Chapter II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1. An Overview of Systemic Functional Linguistics

The Systemic Functional Linguistics is increasingly being recognized as a very useful descriptive and interpretive framework for viewing language as a strategic, meaning-making resources, Michael Halliday (1985) has developed a theory of Systemic Linguistics based on Firth’s theory. Firth developed Malinowski’s concepts of Context of Situation and Context of Culture. Systemic theory puts a great interest in the relation between language and context and it is usefully applied in many fields such as: language education, the semiotics of visual art, stylistics, psychotherapy, artificial intelligence and speech pathology.

Underlying all these very varied applications is a common focus on the analysis of authentic products of social interaction (texts), considered in relation to the cultural and social context in which they are negotiated. If the speakers or writers can understand a text, there will be a great deal about the context in which the text occurs to be revealed. It is obvious that the most generalized application of systemic linguistics is “to understand the quality of texts: why a text means what it does, and why it is valued as it is” (Halliday, 1985: 58).

Apart from the work of Halliday and a group of systemic scholars, individual scholars naturally have different research emphases on application contexts, which are common to all this systemic linguistics; it is an interest in how people use language with each other in accomplishing everyday social life. Consequently, language is considered as a social phenomenon. It is particularly interested in describing varieties of language, which depend on social situation: registers and social dialects. Systemic linguistics
indicates particular interest in the sociological aspects of language. This interest leads systemic linguists to advance four main theoretical claims about language:

1) That language uses is functional.
2) That its function is to make meanings.
3) That these meanings are influenced by the social and cultural context.
4) That the process of using language is a semiotic process.

Then, four points about language are summarized, that language use is functional, semantic, contextual, and semiotic. As Halliday states (1985: 67) “Systemic linguistics is a theory of meaning as choice, by which a language, or any other semiotic system, is interpreted as networks of interlocking options; ‘either this, or that, or the other, ‘either more like the one or more the other’, and so on.”

Systemic Linguistics will not discuss grammar without reference to the situation in which a sentence is being used, it describes about grammar in language use. Systemic Linguistics has been described as a functional-semantic approach to language, which explores how people use language in different contexts, and how language is structured for use as a semiotic system. Systemic Linguists use systemic approach in the analysis of language in the classroom, in conflict resolution situations of several kinds, language in hierarchical relationships, like mother-child, teacher-student, doctor-patient, in the analysis of literary texts, analysis of disordered language, etc.

2.2 Systemic Functional Grammar

Halliday (1985: 78) introduced a grammar where the conceptual framework on which it is based is a functional rather than formal. This grammar is called Functional grammar. Functional grammar views language as a system, where choices are motivated by the purposes for which language is used. It is functional grammar because the
conceptual framework on which it is based is a functional one rather than a formal one. The grammar is functional in three distinctions although they are closely related-senses in its interpretation:

1) Of texts

   It is functional in the sense that it is designed to account for how the language is used. Every text – that is said or written unfolds in some context of use. Furthermore, it is the use of language that, over tens of thousands of generations, have shaped the system. Language has evolved to satisfy human needs, and the way it is organized is functional with respect to these needs.

2) Of the system

   Following from this, the fundamental components of meaning in language are functional components. These components are recognized as “Metafunctions” in the linguistics system of the two very general purposes that underlie all uses of language:

   (i) To understand the environment, this is what we call as Ideational.

   (ii) To act on the others in it, this is what we call Interpersonal.

   (iii) Combined with these is the third metafunctional component, the Textual.

3) Of the elements of linguistic structures

   Thirdly, each element in a language is explained by reference to its function in the total linguistic system. In this third sense, therefore a functional grammar is one that construes all the units of a language-its clauses, phrases and so on – as organic configurations of functions. In other words, each part is interpreted as functional with respect to the whole.
A language is a system for making meaning; therefore it is called as a semantic system with other systems encoding the meaning of words. It is entire system of meanings of a language, expressed by grammar as well as by vocabulary. The meanings are encoded in wordings: grammatical sequences that consist of some items.

2.3 The Characteristics of Systemic Functional Grammar

The most important unit in carrying out a systemic grammar analysis is the clause rather than the sentence. In identifying the clauses, we use what we know about grammar to divide up the text. Once the text can also be divided into clauses, this will involve identifying the functional parts of the clause from each of the three perspectives, which is called as “Metafunction” encompassing ideational, interpersonal, and textual (Halliday, 1985:102).

a) Ideational Perspective

In analyzing the clause based on the ideational perspective, we distinguish the two sub functions of the ideational function: the experiential and the logical. The experiential is related to the content or ideas, while the logical function is related to the relation between ideas. Experiential is realized by transitivity system. It involves looking for the different processes in a text (clause as representation)- process name events taking place such as ‘read’, ‘smile’, ‘explain’, ‘believe’, ‘teach’, ‘play’, and so on, or relationship among things such as: is, are, seems, etc. Logical is realized by the clause system.

b) Interpersonal Perspective

As language enables us to participate in an interactive or communicative act with other persons, we can also analyze it by treating text as dialogue (even if it...
has a silent partner, as monologue). This is what we call as interpersonal, which is realized by the mood system.

c) Textual Perspective

Language is used to relate what is said or written to the real world or to other linguistics events, to organize the text itself. This is what we call as textual function, which is realized by the theme system.

The three ways above can be used in analyzing the text. In the following section, I will try to explain each of metafunctions.

2.3.1 Ideational Function

Language is used to encode the speaker’s or the writer’s experience of the world. Ideational function has role in representing patterns of experiences. It conveys a picture of reality. In this case, the clause is the most significant grammatical unit because it is the clause that functions as the representation of process.

A clause represents a process, our most powerful conception of reality is that it consists of “goings-on”: of doing, happening, feeling, and being. These “goings-on” are expressed through the grammar of the clause. These are realized through the system of transitivity (experiential function), which differentiates types of process. A process consists potentially of three components:

(i) The process itself
(ii) Participants
(iii) Circumstances

These three components provide the frame of reference for interpreting our experience of what goes on. In the interpretation of what is going-on, there is doing, a doer and a location where the doing takes place. This tripartite interpretation of process
is what lies behind the grammatical distinction of word classes into verbs, nouns, etc.

(Halliday, 1985:102)

This is expressed in the table:

Typical functions of group and phrase classes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of element</th>
<th>Typically realized by</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(i) Process</td>
<td>Verbal group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(ii) Participants</td>
<td>Nominal Group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(iii) Circumstances</td>
<td>Adverbial or prepositional phrase Group</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There are six different types of process in English clause as identified by Halliday (1994: 106):

1. Material process, is the process of doing.
2. Mental process, is the process of sensing.
3. Relational process, is the process of being.
4. Verbal process, is the process of saying.
5. Behavioral process, is the process of behaving.
6. Existential process, is the process of existing.

1) Material Process

In material process, one participant function is as an actor, but in some process it also have a second participant, which we shall call a goal. For example:

Fred cooked the food.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fred</th>
<th>cooked</th>
<th>The food</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Actor</td>
<td>process</td>
<td>goal</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2) Mental Process
There are two participants in mental process. Mental process can be said as process of feeling, thinking, and seeing. For example:

I hear you.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I</th>
<th>hear</th>
<th>you</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Senser</td>
<td>process</td>
<td>phenomenon</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3) Relational Process

Relational process is process of being. The central meaning of clauses of this type is that *something is*. For example:

James is wise.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>James</th>
<th>is</th>
<th>wise</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Carrier</td>
<td>process</td>
<td>attribute</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4) Verbal Process

A verbal process is process of saying. In verbal process, there may be three participants involved: sayer, receiver, and verbiage. The participants that say, which is structurally labeled *sayer*, to whom the saying is addressed is labeled *receiver*, and the said, which is referred to as *verbiage*.

For example:

Nick told me the truth.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nick</th>
<th>told</th>
<th>me</th>
<th>The truth</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sayer</td>
<td>verbal</td>
<td>receiver</td>
<td>verbiage</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5) Behavioral Process

Behavioral process is process of physiological and psychological behaviors, putting themselves in between material and mental processes, such as: breathing, smiling, dreaming, etc. For example:

Mark smiles a broad smile.
Mark smiles A broad smile
Behaver behavioral behavior

6) Existential Process

Existential process is process of existence. It represents that something exists or happens. In English, these processes are typically realized by be verbs (is, am, are, was, were, be, been, being) and other verbs, such as: exist, arise or some other verbs representing existence which together with nouns or nominal groups, represent the participant function existent. (Halliday 1985b: 130, 1994: 142)

For example:
There is a unicorn in the garden.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>There is</th>
<th>a unicorn</th>
<th>in the garden</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Existential</td>
<td>existent</td>
<td>Circumstance: place</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Logical Function

Logical function is related to the meaning in semantic functional relationship between the clauses, which form a logical nature of language (logika bahasa ilmiah).

Logical function is realized by clauses complex city from the language system, logico-semantic and interdependency relations. (Halliday, 1985b, 1994)

For example:
Yesterday, The teacher explained about Asian continent and the teacher explained about Australian continent, too.

| Yesterday | The teacher explained about Asian continent | And the teacher explained about Australian continent, too. |
2.3.2 Interpersonal Function

Interpersonal function is related to the interactional aspect of language. It is typified by the mood system ‘Modality’. It represents the importance of language, which is used to encode interaction with other people, to take on roles and to express feelings, attitudes, and judgments. Interpersonal meanings are the expression of speaker’s attitudes and judgments. These meanings are realized in wordings through the *Mood Systems* and *Modality*. As Halliday (1985b:68-71) suggests, whenever two people use language to interact, one of the things they do with it is establishing a relationship between them. In this, he sets out two most fundamental types of speech role or function: (1) giving, and (2) demanding (Halliday, 1994: 68-69)

The interpersonal meaning of language (clause) in its function as an exchange, in which clauses of the interpersonal meaning that function as clauses of exchange representing the speech role relationships, is realized by the mood system of language (clause). The mood system of the clause is represented by the mood structure of the clause, which comprises two major elements: (1) mood, and (2) residue. A *mood* element of an English clause typically consists of a *subject* and a *finite*, whereas a *residue* element of a *predicat*, one or more *complement(s)*, and any number of different types of *adjuncts*.

For example:

The duke has given the teapot away.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The duke</th>
<th>has</th>
<th>Given the teapot away</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Subject</td>
<td>finite</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mood</td>
<td>Residue</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
An act of speaking is an interact, e.g: an exchange, in which there is something either given, which implies there is something received, or else demanded, which implies there is something given. If not, there is no interaction. In other words, in an interaction involving speaker and listener, the speaker is either giving something, which implies that the listener is receiving something, or else demanding something, which implies that listener is giving something in response. What is exchange (demanded/ given or given/ received) is a kind of commodity, and the commodity exchanged falls into two principle types: (1) goods and services, and (2) information. These two variables or types of commodity exchanged defined the four primaries speech functions of (1) offer, (2) command, (3) statement, and (4) question. (Halliday, 1994: 69)

For example:

1. May I help you? (Offer)
2. Shut up! (Command)
3. Dave can type 45 words per minute. (Statement)
4. When will you join the army? (Question)

The interpersonal meaning of the clause can be observed on two levels. On the first level, the speaker/ writer as the producer of the clause can speak or write from a position carrying the authority of a discipline or an institution. In this, the way the interpersonal meaning is delivered is determined by the knowledge or power relationship existing between the speaker/ writer and the listener/ reader. On the other level, the speaker/ writer may choose to communicate with the listener/ reader from a position as a person, with no authority of a discipline, an institution, or the like. For example:

- The lecturer says, “Submit your homework next Wednesday!” (First level)
- My friend said to me, “Will you join me tonight?” (The other level)
2.3.3 Textual Function

The textual meaning of language is an interpretation of language in its function as a message, which is text-forming function of language. This is interpreted as a function that is intrinsic to language itself, but it is at the same time a function that is extrinsic to language, in the sense that it is linked with the situational (contextual) domain in which language (text) is embedded. At the clause level, the textual meaning is concerned with how inter-clausal elements are organized to form unified whole texts that make meanings. In this, the textual function indicates the way the text is organized or structured. The textual meaning of language (clause) in its function as a message is realized by the theme system of language (clause). The theme system of the clause is represented by the thematic structure of the clause, which compromises two major elements: (1) theme, and (2) rheme. (Halliday, 1994: 37)

In an analysis of a thematic structure of a text, it is possible to examine language in terms of Hallidays three metafunctions, the ideational, interpersonal, and textual. For example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Right,</th>
<th>Students,</th>
<th>today</th>
<th>we</th>
<th>Learn grammar</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Textual</td>
<td>Interpersonal</td>
<td>Topical</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theme</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Rheme</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As the above clause represents, the theme choices in the language may be of three kinds: (1) textual, (2) interpersonal, and (3) topical. The topical theme creates the topic that the speaker (we) chooses to make the point of departure of the message. The interpersonal theme occurs at the beginning of a clause when a constituent is assigned a Mood label (we as seen in the example). The textual theme gives thematic prominence to the textual elements and has the function of linking one clause or clause element to
another clause or clause element, whereby all clauses or clause elements are related to each other as such that they form a unified whole text within contexts (see right in the example). The rheme is *learn grammar*, which is the part of the message to which the theme is developed. (Halliday, 1994: 37-67)

Textual function deals with establishing coherence and cohesion in texts (Halliday, 1994:308). Text is the representation of discourse. A text is a semantic unit, not a grammatical one. But meanings are realized through wordings, and without a theory of wordings “grammar”, there is no way of making explicit one’s interpretation of meaning of a text. Therefore a discourse grammar needs to be functional and semantic in its orientation to provide insight into the meaning and effectiveness of a text. The present interest in discourse analysis is in fact providing a context within which grammar has a central place.

Discourse analysis is a study of the system of the language. The main reason for studying the system is to throw light on discourse, on what people say, write, listen, and read. Both system and text have to be in focus of attention. Otherwise, there is no way of comparing one text with another. Text is a complete linguistic interaction (spoken or written), preferably from beginning to end. Each clause of a text is considered as a message.

Halliday and Hasan (1976:1) offer a definition of text that provides a starting point for an exploration of text. Text is any passage of language, spoken or written, of whatever length, that does form a unified whole. In describing how a text forms a unified whole, they introduced the concept of texture. Texture is the property that distinguishes text from non-text. A text has texture which holds the clauses of a text together to give them unity. If the clauses within a text don’t hang together, we are
reacting to two dimensions of the paragraph: its contextual properties, what we call as coherence, and its internal properties, what we call as cohesion.

Coherence refers to the way a group of clauses or sentences relate to the context (Halliday and Hasan, 1976:23). There are two types of coherence in the systemic model:

1. Situational/ Registerial coherence
2. Generic coherence

A text has situational coherence when we can think of one situation in which all the clauses of the text could occur, for example when we can specify a field, mode and tenor for the entire collection of clauses.

The field of discourse - What is happening? What are the participants engaged in?
The tenor of discourse - Who is taking part? What are their rules?
The mode of discourse - What part of language is playing? Is it persuasive, expository, didactic, etc.

A text has generic coherence when we can recognize the text as an example of a particular genre, for example when we can identify a scheme structure.

Halliday (1976:4) says, “The concept of cohesion is a semantic one. It refers to relation of meaning that exist within the text and that define it as a text. Cohesion occurs where the interpretation of some elements in the discourse is dependent on that of another. The one presupposes the other, in the sense that it cannot be effectively decoded except by recourse to it. 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.”

From this definition, we can get understandings of cohesion. They are:

- Syntactical organization
- Sense of unity
- Inter sentence relation
- Relation in meaning

A very wide range of semantic relationship is encoded through the clause complex. But in order to construct discourse, we need to be able to establish additional relations within the text. The relations within the text that may involve elements of any extent, both smaller and larger than clauses, form single words to lengthy passages of text, and that may hold across gaps of any extent, both within the clause and beyond it. This cannot be achieved by grammatical structure; it depends on a resource of a different kind. These non-structural resources for discourse are what are referred to by the term cohesion.

Cohesion is part of the system of a language. The potential for cohesion lies in the systematic resources that are built into the language. Like other semantic relations, cohesion is expressed through the strata organization of language. Language can be explained as a multiple coding system comprising three levels of coding or strata: the semantic (meanings), the lexicogrammatical (forms), and the phonological and orthographical (expression).

Meanings are realized (coded) as forms, and forms are realized in turn as expressions. In everyday terminology, meaning is put into wording, and wording into sound or writing (Halliday, 1976:5):

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Meaning (the semantic system)

Wording (the lexicogrammatical system, grammar and vocabulary)

Sounding/Writing (the phonological and orthographic system)
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There are five types of cohesion:

1. Reference

   Reference refers to how the speaker introduces participants and then keeps track of them once they are in the text. Participants are the people, places, and things that get talked about in the text.

   Example:

   (a) Three blind mice, three blind mice
   
   See how they run! See how they run!
   
   ‘They’ refers to ‘three blind mice’.

   (b) Clarkson went to the forest in a shower of rain.
   
   He would live by a waterfall in the woods and build a house of wood there.
   
   ‘There’ refers to ‘the forest’.

2. Ellipsis

   Whenever a participant is mentioned in a text, the writer/speaker must signal to the readers/listeners whether the identity of the participant is already known or not. A participant or circumstantial element introduced at one place in the text can be taken as a reference point for something that follows.

3. Substitution

4. Conjunction

5. Lexical cohesion

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2. Ellipsis

   A clause or a part of a clause, or a part of a verbal or nominal group, may be presupposed at a subsequent place in the text by the device of positive omission.

   Ellipsis requires supplying the appropriate word/words available.
Example:

(a) Jim will go abroad on Monday, and Tony on Wednesday. (verb)

(b) Kate has two cats, Jane five. (noun)

particularly, it is also used in question-answer sequence, for example:

(c) Who was taken to the hospital yesterday?

Tom was. (verb)

3. Substitution

The replacement of one item by another is called substitution. Essentially substitution and ellipsis are the same process but the mechanism involved in, are rather different.

(a) Do you want the black or the red pen?

The black one.

One is cohesive, it is a substitute for the word pen.

(b) Is it difficult for you?

I think so.

So substitutes the whole clause.

4. Conjunction

A clause or clause complex, or some longer stretch of text, may be related to what follows it by one of a specific set of semantic relations. Conjunction has functions to specify the semantic connection of a clause with the preceding text. There are many expressions, which serve to express conjunctive relations. Halliday and Hasan categorize the four kinds of conjunction (1976:242):

Additive : and, nor, or, also, etc.

Adversative : yet, however, infact, etc.

Causal : so, therefore, because, etc.
5. Lexical cohesion

Lexical cohesion refers to how the speaker/writer uses lexical items (nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs) and even sequences (chains of clauses and sentences) to relate the text consistently to its area of focus. Lexical relation analysis derives from observing that there are certain expectancy relations between words, lexical relation analysis is a way of systematically describing how words in a text relate to each other.

There are five types of lexical cohesion (Halliday and Hasan, 1976:320):

1. Repetition
2. Synonymy
3. Antonymy
4. Hyponymy
5. Meronymy

2.4 Types of Lexical Cohesion

Lexical cohesion is established through the structure of lexis, or vocabulary, and hence at the lexicogrammatical level. There are five types of lexical cohesion:

2.4.1 Repetition

Repetition occurs when two or more lexical items repeated. This 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. For example:

- Rebecca is in the race on Saturday. Everyone believes that she will win the race.
- The master of Entrepreneurship program is designed to equip graduates with the strategic and leadership skills. Entrepreneurship program will provide students with a comprehensive knowledge base.
2.4.2 Synonymy

Synonymy occurs when two or more lexical items express similar meanings. In other words, when two words essentially restate each other. For example:

- They are taken to the clinic - They are taken to the hospital

  clinic - hospital

- She is a housemaid - She is a servant

  housemaid - servant

- I have a thin body - I have a skinny body

  Thin - skinny

2.4.3 Antonymy

Antonymy occurs when two or more lexical items encode a contrast relationship.

- Wet season - dry season
- Male - female
- Hot - cold
- Satisfied - dissatisfied
- Old - young
- Healthy - ill

There are many pairs of terms in English that can act as antonym, where one term is unmarked and the other is marked. Unmarked is the term that would be used in straightforward questions and statements, while the marked term reflects a particular meaning.

There are also some lexemes which are related to gender, examples:

Nurse - male nurse
Model - male model
Professor - woman professor
Doctor – woman doctor

Furthermore, in English we have pairs of terms where the unmarked form is male and the marked form is female. They are recognize by adding a suffixes such as “ess”, “ine”, for examples:

Actor-actress
God-goddess
Waiter-waitress

2.4.4 Hyponymy

Hyponymy occurs when there is a relationship between a super ordinate term and its members, or hyponyms. It occurs because of classification. Classification is the ‘x’ is a type of ‘y’ relationship. When two or more lexical items used in a text are both members of a super ordinate class.

Example:
- Jaundice – Pneumonia ➔ Both terms are members of the super ordinate class.
- She’ll win a trophy. The prize won’t mean much to her.

Hyponymy may also occur when two or more lexical items used in a text are related through sub-classification, e.g: illness – jaundice ➔ here are the relationship is super ordinate term to hyponym. English possesses separate lexemes for the male and the female of various species of animals that human domesticated: one of the two is used when the identification of the sex is not important to the person who is speaking.

They are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Animal</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tiger</td>
<td>tiger</td>
<td>tigress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fox</td>
<td>fox</td>
<td>vixen</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Lion     lion     lioness

The term tiger is a hyponym of tiger-tigress. Tiger and tigress are co-hyponyms of tiger. Tiger is the super ordinate, while the specifically male term tiger and the specifically female term tigress as co-hyponym.

Tiger

   Tiger (male)    Tigress (female)

Furthermore, the pattern where the term of super ordinate use a generic term which cover animals of both sexes can be found.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Animal</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chicken</td>
<td>cock</td>
<td>hen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Donkey</td>
<td>jack</td>
<td>jenny</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Horse</td>
<td>stallion</td>
<td>mare</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deer</td>
<td>stag</td>
<td>doe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cattle</td>
<td>bull</td>
<td>cow</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.4.5 Meronymy

Meronym occurs when two or more lexical items are related as whole to part:

Example: Body – Arteries

When two or more lexical items are related by both being parts of a common whole, it is called as co-meronym:

Example:

- Arteries - veins
- Law – family law, civil law, contract law, government law, international law.
- Linguistics – discourse analysis, language acquisition, sociolinguistics, language structure.
- Reproductive science – aging and reproduction, development of contraceptives, environmental courses of genetic disease, gene manipulation of bacteria, male contraception.

- Ecosystem health – human and ecosystem health, conservation ecology, molecular microbial ecology, landscape, water and wastewater management.

2.5 Review of Related Literature

The idea on writing this thesis based on some linguistic books which supply relevant information to the topic. I also refer to the related analysis based on the cohesion in discourse. Some of them are as follows:

1. Halliday and Hasan (1976) say that the concept of cohesion refers to relation of meaning that exists within the texts, and it is that defines it as a text. Cohesion occurs where the interpretation of some elements in the discourse is dependent on that of another. They classify cohesion into five types: reference, ellipsis, substitution, conjunction, and lexical cohesion.

2. Bloor’s (1995) which is not much different to Halliday and Hasan’s, explains about cohesive ties in texts. He classified cohesion into four main types: reference, ellipsis and substitution, conjunction, and lexical cohesion. He further explains the relationship between grammar and text. A text has textual components of the grammar; lexical cohesion is a part of cohesive components.

3. Novayanti (1994) has analyzed that cohesive analysis; especially the reference is applicable to the analysis of scientific texts. She analyzed the cohesion in discourse; reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction and lexical cohesion, and found that reference, as one type of cohesion exists in different types of text, such as narrative, poetic and even scientific text.
4. Wardhani (1997) has also analyzed the text of the discourse in Minangkabau traditional wedding ceremony in terms of cohesive ties encompassing Grammatical cohesion (reference, substitution and ellipsis), Lexical cohesion (re-iteration and collocation) and Conjunction (additive, adversative, clausal and temporal). She found that all the cohesive ties occur in the text especially Grammatical cohesion (Reference) and Lexical cohesion.