

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Cohesive Devices

Cohesion is one of characteristics that show how good the text is. Cohesion displays connectivity between its surface element. Later, it sets also coherence as continuity of sense. It means that coherence in a text lies in idea and content. The way to link it can be signal from the use of cohesive devices. Cohesion concerns the ways in which the components of the surface text are mutually connected within a sequence (de Beaugrande and Dressler, 1981:3). Coherence, on the other hand, concerns the ways in which the components of the textual world, i.e. the concepts and relation which underlie the surface text are mutually accessible and relevant (ibid, 1981:3-7). So, it is important to notice about cohesion as well as coherence in writing a text.

Based on Halliday and Hasan (1976) cohesion refers to relations of meaning that exist within a text. Cohesion is a relation in the surface that connects the actual words and expressions together. It means that cohesion makes interpretation of an element in the text in order to make it related. The interpretation can be in the form of reference to other words and expressions in the surrounding sentences or paragraphs. The devices that are used as cohesion in a text are well known as cohesive devices.

Cohesive devices are clues used by speakers and hearers to find the meaning which underlie surface utterances (Schiffrin, 1987:9). Moreover, according to Cook (1989), cohesive devices are formal links between sentences and between clauses. Cohesive devices are a kind of glue that makes phrase and phrase or sentence and sentence or paragraph and paragraph stick together to build a good text. The term of cohesion and cohesive devices almost have the same definitions that both of these terms refer to a cohesive text. However, cohesion refers to the state of a text that is cohesive and cohesive devices refer to the device that makes a cohesive text. Cohesive devices can be divided into two main parts as what Halliday and Hasan write in their book *Cohesion in English* (1976). Those are grammatical and lexical cohesion. In the grammatical cohesion, it also can be divided into substitution, ellipsis, conjunction and reference.

2.1.1 Reference

Cohesive relationships within a text are set up where the interpretation of some element in the discourse is dependent on that of another (Brown, 1983: 191). It means that some elements are identified to the particular thing or class of things that are referred to. This phenomenon is called as reference. Reference elements establish a semantic relationship among them in which the elements provide other with meaning. It can be interpreted to the world experienced by the sender and receiver. Based on Halliday and Hasan (1976), there are two basic types of reference:

Reference		
(situational) Exophora	(Textual) Endophora	
	Anaphora (to preceding text)	Cataphora (to following text)

Exophoric reference signals the interpretation lies outside the text in the context of situation. Endophoric reference signals the interpretation that lies within the text. The endophoric reference can be divided into anaphoric and cataphoric. If it refers to preceding elements, it is called as anaphoric. If it refers to following elements, it is called as cataphoric. To make it clearly below are the example for all those kinds of reference:

1) **Exophora**

(1) **That is mine**

“That” refers to car. In here, a car is a thing that lies outside one text but it is still in the context of situation.

2) **Endophora**

a. **Anaphoric**

(2) **The car is mine. It is red.**

The word “it” refers to the preceding element “a car”.

b. **Cataphoric**

(3) **It is red, the car is mine**

The word “it” refers to the following element “a car”.

Besides, all those kinds of reference there are several linguistic items which can create reference cohesion (Halliday and Hasan, 1976:37-39):

1) Personal reference

Personal reference is kinds of nouns, pronouns, determines that refer to the speaker, the addressee, other persons or objects, or an object or unit of text. This includes "he", "she", "they", "it". The purpose in using this reference is to avoid unnecessary repetition of important nouns and ideas. For example:

(4) The belief that abortion is murder accords the fetus the same rights as a human being. It is hence based on the assumption that a foetus is no different from a human being.

2) Demonstrative reference

Demonstrative reference is determiners or adverbs that refer to location or distance or temporal proximity. This includes "here", "there", "this", "that", "these" and "those. For example:

(5) The term syntax refers to the organization of words into longer sequences. Speakers of a language know the principles that govern this organization, even though they may not necessarily be conscious of their linguistic knowledge.

3) Comparative reference

Comparative reference is adjectives or adverbs expressing a general comparison based on identity or difference or express a

particular comparison. This includes “same”, “identity”, “equal”, “similar”, “additional”, “other”, “different”, “else”, “identically”, “similarly”, “likewise”, “so”, “such”, “differently”, and “otherwise”. For example:

(6) Many of words in Mandarin language and Japanese language are the same in writing but different in pronouncing

2.1.2 Ellipsis

Based on Cook (1989), ellipsis is omitting part of sentences on the assumption that an earlier sentence or the context makes the meaning clear. Ellipsis omits the elements that can be constructed from the part of sentence before. These elements aren't written as a part of sentence because without them, the meaning has known. It can be said that chain of cohesion is missing and the readers have to supply them in order to interpret the text. It is well known as zero tie because it is not said in the text. Ellipsis can be used to make a tie among nouns, verbs and clauses. According to McCarthy (1991), there are three types of ellipsis:

1) Nominal ellipsis

Nominal ellipsis is the omission of a noun head. For example:

(7) He bought a red car, but I like blue.

2) Verbal ellipsis

Verbal ellipsis is the omission of a verb head while the auxiliary element remains explicit. For example:

(8) A: Will you come to the party?

B: Yes, I will

3) Clausal ellipsis

Clausal ellipsis is the omission of a part of clause. For example:

(9) The car is not mine but hers.

2.1.3 Substitution

Substitution is in the middle of reference and ellipsis. It refers to a class of items. One types of grammatical cohesion is substitution which takes two forms: a) substitution per element which is the replacement of one item by another, and b) ellipsis, in which the item is replaced by nothing (Halliday and Hasan, 1976:88). Substitution can be classified into:

1) Substitution of noun

(10) a. These apples are stale. Get some fresh ones.

b. These apples are stale. Those are fresh.

2) Substitution of verb

In English, it is usually done by replacing a verbal expression with the lexical item “do” or “one” “the same”.

(11) A: Do you like mango?

B: Yes, I do.

3) Substitution of clause

It's usually accomplished by using lexical items “so” and “not”.

(12) A: Do you think she will pass the exam?

B: Yes, I think so.

2.1.4 Conjunction

As what Cook states in his book *Discourse* (1989), conjunction is words and phrases which explicitly draw attention to the type of relationship which exists between one sentence or clauses and another. It means that conjunction uses formal markers to relate sentences, clauses and paragraphs to each other. Conjunction helps the reader to gain information what will be said to what has been said before. Based on Halliday and Hasan (1976), there are four classification in conjunction:

- 1) Additive : and, or, futhermore, similarly, in addition, besides, also, moreover
- 2) Adversative : but, however, on the other hand, nevertheless, yet, conversely, despite that
- 3) Causal : so, consequently, for this reason, it follows from this, for this reason, as a result, therefore, with this in mind
- 4) Temporal : then, after that, an hour later, finally, at last, meanwhile, before that, later on, next, soon, likewise

2.1.5 Lexical Cohesion

Lexical cohesion is different from the other cohesive devices. It does not deal with grammatical but with the word used and semantic relations. It is accomplished by selection of vocabulary which have close items in semantics. Lexical cohesion covers the use of lexical item. It builds the sense of the earlier one. Lexical cohesion is the fact that one lexical item refers back to another, to which it is related by having a common referent (Halliday and Hasan, 1976:278). In addition, Halliday and Hasan also state that there are two types of lexical cohesion:

1) Reiteration

Reiteration is not the same as reference because it does not involve the same identity.

a. Repetition

Repetition occurs when there are the exact same noun or noun phrase. It is identified by same word matches and matches on inflections derived from the same source. The sentence duplicates a noun from the sentence before. For example:

(13) A conference will be held on national environmental policy. At this conference, the issue of salination will play an important role.

A noun "conference" is repeated once in first sentence, it uses a noun "conference" as subject. In the second sentence, it uses as an adverb.

b. Synonymy

Elegant repetition is where synonymous or more general words or phrases are used (Cook, 1989:19). Elegant repetition is well known as synonymy. It is defined as the use of an equivalent noun or noun phrase. For example:

(14) A conference will be held on national environmental policy. This environmental symposium will be primarily a conference dealing with water.

c. Hyponymy

Hyponymy relates with the use of subordinate and superordinate from a noun. It uses a noun in one sentence and it is repeated in subordinate or superordinate form of noun. For example:

(15) There is a boy climbing that tree. The child is going to fall if he does not take care.

A boy is subordinate of a child. As it knows. A child is superordiante from a boy and a girl.

d. Metonymy

Metonymy involves part-part relations and part-whole relations. Part-part relations are a relation between nouns that have similarity as a part of something such as mouth and chin, verse and chorus. Part-whole relations are a relation between nouns that one becomes a part from another such as car and break, body and arm, bicycle and wheel.

(16) At its six month check-up, the brakes had to be repaired. In general, however, the car was in good condition.

Brakes is a part of a car. Instead of brakes, a car also consists of engine, wheel, body and many more.

e. Antonymy

Antonymy is defined as the use of noun or noun phrase that have opposite meaning. For example:

(17) The old movies just do not do it anymore. The new one are more appealing.

2) Collocation

Collocation involves a pair of lexical items that relate to each other in the some lexico-semantic relation or word meaning. It is more difficult to identify than reiteration because it is expressed through open rather than closed class items. It is indirect and based on interpretation in the reader's mind such as sheep and wool, congress and politician, college and study.

(18) Red cross helicopters were in the air continuously.
The blood bank will soon desperately in need of donors.

2.2 Review on Related Study on “*An Analysis of Figures of Speech Found in Cosmopolitan and Men’s Health*”

A language is very important either a means of communication or interaction. These communication involves the user of language that can be divided into two namely male and female. Because both of them are very different in many things, they also make some differences in using language. So, there are men’s language instead of women’s language.

Based on the description above, *An Analysis of Figures of Speech Found in Cosmopolitan and Men’s Health* by R.A. Diah Kusuma Indah Handayani has three statements of problem. They are (1) What kinds of figures of speech used in women magazine *Cosmopolitan* advertisements are, (2) What kinds of figures of speech used in men magazine *Men’s Health* advertisements are, (3) What the most of figures of speech in advertisements in *Cosmopolitan* and *Men’s Health* are. The purpose concerns with (1) describing the kinds of figures of speech in *Cosmopolitan* advertisements, (2) describing the kinds of figures of speech in *Men’s Health* advertisements, and (3) describing the most of figures of speech used in advertisement in *Cosmopolitan* and *Men’s Health*.

The reporter finds figurative language or figure of speech used in the language of advertisement both in women magazine *Cosmopolitan* and men magazine *Men’s Health*. The reporter finds 10 types of figure of speech used in advertisements in *Cosmopolitan* namely simile, metaphor, personification, hyperbole, litotes, paradox, metonymy, synecdoche, erotema, and asyndeton.

Meanwhile, 6 types of figures of speech use in advertisements in *Men's Health* namely simile, personification, hyperbole, pradox, metobymy, and erotema. Personification is mostly used because it is easy to be understood by the readers or the consumers.

In this connection, *Cohesive Devices Found in The Jakarta Post Headlines* almost have the same statements of the problem. They are identifying the kinds of of cohesive devices mostly found and identifying the kinds of cohesive devices less or never found in *The Jakarta Post* headlines.

CHAPTER III
ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION
OF THE DATA