#### **CHAPTER II**

### REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter reviews some theories which are related to the research. They are theoretical framework, grammatical cohesion, and the book "#88 LOVE LIFE". They are presented in order to avoid some ambiguous explanation in the research afterwards.

This research takes a relation of words and sentence in text of book entitled "#88 LOVE LIFE" by Diana Rikasari. In the book, the author tried to deliver her message by using written text. Text is not only about spoken but also written. In the written text we should connect the coherence and cohesion among the sentences. The cohesion is very important and used to build the understanding of the readers in order they can catch what the author's mean.

Halliday and Hasan (1976:4) in their book entitled "Cohesion in English" defined that cohesion is as set of linguistic means that we have available for creating texture. The concept of cohesion is a semantic one; it is correlated with meaning that exist within the text, and that define it as a text.

In their book, Halliday and Hasan divided cohesive device into two characteristics; they are grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion. Grammatical cohesion is a cohesive tie which expressed through the grammatical system (Halliday and Hasan, 1976:6). It consists of reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction. Reference is divided into three kinds; personal, demonstrative, and

comparative. Substitution is divided into three kinds; nominal, verbal, clausal. Elipsis is divided into two kinds; verbal and clausal. The last is conjunction which is divided into four kinds; additive, adversative, causal, and temporal.

Meanwhile, lexical cohesion is study related with vocabulary of language; how words are formed, how they have developed and used, and how they relate in meaning to each other. Based on Halliday and Hasan, lexical cohesion divides into two kinds; they are reiteration and collocation. Reiteration is divided into four kinds; repetition, synonym, general word, and superordinate.

However, this research focuses in grammatical cohesion especially in part of conjunction. To make easy to understand the statements above the researcher writes them into framework which is an illustration as follows:

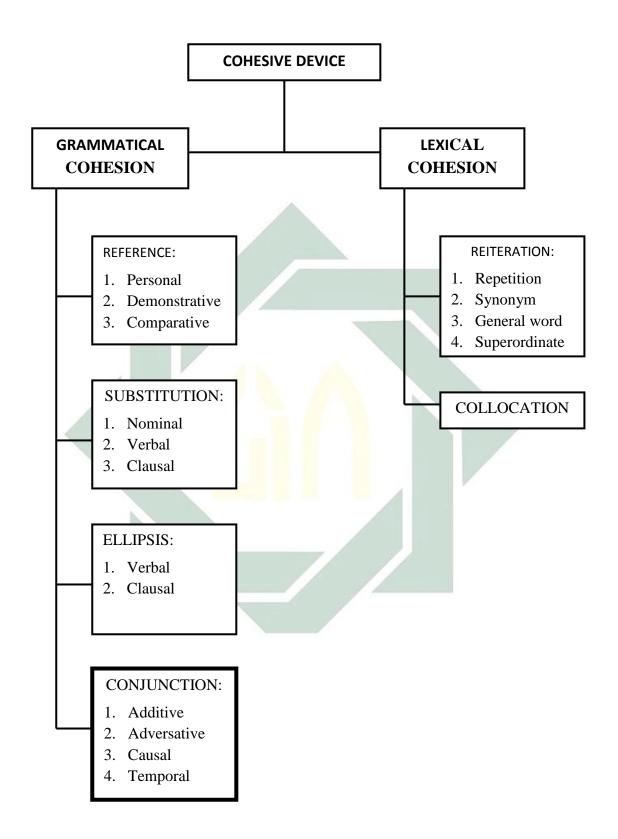


Figure 2.1 Theoretical Frameworks of Cohesive Devices (Halliday and Hasan: 1976).

#### 2.1 Grammatical Cohesion

Spoken and written discourses display grammatical connection between individual clauses and utterances (Brown and Yule, 1983:192). As explained before grammatical cohesion is classified under four broad types; they are reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction. Both of them will be explained bellow.

### 2.1.1 Reference

Reference occurs when the elements not only need to be interpretation systematically but also give reference to other something to be interpreted. The reference refers to the same thing. Halliday and Hasan state reference is the specific nature of the information that is signaled for retrieval. They divide reference into two characteristics; they are exophoric reference which refers to situational reference and endhoporic which refers to textual reference, if endhoporic they may be anaphoric or cataphoric. Anaphoric refers to introduce the real same entities that turned by antecedent, while cataphoric is the referent which has not introduced before.

According Halliday and Hasan, there are three types of reference; they are personal reference, demonstrative reference, and comparative reference (Halliday and Hasan, 1976:37). Personal reference is the reference refers to individual in utterance situation, through the category of person; e.g. I, me, mine, my, you, yours, your, etc. Demonstrative reference is the reference by means of location, on a scale of proximity; e.g. this, these, that, those. Comparative reference used when

two or more things are compared in a text, this can often contribute to cohesion. We can distinguish two types of comparison; they are general comparison (expresses equal and unequal, similar and different thing) and particular comparison (expresses comparability between things in quantity or quality).

#### 2.1.2 Substitution

Substitution is a linguistic element such as words or phrases is not repeated but replaced by a substitution item. In the term of linguistic system, substitution is a relation on the level of grammar and vocabulary. It means that substitution has a relation in wording rather than in meaning (Halliday and Hasan, 1976:89).

Halliday and Hasan classify substitution into three types; they are nominal substitution, verbal substitution, and clausal substitution. Nominal substitution (one, ones, same) always functions as head of a nominal group. Verbal substitution (do) operates as head of a verbal group. Clausal substitution (so, not) has three environments which has two forms expresses each of them; they are positive which is expressed by so and negative by not.

### 2.1.3 Ellipsis

Sanders and Pander (2006:591) state that ellipsis is one of the identical linguistic elements is omitted. There is no implication here that what is unsaid is not understood; on the contrary, 'unsaid' implies 'but understood nevertheless', and another way of referring to ellipsis is in fact as something understood, where

understood is used in the special sense of 'going without saying (Halliday and Hasan, 1967:142).

Ellipsis has divided into three types; they are nominal, verbal, and clausal ellipsis. Halliday and Hasan state that nominal ellipsis as the one which operates on the nominal group that consists of a head with optional modifier. Verbal ellipsis means ellipsis within the verbal group. Clausal ellipsis consists of two parts structure; they are modal and propositional.

## 2.1.4 Conjunction

The researcher uses theory of conjunction by Halliday and Hasan to analyze the data, especially to identify the types of conjunction. Conjunction is words which connects two clauses in the same sentence (Cory, 1996:20). Moreover, Halliday and Hasan (1976:303) define that conjunction is on the borderline of the grammatical and the lexical cohesion. They also divided conjunction into four categories; they are additive, adversative, causal, and temporal conjunction.

### 2.1.4.1 Additive Conjunction

To add additional sentence in the different sense we usually use word to make the sentence coherent and cohesive. Halliday and Hasan (1976:244) state that the cohesive relation expressed by *and* at the beginning of a new sentence and it is embodied in the form coordination and apposition. They also classify the words that used cohesively as conjunction which include in additive by several

types into five types, namely simple additive relations, complex additive relations (emphatic), complex additive relations (de-emphatic), comparative relations, and appositive relations.

## 2.1.4.1.1 Simple Additive Relations Conjunction

Simple additive relation includes negative and alternative form (Halliday and Hasan, 1976:245). For example: *and, and also* (additive form); *or, or else* (alternative form); and *nor, neither, not...either* (negative form). Some examples of simple additive relation:

- a. I was very nearly opening the window, and putting you out into snow.
- b. I have **not** sent two messenger **either**.

The examples above show the simple additive relations form in words and and not ... either. The word and used to add more information to be said. Moreover, not ... either shows the information in the negative form of simple additive relations.

## **2.1.4.1.2** Complex Additive Relations (emphatic)

There are large conjunctive expressions which included in this relation such as: further, furthermore, again, also, moreover, what is more, besides, additionally, in addition, in addition to this, not only that but (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 246). The example of additive relation which shows an emphatic:

My client says he does not know this witness. **Further**, he denies ever having seen her or spoken to her.

The sentence above shows us the example of complex additive relation using *further*, which is used to complete the sentence before.

## **2.1.4.1.3** Complex Additive Relations (de-emphatic)

Halliday and Hasan (1976:249) state the function of de-emphasis is to reduce the weight accorded to the presupposing sentence and to its connection with what went before. The words show a kind of de-emphatic; such as *incidentally, by the way*. The example which shows of complex additive relation (de-emphasis):

Marry wants to study hard tonight. **Incidentally**, she feels hungry. Then she goes out to buy snacks in minimarket.

# 2.1.4.1.4 Comparative Relations

Comparative relations contain of similarity and dissimilarity. The similarity is a related pattern which shows a comparison of what is being said with what has gone before. The expressions include in comparative relations of similarity such as *similarly*, *likewise*, *in the same way*. It is used by the speaker to explain a new one added to the same effect and the relevance of the presupposing sentence is its similarity of import to the presupposed one. Meanwhile dissimilarity relation shows negative comparison where the meaning is in contradistinction. The expressions which following the dissimilarity such as *on the other hand, by contrast, as opposed to this*, and so on (Halliday and Hasan, 1976:247).

Below are the examples which express similarity and dissimilarity:

- a. Treating people as responsible citizens brings out the best in them; they behave as such. **In the same way** if you treat them as criminals they will soon begin to act like criminals. (**Similarity**)
- b. Our garden didn't very well this year. **By contrast**, the orchard is looking very healthy. (**Dissimilarity**)

## 2.1.4.1.5 Appositive Relations

Appositive relation divided into two types; they are exposition and exemplification. Exposition usually expressed by the phrase such as *I mean, that, that is to say, in other words, to put it another away.* Meanwhile exemplification is expressed by for *instance, for example, thus* (Halliday and Hasan, 1976:248). The examples of them following as:

- a. I wonder whether that statement can be backed up by adequate evidence. In other words, you do not believe me. (Exposition)
- b. In the index of Railroad Stations the names of many railroads are followed by small numerals. These are time-table numbers indicating the table in which a given station is shown in the railroad's representation. **For example**, under Danbury Ct., is shown "N.Y.New Hav. and H., 12. (**Exemplification**)

### 2.1.4.2 Adversative Conjunction

The basic meaning of the adversative relation is 'contrary to the expectation'. The expectation may be derived from the content of what is being said, or from the communication process, and speaker-hearer situation (Halliday and Hasan, 1976:250). There are four relations under type of adversative conjunction namely adversative relations (proper), contrastive relations, correction relations, and dismissive relations.

## 2.1.4.2.1 Adversative Relations (Proper)

This relation expressed by the words yet, though, even though, although, only, but, however, nevertheless, despite this, all the same. The word yet occurs initially in the sentence and usually find in the sentence beginning. It differs with but that contains element 'and' as one of its meaning components and it always located within sentence (Halliday and Hasan, 1976:250). Meanwhile, the words however, nevertheless, despite this, and all the same contain the meaning that shows emphatic sense. The examples of adversative relations (proper) as follow:

- a. All the figures were correct; they had been checked. **Yet** the total came out wrong.
- b. All this time Tweedledee was trying his best to fold up the umbrella with himself **but** he could not quite succeed.
- c. Jane felt most disheartened. However, she was not going to let herself be beaten.

### 2.1.4.2.2 Contrastive Relations

At the same time, the words *but* and *however* also occur in a contrastive relation. Furthermore, contrastive relation is a relation of adversative conjunction which express of 'as against' (Halliday and Hasan, 1976:253). In addition, this relation also expressed by the words *on the other hand, in fact, as a matter of fact, actually, in the point of fact.* Look at the following examples:

- a. She failed. **However**, she is tried her best.
- b. He is not exactly good looking **but** he is got brain.

From the sentences above the meaning of *however* and *but* are as against for the sentence before but general meaning is still 'contrary to expectation'.

#### 2.1.4.2.3 Corrective Relations

The words that used in the corrective relation are *instead*, *rather*, *on the contrary*, *at least*. The contrast may be between two alternative phenomena or between two different formulations of the same phenomenon which has been told by us (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 254). Sentence below is the example of corrective relations:

a. He showed no pleasure at hearing the news. **Instead** he looked even gloomier.

#### 2.1.4.2.4 Dismissive Relations

The words which express the dismissive relation; such as *in either case*, *in any case*, *in any event*, *either way*, *whichever happens*, *anyhow*, *at any rate*. This presupposes that some circumstances have been referred to which are then dismissed as irrelevant either because it does not matter whether they obtain or not, or because it does not matter which of the given set of circumstances obtains (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 254). The examples of dismissive relation as follow:

- a. We may be back tonight; I'm not sure. **Either way**, just make yourself at home.
- b. Your partner may support you or may change to another suit. In **either case**, you should respond.

#### 2.1.4.3 Causal Conjunction

We usually find a sentence which explains about a reason or purpose and it is happened in causal conjunction. The general meaning of the causal conjunction is because..., so. There are five relations under this type namely general causal relations, specific causal relations, reversed causal relations, conditional relations, and respective relations.

#### 2.1.4.3.1 General Causal Relations

General causal relations used to imply reasoning or argument from a premise. This relation is expressed by *so, thus, hence, therefore, consequently, as a result, accordingly* (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 256). Below is the example of the relation in this type:

a. She did not like to drink water since in her childhood. **Consequently**, she got trouble in her kidney.

### 2.1.4.3.2 Specific Causal Relations

This relation included the specific ones of result, reason, and purposes like a result of this, for this reason, and for this purpose (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 257). In addition, there are also a number of expressions like as in effect, because of. These all used to imply reasoning or argument from a premise. In the same meaning we find expression such as arising out of this and following from this. The example below is the example of this type:

a. We had to cancel the holiday **because of** bad weather.

#### 2.1.4.3.3 Reversed Causal Relations

The reversed form of causal relation is expressed by *because*, *since*, and *for* (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 258). The expression *because* is considerably more frequent than *for*. In addition, the word *because* means 'this is why I'm

asking'. While *for* means 'this is the reason for what was just said'. The examples of dismissive relation as follow:

- a. The next morning she was glad and proud that she had not yielded to a scare. **For** he was most strangely and obviously better.
- b. I did not join to your party yesterday because I was very busy.

#### 2.1.4.3.4 Conditional Relations

One other type of conjunctive relation will be considered here under the general heading of causal relation in the conditional type, the conditional means 'possibly a; if so, then b' (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 258). The items of the conditional relation are the words such as *then*, *in that case*, *that being the case*, *in such an event, even if, if, unless, whether...or*. The sentence below is the example of this type:

a. The cat is sick and does not eat anything for a week. **Then** it will die, of course.

Furthermore, the negative form of conditional is expressed cohesively by *otherwise*. This conjunction switch the polarity, either from positive to negative or from negative to positive. Here the example of it:

- a. It is the way I like to go to work. One person and one line of enquiry at a time. **Otherwise**, there is a muddle.
- b. I was not informed. Otherwise, I should have taken some action

## 2.1.4.3.5 Respective Relations

Respective relation has a meaning 'we now pass on next point'. The words show this relation; such as *in that respect, with regard to this, in this connection, here* (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 260). The example of this relation:

a. One factor is the level of taxation of personal incomes. **With regard to this** question, the impression current among members of the public are often very far removed from the truth.

## 2.1.4.4 Temporal Conjunction

Temporal conjunction may be simply one of sequence in time: the one is subsequent to the other (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 261). It divided into six relations; they are simple temporal relations, complex temporal relations, conclusive relations, correlative relations, 'here and now' relations, and summary relations.

## 2.1.4.4.1 Simple Temporal Relations

The simplest form of temporal relation is expressed by *then*. In addition, there are also a number of other expressions in the sequential, simultaneous, and previous sense. First of all, the sequential sense which is expressed by *then*, *and then*, *next*, *afterwards*, *after that*, *subsequently*, and a number of other expression. Second, the conjunctive links which used in the sense of simultaneous. This sense expressed by the words such as *just then*, *at the same time*, *simultaneously*. The last is the expression which used in the sense of previous. This sense expressed by the words such as *before*, *earlier*, *before that*, *previously*, and so on (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 262). The examples of this type as follow:

a. Alice began by taking the little golden key and unlocking the door that led into the garden. *Then* she set to work nibbling at the mushroom.

## 2.1.4.4.2 Complex Temporal Relations

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976:262) complex temporal relation divided into sequential, simultaneous, and previous sense. Temporal relation in the sequential sense may be made more specific by the presence of an additional component in the meaning as well as that of succession in time. So, for example, we may have 'then + immediately' (at once, thereupon, on which); 'then + after an interval' (soon, presently, later, after a time); 'then + repetition' (next time, on another occasion); 'then + specific time interval' (next day, five minutes later). Example:

a. 'Tickets, please!' said the Guard, putting his head putting in at the window. Soon everybody was holding out a ticket.

In addition, the conjunctive links that used in the sense of simultaneous are also accompanied by other component; such as 'then + in the interval' (meanwhile, all this time), 'then + repetition' (on this occasion, this time), 'then + moment of the time' (at this point, at this moment), 'then + termination' (by the time, when, while, at the time). Example:

a. **By the time** I graduate from the university, I want to speak English well.

Moreover, expressions in the sense of previous also have possibility of combination with other meanings or components; such as 'before + specific time interval' (*five minutes earlier*), 'before + immediately' (*just before*), 'before +

termination' (up till that time, until then), 'before + repetition' (on previous occasion). Example:

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

#### 2.1.4.4.3 Conclusive Relations

Conclusive relation marks the end of some process or series of processes. This relation expressed by items; such as *finally, at last, in conclusion, as a final point, in the end, eventually* (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 262). Sentence below is the example of this type:

a. All this time the guard was looking at her, first through a telescope, then through a microscope, and then through an opera glass. At last he knew what she did.

### 2.1.4.4.4 Correlative Relations

The type of temporal conjunction also occurs in correlative form, with cataphoric time expression in one sentence anticipating the anaphoric one that is to follow. The typical temporal is *first, at first, first of all, to begin with*, etc. After given anyone of these items, the expectation is that the item; such as *then, next, secondly, second*, and so on (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 263). The example as follow:

a. Obrecht subjects his cantus firmus to the most abstruse manipulations. *First*, he extracts all the longs from the tune, and strings them together in succession; then he does the same with the breves, and **finally** with the semibreves.

#### 2.1.4.4.5 'Here and Now'

One important type of temporal conjunction which is linked to the one just discussed is the relating of what is being said to the particular stage which the communication process has reached is here and now relation (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 264). This may take a past, present, or future form. The items that used in this expression are: *up to now, up to this point* (past form); *at this point, here* (present form); *from now on, henceforward*, and *hereunder* (future form). Here the example of this type:

a. The middle ages have become the Renaissance, and a new world has come into being our world. In what way is it our world? At this point, we run into some difficulty.

# 2.1.4.4.6 Summary Relations

This relation expressed by conjunctive links such as to sum up, in short, briefly (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 265). These all items have a culminative sense. Another sense of this relation is resumptive sense. This sense expressed by anyway, to resume, in all, to get back to the point. Here the example of this type:

a. Your nutrition can determine how you look, act and feel; whether you are grouchy or cheerful, homely or beautiful, psychologically and even psychosocially young or old; whether you think clearly or are confused, enjoy your work or make it a drudgery, increase your earning power or stay in an economic rut. The foods you eat can make the difference between your day ending with freshness which lets you enjoy a delightful evening or with exhaustion which forces you to bed with the chickens. To a considerable degree, your nutrition can give you a coddled-egg personality or make you a human dynamo. In short, it can determine your zest for life, the good you put into it, and the fulfillment you get from it.

#### 2.2 The book "#88 LOVE LIFE"

"#88 LOVE LIFE" book is an illustration book written by Diana Rikasari, a fashion blogger and illustrated by Dinda Puspitasari, an illustrator and lifestyle blogger. It is the best seller book that has been printed six times during October 2014 until March 2015 by Gramedia publisher in Jakarta.

It is very eye-catching book because it has a striking cover. The book has 128 pages of the whole while content of the book only has 88 pages. "#88 LOVE LIFE" book contain of the good energy from the author's daily thoughts on her love and life experiences which are delivered with uplifting and motivating quote by the author and supported with beautiful illustrations by the illustrator.

The book can easy to understand by the readers and it always gives inspiration and motivation to everyone who reads the book. "#88 LOVE LIFE" book also explains about the author's expectation that she wants to everyone who read her book always surrounding the kindness and happiness.