

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The writer divides this chapter into three parts which discuss review of related literature. The first part deals with cohesion, the second part deals with the explanation of grammatical cohesive devices, the last deals with definition of text.

A. DISCOURSE

Discourse studies is the discipline devoted to investigation of the relationship between form and function verbal communication. The aim of discourse studies is to provide an explanatory design (Rengema, 1993:1).

A discourse is an instance of spoken or written language that has described internal relationship of form and meaning (e.g., word, structures, and cohesion) that relate coherently to an external communicative function or purpose and a given audience/interlocutor. Furthermore, the external function or purpose can only be properly determined if one takes into account the context and participants in which the piece of discourse (Mucia, 2000:4).

Language teaching has divided discourse into two major categories, the spoken and the written, further divide into the four skills of speaking, listening, writing, and reading (Cook, 1991:50). In written discourse we expect them to be coherence, meaningful communication in which the words or sentence are linked or another in a fashion that correspond to conventional formulated, just as we do with speech (McCarty, 1991:12). Therefore, in order to get in term “communicative” we have concerned with textuality of

text. Here there are seven criteria for textuality according to Renkem (1993:35);

1. Cohesion is the connections which result when the interpretation of textual element is dependent on another element in the text.
2. Coherence is the connection is brought by something outside the text.
3. Intentionality means the writer and speaker must have the conscious internal of achieving specific goals with their message, for instance, conveying information or arguing opinion.
4. Acceptability requires that a sequence of sentence be acceptable to be intended audience in order to qualify as a text.
5. Informativeness is necessary in discourse. A text must contain new information.
6. Situationality is essential to textuality. So, it is considered the situation in which the text has been produced.
7. Intertextuality means that a sequence of sentences is related by form or meaning to other sequence of sentences.

B. DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

Discourse analysis is minimally the study of language in use that boundaries (Murcia. 2000:4). Within linguistics, discourse analysis has taken two different paths: one is the extension of grammatical analysis to include functional objectives and the other is the study of institutionalized language use within specific culture setting. Discourse analysis is based on the detail of

speech or writing that are arguably deemed relevant in the situation and that are relevant to the arguments (Gee, 1999:88).

Stubbs (1983:30) states that where as linguistics studies language, discourse analysis can study the actual mechanism by which communication, understanding and interaction are maintained. Expressed more generally, this means that discourse analysis must be concerned with ways in which information selected, formulated and conveyed between speakers or alternatively assumed to be known and shared as knowledge, taken for granted and not selected at all. It is therefore concerned, not just with whether statements are true or false but with states of information and differential access to information.

C. COHESION

Cohesion is the connections which result when the interpretation of a textual is dependent on another element in the text (Renkema, 1993:35). It is an overt feature of the text, providing surface evidence for the text's unity and connectedness (Murcia, 2000:126).

Cohesion is the primer requisite of textuality, so it has to present in text and cohesive relationship within the text. But cohesion is often neglected in language, so it has been assumed that student difficulty arises primarily from lack of vocabulary of the complexity of grammatical structure at sentence level. Whereas, difficulties can as easily arise from with cohesion: finding the reference for a pronoun (McCarthy, 1991). According to Murcia (2000:126) that Cohesion is realized linguistically by devices and ties that are

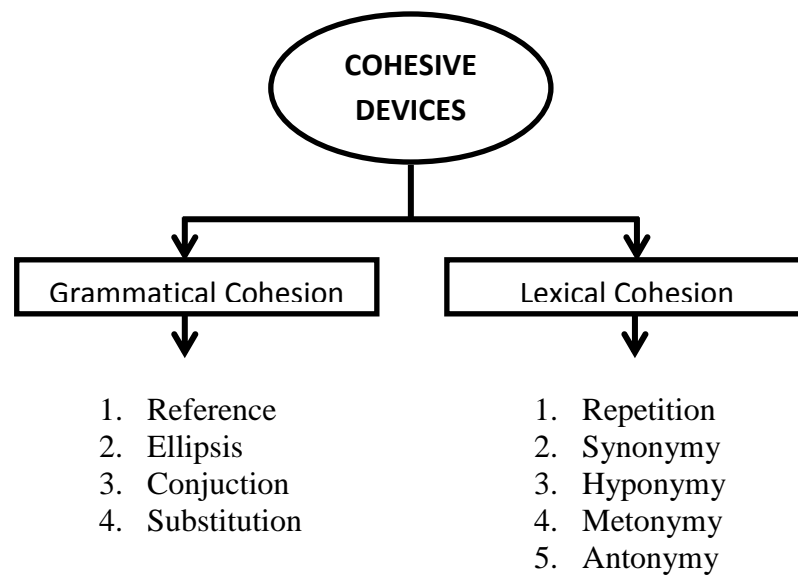
element or units of language used to form a larger text (spoken and written). Besides, Rani, et,all (2004:88) states that cohesion is the relationship within the text concerned by use of language element.

In others definition are: “Cohesion is the grammatical and/or lexical relationship between the different sentence or between different parts of sentence” (Richards, 1992:62). According to Oxfort Learner’s Pocket Dictionary: Third edition (2005:77) that “cohesion is tendency to stick together; unity”.

D. COHESIVE DEVICES

Cohesive devices is cohesion elements used to create link between utterance and sentence in written discourse. “Since cohesion is relies heavily on grammatical and lexical cohesion, it relates to the reader’s linguistic competence” (Marcia and Marriance, 2000:126).

Cohesive Devices Based on Renkema (1993:40):



E. GRAMMATICAL COHESION

Grammatical cohesion is grammatical connections between clauses and sentences in written discourse. According to Halliday in Marianne, there are four types of grammatical cohesion ties in English that are related to the grammar of the text: reference, ellipsis, substitution, and conjunction. The use of those are different. Reference for referring to other words, ellipsis to omitting the word which is not important to be already understood, the assumption, substitution focus on replacement of a word or a group word with dummy word “do, one and ones”, conjunction focuses on a word connecting from word-word, phrase-phrase or clause-clause and sentence-sentence.

1. Reference

Reference is the expression whose meaning could be understood by referring to the other words. It directs the hearer and reader to look elsewhere for their interpretation (Brown and Yule, 1996:192). “Reference item in English include pronoun (I, You, We, They, She, He, It), demonstratives (This, That, These, Those), the article (The, a, and an) (McCarthy, 1991:35).

Concerning reference, Halliday and Hasan (1976) distinguish between anaphoric and cataphoric references.

a. Anaphoric Reference

The key of anaphoric reference is look back at previous sentences and Cataphoric is reference requiring look forward.

The example:

Mr Hakim is a flower seller who is handsome boy in his village. He is very kind and patient people. All of people like him.

In order to interpret the word he, we should refer back to the previous sentence named Mr Hakim. The anaphoric is Mr Hakim.

b. Cataphoric Reference

Cataphoric reference is reference requiring look forward the next text in order to identify the reference.

The example:

“Oh... my beautiful girl has come, how are you?” (said handsome man in the garden)

“I’m fine... my handsome man is fine, isn’t he?”

In order to interpret the reference handsome man, the readers should refer to the next text. And cataphoric here is my beautiful girl.

There are three type of reference: personal, demonstrative, and comparative reference (Halliday and Hassan, 1976:37).

(a) Personal Pronoun

Personal pronoun is pronoun that refers to person. It is used the first person, the second person and third person. It is usually used for singular or plural person. Personal pronouns agreement with indefinite pronoun (everyone, someone, everything, no one, etc), personal pronoun agreement with collection nouns (family, group, audience, public, staff), reflexive pronoun (myself, himself, themselves, etc).

Pronoun :

	Singular	Plural
Subject Pronoun	I You She, he, It	We You They
Object Pronoun	Me You Her, Him, It	Us You Them
Possesive Pronoun	Mine Your Hers His	Ours Yours Theirs
Possesive Adjectives	My Your Her, His, Its	Our Your Their

For example: “that motorcycle is mine. It’s very expensive”.

In the second sentence, it refers to that motorcycle in the preceding sentence. The word it is called personal reference exactly subject pronoun.

(b) Demonstrative Pronoun

Demonstrative reference is a pronoun by means of location, on a scale of proximity. In the case of demonstrative, the words this, these, that, those. Halliday and Hassan add this, these and here imply proximity to the speaker; that, those and imply distance from the speaker. E.g pick these up! How would you like a cruise in that yacht? Leave that and come here! (Halliday and Hassan 1976:58) last year we went to Devon for holiday. The holiday we had there was the best we’ve ever had. (Halliday and Hassan 1976: 73)

(c) Comparative Pronoun

Comparative pronoun is pronoun that shows the identity or similarity.

The conclusion of Betty Schramper Azar and Robert Krohn (1990: 17)

Grammatical Class	Determiner	Adverb
Identical	Same, equal, identical	Identically
Similarity	Similar, additional	Similarly, likewise
Difference	Other, different, else	Differently, otherwise
Particular Comparison	Better, more, etc	So, more, less, equally

e.g. she and aunt are difference

The most concrete example reference are third person pronouns: (he/him/his), (she/her/her), (it/it/its), (they/them/theirs). To understand about reference, read this.

2. Substitution

Substitution is replacement of a word or a group of words with a word which is apparently not related to the replaced words. Renkema (1993) calls it “dummy word”, do, one and ones.

Notice the use of one and ones.

One used as a substitute for a singular noun.

“ do you want ice cream?”

“yes I want this one”

That one

The blue one

A good one.”

Ones, used as a substitute for a plural noun.

“ do you want this apple?

“ yes, I want some red ones.

These red ones.

A few nice ones.

Several new one.”

One is used as a substitute for a singular noun after this, that, or a descriptive adjective such as good and ones is used as a substitute for a plural noun after a descriptive adjective only, but not after words like this or several” Krohn (1990:156). Compare the following examples:

“ do you want some bananas?

“yes, I want some.

These

A few

Several

Five.”

Word such as some, these, a few, several, five are not descriptive adjective.

Therefore, they can not be followed by ones.

The example below.

Rizal : Morning seno....can you help me?

Seno : Morning Rizal.. ok but what can i do for you ?

Rizal : I need that white veil but i don't have enough money

Seno : ok, I will buy to you. This one, rizal ?

Rizal : yes, thank you

Note:

The word "white veil" change into "one"

3. Ellipsis

Ellipsis is omitting some items in the text, which required by the grammar, but the writer thinks the items are clearly understandable by the reader, for that reason it does not need to be repeated. Actually, ellipsis is as substitution by *zero* (Remkema, 1993:38) or in other words, the item referred is substituted or replaced by nothing. Here is the case where ellipsis occurred, when sentences or clauses whose structure has the missing information. The missing information is like an empty slot and in ellipsis; nothing is inserted into the slot but the item itself. There are three types of ellipsis and three of them are discussed below.

1) Nominal ellipsis means ellipsis with the nominal group, the structure of the nominal group is that a head with optional modification. The modifying elements include some which precede the head and some

which follow it. The function head is normally served by common noun, pronoun expressing the thing.

Example: These mangoes are fresh. Those are stale. (In the second sentence the word “mangoes” are deleted).

- 2) Verbal ellipsis is the omission of verb. There are two types of verbal ellipsis, they are lexical ellipsis and operator ellipsis. lexical ellipsis ‘from the right’: it always involves of the last word, which is the lexical verb. Any verb group consisting of a modal operator only can be recognized as operator ellipsis. Unlike lexical ellipsis, operator ellipsis is ellipsis ‘from the left’ that involves the omission of operators. In this ellipsis, the subject also is always omitted from the clause.

Example: the cat will not catch mice in the winter.

1. It will in summer. (lexical ellipsis)
 2. No, the dog catches rabbits. (operator ellipsis)
- 3) Clause ellipsis often occurs in the form of question answer. In this case, the answer whether yes or no or other response can be considered as the substitute.

Example: can you put my car in the parking lot?

1. Yes. (I can)
2. If you get out. (Indirect response)

Both answers sentence 1 and 2 are the substitute for the question as the clause. Yes in 1 substitute “I can put your car in the parking area”

and if you get out in 2 also substitute “I can put your car in the parking lot (if you get out)”.

4. Conjunction

Conjunction is the relation of a wit of idea with the other (McCharty, 1991:46). By using conjunction, we see the way of grammatical contribution to textuality is systematically connected to what has gone before. Conjunction does not depend either on referential meaning or on identity or association of wording. Conjunction is divided into four types as described below.

- a. Additive relation of conjunction is the addition is the addition to connect parts of information and which used to arrange two sentences or more (Rani,et.all, 2004:118). The words belong to additive devices such as *and, in addition, moreover, furthermore, or, similarity, for example, in particular, likewise*.

Example: Food such as vegetable, fruit, and fish, ar good for health and doing sport regulary is also good for health.

- b. Adversative is one part of conjunctions. The basic meaning of the realtion is contrary to expectation or the things that expected from the previous sentence are different from the end of the whole text. The expectation may come from the content of what is being said or from the communication process. Adversative consists of words like *but, however, nevertheless, yet, on the other hand, in fact, conversely*.

Example: This type of electrical machine is oldest. However, it is the most powerful one.

- c. Causal is another part of conjunction. The causal relation includes the relation of result, reason, and purpose. The words included are *because, as the result, consequently, for this reason.*

Example: Many car accidents happened because the drivers were drunk while driving.

- d. Temporal is the relation between two sentences may be simply one of the sequence in time. It means that subsequent to another. Temporal conjunction uses some words such as *then, subsequently, before, after that, finally, on another occasion.*

Example: Mr Asrori and his wife get accident on the plane while tripping to visit their daughter. On another occasion, Ulya, their daughter is partying with their freinds.

Coordinating Conjunction

Coordinating conjunction, also called coordinators, are conjunctions that join two or more items of aqual syntatic importance, such as words, main clause or sentences. In English the mnemonic acronym *FANBOYS* can be used to remember the coordinators *for, and, nor, or, yet, and so.*

Here are some examples of coordinating in English and what they do:

- **For** presents areason (“She is absent today, for she is sick.”).
- **And** presents non-contrasting item(s) or idea(s) (“My father is reading newspaper now, my mother is cooking rice.”).

- **Nor** presents a non-contrasting negative idea (“They do not Indonesia nor do they Australia.”).
- **But** presents a contrast or exception (“He is anughty boy, but he is not smoker.”).
- **Or** presents an alternative item or idea (“Every day you study or you work.”).
- **Yet** presents a contrast or exception (“They are rice boys, yet they are not stingy.”).
- **So** presents a consequence (“She get much money so she wants to buy a car.”).

Correlative Conjunctions

Correlative conjunction work in pairs to join words and groups of words of equal weight in a sentence. There are six different pairs of correlative conjunction:

1. Either..or
2. Not only..but (also)
3. Neither...nor (or increasingly *naither..or*)
4. Both...and
5. Whether...or
6. Justas...so

Example:

- You **either** do your homework **or** read this magazine.
- **Not only** is she beautiful, **bur** she is **also** brilliant.

- **Neither** the football team **nor** the badminton team is doing well.
- **Both** the cross country team **and** the swimming team are doing well.
- **Whether** you stay or you go, it's your decision.
- **Just as** i love you, **so** I want to live with you till here after.

Subordinating Conjunctions

Subordinating conjunctions, also called subordinators, are helpful in writing paragraphs with an independent clause and a dependent clause. The most common subordinating conjunctions in English include *after, although, as, as far as, as if, as long as, as soon as, as though, become, before, if, in order that, since, so, so that, though, unless, until, when, whenever, where, whereas, wherever, and while*. (e.g., "I wonder *whether* he'll be late. I hope *that* he'll become"). Some subordinating conjunctions (*until* and *while*), when used to introduce a phrase instead of a full clause, become prepositions with identical meaning.

Such languages in fact often lack conjunctions as a part of speech because:

1. The form of the verb used is formally nominalized and cannot occur in an independent clause.
2. The clause-final conjunction or suffix attached to the verb is actually formally a marker of case and is also used on nouns to indicate certain functions. In this sense, the subordinate clauses of these languages have much in common with post position phrases.

F. GENRE

Genre is a particular style or type of art or literature (Candlin, 1992:156). Recently the attention to genre (kinds of the texts) is raised significantly, especially in discourse analysis both in the first language and the second language. Texts make discourse (Djuharie, 2007:24). A discourse in the text has a purpose communicatively.

There are twelve genre: Procedure, Recount, Narrative, Description, News Item, Report, Spoof, Exposition, Explanation, Discussion, Review, anecdote. But the writer choose one of genre is spoof text. Based on the communicative purpose, text is classified only spoof text.

G. SPOOF

Spoof is a text which tells factual story, happened in the past time with unpredictable and funny ending. Its social function to share with others a real story of which the ending is funny to amuse the audience or readers and Generic Structure of Spoof are:

- 1) Orientation (introduction of the participant of the story, where it happen and when. By giving the orientation, reader will recognize the story)
- 2) Events (tells about the chronological of the story. Several events are explored in chronological way which able to arrange the story read nicely.)
 - Event 1
 - Event 2

- ...etc...

- 3) Twist (an unpredictable plot in the end of the story which amuse the reader. Readers even did not predict before that it would be)

And than Language Feature of Spooof are:focusing on people, animals or certain things,using action verb; ate, ran, etc, using adverb of time and place, told in chronological order.