

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

II. 1 Definition of Reading

Reading as one of the basic skills in learning a language plays an important role in our life. By reading, we collect some information for our knowledge or pleasure. Reading makes us know more about the world through letters and words printed in reading text. Seemingly, reading skill remains a valid goal at the end of language learning process. It can also be said that reading is the greatest ability in learning a language. Besides, this skill stays longer than other skills since it is frequently used (Chastain, 1976: 308).

As we know that reading, generally, is a process of combining information in a text between the reader and the text. During this activity, we, as readers, try to match the information we have in our mind with the information in the text. It is seen that there is a conversation between the reader and the text in reading activity (Widdowson cited in Grabe, 1988: 56). However, we realize that reading activity is not so simple. Deeply, it must be a process that happens in this activity. In reading, we have to decode all words written in text for getting information what the writer wants to say through the text. It is called as decoding process. As defined by Carrell (1988: 2), decoding process is a process in which a reader tries to rearrange the writer's intended meaning by reading the printed letters and words, then build up the meaning of the text from the smallest textual units at the "bottom" (refers to letters or words) to larger units at the "top" (refers to phrases,

clauses, intersentential, or linkages between sentences) in order to gain information in text. Thus, we see that decoding all symbols printed in text is the main reader's task. We also see that cognitive process occurs in reading activity.

Furthermore, Goodman (cited in Carrell, 1988: 2) explains that reading activity is started by encoding process of linguistic surface representation and ended by constructing process of textual meaning. It means that a writer encodes thought as language and then a reader decodes language as thought. Here, we see that there is an essential interaction between language and thought. While a dynamic interaction appears between writer and reader since a reader has to create his/her own textual meaning based on the writer's intended meaning (Cudlin and Saedi cited in Cohen, 1990: 75).

On the other hand, reading is also seen as a psycholinguistic process because of relation between language and thought. In this point of view, reading is a problem-solving behavior in which a reader takes and determines the meaning to draw the contextual information based on syntactic, semantic, and discourse constraints. All will influence the reader's interpretation (Papalia, 1987: 70). Shortly, we see that a reader tries to combine the macrostructure meaning (the meaning of the text) and to predict the microstructure meaning (proposition) for understanding the text (van Dijk cited in Bensoussan, 1992: 102).

As mentioned above, cognitive process happens during reading activity since a reader must decode a message written in a text. Here, a reader needs knowledge of vocabulary, structure of language used in text, and visual sense to gain the message of the text. It is because they will help the reader in

understanding a text (Chastain, 1976: 308). Related to second language reading, Carrell states that the role of a reader is an active participant not only in making prediction and processing information, but also in using everything related to reader's background knowledge. It means that reader's linguistic knowledge and level of proficiency in second language are important (1988: 2).

From the explanation above, it can be concluded that reading is a process in which a reader tries to reach the intended meaning of the text by decoding printed symbols (letters and words). Here, the cognitive process occurs in reading activity.

II. 2 Comprehension in Reading

We have already known that comprehending a text is the most important thing in reading activity, particularly a second language reading. We, as readers, attempt to gain the meaning of the text to understand the specific information written in the text. Similarly, it is said that we can comprehend a text based on the language used in it. Chastain explains that a reader must first sense textual meaning, segment it into smaller units of specific information, and reach a level knowledge in the second language used in the text (1976: 313).

By comprehending, we will combine new information to what we have already known. Besides, comprehension is always directed and controlled by individual's needs and goals. Moreover, it depends on individual knowledge of the subject (Smith cited in Eskey, 1986: 5–6). There are two skills that a reader must have to reach comprehension in reading. As stated by La Berge and

Samuels, those two skills are accuracy and automaticity skills (cited in Johnson and Lefton, 1981: 117). Accuracy skill relates to the process of identification of letters and words before a reader can comprehend the text. Then, automaticity skill relates to the cognitive process toward the word meaning and text comprehension. Here, reading comprehension describes how we can identify letters and words correctly and emphasize our attention to word meaning and text.

Besides, Johnson and Lefton defines, “reading comprehension is ability in determining the meaning from a text” (1981: 116). Therefore, it can be said that comprehension in reading frequently occurs when one is reading what he/she wants to read or at least what he/she see some good reasons to read (Eskey, 1986: 6).

II. 3 Interpretation in Reading

Previously, it is mentioned that interpretation is important thing since it will influence our comprehension in reading activity. However, it is a difficult task to interpret a text if we do not know about the language used in it. Eskey states that a reader who knows much about the written language used in a text, he/she can move easily from marks on the text to words and phrases, but one who do not know the language well, he/she will find some difficulties in understanding the text because of his/her bad interpretation (1986: 7). In this case, we cannot deny that general knowledge of language and knowledge of the particular subject matter in discourse knowledge plays important role.

Related to interpretation, Eskey (1986:8), further, explains that a reader has to generalize, paraphrase the text based on discourse knowledge, and conclude everything in text to make prediction about the meaning of the text. A reader should apply those steps if he/she wants to get good interpretation. We see that interpretation is a process in creating new structure of meaning. Therefore, it is better for a reader and a writer to have the same prediction in meaning.

Mc Carthy (1991: 27), in *Discourse Analysis for Language Teachers*, states that interpretation is a process in making sense of the text. Seemingly, interpretation depends on the reader's ability to understand a text as similar as the writer puts into the text. To get good interpretation, a reader must pass main two levels. First, interpretation is as procedural approach. It emphasizes on the active role of a reader in building the world of the text based on his/her own knowledge (or it is called schemata), making inferences, and assessing his/her interpretation to gain textual information. Second, interpretation is as process of recognizing textual patterns. It focuses on reader's ability in predicting the functional relationships between phrases, clauses, sentences, or group of sentences in a text.

From the explanation above, we know that interpretation in reading is an attempt to understand the textual structure and information to make the sense of the text. It is merely based on reader's ability in identifying the functional relationships within and between sentence(s).

II. 4 Cohesion

By reading, we try to understand the textual meaning. However, it is better if we also understand the relationships between and within sentences. These relationships will create the texture of the text. Here, the texture is created by grammatical connection to form the textual unity (Mc Carthy, 1991: 34). It is what differs a text from something that is not a text. As defined by Brown and Yule in *Discourse Analysis*, cohesion is a relationship within and between sentence(s) in a text (1983: 191). Thus, cohesive relationship is formed in a text. This cohesive relationship is expressed by language specific markers. Here, these language specific markers refer to cohesive devices that will build up the cohesion of the text (Blum-Kulka, 2000: 299). Therefore, we can say that cohesion of the text is grammatical relationships among sentence(s) that creates the texture of the text.

II. 4. 1 Cohesion as Part of Textual Structure

We have already known that one of the aspects, which can affect our interpretation, is the understanding discourse constraints, particularly the understanding textual structure. Crystal (1987: 119) explains that textual structure will make a text cohesive as well as coherent. It means that a text should be relevant to each other in the cohesive concepts and relationships.

Deeply, textual structure describes how part of sentence(s) in a text should be relevant to each other. Indeed, it makes us, as readers, easier to determine the inferences of the intended meaning. In addition, it will combine sentence(s) in a

text together because of linguistic features—feature of language that occurs in certain condition of sentence(s)— (Cook, 1989: 14). One of the linguistic features that relates to the textual structure is cohesion. Here, cohesion plays an important role in creating the texture of the text since it binds a text, particularly sentence(s), in the form of textual unity. Thus, it can be seen that cohesion will form the structure of the text (McCarthy, 1991: 35).

II. 4. 2 Cohesive Devices

As mentioned above, a text should be cohesive as well as coherent. To make a cohesive/coherent text, we can use cohesive devices. In cohesive relationship, cohesive devices do give continuity and create semantic unity of the text. Therefore, it is necessary to understand more about cohesive relationships by mastering cohesive devices which operate across sentence(s). They also show facts inside the language used in a text (Cook, 1989: 14).

There are several cohesive devices, namely:

a. Verb Form

A verb is part of sentence(s) that shows or expresses action. In English, a verb relates to the usage of tense. As we know that there are basic tenses in English, namely: present, past, and future. Present tense expresses an unchanging or reoccurring action or situation that exists only now. It can also represent general truth. Past tense expresses an action or situation that was started and finished in the past. Then, future tense expresses an action or situation that will

occur in the future. Indeed, each of these tenses has perfect form, progressive form, and perfect progressive form (Escalas, 2000).

Moreover, the form of the verb in a sentence can limit the choice of verb form in the next sentence. Cook (1989: 15) states that verb form seems to be a degree of formal connection between sentence(s). It means that the first tense will influence all the others. To make it clear, we can see the following example:

a. *My husband paints some very unusual cityscapes.*

(This is a habitual activity of my husband)

b. *George Washington had no teeth. He wore dentures.*

(George Washington has passed away. The description of his activities he did has to be in the simple past tense)

In example (a), simple present tense is used to describe the general action that is a habitual activity. Next, in example (b), we know that George Washington had passed away, so the simple past tense is appropriate to describe his activities.

However, errors of wrong verb form may occur when a writer confuses the verb form as if they follow the regular pattern. Yet, it will be very strange if the exchange of verb form happened. For example:

1. *I have wrote two papers on that subject.*

2. *I have written two papers on that subject.*

The first sentence is incorrect since the form of the verb “write” is wrong. We know that the form “have” is followed by past participle form (V₃). Therefore, the correct sentence is the second one.

b. Parallelism

Marchant (2000) defines that parallel structure is really matters of balance. Balancing a sentence can be pretended to certain words such as *and*, *or*, *but*. In this case, one part of a sentence can be balanced only by one (or a series) of the same form. Furthermore, parallelism occurs when compound verbs or verbals express an action that takes place at the same time or in the same tense. There are 3 types of parallel structure, namely:

- ◆ Coordinated ideas of equal rank.

It is connected by *and*, *but*, *or*, or *nor*. For example:

Correct : Earl loves *bicycling* and *climbing*.

(A gerund is paired with a gerund)

Incorrect: Earl loves *bicycling* and *to climb*.

(Here, a gerund is paired with an infinitive)

- ◆ Compared ideas

It is connected by the preference pattern.

Correct : I like *officiating* basketball more than *playing* basketball.

(A gerund is paired with a gerund)

Incorrect : I like *to officiate* basketball more than *playing* basketball.

(An infinitive is paired with a gerund)

- ◆ Correlative ideas are linked with the correlative conjunctions.

It is connected by *both...and*, *either...or*, *neither...nor*, and *not only ...but also*. For example:

Correct : Josh is talented not only as *a basketball player*, but also as *a tennis player*. (A noun is paired with a noun)

Incorrect: Josh is talented not only as *a basketball player*, but also at *playing tennis*. (A noun is paired with a gerund)

Furthermore, Cook (1989: 15) explains that parallelism is employed not only to link clauses but also to link sentences. By using parallelism, a text can have a powerful emotion effect. It is often used in speeches, prayers, poetry, and advertisements. It is better if we see the example below: *You can fool some of the people all of the time, and all of the people some of the time but you can not fool all of the people all of the time* (taken from Lincoln's advice). From the example, we know that *some of the people all of the time* is parallel with *all of the people some of the time* and *all of the people all of the time*. On the other hand, *you can* in the first sentence is also parallel with *you can not* in the second one. Parallelism, here, is used to form the powerful emotion effect.

Moreover, parallelism as a connective meaning through a certain form, sometimes shows semantic parallelism and it is often used for humorous effect, for example:

A : "The God Lord, in his wisdom, has taken her away from us."

B : "You mean the old girl's snuffed it."

In that conversation, the first comedian says something in a high-flown style, and the second one repeats the same information in a colloquial style. From the explanation above, parallelism is merely related to semantic parallelism because of the same meaning across sentence(s). In addition, parallelism may also occurs

on sound, as in the rhyme, rhythm, and other sound effects of verse, that is called as *sound parallelism*.

c. Reference/Co-reference

In English, the items of reference/co-reference include pronouns (e.g. *he, she, it, him, they*, etc.), denotative (*this, that, these, or those*), the article *the*, and items like *such as*.

The term of reference/co-reference are words whose meaning can only be discovered by referring to other words or to elements of the context. These elements must be clear to both the senders –as writer– and the receiver –as reader (Cook, 1989: 16). In another word, reference is cohesive chain that cannot be semantically interpreted without referring to some other feature in the text. (Crystal, 1987: 119). Therefore, these items ask directly the hearer/reader to look elsewhere for his/her interpretation.

There are exophoric and endophoric reference/relation that can influence the result of interpretation. Exophora is a relation that lies outside the text in the context of situation. However, it plays no part in textual cohesion. Endophora is a relation that lies within a text. It does form cohesive ties within the text (Halliday and Hasan cited in Brown and Yule, 1983: 192). In endophora itself, there are two types of relation, namely: anaphoric and cataphoric relations.

Anaphora is for the identification of someone or something to be given once at the beginning (Cook, 1989: 16). It means that anaphoric relation is how we look back in the text for the interpretation. While cataphora is a relation that looks like forward in the text for the interpretation. In English, items that usually

show anaphoric and cataphoric reference are such as *he, she, them, it, and this*. In addition, items that show cataphoric reference are often found in the opening sentences of the text (McCarthy, 1991: 42). By this explanation, to make it clear, there is an example given by Brown and Yule (1983: 193).

a. Exophora : Look at that! (Someone points to the sun)

b. Endophora :

(i) Anaphoric : Look at the sun. It is going down quickly.

(*It refers back to the sun*)

(ii) Cataphoric: It is going down quickly, the sun.

(*It refers forwards to the sun*)

Crystal (1987: 193), shown in the following part, gives another example:

a. Several people approached. They seemed angry.

(This sentence shows anaphoric reference since *they* refers back to *several people* in the first sentence).

b. Listen to this: John is getting married.

(*this* in the first sentence shows cataphoric reference since *this* refers forwards to *John is getting married*).

d. **Repetition**

Repetition relates to an expression that is repeated in whole or in part of a text (Crystal, 1987: 119). It occurs on words, phrases, and sentences. Moreover, repetition may arise from an inability to come to the point, so we need to do it for producing emphasis, clarity, amplification, or emotional effect (Burton, 2000, <http://rhetoric.byu.edu.html>). Here, we see that repeating part of sentence(s) in

the text can also create the same nature of chain as pronouns, and it is sometimes good reason for using repetition in our writings (Cook, 1989: 19). For instance, *Canon Brown arrived. Canon Brown was cross.* In this example, the word “Canon Brown” is repeated twice. Here, the repetition is used to imply the subject of both sentences. Therefore, it contributes to the cohesion of the text.

In Britain, repetition by using the same words for several times is a “bad style.” It is better to use a device known as “elegant repetition,” that is synonymous or more general words or phrases are used. For instance, we can use some words like ---- *the luscious fruit, ... our meal, ... the tropical luxury* ---- instead of the repetition *the pineapple*. However, this elegant repetition is not always desirable since it seems too pretentious in casual conversation, or create dangerous ambiguity in a legal document (Cook, 1989: 19).

e. Lexical Relation/Chain

In *Discourse*, Cook (1989: 20) explains that some of cohesive devices such as reference and repetition can establish “chain” of connected words in a text. Related to the establishing chain of connected words, there is a relation created by words, which associate with each other. It is called lexical relation or lexical chain. Lexical chain is a sequence of related words in the text. Here, a chain is independent in grammatical structure of the text and in effect of cohesive structure of the text. Moreover, a lexical chain can provide a context for the resolution of an ambiguous term and enable identification of the concept that the term represents (www.cs.ucd.ie/staff/jcarthy/home/lex.html).



Shortly, according to Crystal (1987: 119), lexical relation/chain is a process in which one lexical item enters into a structural relation with another. It is better if we look to the following sentences: *The flowers are lovely. He likes the tulips.* Lexically, the word “tulips” in the second sentence has a chain with the word “flowers” in the first sentence. On the other word, we can say that the word “flowers” is identified by the word “tulips.”

f. Ellipsis

Ellipsis is the omission of elements normally required by the grammar, which the speaker/writer assumptions are obvious from the context, so it does not need to be raised (McCarthy, 1991: 43). In another word, omitting part of sentence(s) on the assumption that an earlier sentence or the context will clarify the meaning is called as Ellipsis (Cook, 1989: 20). While Crystal explains that an ellipsis in a sentence occurs when a part of structure is omitted, and can be recovered from the preceding discourse (1987: 119).

In English, ellipsis can omit parts of nominal, verbal, and clausal levels in sentence(s). For examples:

- a. The children will carry the small boxes, the adults the large one.
- b. Where did you see the car? In the street.

In the sentence *the children will carry the small boxes, the adults the large one*, omitting “will carry” shows the ellipsis in *the adults the large one*. Next, the complete answer for *Where did you see the car?* is “I saw the car in the street”, but the answer given is “In the street.” Here, ellipsis is showed by omitting “I saw the car.”

g. Substitution

According to Crystal (1987: 119), substitution in sentence(s) occurs when one feature of sentence replaces a previous expression in the text. The same definition is also given by Halliday and Hasan (cited in Brown and Yule, 1983: 201). Whereas Mc Carthy (1991: 45) further explains that substitution is similar to ellipsis, particularly it may occur either at nominal, verbal, and clausal level.

In English, there are some items commonly used for substitution, namely: *One(s)*, *Do*, *So/ not*, and *same*. It is better if we look at the following examples:

- a. I offered him a seat. He said he did not want *one*.
- b. *Did* Mary take that letter? She might have done.
- c. Do you need a lift? If *so*, wait for me; if *not*, I will see there.
- d. She chose the roast duck; I chose the *same*.

Here, in some sentences above, the items of substitution are used to replace an expression in the previous sentence(s). *One*, in example (a), is substituted to replace "seat." Then, *Do* (in past form) in example (b) is substituted to explain the verb tense of the sentence. It is often found in the interrogative sentence(s). In addition, Cook (1989: 20) states that "do" is often used to give short answer of a question. In *Do you like mangoes? Yes, I do*, "do" is substituted to replace "I like mangoes" as the long answer. It is much quicker if we say, "Yes, I do" though the long answer is formally better. Next, *so/not* in the example (c) is used to substitute "If you need a lift" and "If you do not need a lift." The last example, the item *same* in the sentence *I chose the same* is substituted to replace "the roast duck" of the previous sentence.

h. Conjunction

Conjunction or connective relation refers to what is said explicitly that relates to what has been said before, through such notions as contrast, result, and time (Crystal, 1987: 119). Moreover, in the case of grammatical contributions to textuality, conjunction presupposes a textual sequence and signals a relation between segments of the discourse. Therefore, a conjunction does not set off backward and forward relation (McCarthy, 1991: 46).

According to Cook (1989: 21), conjunction is words that may simply add more information to what has already been said (such as *and*) or elaborate/exemplify (such as *thus*), may contrast new information with old one or put another side to the argument (such as *or*, *on the other hand*), may relate new information to what has already been given in the terms of causes (such as *so*, *consequently*) or in time (such as *formerly*, *next*), and even may indicate a new departure or a summary (such as *by*, *then*, *anyway*).

Similarly, Halliday and Hasan have the same explanation of conjunction. To make it clear, they (cited in Brown and Yule, 1983: 191) had made the taxonomy of types of conjunctive relations as follows:

1. Additive : and, or, furthermore, similarly, in addition;
2. Adversative : but, however, on the other hand, nevertheless;
3. Causal : so, consequently, for this reason, it follows from;
4. Temporal : then, offer that, an hour later, finally, at last.

To understand it, let us see the following examples:

- a. I left early. *However*, Mark stayed till the end.
- b. He was insensitive to the group's needs. *Consequently*, there was a lot of bad feeling.
- c. He is rich *and* generous.

Furthermore, there is an exception for some conjunctive items, particularly *and*, *but*, *so*, and *then*. These items are overwhelmingly frequent. In *Discourse Analysis for Language Teachers*, Mc Carthy (1991: 48) explains that those items can supply additive, adversative, causal, and temporal meanings, depending on contextual information. For example:

- a. She is intelligent. And she is very reliable.
- b. I have lived here ten years and I have never heard of that pub.
- c. He fell in the river and caught a chill.
- d. I got up and made my breakfast.

Looking backward to some sentences above, the conjunctive relation "and" can have several meanings, namely: additive, adversative, causal, and temporal respectively.

Equally, it is possible that the choices of conjunction will often overlap the meaning with little overall difference, as in the example bellows:

A : "What about this meeting then?"

B : "I may go, [*and, or, but, though, then*] I may not; it all depends.

CHAPTER III

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF THE DATA