

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter deals with discourse analysis, text, cohesion, thesis abstract, and previous studies, in connection with the subject of this study.

#### 2.1 Discourse Analysis

Discourse analysis (DA), or discourse studies, is a general term for a number of approaches to analyzing written, vocal, or sign language use or any significant semiotic event. Discourse analysis is also called *discourse linguistics* and *discourse studies*, or *text analysis*. While, pragmatics is more concerned with meaning, discourse is more concerned with the formal and information structure.

According to Cook (1989), discourse analysis is the study of how sentences in spoken and written language form larger meaningful units such as paragraphs, conversations, interviews, etc. The job of discourse analysis is to explore the linguistic features which characterize discourses. The goal of discourse analysis are to examine how the reader or user of a discourse recognizes that the words/phrases/sentences in a discourse must be co-interpreted—that parts of a discourse are dependent on others.

Finally, the writer concludes that discourse analysis is a study of how the language is used in social context, whether it is written like letters or spoken and like dialogue between speakers.

## 2.2 Text

In discussing cohesion, text is an important element to be explained. There are several opinions of the meaning of the text. Renkema (1993), states that there are seven criteria of making a sequence of sentences a text. One of the criteria is cohesion. Cohesion is the connections which exist between element in the text. In this case, text can be defined in many ways.

Furthermore, Halliday and Hasan (1976, p. 1), state: “the word text is used in linguistics to refer to any passage, spoken or written, of whatever length, that does form a unified whole”. Besides, they also say that text is a unit of discourse itself. It may be spoken or written, prose or verse, dialogue or monologue. A text is not something that is a like a sentence, only bigger: it is something that differs from a sentence in kind.

## 2.3 Cohesion

There are many definitions of the term “cohesion” delivered by linguists. Renkema in Hermansyah (1993, p.35) stated that the notion of cohesion refer to the connection which results when the interpretation of a textual element is dependent on the other elements in the text. Cohesion is the interconnection among sentences because of the formal factors or the internal factors in language. Dealing with this, Renkema explains that cohesion always deals with connections evident in the discourse (1993, p. 40). It covers grammatical and lexical cohesion. In a sentence like “Mary got pregnant and she married” the fact that *she* refers to *Mary* is an example of

cohesion. Meanwhile according to Nunan (1993, p.116), cohesion is the formal links that mark various types of inter-clause and inter-sentence relationships within discourse. A simple definition is given by Yule (1985, p. 190). He defines cohesion as tie and connection which exist within the text.

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976, p. 4) cohesion relation can be set if there are two elements, one element presupposes another element, the presupposing and the presupposed are connect each other. Halliday and Hasan (1976, p. 5) also argue that cohesion is part of the system of a language. The potential for cohesion lies in the systematic resources of reference, ellipsis and so on that is built into the language itself.

So, the concept of cohesion as mentioned by Halliday and Hasan in their book: Cohesion in English (1976, p. 4), is a semantic relation which refers to the relation of meaning exists in the text, then, it is called as a text. Renkema (2004, p. 143) also considers that cohesion help the text is link together and make connectedness in the text. Essentially, Renkema in his book "Introduction to Discourse Studies" (2004) also explains about cohesion theory which is having no difference with cohesion theory proposed by Halliday and Hasan. As the original, Halliday and Hasan has more description about theory since were the first linguist who proposed about cohesion theory, but Renkema's theories has a simplest description about cohesion theory which easier to understand by the reader.

### 2.4 Types of Cohesion

Cohesion is the interconnection among sentences because of the formal factors or the internal factors in the language. Those two factors are created by cohesion devices.

According to Renkema (1993: 40), the classification of cohesion devices can be seen in the following diagram:

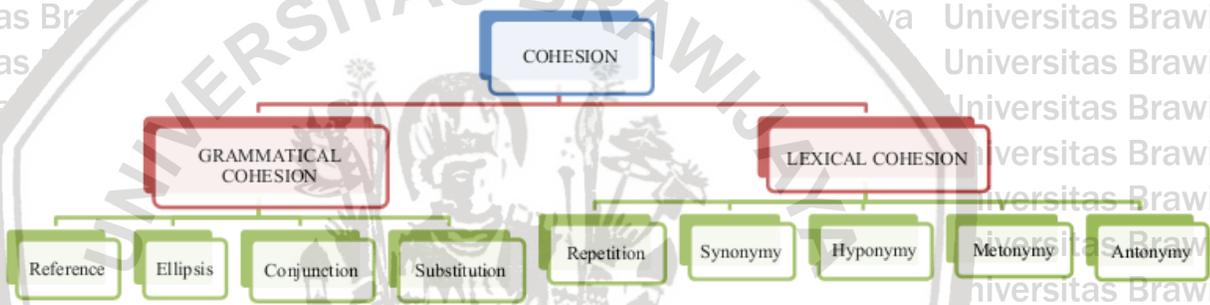


Figure 2.1 Diagrams of Cohesion Devices by Renkema (2004).

From the diagram above, we can conclude that Renkema (1993) classifies cohesion devices into two main categories: (1) Grammatical Cohesion Devices and (2) Lexical Cohesion Devices. The grammatical cohesion consists of four kinds, namely: (1) reference, (2) ellipsis, (3) conjunction, (4) substitution. The lexical consists of (1) repetition, (2) synonymy, (3) hyponymy, (4) metonymy, (5) antonymy.

For the further explanation about types of cohesion devices is given in the following discussion:

### 2.4.1 Grammatical Cohesion

Grammatical cohesion is the interconnection among sentences because of grammar factors. The grammatical factors contributing in the build-up of a discourse are reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction.

#### 2.4.1.1 Reference

Renkema (2004, p. 105) argues that reference concerns a relation between a discourse element and preceding or following element, and it deals with semantic relation. While according to Halliday and Hasan (1976, p. 31), reference is specific nature of the information that is signal for retrieval. The information to be retrieved is the referential meaning. It is to identify the particular thing or class which refers to another thing in the text. Reference is the expressions whose meaning could be understood by referring to other words. It directs the hearer and reader to look elsewhere for their interpretation (Brown and Yule, 1996, p. 192). The most concrete examples of reference are the third person pronouns: (he/him/his), (she/her/her), (it/it/its), (they/them/their).

Reference is divided into two parts: *Exophoric reference* (situational reference) and *Endphoric reference* (textual reference). Endophoric reference is divided into two kinds: anaphoric (reference which is refers to the preceding text) and cataphoric reference (reference which is refers to the following text)

Concerning Endophoric reference, Halliday and Hasan (1976) distinguish between anaphoric and cataphoric references. The former reference instructs the

hearer/readers to look backward the text in order to identify what is being referred to.

Meanwhile the latter reference is the one instructing the hearers/readers to look forward the next text in order to identify what is being referred to. The examples are follows:

(1) *I see **John** is here. **He** hasn't changed a bit.*

Here, the word *he* in the second sentence refers to *John*. (anaphora)

(2) ***She** runs down the stairs in a hurry. Suddenly, **Agnes** slipped off and fell on the floor.*

The word *she* presupposes *Agnes* in the following sentence. (cataphora).

As explained before that exaphora reference lies in outside the text which also called situational reference, then it will discuss further through the example below;

(1) ***That** should be some strict rules in this school.*

The pronoun *that* in the example above is not as demonstrative pronoun which commonly used to point out the reference in the utterance, but it refers to something outside the context. In the utterance above, actually the speaker want to emphasize his utterance that the school should has some strict rules by using pronoun *that*.

Halliday and Hasan (1979) classify into three types: personal, demonstrative, and comparative.

a) **Personal reference** is reference by means of function in the speech situation, through the category of person. What is known as personal reference is

dependent on the use of personal pronouns (I, she, he, it, they, me, etc) possessive adjectives (my, your, their, etc), and possessive pronouns (mine, yours, theirs).

For example: *Joanna* won the mathematics Olympiad. *She* just heard about the news this morning.

**b) Demonstrative reference** is reference by means of location, on a scale of proximity. Demonstrative reference is dependent on the use of determiners (this, these, that, those) and adjuncts (here, now, then, there).

For example: *a conference* will be held in the school hall next Monday. *This* conference organized by the students' organization.

**c) Comparative reference** is indirect reference by means of identity or similarity. Comparative reference uses adjectives like *same, other, identical, better* or their adverbial counterparts *identically, similarly, less, more* and so on, to forget links with previously mentioned entities.

For example: I think the way Obama gives speech to the society *better than* George Bush.

**2.4.1.2 Substitution**

Renkema (2004, p. 103), substitution which corresponds to the verb to *substitute*, is the replacement of a word or a group of words with a word which is apparently not related to the replaced words, it calls 'dummy word'. *Do, one* and *ones* are the common examples of it. Guy Cook (1990:20) note that substitution is another

kind of formal link between sentences or word, group of word, which have appeared in earlier sentence.

The substitute may function as a noun, as a verb, or as a clause. To these corresponds the three types of substitution: nominal, verbal, and clausal. Notice the invented examples below.

Teacher : “You have **finished** your work?”  
 Student :”Yes, I **did** it last night.”  
 Teacher : “Good.”  
 Students :”Thank you”

The verb *finish* in the dialogue is substituted by the word **do** which correspond to *did*. The noun **Did** is apparently not semantically related with *finished*. They however are conventionally understood as the replacer of noun and verb.

### 2.4.1.3 Ellipsis

Renkema (2004, p. 103) states that ellipsis is the omission of a word or parts of sentences under the assumption that the earlier sentence or the context will make the meaning clear. We frequently think that we do not need a replacer for a certain word or a group of words under the assumption that the missing words are already understood. Ellipsis can be described simply as “substitution by zero” (Halliday and Hasan, 1976, p.142). It is closely related to substitution.

Ellipsis takes place in similar grammatical environments to substitution. Thus, we have nominal, verbal and clausal ellipsis.

a) **Nominal Ellipsis** permits the omission of Head Nouns in a Nominal Group.

Nominal ellipsis therefore involves the upgrading of a word functioning as deictic, numerative, epithet and so on.

*How did you enjoy the exhibition? - A lot was very good, though not all.*

Here the word **a lot** can be added by the word of **the exhibition** in the previous sentence.

b) **Verbal ellipsis** is common in all short form answers and responses as is exemplified. Verbal ellipsis is divided into lexical and operator ellipsis.

Lexical ellipsis consists of modals such as can, could, would, shall, might, etc.

Then the operator ellipsis involves only the omission of the tense operator.

*Have you been swimming? Yes, I have.* (lexical ellipsis)

The words have stands for **have been swimming**. Here the lexical word swimming is omitted.

c) **Clausal ellipsis** is the omission of a clause or an element of a clause. The clause in English, considered as the variation speech function, such as statement, question, response, and so on, has two part structure consisting of modal element plus prepositional element.

For example: *Get up quick and open the door. If you don't, they will break it down.*

The word **don't** stands in place of **don't open the door**.

### 2.4.1.4 Conjunction

Another type of formal rule indicating relation between/among sentences is conjunction. Conjunction is the relationship which indicates how the subsequent sentence or clause should be link to the following part of the sentence (Renkema, 2004, p. 104). Conjunction may simply and elaborate previous texts (for example, in other words, thus), contrast and compare between the old and the new information (by contrast, on the other hand, however, meanwhile). In addition, conjunction can also function to relate clauses in terms of cause and effect relationship (so, consequently, for this reason, because). Renkema (1993, p. 104) handle conjunctive adjuncts into three types: additive, causal and temporal.

a) **Addition:** and, or, not furthermore, in addition, beside, by the way, that is, in other way, for instance, thus, by contrast, etc.

*e.g.* **Besides** being a man, he is also hateful.

b) **Causality:** so, then, hence, therefore, for this reason, consequently, because, for, otherwise, as a result, it follows, etc.

*e.g.* He is not going to school today **because** he is sick.

c) **Temporality:** then, next, after, that, as the same time, before that, finally, at last, first, at once, soon, at this moment, in conclusion, etc.

*e.g.* **After** the car had been repaired, we were able to continue Our journey.

### 2.4.2 Lexical Cohesion

Lexical cohesion occurs when two words in a discourse are semantically related in some ways. Halliday and Hasan (1976) classify lexical cohesion into two main categories: reiteration and collocation. Reiteration is “the repetition of a lexical item, or the occurrence of a synonym of some kind, in the context of reference; that is, where the two occurrences have the same referent.” Then, Collocation as an important part of creating cohesion in connected text.

Meanwhile, Renkema (1993, p.104), state that lexical cohesion refers to the link between the content words (nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs) which are used in subsequent segment of discourse. Two types of lexical cohesion can be distinguished reiteration and collocation.

#### 2.4.2.1 Reiteration

Reiteration is the repetition of lexical item or the occurrence of synonym of some kind, in the context of reference that is where the two occurrences have the same reference (Halliday and Hasan, 1976, p. 118). Renkema (2004, p.105) had the same idea with Halliday and Hasan’s definition about reiteration. Reiteration can also occur through the use of a word that is systematically linked to a previous one, for example: young and old. In general, reiteration is divided into five types: repetition, synonymy, hyponymy, meronymy and antonymy.

**a) Repetition**

Repetition is repeating the similar words or phrases in the next sentences to emphasize the key word of the text. it often involves reference as the second utterance and matched it with definite articles.

For example: *a department* store held a batik exhibition to celebrate its 2<sup>nd</sup> birthday.

*The department* store also provides a big discount for the customer.

From the example above, it is glaring that the sentences are about the department store which has an event. Therefore, the key word of those sentences that is a department store, is repeating in the following sentence by using definite article 'the', because it is already clear that the second sentence is still talking about the department store which held a batik exhibition to celebrate its second birthday.

**b) Synonymy**

Meanwhile according to Yule (1996), synonymy is the link between the words which have similar meanings or have closely related meanings. It can be substituted for each other in a sentence. Yet, the 'sameness' meaning is not always be appropriated in any sentence. Sometimes one word is appropriate in a sentence, and if substitutes to the synonym would be odd. Synonym also often involves references in the second utterance by matched it with definite articles.

For example: I was served with a good *meal* yesterday at the party. The *food* was delicious. (synonymy)

In the example of the using of synonym above, the word 'meal' which mentioned is the first sentence replaced by the noun 'the food' which has the similar meaning with food. The using of synonym can avoid monotonous in the text by using various kinds of word which have closely related meaning of the keyword, so long as it is not make the next incoherent by using another word which has any relation meaning with the key word.

c) Hyponymy

Renkema (2004, p. 104) stated that hyponymy is general-and-specific-meaning relation. Thus, a certain word could be replaced with another one having general-and-specific-meaning relation. The meaning of one form included in the meaning of another, the relationship is called as hyponymy (Yule, 2006, p. 105).

When, some word connected by hyponymy relation, the meaning of the word include in hierarchical relationship. In hierarchical relationship there are two terms: superordinate (higher level), and subordinate such as rose, jasmine, etc.

For example:

Mother : oh, there is **orchid** exhibition over there?  
Daughter : oh, I see. I saw some ladies bringing **Bulan, Cateleya, and Dendum** coming out from the stadium.

In the above discourse, the connection could be seen from the use of orchid and bulan, cateleya, and dendum. All of which are types of orchid.

**d) Metonymy**

Yule (2006, p. 108) suggests metonymy as the relationship between words based on the close connection in everyday experience. That close connection can be based on a container-content relation (bottle-water), a whole-part relation (house-roof), or a representative-symbol relationship (the president- the withe house). Renkema (2004, p.105) states that metonymy is the connection due to part-and-whole-meaning relation, such as house and kitchen. It implies that a certain word could be replaced by another one indicating a part-and-whole-meaning relation.

For example:

Husband : oh the **house** is so nice. How if we buy it?  
 Wife : yeah...nice but you know, ehmm...  
 I am not quite happy with **kitchen**. It is too small.

The word *house* and *kitchen* could be replaced by another one indicating a part-and-whole-meaning relation.

**e) Antonymy**

**Antonymy** is two expressions having opposite meanings, such as *old* vs. *new*, *thin* vs. *fat*, *cheap* vs. *expensive*, etc. It indicates that a discourse could be built due to the opposite-meaning relation.

For example:

Customer :” oh, could you give me another? They are too **big** for me.”  
 Eli :”yes Mom. These ones are **smaller**,”  
 Customer :”good. They are **smaller**.”

From the example above, it glaring that the opposite meaning of the word *big* is *small*. Therefore, to have a different sense and to make a comparison with the previous sentence, the opposite meaning of *big* used in the following sentence.

**2.4.2.2 Collocation**

According to Renkema (2004), collocation is the relationship between the words which exist in the same area. In other words, these words tend to occur with other words, for instance the word *university* must have a relation with the word *lecturer* and *student*.

**2.5 Writing Thesis Abstract**

Thesis is written in a detailed manner to discuss the hypothesis of any issue. It is however not possible for anyone to go through the entire thesis if he wants some information. Similarly, the examiners boards, in front of whom, the thesis would had to be defended, generally do not has enough times to go through the thesis of all the students who shall be defending their work in front of an abstract. Neuman (2000) conveyed that abstract is a mini-version of the thesis. it should give a brief summary of the main section of the paper. In other words, abstract is summary of the “information” the thesis contains. Therefore, it should be written in a very concise and brief description, not just written as a group of sticking sentences or paragraph that are not well arrange and lack of cohesion.

Basically, John and Katz (2000) states that at least there are two kinds of abstract: descriptive and informative. They have different aims, so as a consequence,

they have different components and style. The descriptive abstract describes the work being abstracted. Some people consider it an outline of the work, rather than a summary. Descriptive abstract is usually very short-100 words, or less. The real example of descriptive abstract is that those written by students of graduate degree.

Then, the second type of abstract and the majority one is informative abstract. While they still do not critique or evaluate a work, they do more than describe it. A good informative abstract acts as a surrogate for the work itself. That is, the writer presents and explains all the main arguments and the important result.

### 2.6 Thesis Abstract

An abstract is a brief summary of a research article, thesis, review or any in depth analysis of a particular subject or discipline, and is often used to help the reader quickly ascertain the paper's purposed. An abstract is a self contained, short, and powerful statement that describes a larger work. Components vary according to discipline; an abstract of a social science or scientific work may contain the scope, purpose, results, and contents of the work. An abstract of a humanities work may contain the thesis, background, and conclusion of the larger work. An abstract is not a review, nor does it evaluate the work being abstracted. While it contains key words found in the larger work, the abstract is an original document rather than an excerpted passage (John and Katz, 2000).

Thesis abstract is a very brief summary of the major aspects of the qualitative inquiry such as problem, design, methods, and outcomes (Ary, et al, 2002). In the

Pedoman Penulisan Skripsi (2010) for the linguistics students in Universitas Brawijaya who are the subjects of this study, the thesis abstracts should be provided in two languages namely in Bahasa Indonesia and in English. Both have the same criteria, i.e. they should include problems of the study, objectives of the study, methodology/approaches, finding, and significances.

## 2.7 Previous Studies

The writer reviews two previous studies especially those related to Grammatical and Lexical Cohesion. This study aims to enrich the previous study. The first research is from the journal by Alarcon and Morales (2011) entitled *Grammatical Cohesion in Student's Argumentative Essay*. The writers are Philippines's students who analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively the cohesive devices used by undergraduate students in their argumentative essay by using Halliday and Hasan theory (1976). In this research, the writers wanted to find out the type of cohesion devices, the most frequent types in the cohesive devices and also to analyze the relationship between the number of cohesive devices and the quality of writing. The finding of this study revealed that reference had the highest frequency and the cohesive devices are not significantly correlated with quality of the student's essay.

The second research is by Lestari, (2009) entitled *Lexical Cohesion Found in the Lyrics of a Venged Sevenfold's Songs*. She investigated the Lexical Cohesion in the song's lyric. In this research the writer identifies the types of Lexical Cohesion

used in the lyrics of *Avenged Sevenfold's* Songs by using Halliday and Hasan's theory (1976). The finding is that there are several types of lexical cohesion found in the lyrics of *Avenged Seven fold's* Songs. Those are repetition, synonymy, hyponymy, and antonymy. The most dominant type of lexical cohesion is repetition.

Then, collocation is not found in her finding.

From all the researchers above, the writer found the similarity and difference to this present study. The similarity is that both previous studies use the same qualitative methods and have an in-depth analysis in order to give meaning to the finding of the study. For the differences, the subject and data source are different.

Those two previous studies only focus on one type of cohesion device. Another difference is that both previous studies used Halliday and Hasan's theory (1976).

However, in this present study the writer focused on the study of cohesion devices found in the thesis abstracts of student academic year 2009 of English study program of Universitas Brawijaya by using Renkema's theory (1993). All those previous studies are useful as the sources and references that the writer needs as insight to help her conducting her study. The writer thinks that all of the studies really help her to finish and guide the way how to make this research better.