

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

A. Cohesion

The term cohesion is very important in the text. It is a part of the system of a language. Cohesion is part of discourse analysis. Halliday and Hassan (1976:4) state cohesion occurs where the interpretation of some elements in the discourse is dependent on that of another. That one presupposes the other, in the sense that it cannot be effectively decoded except by resource to it. Cohesion occurs when the interpretation of some elements in the discourse dependent on that of another. When this happens a relation of cohesion is set up, and the two elements, the presupposing and the presupposed, are thereby at least potentially integrated into a text. The statement has similar with Cook (1990:156) which states that cohesion is formal links between sentences and between clauses. Another statement is Baker (1992:180) supports that cohesion is the network of lexical, grammatical, and other relation which provide links between various parts of a text.

According to Janjua (2012:149) the function of cohesion is to differentiate text from the collection of unrelated sentence. Cohesion connects any passage or speech to function as a text form in semantic relation. Cohesion can be defined as connection between the sentence in a discourse, both in the stratum of grammatical and lexical (Gutwinsky, 1976:93). It means that cohesive is a condition where the discourse is being interconnected because of linguistic factor. This relationship functions is to convey meaning from the speakers' mind, idea or thought, in order to make a sentence convey meaning and to get readers easier to understand the whole meaning. Combining some statements above the researcher can conclude that cohesion is used to links one part of a text to another part of the same text. It has functions as a tie to link one sentence

to another for indicates the relationship between the sentences. In others the definition is: “Cohesion is the grammatical and/or lexical relationship between the different sentences or between different parts of sentence” (Richards, 1992:62). Cohesion is not only concerned with grammar, but also with vocabulary. Cohesive relations are non-structural relations which work to help text hang together (Nunan, 1993: 20). However, it is important that the text can only include some factors from the context which can be relevant to it is interpretation. A text is not just a sequence of sentence strung together, but a sequence of units, or parts of sentences, connected in some contextually appropriate ways.

Related to cohesion, Widdowson (2007:45) state that the identification of connections is linguistically signaled, between pronoun and previous noun phrase. It recognize to the cohesion of a text. Cohesion is the connection that results when the interpretation of a textual element is dependent on another element in the text, and cohesion refers to the semantic connection that exists between perceptible elements in the text (Renkema, 2018: 56). According to Mulyana (2005: 26), cohesion has a concept that focuses on the relationship of forms, which means discourse elements such as words or sentences that are well structured and have a coherent and complete connection

B. Cohesive Devices

Cohesive device is a device which holds different parts of a thing together which helps in achieving unity of text as a semantic whole. Without them the semantic system cannot be effectively activated at all, for example;

1. Netflix has many movies and shows **and** it is only \$9.
2. The apartment is nasty **but** it is expensive.

As we can see in the sentences above, **and** is used to add something to the previous statement, while in the second sentence we can

see how something positive and negative is said and the word **but** used to contrast idea.

Based on Renkema (1993:40) cohesive devices divided into 2 types which are: Grammatical cohesion and Lexical cohesion.

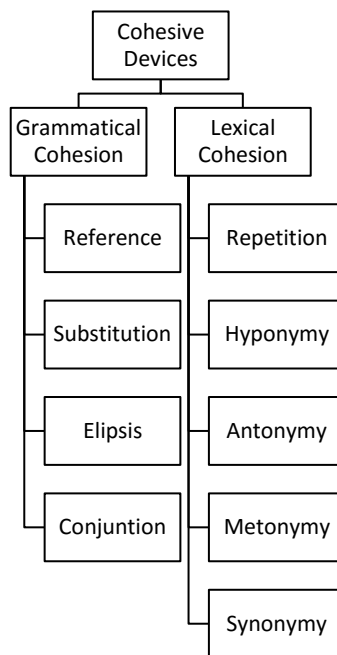


Figure 1

Grammatical cohesion refers to the linguistic structure of the text, the highest structural unit in the grammar is the sentence. The structure determines the order in which grammatical elements occur, and they way they are related within a sentence. Cohesive relationships with other sentences create a certain linguistic environment, and the meaning of each sentence depends on it. Various linguistic meanings help to identify whether a text can function as a single meaningful unit or not.

Lexical cohesion comes about through the selection of items that are related in some way to those that have gone before (Halliday, 1985: 310). Lexical cohesion is ‘phoric’ cohesion that is established through the structure of the vocabulary (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 318). Lexical cohesion occurs when two words in a text are related in terms of their meaning. Types of lexical cohesion are repetition, synonymy and collocation. Each individual lexical item carries certain information in a text and creates a lexical environment (Tsareva, 2010: 12).

In a similar way, cohesion can be defined as connection between the sentence in a discourse, both in the stratum of grammatical and lexical (Gutwinsky, 1976: 93). Those cohesive devices are the primary cue of determining the existence of semantic relations within a text. Whether an element is interrelated to other elements and makes them interpretable and the text becomes comprehensible by the readers.

C. Grammatical Cohesive Devices

Grammatical cohesion is constructed by the grammatical structures each component tie each other. Halliday and Hasan (1976) classify cohesion into 4 major classes: Reference, Substitution, Elipsis Conjunction.

1. Reference

Reference concerns the relation between a discourse element and a preceding or following element (Schrubert, 2018:126). Reference deal with a semantic relationship, whereas substitution and ellipsis deal with the relationship between grammatical units: words, sentence parts and clauses. In the case of reference the meaning of a dummy word can be determined by what is imparted before or after the occurrence of the dummy word. In general, the dummy word is a pronoun. Gerot and Wignell (1994: 105) explain that the reference refers to a system that introduces and tracks the identity of the participant through the text. 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).

Halliday and Hasan (1976:33-78) classify reference into *exophoric* and *endophoric* as a general name for reference within the text. As a general rule, reference items may be *exophoric* or *endophoric*: and if it is *endophoric*, it may be *anaphoric* or *cathaphoric*. Exophora, according to them is one,

which does not name anything; it signals that reference must be made to the context of situation. Endophora is textual reference, that is, “referring to anything as identified in the surrounding text”. Endophora reference is further classified into anaphora (reference to preceding text) and cataphora (reference to following text).

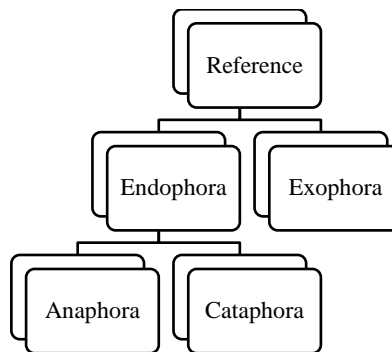


Figure 2

Halliday and Hasan also divided reference into three types they are personal, demonstrative, and comparative reference:

- a. Personal reference is a reference by means of function in the speech situation, through the categories of person. The category of personals includes the three classes of personal pronoun (I, you, we, he, she, they, it, and one), possessive pronouns (mine, yours, ours, his, hers, theirs, and its) and possessive identifiers (my, your, our, his, her, their, its, one's).

(1) Mrs. Mary was absent yesterday. **She** attended a meeting in Jakarta.

In the second sentence, **she** refers to Mrs. Mary in the preceding sentence. The word **she** is called personal reference, as she follows it linguistic reference of Mrs. Mary.

- b. Demonstrative reference is a reference by means of location, on a scale of proximity. Demonstrative reference is divided into three parts, they are:

✓ Selective nominal demonstrative like *this*, *these*, *that*, and *those* refer to the location of something;

(2) *These* pens must be given to the students, mom!

The word *these* in the sentence above refer to pens on scale of proximity near the speaker.

This sentence is also called selective nominal demonstrative.

✓ The definite article *the*. It also refer to the location of something;

(3) His mother gives him a new car. *The* new car is very beautiful.

The word *the* in the example above is classified as the definite article because it refer to new car in the previous text.

✓ The adverbial demonstrative such as *here*, *there*, *now*, and *then* refer to the location of process in space or time, and they normally do so directly, not via the location of some person or object that is participating in the process.

c. Comparative reference is cohesion in the form of reference that shows comparison between one thing and another.

(4) It's the same cat as the one we saw yesterday.

(5) It's a similar cat as the one we saw yesterday.

(6) It's a different cat from the one we saw yesterday.

The referent was *the one we saw yesterday*, and the comparative *same*, *similar*, and *different* was pointing forward to it.

2. Substitution

As Cook (1990:158) defines that substitution is a cohesive devices in which one of closed set of words (for example: one, do, so) stand for a word, phrase, clause or element of the context. It's similar with Halliday's statement (1989:228) that a clause, or a part (usually including the lexical element) of a verbal or nominal group, may be presupposed at a subsequent place in the text by the device of replacement or substitution. Substitution is replacement of a word or a group words with word which is apparently not related to the replaced words. Renkema (1993) calls it "dummy word", do, one and ones.

Examples from Halliday and Hasan (1976:89;105):

(7) A: You think John already knows?

B: I think everybody *does*.

(*Does* replaces knows)

(8) My axe is too blunt. I must get a sharpen *one*.

(*One* replaces axe)

(9) A: I'll have two poached eggs on the toasts, please.

B: I'll have *the same*.

(*the same* replaces two poached eggs on toast)

It brings to an idea that in substitution, an item is replaced by another item.

3. Elipsis

As Mc. Carthy (1991: 43) defines ellipsis is the omission of elements normally required by the grammar which the speaker or researcher assumes are obvious from the context and therefore need not be raised. Ellipsis is distinguished by structure having some missing elements. Cook (1989:20) states that ellipsis is omitting part of sentence on the assumption that an earlier sentence or the context will make the meaning clear.

From both of the statements the researcher concludes that ellipsis is omission of an item and it settles obvious from the

context therefore need not be raised. Ellipsis is deletion of parts of sentences under the assumption without alleviate the meaning. Sometime we thought that we do not need to repeat the same word or phrase to say something which has the clear meaning. Halliday and Hasan (1976:143;158;159) give some examples, they are:

(10) Joan bought some carnations and Catherine some sweet peas.

(Elliptic item: *brought* in second clause)

(11) Here are thirteen cards. Take any. Now give me any three.

(Elliptic items: card after any in second clause and cards after any three in third clause).

(12) These apples are delicious. Let's buy some.

(Elliptic item: *apples* after some in the second clause).

. There are three types of ellipsis. They are nominal, verbal, and clausal ellipsis. The types of ellipsis will be explain below:

a. Nominal ellipsis is a type of ellipsis in the nominal group.

The nominal ellipsis lifts a word positioning as pre modifier (deictic, numerative, epithet, and classifiers) to Head

Example:

(13) My kids play an awful lot of sport. *Both* are incredibly energetic (Nunan, 1993:26).

The ellipsis in the example above is the word *both*, it is replace the word my kids.

b. Verbal Ellipsis

Verbal ellipsis refers to ellipsis within the verbal group.

The verbal group before presupposes the next verbal group

which is not always expressed in its systematic features. The interpretation is made in the verbal system

Example:

(14) A: Have you been reading? Yes I *have*

B: What have you been doing? *Swimming*

Have and *swimming* can be interpreted as stands for I have been swimming.

- c. 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:

(15) Can you put my phone on the table?

1. Yes. (I can)

2. If you moved on. (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 phone on the table” and if you moved on in 2 also substitute “I can put your car phone on the table (if you moved on)”.

4. Conjunction

Baker (1992:190) states that conjunction involves the use of formal markers to relate sentences, clauses, and paragraphs to each other. Cook (1989:21) conjunction is provided by words and phrase that explicitly draw attention to the type of relationship which exist between one sentence or clause and another. Both of them similar with Crystal (2008:101) state that conjunction a term used in the grammatical classification of words to refer to an item or a process whose primary function is to connect words or other constructions. Combining some statement above the researcher can take conclusion that conjunction is a term is used to relate or connect sentences,

clauses, and another constructions. Unlike reference, substitution, and ellipsis, the use of conjunction does not instruct the reader to supply missing information either by looking for it elsewhere in the text or by filling structural slots. There are also many variations in using conjunction in daily life however it can be said that there are four types of conjunction considered as the most types used. Those four types are additive, adversative, causal and temporal. As Brown and Yule (1983:191) state that there are four types of conjunction, they are:

- a. Additive : adds one statement to another, doesn't express ideas such as contrast, choice or inference (and, or, furthermore, similarly, in addition, also, too, not only).

Example:

(16) He no longer goes to school *and* is planning to look for a job.

(17) My client says he does not know his witness. *Furthermore*, he denies ever seeing his daughter.

- b. Adversative : express a contrast between two statements in a sentence (but, however, on the other hand, nevertheless, however, whereas).

Example:

(18) He is poor *but* he is honest.

(19) He is hardworking *whereas* his brother is quite the reverse.

- c. Causal : includes the relation of result, reason, and purpose (because, as the result, consequently, for this reason, so, consequently).

Example:

(20) Many car accidents happened *because* the drivers were drunk while driving.

- d. Temporal : relation between two sentences may be simply one of the sequences in time. It means that subsequent to another (*then, subsequently, before, after that, finally, on another occasion*).

Example:

- (21) *After* she left my father, we were able to continue our life.

D. Lexical Cohesive Devices

Lexical cohesive device is cohesion between or among sentence because of lexical choices (Schrubert, 2018:127). Lexical cohesive devices include repetition, synonymy, hyponymy, metonymy, and antonymy.

1. Repetition

Repetition is repeating of word or phrase to create interconnection. In other hand repetition can be defined as literary device that repeats the same words or phrases a few times to make an idea clearer.

Example:

- (22) They invent nonsense words in which the **sounds** are randomly connected to each other and take great delight in playing at talking. In a sense they are imitating their first encounter with words, before they could assign any meaning to them. Once **sounds** acquire meaning, however, they become transformed; they acquire what Ferdinand de Saussure calls value, just as a metal coin does when stamped with the appropriate royal seal. I am beginning with' this fairly obvious point because it enshrines a fundamental point in linguistics: the relationship between the **sound** of a word and its meaning is not a natural one.

In that example, the word **sound** is repeated two times. As we can see in the example, the main topic occur on the text is about **sound**. The writer uses the repetition to build interconnection among the sentences. So we can understand what the writer means.

2. Synonymy

Synonymy is two or more words / expression which have similar meaning. In other statement synonymy can be define as different phonological words which have very closely related meaning (Yule, 1996: 104).

Example:

(23) A *conference* will be held on national environmental policy. This *environmental symposium* will be primarily a conference dealing with water. (Renkema, 2018:128)

3. Hyponymy

Hyponymy is word or phrase which have general-specific meaning relation. When the meaning of one form is included in th meaning of another, the relationship is described as hyponymy (Yule, 1996:105)

Example:

(24) We were in town today shopping for *furniture*. We saw a lovely *table*. (Renkema, 2018:128)

4. Metonymy

Metonymy is the connection between part and whole meaning relation. It means that some word can replace by other words which have a part of whole meaning relation.

Example:

(25) "The *pen* is mightier than the *sword*," from Edward Bulwer Lytton's play *Richelieu*.

This sentence has two metonyms:

- i. "*Pen*" stands for "the written word."
- ii. "*Sword*" stands for "military aggression."

5. Antonymy

Antonymy is word, phrase, expression which have opposite meaning. Antonymy covers the relation between lexical items whose meaning stand in opposition to each other and it is often thought as the opposite of synonymy (Lyons, 1977:286).

Example:

(26) He fell *asleep*. What *woke* him was a loud crash.

Asleep and woke are antonymy and therefore form a cohesive relationship.

E. Genre

Basically, genres are kinds of broad rhetorical templates that writers draw on to respond to repeated situations; users see certain language choices as representing effective ways of getting things done in familiar contexts (Hyland, 2013:1). 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. Genre is a particular style or type of art or literature (Candlin, 1992:156). O'Sullivan *et al* (1994: 128), for instance, argue that 'genres are agents of ideological closure - they limit the meaning-potential of a given text' while writers can rely on readers already having some knowledge and expectations about the conventions of a genre (Hyland, 2013:2).

As defined by Swales (1990), Genre is a class of communicative events with shared recognizable communicative purposes (Renkema,

2018: 75). These purposes are used to be mutually understood by addresser and addressee.

Hammond (1992) reveals that written texts may be viewed from another perspective as well; that is, one which identities the genre and text type category membership of the genres in a list as genre categories anecdotes, descriptions, expositions, news items, procedures, recounts, reports, and reviews (Paltridge, 1996). For some scholars, genres are defined primarily on the basis of external criteria; newspaper articles are found in the news sections of newspapers, academic articles are found in academic journals (Biber 1989: 6), while for other scholars, communicative purpose and/or linguistic content and form play a role. A further point to be stressed is that genres are meant not so much to classify but to clarify and explain the rationale of social behaviour (Fowler 1982: 286). The concept of genre as social action, one situated in a wider sociorhetorical context operates not only as a mechanism for reaching communicative goals but also as a means of clarifying what these goals might be (Swales 1990: 44). Based on Trossborg article, one genre may be realized through a number of registers just as a genre constrains the ways in which register variables of field, tenor and mode can be combined in a particular society. Some topics will be more suitable for lectures than others, while other topics are likely to be chosen for informal conversation between equals.

F. Fairy Tales

The definition of fairytale is a story for a child that tells about something imaginary and not really happens. Fairytale or usually called by fairy story is a literary form that tells the story a remarkable event filled imaginary (fiction) is considered by the public that does not really happen in the world (Rozak, 2004 : 206). During its long evolution, the literary fairy tale has distinguished itself as genre by ‘appropriating’ many motifs, themes, signs, and drawings from folklore, embellishing them and

combining them with elements from other literary genres, for it became gradually necessary in the modern world to adapt a certain kind of oral storytelling dealing with miraculous and magical transformation to standards of literacy and make it acceptable for diffusion in the public sphere.

The fairy tale is only one type of textual and literary appropriation of a particular oral storytelling tradition related to the oral wonder tale, which existed throughout Europe in many different forms before the Common Era and during the Medieval period. The fairytale stories are about witches, giants, or talking animal and thing, etc. A fairy tale is a type of short story that typically features European folklore fantasy characters, such as dwarves, elves, fairies, giants, gnomes, goblins, mermaids, trolls, or witches, and usually magic or enchantments. Fairy tales may be distinguished from other folk narratives such as legends which generally involve belief in the veracity of the events described (Thompson, 1955: 58). The narrative elements issue from real-life experiences and customs to form a paradigm that facilitates recall for tellers and listeners. The paradigmatic structure enables teller and listeners to recognize, store, remember, and reproduce the stories and to change them to fit their experiences and desires due to the easily identifiable characters who are associated with particular assignments and settings.

Certainly, the narratives were intended to acquaint people with learning experiences so that they would know how to comport themselves or take advantage of unexpected opportunities. The information and knowledge imparted by the oral wonder tales involves a learning process through which protagonist and listener are enriched by encounters with extraordinary characters and situations in the vernacular and their acceptance by the educated elite classes. Literary fairy tales were not at first called fairy tales, nor can one with certainty say that they were simple appropriations of oral folk tales that were popular among the common people.

A fairy tale is a fictional story that may feature folkloric characters (such as fairies, goblins, elves, trolls, witches, giants, and talking animals) and enchantments, often involving a far-fetched sequence of events. Mostly the characters in fairy tales are human and animals. A story that feature talking animals characters are called as Fable. Fable is a type of fairy tale story that tells the lives of animals which behave like humans. And of course, the story is not a true story, and it is just imagination. Fables often give a valuable moral lesson to the reader or the audience, which will advise them on social and behavioral moral ethics. Hence, they teach the audience about virtues and vices in life and how to differentiate them to lead a fruitful and virtuous life.

While the story that feature human is called as tale. Tales generally contain short stories about things that don't make sense - for example about the magic and the magic of the characters in them. Basically, either fables or tale have similar characteristics, that is they are both stories that have never happened in real life. They provide enjoyment to everyone irrespective of their age. However, both of them also have special characteristics, which make them different. Fables have special characteristics, namely the story in it tells about the lives of animals that behave like humans. Meanwhile, fairy tales or tales still make humans the main character in the story but the writer choose human to be as elves, fairies, dwarfs, goblins, giants, witches, etc. who have magical attributes in this story.

G. Previous Studies

The researcher described some words which are relevant to this research to make this thesis arrangement easier:

1. The thesis research from Juandi entitled *The Use of Cohesive Devices in The Novel "the Great Gatsby"*.

Juandi's research analyzed the Grammatical and Lexical Cohesive devices of Novel Great Gatsby based on Halliday Hasan theory. The

research found some types of cohesive devices used in the utterances The Great Gatsby all of the cohesive devices consist of reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction, and lexical cohesion.

The similarity of my research with Juandi's research is the same types of grammatical cohesive devices. Other similarity is on the theory; Juandi's research used cohesive devices based on Halliday Hassan's theory. The gap between this research and Juandi is on the type of lexical cohesive devices and the data, the Great Gatsby novel.

2. Rikman (2008) in his thesis title, "*Cohesive Devices in Edgar Allan Poe's Short Story in Eleonora*"

Rikman used Halliday and Hasan's theory to analyze the short story in Eleonora. He found some types of cohesive devices in short story of Eleonora. They are reference expression (68,71%), ellipsis(1,61%), conjunction (23,10%), and lexical cohesion (6,58%) except substitution.

The similarity of my research with Rikman's research is the same types of grammatical cohesive devices. Other similarity is on the theory; Rikman's research used cohesive devices based on Halliday Hassan's theory. The gap between this research and Rikman is on the type of lexical cohesive devices and the data, the Short Story in Eleonora.

3. Normah (2013) in her thesis title, "Analysis of Grammatical Cohesion in Stephenie Meyer's Novel "The Second Life of Bree Tanner".

She uses Halliday and Hasan's theory to analyze Stephenie Meyer's Novel "The Second Life of Bree Tanner". She found personal reference dominate in the novel. The personal reference most of them refer to Bree and Diego because is the main character in the novel.

The similarity of my research with Normah's research is the same types of grammatical cohesive devices. Other similarity is on the theory; Rikman's research used cohesive devices based on Halliday Hassan's

theory. The gap between this research and Rikman is on the data, The Second Life of Bree Tanner novel by Stephenie Meyer.