CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1   Theoretical Framework

This chapter contains description of the theories that used to analyze the data and review of the studies. The main data of this research are some sentences that contained cohesive devices. Theory of Discourse analysis by Brian Paltridge, 2006 will help the researcher to analyze this study and the theory of cohesive devices by Halliday and Hassan's, 1976 will also support this analysis.

2.1.1   Discourse Analysis

Discourse analysis is study about analyze of the spoken language and written language. Brian Paltridge state that discourse analysis is an approach to the analysis of language that that looks at patterns of language across texts as well as the social and cultural contexts in which the texts occur. Discourse analysis is used to an investigation of what that language is used for (brown and Yule,   1983: 1)

There are two kinds of discourse: written and spoken discourse. The example of spoken discourse are speech, speaking and etc while written discourse are newspaper, magazine, and books. Spoken discourse like speaking is disorganized and ungrammatically then written discourse. Spoken discourse is often produced spontaneously and we are able to see the process of its production as someone speaks (Brian Paltridge 2006: 17).

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2.1.2 Text

A text can be defined as an actual use of language, as distinct from a sentence which is an abstract unit of linguistic analysis (H.G. Widdowson 2007:4). While Halliday and Hasan state a text is not just a string of sentences, in other words it is not simply a large grammatical unit, something of the same kind as sentence but differing from in its size. There are two kinds of text: spoken and written text. Spoken text is the utterances that produce by people like speech, conversation, and etc. while written text is a text that formed by people writing such as newspaper, magazine, books, and etc. sometimes spoken text is ungrammatical because spoken text is depend on the speaker utterances. While written text more attention with grammatical, discourse connections like cohesive device that used in text and the meaning of the text.

2.1.3 Cohesive Devices

Cohesive devices sometimes called discourse connections. Cohesive devices are also used to tie pieces of text together in specific ways (Evelyn Hatch, 1992). It means cohesive devices are the items that consist of word to link between sentences, phrases and clauses. In writing, cohesive devices is the important thing because can guide the writer to make a good writing and know the differences between clauses, sentences, and paragraphs. Without cohesive device, text is meaningless and makes the readers confused when they read the text.

Guy Cook (1994) state that cohesive devices are links between sentences and between clauses. Guy cook distinguish seven major types of cohesive devices, such as verb forms, parallelism, referring expressions, repetition and lexical chains, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction. Halliday and Hasan's (1976) distinguish five major types of grammatical cohesive devices such as reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction, and lexical chains.

Based on those explanation above almost the philosopher describe the cohesive devices in the same thing but in this research the writer uses the theory based on Halliday and hasan about grammatical cohesive device which explain in bellow explanation :

1. Reference

Reference refers to the situation where the identity of an item can be retrieved from either within or outside the text. The simple explanation reference is the words of which the meaning can only discovered by referring to other words or to elements of the context which are clear to both sender and receiver (cook, 1994). To establish reference, we may use lexical items. For example:

Mary is a beautiful girl

"Mary" can be used to refer to a person named *Mary*. Once establish the referent, we can also refer to *Mary* as "she", at least for the period of time during which our focus is on *Mary* (Evelyn Hatch 1992: 223).

The forms of reference are Exophora reference (situational) and Endophora reference (textual). Exophora reference looks outside the text to the situation in which

the text occurs for the identity of the item being referred to (Brian Paltridge, 2006: 132). While Endophora reference refers to the something within the surrounding text. Endophora consist of anaphora (to preceding text) and cataphora (to following text). For example:

a. **She** was reading on in the library (Exophora reference)

b. Sally is beautiful girl. **She** uses red shoes. (Endophora reference)

c. **James** studied really hard for **his** test. (Anaphora reference)

d. Because **she** studied really hard, **Shinta** aced her test. (Cataphora Reference)

In the (a) sentence the word "she" is exophora reference. this sentence is refers to the someone who is reading in the library and the someone is not mentioned in the sentence. In (b) sentence the word "she" is endophora refererence and refers to Sally. It is different with (a) sentence because the identity or someone mentioned in the sentence. in (c) sentence the word "his" is anaphora reference. this word refers to "James", it called anaphora reference because the identity or someone (James) mentioned at the beginning in the sentence. In (d) sentence the word "she" is cataphora reference. it called cataphora because the pronoun mentioned at the beginning in the sentence then followed by identity or someone (Shinta)

Halliday and Hasan state there are three types of reference: personal, demonstrative, and comparatives. Personal reference is by means of function in the speech situation, though the category of person, for example you, yours, your. Demonstrative reference is reference by means of location, for example: this, these,

that, those, here (now), there, then. Comparative reference is indirect reference by means of identity or similarity, for example: similar, equal, likewise, less, more, otherwise, different.

2. Substitution

Substitution is a substitute form is used for another language item, phrase, or group (Brian Paltridge 2006: 141). While Halliday and Hasan state substitution as the replacement of one items by another. According the explanation above substitution is the substitute of a word with another word that matches with the word will substituted. For example:

*"My axe is too blunt. I must get a sharper **one.**"*

The word "*one*" substitutes "*axe*", in the sentence the speaker does not repeat the word "*axe*" in the second sentence but the speaker uses word "*one*" that refers to "*axe*", means the speaker want to another axe.

Since substitution is a grammatical relation, a relation in the wording rather than in the meaning, the different types of substitution are defined grammatically rather than semantically. To these correspond the three types of substitution are nominal (one, ones, same), verbal (do), and clausal (so, not) (Halliday and.Hasan 1976: 90).

The substitute one/ones always function as head of a nominal group and can substitute only for an items which is itself head of a nominal group. For example:

a. We have no coal fires, only wood **ones.**

b. My axe is too blunt. I must get the sharper **one.**

c. I'll have two pouched eggs on toast, please. I'll have the **same.**

The word *ones, one, and same* is the example of nominal substitution. In sentence A, the word *"ones"* substitutes *"coal fires"*, in sentence B, the word *"one"* substitutes *"axe"*, and in sentence C, the word *"same"* substitutes *"two pouched eggs"*.

The verbal substitution in English is do. This operates as head of a verbal group, in the place that is occupied by the lexical verb and its position is always final in the group. For example:

a. The children work very hard in the garden. They must **do**

The word *"do"* is substitutes *"work very hard",* because in the second sentence the speaker not repeat word *"work very hard"* but use word *"do".* It means they (children) must work very hard.

There is one further type of substitution in which what is presupposed is not an element within the clause but an entire clause. The words used as substitute are *so* and *not.* For example:

a. Is there going to be an earthquake? – it says **so**.

3. Ellipsis

Ellipsis is some essential element is omitted from the text and can be recovered by referring preceding element in the text. Ellipsis may involve the omission of a noun or noun group, a verb or verbal group, or a clause (Brian Paltridge 2006: 141).

While Halliday and Hasan state Ellipsis is the same with substitution by zero. For example:

*Would you like to hear another **verse**? I know twelve.*

Ellipsis in the sentence is "*verse*" because the word *verse* was omission in the second sentence so the speaker only say *"I know twelve"* means the speaker know about twelve verse.

There are three types of ellipsis, nominal ellipsis, verbal ellipsis, and clausal ellipsis. Nominal ellipsis means ellipsis within the nominal group. Nominal ellipsis consist of the elements specific deictic (the, possessive, and demonstrative), non-specific deictic (every, neither, both, either, some, and etc), pre deictic (both, all), post deictic (same, different, identical, other, and etc), numeratives (second, first, next, last, and etc), and epithets (adjective). For example:

a. Take these **pills** three times daily. And you'd better have some more of **those**. (Specific deictic)

b. These **apples** are delicious. Lets by **some**. (non specific deictic)

c. I've used up these three **yellow folders** you gave me. Can I use the **other**? (post deictic)

d. Four other **Oysters** followed them, and yet another **four**. (Numerative)

e. Which **hat** will you wear? – This is the **best**. (epithets)

In (a) sentence the word that omission in the sentence is "pills", because in the next sentence the speaker only say "*And you'd better have some more of **those***" means

that the speaker have some those pills. It called specific deictic because "pills" functioning as head, is omitted and replaced by demonstrative modifier "those". In (b) sentence, the ellipsis in the sentence is "apples" because this word is omitted in the next sentence. in the next sentence speaker only say *"Lets by some"* means that *lets by some apples.* In (c) sentence the word that omitted is *"yellow folders"* and this word called as post deictic ellipsis. It called post deictic because post deictic is adjectives and the word "yellow folders" include in adjective. In (d) sentence the word that omitted is "Oysters" and this is include in numerative ellipsis. It called numerative ellipsis because in the second sentence the speaker only say "yet another four". The word four includes in numerative and this sentence means four oysters. In (e) sentence, the word that omitted is "hat" and it is include in category of ephitets. It can called ephitets because the word "best" in the second sentence include in adjectives.

Verbal ellipsis is an elliptical verbal group presupposes one or more words from a previous verbal group. For example:

a. Have you been swimming ? – yes, I have

b. What have you been doing? – Swimming.

Clausal ellipsis is considered as the expression of the various speech functions, such as statement, question, response and so on. Clausal elements consist of modal elements and prepositional elements. For example:

a. What **was** the Duke going to do? – Plant row of poplars in the park. (modal elements)

b. Who was going to plant a row of poplars in the parks? – The Duke was. (prepositional elements).

4. Conjunction

Conjunction refers to words, such as and, however, finally, and in conclusion, that join phrases, clauses, or sections of a text in such a way that they express the logical semantic relationship between them (Brian Paltridge 2006: 139). Conjunction are described by Halliday and Hasan under the groupings of additive, adversative, causal and temporal conjunctions.

Additive conjunction include and, or, moreover, in addition, and alternatively. Adversative conjunctions include but. Temporal conjunction include while, when, after, meanwhile, then, finally. Causal conjunction include therefore, because, so. For example:

a. "While you're refreshing yourself," said the Queen, " I'll just take the measurements." And she took a ribbon out of her pocket, marked in inches.. (additive conjunction)

b. He's not exactly good looking. But he's got brains. (adversative conjunction)

c. She felt that there was no time to be lost, as she was shrinking rapidly, so she got to work at once to eat some of the other bit. (causal conjunction)

d. The weather cleared just as the party approached the summit. Until then they had seen nothing of the panorama around them.

1. Lexical cohesion

Lexical cohesion refers to relationship in meaning between lexical items in a text (Brian Paltridge 2006: 133). Halliday and Hasan state two types of lexical cohesion such as reiteration and collocation.

Reiteration is a form of lexical cohesion which involves the repetition of lexical item, at one end of the scale and a number of things in between the use of a synonym, near synonym, or superordinate. For example:

a. There was a large of **mushroom** growing near her, about the same height as herself, and when she had looked under it, it occurred to her that she might as well look and see what was on the top of fit. She stretched herself up on tiptoe, and peeped over the edge of the **mushroom**……

b. Accordingly………. I took leave and turned to the ascent of the peak. The climb is perfectly easy….

c. Then quickly rose sir Bedivere, and ran,

And leaping down the ridges lightly, plung'd

Among the bulrush beds, and clutch'd the sword

And lightly whell'd and threw it. the great brand

Made light nings in the splendor of the moon…

d. Henry bought himself a new jaguar. He practically lives in the car.

In (a) there is repetition, *mushroom* refers back to *mushroom*. In (b) *climb* refers back to *ascent*, of which it is a synonym. In (c) *brand* refers back to *sword* , of which it is a near synonym. In (d) *car* refers back to *Jaguar* and *car* is supordinate of *Jaguar*.

Collocation is an associations between vocabulary items which have a tendency to co – occur, such as combinations of adjective and nouns, *as real-estate agent, the right direction and Aussie man* (Brian Paltridge 2006:137). While Halliday and hasan state collocation is achieved through the association of lexical items that regularly co-occur. For example: *whole day, all day, sunset, and mountaineering.*

2.2 Review of the related Studies.

The research of cohesive devices had done by many people. There are many objects that the researcher used such as movie script, drama, novel, speech and etc. There are two students that also take cohesive devices in their studies. Risna observe cohesive devices in speech and Rosalina observe cohesive devices in short stories.

Risna (2012) studied about cohesive devices in speech (spoken discourse) with the title *Formal Links Approach to Grammar and Lexicon used in Barack Obama speech "Pulang Kampung nih."* This thesis analyzed cohesive devices based on the application of Guy Cook (1989) seven classifications of cohesive devices (verb form, parallelism, referring expression, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction).

Finally, the result of this research she found that by using of cohesive devices. In her research, she found many cohesive devices in the speech and tenses

that used in speech appropriate with the time of the events and in this research the researcher find the conjunction that used in this speech is only causal conjunction. According to this research, the researcher can be judge if this speech had a logic context so the main message of the speaker can be delivered to the listener.

The next researcher, Rosalina (2008) is a student from North Sumatera University Medan. She studied about cohesive devices in short stories and the title is *The Use of Cohesive Devices in Selected Short stories of Ernest Hemingway: A Discourse Analysis.* The data taken from some short stories that written by Ernest Hemingway. The short stories that selected of this research are *The Light of the World, Hills like White Elephants,* and *A Clean- Well Lighted Place.* Researcher used quantitative method in her research. Based on the analysis, reference was dominant in three short stories. Then, followed by conjunction, ellipsis, lexical cohesion, and the last is substitution. Reference was dominant in this research because in short stories there are some characters that play in the story. Therefore, in the dialogue there are many references that found in short stories.

From the explanation above, researcher uses this research as previous of the studies because researcher gets information and learns from the studies. There are differences between previous studies and my research. In the first studies, researcher use different theory and data. Risna use guy cook theory to analyze her data but I use theory of cohesive devices from Halliday and Hasan to analyze my data. Risna also using spoken text as her data while I using written text as the main data. The second

researcher is Rosalina. She uses quantitative method to analyze her research. It is different with the first research and my research. Rosalina only mention the sentences that contain cohesive devices without describe why the sentences or word include in type of cohesive devices. In my research, researcher not only mentions the sentences that contain cohesive devices but researcher describe the function and the using of cohesive devices appropriate with the theory or not.