# CHAPTER II

# LITERATURE REVIEW

This study focuses on the types of cohesive devices found in the headline section regarding the news of Ratu Atut in the *Jawa Pos* news article and the frequency of the cohesive devices found in the news. This chapter deals with review of related theories: discourse and cohesive devices. Therefore, this chapter reviews related studies and explains theoretical framework which is used to identify the cohesive types analyzed in the study.

## 2.1 Review of Related Theories

## 2.1.1 Discourse Analysis

Discourse analysis is a primarily linguistic study examining the use of language by its native population whose major concern is investigating language functions along with its forms, produced both orally and writing. Moreover, different from other approaches, besides discourse concerns on drawing the language-in—use both creates and reflects the context in which it used. To put it in another way, the branch of applied linguistics dealing with the examination of discourse attempts to find patterns in communicative products as well as and their correlation with the circumstances in which they occur, which are not explainable at the grammatical level (Carter 1993:23).

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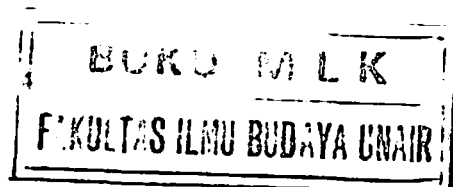
As the theory of discourse analysis is the fittest in order to analyze the text in the *Jawa Pos'* news article, the present study is limited to reveal the text in the news article based on linguistic elements and structures. Text as a form of discourse refers to any spoken or written passage that forms a unified whole (Halliday & Hassan, 1976). A text is not a grammatical unit; it is not defined by its size that it is bigger than a sentence. It is best regarded as a semantic unit, not of form, but of meaning. It does not consist of sentences, but it is realized by sentences.

Furthermore to be qualified as a discourse, the sequence of sentence must be in order, where in the textuality there are seven criteria for a text such as cohesion, coherence, intentionality, acceptability, informativeness, situtionality, and intertextuality. In discourse studies, Renkema (2004) stated that not all criteria are considered important. In this study, the writer is going to focus on the cohesion in order to search the relationship between sentences in a text and uses the cohesive devices tool as the way to understand the text.

## 2.2 Theoretical Framework

A cohesive device, Halliday and Hasan (1976) noted, comprises two interrelated elements that cross a minimum of one sentence boundary. While one element is presupposing, the other is presupposed.

### 2.2.1 Cohesive Devices by Halliday and Hassan

Halliday and Hassan (1976) divide cohesion into two categories: grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion. Grammatical cohesion consists of reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction. Lexical cohesion consists of reiteration and collocation.

Below is the more description about each type of cohesion.

### 2.2.1.1 Grammatical Cohesion

In the grammatical cohesion, there are four types of cohesion: reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction.

**a. Reference**

Reference is used to refer to something else as the interpretation. Reference occurs as directive information is coming from elsewhere. There are three types of reference: personal, demonstrative, and comparative.

a1.    Personal reference

Personal Reference is type of reference which is realized through the category of person. Some personal reference items that keep track of function through the speech situation using noun pronouns are *I, you, he, us, him, she her,* and and possessive determiners like *mine, yours, his, hers,* etc.

As an example:

Jeanette is always kind towards everybody. This afternoon she helped the bum to buy the food.

In the sentence, the personal reference item *"she"* refers to *Jeanette*.

a2.     Demonstrative reference

It is reference by means of location, on a scale of proximity. There are two kinds of demonstrative reference: neutral *the* and selective *this, that ,there, those, these,* and *then*

As an example:

I always drink a lot of beer when I am in England. There are many lovely pubs there.

The demonstrative reference item is *there* which refers to *England*.

a3.     Comparative reference

Comparative reference keeps track of identity and similarity through indirect references using adjectives like "same, equal, similar, different, else, better, more", etc. and adverbs like "so, such, similarly, otherwise, so, more", etc. As an example of comparative reference:

A similar view is not acceptable.

We did the same.

So they said.

### b. Substitution

Substitution is a cohesive device in the form of word or phrase that substitutes another word or phrase anaphorically and cataphorically. It is divided into nominal substitution, verbal substitution, and clausal substitution.

b1.     Nominal Substitution

The substitute functions as a noun. The items are *ones, one,* and *same.* In the example below, which *same* in place of a noun (smartphone):

John just bought a new smartphone. His brother will buy the **same** type.

b2.     Verbal Substitution

The substitute functions as a verb. The item of verbal substitute is *do.* For instance, *do* is a substitute for sings in the sentence below:

Lelita sings better than I **do.**

b3.     Clausal Substitution

The substitute functions as a clause. What is presupposed is an entire clause. The items are *so* and *no.* As example:

Is the Godzilla movie worth watching? – I don't think **so.**

It means that the substitute *so* stands for (that) *the movie is not worth watching.*

Substitution and ellipsis function almost the same in their usage in the text, both of them operate as a linguistic link at the lexicogrammatical level. Not many researchers treat them separately because they both represent a relation within the text and a substituted item has the same grammatical function as the word it substitutes, although is more general and vague (Halliday & Hasan 1976: 88).

## c. Ellipsis

Ellipsis (zero substitution) is the omission of elements normally required by the grammar which the speaker/writer assumes are obvious from the context and therefore need not be raised. If substitution is replacing one word with another, ellipsis is the absence of that word, "something left unsaid". Ellipsis requires retrieving specific information that can be found in the preceding text. There are three types of ellipsis too: nominal, verbal, and clausal.

(a) Do you want to hear another song? I know   twelve more [songs]
(b) Sue brought roses and Jackie [brought] lilies.
(c) I ran 5 miles on the first day and 8 on the second

## d. Conjunction

Conjunction acts as a cohesive tie between clauses or sections of text in such a way as to demonstrate a meaningful pattern between them, though conjunctive relations are not tied to any particular sequence in the expression. Therefore, amongst the cohesion forming devices within text, conjunction is the least directly identifiable relation. Halliday and Hasan state that in the case of *conjunction*, mainly conjunctions and adverbs are applied in order to connect neighbouring sentences according to certain semantic relations (e.g. additive, adversative, causal and temporal) (1976: 226). Below are the classifications of conjunctions.

### d1. Additive Conjunction

Additive conjunctions act to structurally coordinate or link by adding to the presupposed item and are signalled through "and, also, too, furthermore, additionally", etc. Additive conjunctions may also act to negate the presupposed item and are signalled by "nor, and ... not, either, neither", etc. The following example shows how additive conjunction works.

To get a healthy body, you should eat fruits **and** vegetables.

### d2. Adversative Conjunction

Adversative conjunctions act to indicate "contrary to expectation" and are signalled by "yet, though, only, but, in fact, rather", etc. Here is the example of adversative conjunction.

I'd like to go to watch some movies tonight, **but** I still have works to do.

### d3. Causal Conjunction

Causal conjunction expresses "result, reason and purpose" and is signalled by "so, then, for, because, for this reason, as a result, in this respect", etc. Here is the example:

I will graduate this year, **because** I want to travel around the world.

### d4. Temporal Conjunction

The last most common conjunctive category is temporal and links by signalling sequence or time. Some sample temporal conjunctive signals are "then, next, after that, next day, until then, at the same time, at this point", etc. Moreover, temporal relations are not restricted to sequence in real time, they may also reflect stages in the text (expressed by *first, second, third, etc.)* Here is the example:

After the fireworks lit up, everybody starts to look up on the sky.

### e. Lexical Cohesion

Lexical cohesion differs from the other cohesive elements in text in that it is non-grammatical. Lexical cohesion refers to the "cohesive effect achieved by the selection of vocabulary." It can be said that it covers any instance in which the use of a lexical item recalls the sense of an earlier one. The two basic categories of lexical cohesion are reiteration and collocation.

### e1. Reiteration

Reiteration is the repetition of an earlier item, a synonym, a near synonym, a superordinate or a general word, but it is not the same as personal reference, because it does not necessarily involve the same identity. Reiteration consists of repetition of the same word, synonym, superordinate, general word.

1. Repetition : suggests the lexical item is repeated

2. Synonymy : relates lexical items which have the same meaning

3. Hyponymy : related specific and general lexical items, such that the former is included in the latter

4. Meronymy : relates parts and wholes

After the sequence:

I saw a boy in the garden.
The boy (repetition) was climbing a tree.

I was worried about the child (superordinate).
The poor lad (synonym) was obviously not up to it.
The idiot (general word) was going to fall if he (pronoun) didn't take care.

### e2. Collocation

Collocation pertains to lexical items that are likely to be found together within the same text. It occurs when a pair of words is not necessarily dependent upon the same semantic relationship but rather they tend to occur within the same lexical environment.

Examples:

1. Opposites (man/woman, love/hate, tall/short).

2. Pairs of words from the same ordered series (days of the week, months, etc.)

3. Pairs of words from unordered lexical sets, such as meronyms:

    a. part-whole (body/arm, car/wheel)

    b. part-part (hand/finger, mouth/chin) or,

    c. co-hyponyms (black/white, chair/table).

### 2.2.2 Lexical Cohesion by Hoey (1991)

Hoey (1991), stated in his *Patterns of Lexis in Text*, made a claim about the way text is organized. He demonstrated that lexical repetition is the principal means of explicitly marking cohesion in a text and illustrates that lexical cohesion forms

clusters among sentences. He stressed, using Halliday and Hasan's example texts, that the most dominant type of cohesion in English is lexical cohesion (over of 40% of the ties are lexical).

Hoey (1991) categorizes repetition into different lexical types. These include:

- Simple repetition – occurs when two identical items (e.g. bear – bear) or two similar items whose difference is 'entirely explicable in terms of a closed grammatical paradigm' (e.g. bears (N) – bears (N));

- Complex repetition – which results from two items sharing a lexical morpheme but differing with respect to other morphemes or grammatical function (e.g. human (N) – human (Adj.), dampness – damp);

- Simple paraphrase – two different items of the same grammatical class which are 'interchangeable in the context' (p.69) and 'whenever a lexical item may substitute for another without loss or gain in specificity and with no discernible change in meaning'. (p.62). (e.g. sedated – tranquillised).

- Complex Paraphrase – Two different items of the same or different grammatical class; this is restricted to three situations:

  (i) antonyms which do not share a lexical morpheme (e.g. *hot – cold*);

  (ii) two items one of which 'is a complex repetition of the other, and also a simple paraphrase (or antonym) of a third' (p.64). (e.g. a complex paraphrase is recorded for 'record' and 'discotheque' if a simple

paraphrase has been recorded for 'record' and 'disc', and a complex repetition has been recorded for 'disc' and 'discotheque';

When there is the possibility of substituting an item for another (for instance, a complex paraphrase is recorded between 'record' and 'discotheque' if 'record' can be replaced with 'disc'. Hoey proposed two key notions, links and bonds, and repetition matrices, which are used to establish the number of connections between sentences.

## 2. 3 Related Studies

There are researches that have already been done about cohesive devices, for instance Wu (2010) have conducted a study about lexical cohesion in oral English. In the study, she intends to explore the relationship between lexical cohesion and oral English quality through data analysis. Kurniati (2011) identified the study about cohesive devices and coherences in the production section of academic papers in AWP (Academic Writing and Presentation) course at English Department, Airlangga University.

From the two studies, there are similarities and differences in identifying the problem. The first study more likely focuses on the lexical cohesion in the oral English, while the second study focuses both on the cohesive devices and the coherence in analyzing the data. The differences between the writer's study with the first previous study is that the writer is going to analyze the whole elements of

cohesive devices in the news article while with the second previous study, the writer will have a different object of analysis in applying the cohesive devices theory.

The writer's study will analyze about the dictions used in the newspaper articles regarding to the object. Later on, the writer is going to analyze the cohesion devices found in the article of Ratu Atut in Jawa Pos within all of the cohesive elements.

# CHAPTER III

# METHOD OF THE STUDY