discourse analysis is concerned with the study of the relationship between language and the contexts in which it is used (McCarthy, 1991:5). Renkema (2004: 1) makes shorter definition about discourse analysis. He says that a discourse study is the discipline devoted to the investigation of the relationship between form and function in verbal communication. Thus Brown and Yule (1983: 1) states that discourse analyst is committed to an investigation of what that language is used for.

Brown and Yule unify the representation of discourse as texts, whether it has written or spoken forms. Further, Brown and Yule (1983: 23) divide three views on discourse analysis; sentence as object, text as product, and discourse as process. Since language is not a static object, linguist analyzes the data based on discourse as process approach.

From the definition above, discourse analysis is not only concerned with the analysis of spoken interaction. However, discourse analysis covers the study

of spoken and written interaction (McCarthy, 1991:12). In our daily life, there are a lot of printed words: short message, email, news article, leaflets, short story, and others. People usually expect their reading material to have good cohesive relation in order to give full understanding.

One of the areas of discourse analysis study is cohesion. Wang and Guo (2014: 463) state that cohesion plays an important role in discourse studies.

2.2 Cohesion

Cohesion contributes to a text's construction in significant ways. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976:4) cohesion is a semantic one. Cohesion refers to relations of meaning that exist within the text, and that define it as a text. Furthermore, Halliday and Hasan (1976:4) also stated,

“Cohesion occurs where the interpretation of some element in the discourse is dependent on that of another. The one presupposes the other, in the sense that it cannot be effectively decoded except by recourse to it. When this happens, a relation of cohesion is set up, and the two elements, the presupposing and the presupposed, are thereby at least potentially integrated into a text.”

Renkema, in his book, *Introduction to Discourse Studies* shows that cohesion is closely related to coherence as the two form the link for sentences or utterances. Renkema states that connectedness of text is secured by cohesion that refers to connections which have their manifestation in the discourse itself, and coherence that refers to connections which can be made by the reader or listener based on knowledge outside the discourse (2004: 103).

2.3 Cohesive Devices

One of significant phenomena of discourse is cohesion. Cohesion is the important part of a text to be meaningful. A text that is not cohesive is never meaningful. We can not avoid the fact that any sentences or utterances are connected each others. As an analogy, Rankema (2004) states that the discourse relations are the cement between the buildings blocks (propositions).

To make a good cohesive relation, we have to know about cohesive devices. Cohesive devices are used to combine sentences together to make ideas more understandable to the reader. There are two types of cohesive devices which are outlined by Halliday and Hasan (1976:4): grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion. Explanations of each type of cohesive devices are elaborated as follows:

2.3.1 Grammatical Cohesion

Grammatical cohesive devices display grammatical connection between individual clauses and utterances so that it will be clear and comprehensible. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976) grammatical cohesion can be classified to four different devices: reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction.

2.3.1.1 Reference

An item in one sentence may refer to an item in another sentence. It is called reference. In order to understand the sentence, one has to correlate to the referent in another sentence. The cohesion occurs in the continuity of reference whereby the same thing enters into the discourse a second time (Halliday and Haan, 1976: 31).

Michael McCarthy (1991: 35) states that reference items in English include pronouns (e.g. he, she, it, him, they), demonstratives (this, that, these, those), article (the), and items (such a).

In order to interpret the sentence or utterance, one has to look for the referent in other sentence. While pronouns are the most common source for reference, there are other sources. Furthermore, Halliday and Hasan (1976: 33) divide two types of reference based on its reference points.

2.3.1.1.1 Exophoric Reference

This reference occurs when the reference points outwards from the text, linking the text to the context of situation. One must look to the context in which the text occurs to interpret the meaning of the reference. The examples of exophoric can be words like *I*, *mine*, *you*, and *we*, which point to things (the speakers or the speakers' possessions) in which a text occurs. For example: We could move that board.

2.3.1.1.2 Endophoric Reference

Endophoric occur when the reference points inwards to the text; interpreting the meaning of a reference by searching the referent within the text. It divides into two types: anaphoric (pointing backwards to a referent that has already been introduced) and cataphoric (pointing forwards to a referent). Anaphoric is quite common to find in many texts whereas cataphoric is mostly used for stylistic writing. For example: The violin looked beautiful, but its sound reduced from this notion.

Halliday and Hasan (1976:37) also divide three types of reference: personal, demonstrative, and comparative.

2.3.1.1.3 Personal Reference

Personal reference represents a single system, that of person (Halliday and Hassan, 1976:43). Personal reference is reference by means of function through the speech situation using noun pronouns like “he, him, she, her”, and others. And possessive determiners like “mine, yours, his, hers”, and others. For example,

The minister of education has resigned. He declared his decision yesterday.

Personal reference “he” in the sentence above refers to the “minister of education” in the previous sentence. The reference also called anaphoric (pointing backwards to a referent that has already been introduced).

2.3.1.1.4 Demonstrative Reference

This second kinds of reference is essentially in form of verbal pointing (Halliday and Hassan, 1976:57). It is kinds of reference by means of information through location using proximity references like “this, these, that, those, here, there, and then”. For example,

They always go to Delta Fishing in the weekend. There are many fishing pool there.

Demonstrative reference “there” in the sentence above refers to the “Delta Fishing” in the previous sentence. The reference can be qualified as anaphoric

reference because the reference is pointing backwards to a referent that has already been introduced.

2.3.1.1.5 Comparative Reference

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976:77), comparative reference is reference by means of identity and similarity through indirect references using adjectives like “same, equal, similar, different, else, better, more”, and others. Comparative reference can be an adverbs like “so, such, similarly, otherwise, so, more”, and others . For example,

I think this blue shirt is too big for me. Can I have the smaller, please!

Comparative reference is signalled by word “smaller” in the second sentence. It refers to the word “blue shirt”. The reference can be seen as anaphoric reference because the reference is pointing backwards to a referent that has already been introduced.

Comparative reference divides into two kinds based on its comparison aspect: general comparison and particular comparison (Halliday and Hassan, 1976:77). General comparison expresses likeness between things. In the other hand, particular comparison expresses comparability between things in the matter of quantity or quality.

2.3.1.2 Substitution

Substitution is the replacement of a word (group) or sentence segment by a dummy word (Renkema 2004: 103). Many researchers put substitution and ellipsis in the same explanation topic because they both represent a relation within

the text and a substituted item has the same grammatical function as the word it substitutes. Essentially, substitution and ellipsis are the same process; ellipsis can be interpreted as that form of substitution in which the item is replaced by nothing (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 88).

Substitution may have functions as a noun, as a verb, or as a clause. Further, Halliday and Hasan (1976: 91) divide substitution into three types: nominal substitution, verbal substitution, and clausal substitution.

2.3.1.2.1 Nominal Substitution

This substitution indicates by word “one, ones, and same”. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976: 91), nominal substitution in form of “one” and “ones” always functions as head of nominal group, and can substitute only for an item which is itself head of a nominal group. For example,

These frozen foods are expired. Get some new ones.

From the example, the word “frozen food” is the head of the nominal group “frozen foods are expired”. The word “ones” in the next sentence is also the head of the nominal group “new ones”.

2.3.1.2.2 Verbal Substitution

Verbal substitution indicates by word “do, does, and did”. If “one” (nominal substitution) in the previous discussion always substitutes for a noun, “do” may substitute either for a verb or verb plus certain other elements in the clause (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 113). For example,

A: Have you finished your homework?

B: Yes, I do

The words “do” in the conversation above substitute long verbal group. In a complete response, respondent will say “Yes, I have finished my homework”. However, the words “do” replace the verbal group into simple one.

2.3.1.2.3 Clausal Substitution

Clausal substitution indicates by word “so and not”. Different with other type of substitution, in clausal substitution, the entire clause is presupposed and the contrasting element is outside the clause. For example,

A: Are they still debating in there?

B: No, it just seems so.

From the example above, the words “so” presupposes the whole of the clause “they are still debating in there”.

In addition, Halliday and Hasan (1976: 131) divide three environments in which clausal substitution takes place: report, condition, and modality. In each of those environments it may take either of two forms, positive or negative. The positive is expressed by words “so”. In opposite, the negative is signaled by “not”.

2.3.1.3 Ellipsis

Although substitution and ellipsis indicate the same relation between parts of texts, they are two different kinds of structural mechanism. There are more detailed view of the difference between substitution and ellipsis.

“When we talk of ellipsis, we are not referring to any and every instance in which there is some information that the speaker has to supply from his own evidence. That would apply to practically every sentence that is ever spoken or written, and would be of no

help in explaining the nature of a text. We are referring specifically to sentences, clauses, etc whose structure is such to presuppose some preceding item, which then serves as the source of the missing information.” (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 143).

In addition, Renkema (2004: 103) states that ellipsis is closely related to substitution, and can be described as substitution by zero. Ellipsis types that normally used are same like substitution: nominal, verbal and clausal ellipsis.

2.3.1.3.1 Nominal Ellipsis

Nominal ellipsis occurs within the nominal group. Nominal ellipsis involves the word that have a function as deictic, numerative, epithet or classifier from the status of modifier to the status of head (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 148).

For example,

Five frozen foods are expired, and yet another three (frozen food).

In the example above, there is nominal items omit in the second sentence. The word “three” which is numerative and acts as modifier, is upgraded to function as head.

2.3.1.3.2 Verbal Ellipsis

Verbal ellipsis occurs within the verbal group. Verbal ellipsis group presupposes one or more words from a previous verbal group. For example,

He joined the competition, but you didn't (join).

The second clause do not mention full context. The verbal group in the second sentence “you didn't” is instances of verbal ellipsis. It can be said “you didn't join”.

2.3.1.3.1 Clausal Ellipsis

The different of clausal ellipsis from other kinds of ellipsis (nominal and verbal) is refers to ellipsis of a whole clause or part of a clause. In fact, nominal ellipsis and verbal ellipsis are refers to the nominal or verbal groups. For example,

Who was playing the bass? Frank was (playing the bass).

The part that have omitted in the second sentence is part of a clause. The word “playing the bass” is omitted in the second sentence.

2.3.1.4 Conjunction

Conjunction is the relationship which indicates how the subsequent sentence or clause should be linked to the preceding or the following (parts of the) sentence (Renkema, 2004: 104). McCarthy (1991:46) adds that conjunction does not set off a search backward or forward for its referent, but it does presuppose a textual sequence, and signals a relationship between segments of the discourse. In Halliday and Hasan opinion, conjunction is the way to connect what is to follow with what has gone before in which both of them are not structurally related (1976: 227). In other word, conjunctions are applied in order to connect neighbouring clauses according to certain semantic relations.

Further, Halliday and Hasan (1976: 238) divide conjunction into four types: additive, adversative, causal and temporal conjunction.

2.3.1.4.1 Additive Conjunction

Additive conjunctions means add more information, fact, or idea to the previous sentence. It does not express any contrast or inference. The conjunction

marker such as in “and, also, in addition, not only ... but also, moreover, further, besides”. For example,

He no longer goes to school and is planning to look for a job.

2.3.1.4.2 Adversative Conjunction

Halliday and Hasan (1976: 250) mention that the main meaning of the adversative relation is “contrary to expectation”. It means that adversative conjunctions express contrast between two statements. There are some conjunction words that are classified as adversative conjunction such as “but, however, in contrast, on the contrary, instead, nevertheless, yet, still, even so, neither ... nor”. For example,

Rina acts so arrogant in the play. In contrast, Rani acts so kind as protagonist.

There is one adversative conjunction in the second sentence which is indicated by “in contrast”. It is used to express the contrast between Rina and Rani in the play.

2.3.1.4.3 Temporal Conjunction

Halliday and Hasan (1976: 261) suppose that the relation between two successive sentences may be simply one of sequence in time: the one is subsequent to the other. There are some conjunction words that are classified as temporality conjunction such as “as, after, as soon as, at first, at once, before, finally, just, meanwhile, next, now, now that, since, then, until, when, whenever, while”, and many more. For example,

After the car had been repaired, we were able to continue our long trip.

2.3.1.4.4 Causal Conjunction

Causal conjunction such as in simply word “because” introduces a statement describing the cause of something. Other causal conjunction words are “although, as a result, because, by, consequently, despite, due to, for that reason, in case, in order, in this way, otherwise, since, so, so as to, so that, therefore, though, thus, to that end, unless, until, yet”. For example,

He is not going to school today because he is sick

Conjunctive elements are very important cohesive ties although they are not cohesive themselves. However, “they bear a meaning that further determines the presence of other components in the discourse” (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 229).

2.3.2 Lexical Cohesion

While grammatical cohesive devices focus on the grammatical structure to make the text not ambiguous and become comprehensible, lexical cohesion contributes to the other side. Lexical cohesion also gives significant contribution to the text meaning, and it helps to link parts of the texts.

Cohesion in a text is composed by selected vocabulary and lexical cohesion is a part of cohesion that focuses with connection word used. Based on Halliday and Hasan (1976) explanation, they divide the lexical cohesion into two categories; reiteration and collocation.

2.3.2.1 Reiteration

In lexical point of view, when people talk about something, they often repeat some words to show emphasize. That is only the simplest way to indicate reiteration. Reiteration could be in the form of synonym, antonym, and general word.

“Reiteration is a form of lexical cohesion which involves the repetition of a lexical item at one end of the scale; the use of a general word to refer back to a lexical item, at the other end of the scale; and a number of things in between – the use of synonym, near-synonym, or superordinate” (Halliday and Hasan, 1976:278).

However, Paltridge (2006:133) distinguishes reiteration into five types, which are:

2.3.2.1.1 Repetition

Repetition is a part of lexical cohesion that often occurs in the sentence. Repetition of the same lexical item is the easiest form of reiteration. Therefore, quite a large number of repetitions can be found in newspaper, magazine, and other kinds of discourse. For example,

A conference will be held on national environment policy. At this conference the issue of salivation will pay an important role. (Renkema, 2004:105).

The word “conference” is repeated in next sentence. It is categorized as repetition because the meaning of “this conference” is still related with “a conference” at first sentence.

2.3.2.1.2 Synonym

In Halliday and Hasan opinion, reiteration includes not only the repetition of the word, but synonyms, near-synonyms and general words as well. Synonym refers to words which are similar in meaning such as “blokes” and “men” (Paltridge, 2006: 134). Here the example of synonym in the text.

“A conference will be held on national environment policy. This environmental symposium will be primarily a conference dealing with water” (Renkema, 2004:105).

Synonym means two or more form which associated with the same meaning. In the sentence above, the word “conference” and “symposium” has the same meaning. The author used different word but has the same meaning in order to makes the variation in the text.

2.3.2.1.3 Antonym

Antonym describes opposite or contrastive meanings such as “shy” and “forward” (Paltridge, 2006: 134). Antonym is one of lexical items which are opposite in meaning. We know as we read the text which contrast or different in meaning with each other. For example,

The old player is more adaptable. The new comer can't compete with the seniors.

The meaning of “old” and “new” is contrary. In this case, antonym characterize of such pairs of lexical item that denial of the one implies the denial of other.

2.3.2.1.4 Hyponym

Hyponym, according to Paltridge (2006: 135) refers to classes of lexical items where the relationship between them is one of “general-specific”. Further, the item that relates to general class is called super ordinate and the item that relates to the sub-classes is called hyponym. For example,

There are many flowers in his house. He has tulip, rose, orchid, jasmine and sunflower.

If we take “flowers” as an example of super-ordinate then its hyponyms are “tulip, rose, orchid, jasmine and sunflower”. The relationship between flowers and the kinds of flowers are general to specific.

2.3.2.1.5 Meronym

As the opposite of hyponym, meronym, according to Paltridge (2006: 136) is where lexical items are in a “whole to part” relationship with each other. For example,

“At its six-month checkup, the brakes have to be repaired. In general, however, the car is in good condition” (Rankema, 2004: 105).

“Brake” is the part of “car” as the whole. The example above shows the relationship of lexical items in a ‘whole to part’ form.

2.3.2.2 Collocation

Collocation is the second type of lexical cohesion. It deals with the relationships between words on the basis of the fact that these often occur in the same surroundings (Rankema, 2004: 105).

Halliday and Hasan (1976: 288) put collocation as a framework of lexical cohesion instead of reiteration. Collocation refers to the semantic and structural relation among words. Native speakers can use collocation subconsciously for comprehension or production of a text. Collocation relates to lexical items that are likely to be found together within the same text.

Collocation is not something that is restricted to a single text but is part of textual knowledge in common (Paltridge, 2006: 137). Such collocation relationships exist between words that have a tendency to occur in similar lexical environments. Words tend to occur in similar lexical environments because they explain things that have a tendency to occur in similar situations or contexts.

Finally, there are two kinds of cohesive devices which usually used to combine sentences together to make ideas more understandable to the reader. Based on the theory of Halliday and Hasan (1976), there are two types of cohesive devices; grammatical and lexical cohesion. Reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction are parts of grammatical cohesive device, while reiteration and collocation are elements of lexical cohesive device. In speaking, speakers may not use all of cohesive devices. They will use some cohesive devices as they like to support their speaking.

2.4 The Functions of Cohesive Devices

2.4.1 The Functions of Grammatical Cohesion

Grammatical cohesion correlates with the linguistic structure. The function of grammatical cohesion is to indicate the grammatical relation within elements in the text. Halliday and Hasan (1976: 238) classify grammatical cohesion into

four different devices: reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction. Those four grammatical cohesive devices have different function.

2.4.1.1 Reference

Halliday and Hasan (1976: 37) divide three types of reference: personal, demonstrative, and comparative. The functions of those references are:

2.4.1.1.1 Personal reference is used to refer to relevant persons and objects

(Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 45). For example, Frank has a new motorcycle. He got the prize from his parents.

2.4.1.1.2 Demonstrative reference is used to refer to the location of a process in

space or time (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 57). For example, You can park your car there. In the line number B29.

2.4.1.1.3 Comparative reference is used to express the likeness between things

(Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 77). Halliday and Hasan divide comparative reference into two kinds: general and particular reference. While general comparative reference expresses likeness between things, particular comparative reference expresses comparability between things in the matter of quantity or quality. For example, This burger is very small. I want to eat the bigger.

2.4.1.2 Substitution

Halliday and Hasan (1976: 91) also divide substitution into three types; nominal, verbal, and clausal. The function of substitution is to substitute the similar noun, verb, and clause in the text. The substitution which is used to

substitute noun is *one*, *ones*, and *same*. Then, the substitution which is used to substitute verb is *do*, *does*, and *did*. The substitution *so* and *not* is used to substitute clause.

2.4.1.3 Ellipsis

Similar with substitution, ellipsis indicates the same relation between parts of texts. However, if substitution is used to substitute the similar noun, verb, and clause, the function of ellipsis is to omit the similar noun, verb, and clause which have been stated in the previous sentence.

2.4.1.4 Conjunction

In general, conjunction is a word which is used as a linker. Halliday and Hasan (1976: 238) divide conjunction into four types: additive, adversative, causal and temporal conjunction. The functions of conjunction are different based on the types:

2.4.1.4.1 Additive conjunction is used to indicate an additional of a fact or idea

2.4.1.4.2 Adversative conjunction is used to indicate contrast when we have to join two statements into one

2.4.1.4.3 Causal conjunction is used to indicate a concession in an argument or cause and effect relationship. In a different word, causal conjunction is used to express a cause or a reason.

2.4.1.4.4 Temporal conjunction is used to show time order. Also, it can indicate conclusion or a summary.

2.4.2 The Function of Lexical Cohesion

In general, the function of lexical cohesion is to indicate the relationship of meaning between lexical items in a text, in particular, content words and the relationship between them (Paltridge, 2006: 133). Further, lexical cohesion uses to produce a good coherence in presenting the text in order to make the text be interesting and not monotonous. Halliday and Hasan (1976: 318) divide lexical cohesion into two categories: reiteration and collocation. Lexical cohesion has some functions based on their types:

2.4.2.1 Reiteration

Reiteration is used to reiterate the previous item, either in an identical or modified form. According to Paltridge (2006: 133), reiteration can be expressed by using five types. There are different functions based on types of reiteration.

2.4.2.1.1 To indicate repetition, if a word is repeated in some sentences or clauses.

For example,

A conference will be held on national environment policy. At this conference the issue of salivation will pay an important role.

The word “conference” in the first sentence is repeated in the second sentence with the same word ‘conference’, so it is called to indicate repetition.

2.4.2.1.2 To indicate synonym, when two different words have the same sense of meaning. For example,

I will make a party for my brother’s birthday next week. The celebration will be held at Victoria Hotel.

The word “party” in the first sentence is has the same meaning with “celebration” which occur in the second sentence. The meaning is an event which held to celebrate special things. So, the function of reiteration in the sentence above is as a synonym.

2.4.2.1.3 To indicate hyponym, when the meaning of word is included in the other word which more general. For example,

Gerald eats all kinds of vegetables. However, he just likes carrot and spinach.

Carrot and spinach are the name of vegetables, so their function is as a hyponym of the word vegetables.

2.4.2.1.4 To in indicate a meronym, when the meaning of word is a part of a whole word. For example,

My uncle goes to Jakarta by motorcycle, when he arrived in Depok, the chain was break.

Chain is a part of motorcycle, so its function is as a meronym or to indicate part (chain) and whole (motorcycle).

2.4.2.1.5 To indicate an antonym, when two words occur with have opposite meaning. For example,

The new books and the old are provided in our library.

The words new and old are having opposite meaning each other. So the function of reiteration above is as an antonym.

2.4.2.2 Collocation

Second function of lexical cohesion (collocation) is used to indicate co-occurrence of words in which their meaning related in the same environment. According to Paltridge (2006:137), “collocation describes associations between vocabulary items which have a tendency to co-occur”. First combinations can be seen between adjectives and nouns as in *real-estate agent*, and the *right direction*. The combination between verbs and nouns also creates collocation such as in *waste time*.