

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter presents some theories that are relevant with the research. It discusses about discourse, discourse analysis, cohesion, argumentative essay writing, and previous study related to this study.

A. Discourse

Language is used for communication is called discourse. According to Cook, discourse may be composed of one or more well-formed grammatical sentences and indeed it often but it doesn't have to be (1989:6-7). Discourse is an instance of spoken or written language that has described internal relationship of form and meaning (e.g. word, structure, 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 take into account the content and participants in which a piece of discourse (Murcia, 2000: 4)

In written discourse, we expect them to be coherence, meaningful communication in which the word or sentence are linked or another in a fashion that correspond to convention formulate, just are we do with speech (McCarthy, 1991: 12-13). As stated Halliday and Hasan that text is used in linguistics to refer any passages, spoken, or written, of whatever length, that does form a unified whole. A text is a unit of language in use. It is not a

grammatical unit, like a clause or a sentence; and it is not defined by its use. A text is best regarded as a semantic unit: a unit not of form but of meaning.

From the definition above, it can be concluded that text or discourse are language in use for communication, not always grammatical because both spoken and written give priority to the meaning not its form.

B. Discourse Analysis

Discourse analysis is part of the growing interest that linguistics are showing in the communicative properties of language and the functioning of language in social context. Discourse analysis focuses on natural structure which is found in spoken language, as many find in discourse like conversation, interview, comment, and utterance (Crystal, 1987).

Stubbs (1983: 30) states that whereas 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 connected with ways in which information is selected 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.

Moreover, according to Brown and Yule (1983), says that discourse analysis is the analysis of language in use. It means that discourse is analysis of language that is used by people both spoken and written. Agreeing with the

above definition that discourse analysis is basically the study of the underlying system of discourse. System here, however, are different from rules in theoretical linguistics or laws in physical sciences, but rather they refer to regularities. Thus discourse analysis is very much concerned with regularities of the occurrence of references, cohesive devices, staging, etc.

From explanation above, the researcher concludes that a discourse analysis is study about the use of language that is use by people both spoken and written texts in a social context. Therefore, they will understand what message that is transferred well.

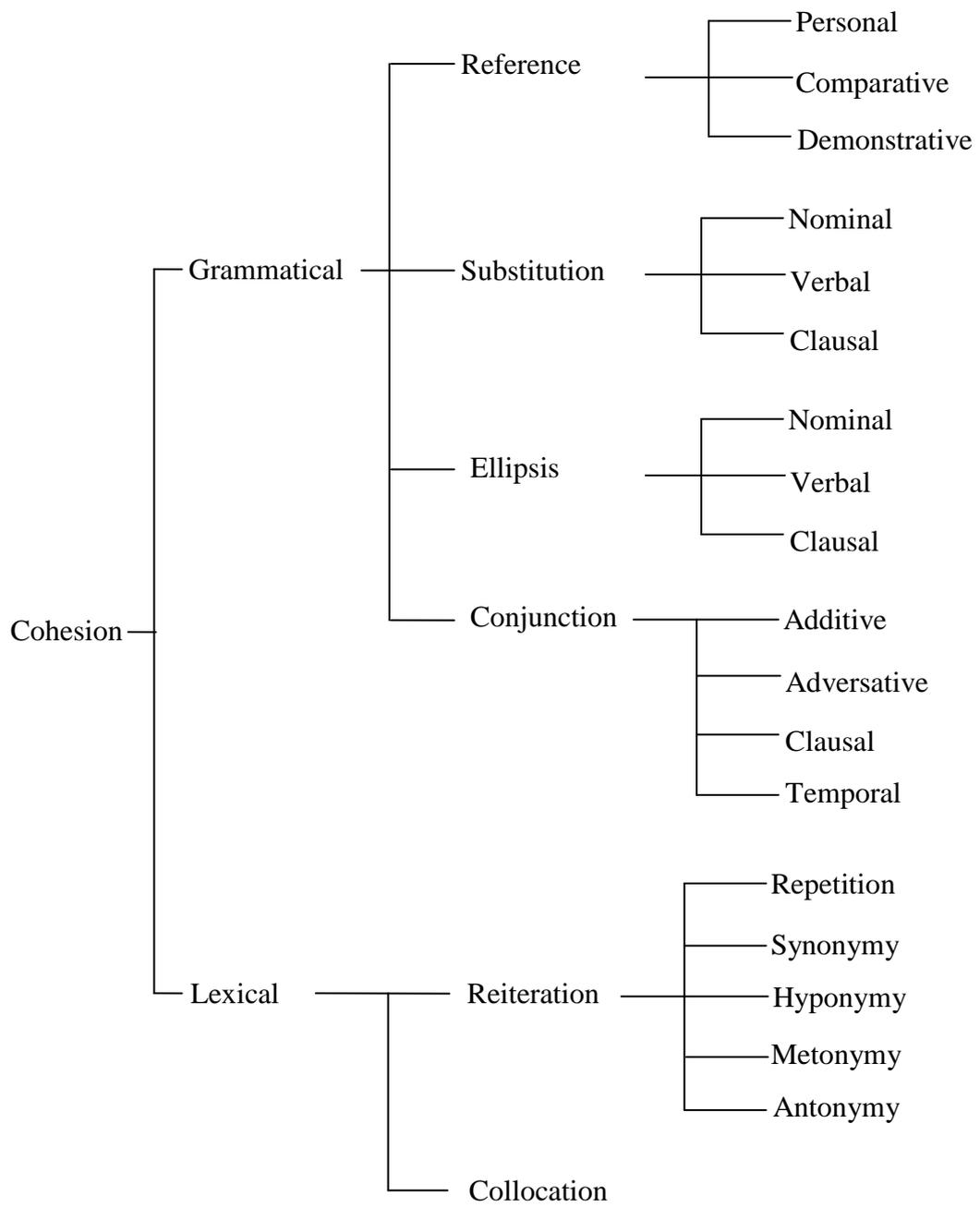
C. Cohesion

The concept of cohesion is semantic one. It refers to relation of meaning that exist within a text. According to Chojimah (2015: 8), cohesion is the connection within a discourse that is came from internal factors in the language. The factors that connecting sentences within a discourse can be physically proven. Dealing with this, Renkema (1993: 35) explains that cohesion is the connection which result when the interpretation of a textual element in dependent on another element in the text. The use of various cohesive ties to explicitly link together all the proposition in a text result in cohesion of that text. The most obvious structural features of such connected discourse are the cohesive ties identified and discussed by Halliday and Hasan in Muria et al (2000: 7).

Cohesive relationship within a text is set up where the interpretation of some element in the discourse is independent on that of another (Halliday and Hasan, cited in Brown and Yule: 191). Thus, cohesion could help interpreting some components in a discourse that are tied to another part. The existence of cohesion in a discourse gives signal to the reader or hearer the connections between the sentences of a text that makes a text sound like it hangs together (Gee, 2001: 159).

In textual cohesion as state in Halliday and Hasan (1989:2), divided into two kinds; non-structural and structural cohesion. Non-structural cohesion is in around of meaning relation, whereas structural cohesion is concerning on the grammar level. Non-structural cohesion consists of grammatical and lexical cohesion, whereas structural cohesion consists of parallelism, theme-rheme development, and given new organization.

This study focus on non-structural cohesion only, so structural cohesion will not be analyzed here. The researcher used Halliday and Hasan (1976) as the main theory, while other author is also used as the complement of the theory used. In this case, Halliday and Hasan (1976) divided the cohesion or cohesive devices into two types. The researcher tried to make chart of cohesion types as follows:



Grammatical Cohesion identifies the grammatical rules of a text or utterance. Chojimah (2015: 8) defines that grammatical cohesion is connection within a discourse because of grammatical factors. There are four types of grammatical cohesion: reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction.

a. Reference

Reference is expressions whose meanings can be understood by referring to other words. It direct hearers and readers to look elsewhere for their interpretation (Brown and Yule, 1996: 192). Concerning reference, Halliday and Hasan (1976) divide into three types of reference: personal reference, demonstrative reference, and comparative reference.

1) Personal Reference

Personal Reference is reference by means of function in speech situation through the category of person (Halliday & Hasan, 1976:37).

Table 2.1. The categories of personal reference

The category of personals reference includes the three classes:

Person	Personal pronoun		Possessive determiners	Possessive pronoun
	Subject	Object		
First	I	Me	My	Mine
	We	Us	Our	Ours
Second	You	You	Your	Yours
Third	He	Him	His	His
	She	Her	Her	Hers
	They	Them	Their	Theirs
	It	It	Its	Its

Example:

(1) *My Husband and I* are leaving. *We* have seen quite enough of this unpleasant.

(Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 50)

From the example above, there are two kind of personal reference which is *my* as the possessive determiners that refer to the speaker. *I* and *we* shows personal pronoun. *I* refer to the speaker and *we* refer to my (speaker's) husband and the speaker.

2) Demonstrative reference

Demonstrative reference is reference by means of location on scale of proximity. It is essentially a form of verbal pointing. The speaker identifies the referent by locating it on scale of proximity (Halliday and Hasan, 1976:57).

Table 2.2 The categories of demonstrative reference

The proximity of demonstrative reference:

Proximity	Singular	Plural	Adverb
Near	That	These	Here (now)
Far	This	Those	There (then)
Neutral	The		

Example:

(2). Last year we went to *Devon* for a holiday. The holiday we had, *there* was the best we've ever had.

(Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 73)

The demonstrative reference in example above is *there* which has the function of far proximity. It refer to *Devon* that is located far from the speaker now. In addition, it is indirect speech.

3) Comparative reference

Comparative Reference is indirect reference by means of identity or similarity. It is achieved through adverbs and adjectives of comparison,

which is used to compare similarities or identities between items in a text (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 37). There are two types of comparative reference: General and Particular comparison. General comparison expresses likeness between things. The likeness may take the form of identity, where 'two things' are, in fact, the same thing, or similarity where two things like each other. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 77). The kinds of general comparison:

- Identity: same, equal, identical, identically
- Similarity: such, similar, so, similarly, likewise
- Deference: other, different, else, differently, otherwise

Example:

- (3) a. We have received exactly the *same* report as was submitted two months ago.
 b. There are *other* qualities than conviviality needed for his job.
 c. Find a number *equal* to the square of the sum of its digits.

(Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 78)

All the example in (3) consist of general comparison reference. In (a) *same* means, the report is like the report that was submitted two months ago. *Same* is identity general comparison. In (b) *other* is the comparative reference in a form of difference. It means there are additional qualities needed for this job. In (c) *equal* is identity general comparison, which means the number that, same to the square of square of the sum of its digit.

Moreover, Particular comparison expresses comparability between things in respect of a particular property. The property in question may be a matter of quantity or of quality. (Halliday and Hasan, 1976:80).

Example:

- (4) a. There were twice as many people *there* as last time.
 b. He's a *better* man than I am.
 c. There are *more* things in heaven and earth, Horatio are dream of in your philosophy.

(Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 82)

As in (a) is the enumerative comparative reference. It refers to the people who were there last time. In (b), better is particular comparison which *better* is an epithet. In (c) is numerative comparison reference which *more* refers to (the things) that are dreamt in your philosophy.

b. Substitution

Halliday and Hassan (1976) state that substitution takes place when one feature (in a text) replaces a previous word or expression, for instance: "I left my pen at home, do you have one?" In this example, "one" is replaced or substitution for "pen". It is important to mention that substitution and reference are different in what and where they operate, thus substitution is concerned with relations related with wording. Whereas reference is concerned with relations related with meaning. Substitution is a way to avoid repetition in the text itself; however, reference needs to retrieve its meaning from the situational textual occurrence.

"In terms of the linguistic system, reference is a relation on the semantic level, whereas substitution is a relation on the lexico-grammatical level, the level of grammar and vocabulary, or linguistic form". (Halliday and Hassan 1976: 89).

In addition, Chojimah (2015: 10) , states that 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

Halliday and Hasan (1976) points out there are three types of substitution: nominal, verbal, and clausal substitution.

1. Nominal Substitution

Nominal Substitution happens where the noun or a nominal group can be replaced by a noun. It consists of *one* and *ones* which function as head of a nominal group and *same* which substitutes for an entire nominal group.

For Example:

(5) Mummy will you buy me a *bus*? I want the red *one*.

(Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 99)

From the example above, the nominal substitution is *one*. It substitutes bus.

2. Verbal Substitution

Verbal substitution occurs when the verb or a verbal group can be replaced by another verb which is “do” (does, did, doing, done) . This functions as a head of verbal group, and it is usually placed at the end of the group. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 112)

For example:

- (6) a. Does Granny look *after* you every day? She can't do at weekends, because she has to go to her own house.
 b. Have they *removed their furniture*? *They have done the desks, but that's all so far.*

(Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 114)

In (a) *do* substitute *look after* the addressee (you), and *done in* (b) *substitute* removed

3. Clausal Substitution

Clausal substitution is a relation in which the entire clause not an element within the clause is presupposed and the contrasting element is outside the clause. Clausal substitution consists of *so* and *not*.

For Example:

(7) Is the mango ripe? It seems *so*.

(Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 134)

In example (7), the *so* presupposes the whole of the clause *this is mango ripe*,

(8) Ought we to declare our winning? It says *not*.

(Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 133)

In (8), *not* substitutes *for* we ought not to declare our winning,

c. Ellipsis

Ellipsis refers to “the omission of an item” (Halliday and Hasan: 1976: 88) that is already understood from the antecedent context. The relation between substitution and ellipsis is very close because it is merely that ellipsis is “substitution” by zero (0). What is essential in ellipsis is that some elements are omitted from the surface text, but they are still understood. Thus, omission of these elements can be recovered by referring to an element in the preceding text.

Halliday and Hasan (1976:146) assert that there are three types of ellipsis; nominal, verbal, and clausal.

1. Nominal Ellipsis

Nominal ellipsis is the ellipsis within the nominal group, where the omission of nominal group is served a common noun, proper noun or pronoun.

The structure is as head with optional modification. The modifying element includes some, which precede the head and some, which follow it. The modifier is combined with another structure on the experiential dimension, which consist of element *deictic, numerative, epithet, classifier, and qualifier*.

For example:

(9) Would you like to hear another verse? I know *twelve more*.

(Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 143)

The nominal ellipsis is *twelve more*. It presupposes the preceding sentences. It can be interpreted as *I know twelve another verse*.

2. Verbal Ellipsis

Verbal Ellipsis refers to the omission of an item within the verbal group where the elliptical verb depends on a preceding verbal group.

(Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 167).

For example:

(10) A. What are you doing?

B. *Thinking*.

(Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 178)

The verbal ellipsis in conversation above is verb thinking. An omission here I am doing thinking. Thinking in B can only be interpreted as I am thinking.

3. Clausal Ellipsis

Clausal ellipsis functions as verbal ellipsis, where the omission refers to a clause.

For example:

(11) Who taught you to spell? Grandfather *did*.

(Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 199)

The clausal ellipsis is *did*. Here the omission of the verb and the complement the clause that is omitted is *taught you to spell*.

d. Conjunction

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. Instead, conjunction signals the way the writer wants the reader to relate what is about to be said to what has been said before. Halliday and Hassan describe it as follows:

“In describing conjunction as a cohesive device, we are focusing attention not on the semantic relation as such, as realized throughout the grammar of the language, but on one particular aspect of them, namely the function they have of relating to each other linguistic elements that occur in succession but are not related by other, structural means”. (Halliday and Hassan, 1978: 227).

Moreover, Halliday and Hasan (1976:243) state that conjunction can be divided into additive, adversative, causal, and temporal.

1. Additive

The additive relation is somewhat different from coordination proper, although it is no doubt derivable from it. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 244). Additive relation is expressed by using of the word *and*, *or*, *furthermore*, *similarly*, *in addition*. It can be seen in the table below.

Table 2.3 The classifications of additive conjunction

	External/ Internal	Internal (Unless otherwise specified)		
Additive	Additive, simple: Additive (<i>and</i> , <i>and also</i>)	Complex, emphatic: Additive (<i>furthermore</i> , <i>in addition</i> , <i>besides</i>)	Apposition: Expository (<i>this is, I mean, in other word</i>) Exemplificatory (<i>for instance, thus</i>)	Comparison Similar (<i>likewise, similarity, in the same way</i>)
	Negative (<i>nor</i> , <i>and ... not</i>)	Alternative (<i>alternatively</i>)		Dissimilar (<i>on the other hand, by contrast</i>)
	Alternative (<i>or</i> , <i>or else</i>)	Complex, de-emphatic: Afterthought (<i>incidentally, by the way</i>)		

(Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 243)

For example:

(12) In the index of railroad stations the names of many railroad are followed by small numerals. These are time-table numbers indicating the table in which a given station is shown in the rail road's representation. *For example*, under Danburry, Ct., is shown "N. Y. New Harvard H., 12." *This means* Danburry is found on the time-table no. 12 of that railroad.

(Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 248)

From the text above, the additive conjunction is *for example* which is included as exemplification and *this means*, which is included as expository

2. Adversative

Adversative relation in contrary to expectation that may be derived from the content of what is being said, or from communication process, the speaker-hearer situation. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 250). Adversative relation is expressed by using of word *but, however, on the other hand, nevertheless*. It can be seen on the table below:

Table 2. 4 The classification of adversative conjunction

	External/ Internal	Internal (unless otherwise specified)		
Adversative	Adversative 'proper': Simple (<i>yet, although, only</i>) Containing 'and' (<i>but</i>) Emphatic (<i>however nevertheless, despite this</i>)	Contrastive avowal (<i>in fact, actually, as a matter of fact</i>) Contrastive (external): Simple (<i>but, and</i>) Emphatic (<i>however, on the other hand, at the same time</i>)	Correction of meaning (<i>instead, rather, on the contrary</i>) Of wording (<i>at least, rather, I mean</i>)	Dismissal: Closes (<i>In any case, in either case, whichever way it is</i>) Open-ended (<i>in any case, anyhow, at any rate, however it is</i>).

(Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 243)

For example:

(13) He showed no pleasure at hearing the news. *Instead*, he looked even gloomier.

(Halliday & Hasa, 1976: 254)

Instead in that example is relation of adversative type in a form of correction meaning.

3. Clausal

The simple of causal relation is expressed by *so, thus, hence therefore, consequently, accordingly*, and a number of expression like *as result (of that), in consequence (of that), because of that*. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 256). The word expression of causal relation can be seen in the table below:

Table 2.5 The classifications of causal conjunction

	External/ Internal	Internal (unless otherwise specified)		
Causal	Causal, general: Simple (<i>so, then, hence therefore</i>)	Reversed causal: Simple (<i>for, because</i>)	Conditional (also external) Simple (<i>then</i>)	Respective: Direct (<i>in this respect, in this regard, with reference to this</i>)
	Emphatic (<i>consequently, because of this</i>)	Causal, specific: Reason (<i>It follows, on this basis</i>)	Emphatic (<i>in that case, in such an event, that being so</i>)	Reversed polarity (<i>otherwise, in other respects, aside from this</i>).
	Causal, specific: Reason (<i>for this reason, on account of this</i>)	Result (<i>Raising out of this</i>)	Generalized (<i>under the circumstance</i>)	
	Result (<i>as a result, in consequence</i>)	Purpose(<i>to this end</i>)	Reversed polarity (<i>otherwise, under other circumstances</i>)	

	Purpose (<i>for this purpose with this mine</i>)			
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(Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 243)

For example:

(14) She left that there was no time to be lost, as she was shrinking rapidly, *so* she got to work at once to sat some of the other bit.

(Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 256)

The causal conjunction used of that example is *so*.

4. Temporal

Temporal relation is expressed in its simplest form by *then, next, afterwards, after that, subsequently, etc.* (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 261).

The word expressed of temporal relation can be seen in the table below:

Table 2.6 The classifications of temporal conjunction

	External/ Internal	Internal (unless otherwise specified)		
Temporal	Temporal, simple (external only): Sequential (<i>then, next, after that</i>) Simultaneous (<i>just then, at the same time</i>) Preceding (<i>previously, before that</i>)	Complex (external only): Immediate (<i>at once, thereupon</i>) Interrupted (<i>soon, after a time</i>) Repetitive (<i>next time, on another occasion</i>) Specific (<i>Next day, an hour</i>)	Internal temporal: Sequential (<i>then, next, secondly</i>) Conclusive (<i>finally, in conclusion</i>) Correlative forms: Sequential (<i>first ... next</i>) Conclusive	'Here and now': Past (<i>up to now, hitherto</i>) Present (<i>at this point, here</i>) Future (<i>from now on, hence, forward</i>) Summary: Summarizing (<i>to sum up, in short, briefly</i>) Resumptive (<i>to resume, to</i>)

	Conclusive forms: Sequential (<i>first ... then</i>)	<i>later</i>) Durative (<i>meanwhile</i>)	(... <i>finally</i>)	<i>return to the point</i>)
	Conclusive (<i>at the first ... in the end</i>)	Terminal (<i>until then</i>) Punctiliar (<i>at this moment</i>)		

(Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 243)

For example:

(15) Alice begun by taking the little golden key, and unlocking the door that led into the garden. *Then*, she set to work nibble at the mushroom.

(Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 251)

Then in (15) is used to mention and relate to continuity of event in the first sentence and second sentence.

D. Argumentative Essay Writing

An argumentative essay is sometimes called a persuasive essay. This kind of essay expresses an opinion about controversial issue. The writer must take a position and persuade the reader to agree with your opinion by using strong, logical reasons to support the argument.

The following illustrates the argumentative organization:

1. Introduction

- The hook introduces the issue.
- Background information gives a broader picture of the issue and why it is important. It can give details about the history of the people involved, what they want. and how it affects them.

- The thesis statement clearly states the writer's point of view about the issue.

2. Body Paragraph

- The topic sentence in each body paragraph presents one distinct reason for the writer's point of view stated in the thesis. The topic sentence should announce the argument of the paragraph and make clear how the paragraph's evidence will support the essay's overall argument

- ## 3. All supporting sentence details in each paragraph must support the topic sentence. The writer often presents an opposing opinion (a counter argument), however, the writer may then express some agreement with the opposing view (a concession), but will show evidence that the argument is stronger (a refutation).

4. Conclusion

- The conclusion restates the argument that appeared in the thesis.
- It can end with a prediction, a warning, or other type of comment that reinforces the writer's viewpoint.
- It may state the general issue in a broader context.

E. Previous Study

In writing this research, of course the researcher read many studies that relate with this research. The researcher found some references from the previous studies. These references also can be used by the researcher to know

how steps to conduct an assessment of students' writing, especially through error analysis as bellow:

1. The research that has conducted by Abdul Rozzaq, the tittle "*A Study on Cohesive Devices that Used in Social Science Textbook*" proposed to find out the types of cohesive devices that used in social textbook and the occurrence of it. The result of this study are grammatical cohesion (reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction), and lexical cohesion (reiteration and collocation). While the frequency of occurrence as follow; reference 50%, substitution 2%, ellipsis 1%, conjunction 37%, reiteration 43%, collocation 1%.
2. The research that has conducted by Peri Dianasari, the tittle "*An Errors Analysis on Grammatical Cohesive Devices Made by the Third Semester Students of STAIN Tulungagung*". The research design used in this study was descriptive quantitative study. This study aims to identify the kind of errors appear in the students paragraph writing and the frequency of occurrences of the errors. Method of data analysis used percentage technique. From the data analysis, there are 81 errors from 50 students' paragraph writing. The findings of this study show that the highest frequency was the errors of omission (38,3%).
3. The thesis entitled "*Mistake and Error Analysis of Cohesive Features in descriptive writing of Fifth Semester Students of English Department of Jambi University*" focused on the type of lexical and grammatical mistakes and errors in descriptive writing. It was conducted by descriptive research. To

collect the data, the researcher conducted three tests in which students were asked to write three argumentative essays. In addition, the result showed that there were four types of errors namely malformation in using antonym, personal pronoun, possessive pronoun, and omission of additional conjunction. Moreover, the researcher found nine types of mistake namely malformation in using personal pronoun, possessive pronoun, demonstrative reference, additional conjunction, cause effect conjunction, noun substitution,

From the previous studies, the researcher found a point of view that assessing students' writing become one of topic discussed by the researcher. Then, the researcher proposed that she needed to conduct the followed research to enrich the data in other subject. But, in this case the researcher convince that the focus of this research was different from the previous ones in terms of subject, genre of writing, and of course the research design.