CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 Definition of Discourse

Linguistic had focused its analysis on sentence until the begining of decade 1950s. Then in 1952, a famous linguist, Harris published an article entitled “Discourse Analysis” in Language magazine. He expressed a new opinion stating that the most complete unit of language is discourse, not a sentence. That opinion had brought linguist started to analyze language basic on discourse.

Discourse analysis is not only widely recognized as one of the vastest, but also the least defined areas in linguistics. One reason for this statement is that our understanding to discourse analysis is based on scholar from a number of academic disciplines that are actually very different from one to another. However, as the least defined areas in linguistics, the study of discourse analysis is supposed to be the most important study of language.

There are some linguists who gi ve definition of discourse. Few of them are as follows.

(a) Henry Guntur Tarigan (1987:27) state that: “wacana adalah satuan bahasa yang terlengkap dan tertinggi atau terbesar di atas kalimat atau klausa dengan kohesi dan koherensi yang berkesinambungan yang mempunyai awal dan akhir yang nyata disampaikan secara lisan dan tulisan.” (Discourse is one complete and highest language unit above sentence and clause with continuous cohesion and coherence, which have the reality beginning and ending, communicate as verbal and writing).

(b) Stubbs (1983:1) explain that, “discourse analysis refers to the attempts to study the organization of language above the sentence or above the clause and therefore to study larger linguistic unit such as conversational exchanges or written texts.”
(c) Edmonson (1981:4) in Tarigan (1981:4) says that discourse is a structural event manifested in linguistic behavior or others whereas a text is an arrangement of structural linguistic expressions which forms a unity.

(d) Linde (1981:85) in Tarigan says that discourse is a stretch of continuous beginning and ending, and also a number of internal structure.

(e) Carlson (1983:xii-xiv) in Tarigan says, “Discourse is a stretch of continuous utterances (a sequence of individual sentences). So, it does not only consist of utterances or sentences which are grammatically well-formed.”

From definitions about discourse analysis above, the writer see some similarities and differences on concept of the linguists. There are essentially some important points that the writer gets from all those definitions, they are: (1) linguistic unit; (2) the most complete or the highest; (3) above the sentence or above the clause; (4) well-tied or coherent; (5) sense of unity or cohesion; (6) continuity; (7) written and spoken; and (8) clear beginning and ending.

2.1.1 The Functions of Discourse Analysis

As the highest unit of language above the sentences or the clause is discourse. It has the main functions or targets just like the function of language, that is to transmit information in social communication. So the study of discourse analysis is to lead the
language users to understand thoroughly about the discourse and also are qualified to produce a well-formed discourse.

It is important that the recipient gets the information correctly. For instance, when the doctor tells a nurse how to administer medicine to the patients, a policeman gives direction to the travelers, or a salesman explains the products to the buyers and so on. In each case, it matters that the speaker or writer should make what he/she says could be understood. Every speaker or writer is expecting that his/her utterances or written text will be understood and appreciated by the recipients. In this situation, the speaker or the writer will try to find the best way to make all events easily reported or uttered. So discourse is an appropriate unit for this purpose.

Finally, it can be insisted that the function of discourse is defined as to organize a larger idea of a writer or a speaker (that the sentence has failed to do) and to arrange that the idea into a coherent state so that the recipients will easily comprehend what the writer or speaker means. That is why, as the consequence, the goal of language will be obtained. So, the main function of discourse is as the best way to convey information in the terms of communication. But, however, the participants, either the speaker (writer) or hearer (reader) should certainly understand thoroughly about the discourse and its structure or organization.
2.1.2 The Types of Discourse Analysis

After talking about the definitions and functions of discourse, then the writer would like to talk about the types of discourse analysis. This is very important to know how the types of discourse analysis found in linguistic scientific.

Every text has different characteristic of discourse, such as narrative, conversation, exposition, poem, and so on. But the formal characters which characterize each types of discourse in every language often differ from one language to another (Nida 1987:42).

According to his point of view, a discourse can be classified into various ways, as follows: (a) based on the medium used; (b) based on the way of discourse is conveyed; (c) based on thematic orientation; and (d) based on the form of discourse.

Based on the medium used, a discourse can be classified into: (1) Written discourse. This is a type of discourse that is conveyed in written form, through written media. The recipients should read the discourse if he/she wants to enjoy or comprehend it. The example of written discourse can be found in newspaper, magazine, book, and others. Written discourse can be an indirect discourse, a prose, a poem, and so on. (2) Spoken discourse is a type of discourse which is conveyed orally through speaking or spoken form. The recipients should listen to the discourse if he/she wants to enjoy or comprehend it. This includes casual conversation and speech.

Then, based on the way of discourse is conveyed, a discourse can be classified into: (a) Direct discourse, Kridalaksana (1984:208) state that direct discourse is a type
of discourse which is limited in its conveyance by intonation or punctuation. (b) Indirect
discourse can be said that indirect discourse is conveyed by using a certain grammatical
construction of word, instead of quoting the words used by the speaker directly.

Beside that, based on the thematic orientation, a discourse can be classified into:
(a) Expository discourse, is oriented in the subject and parts that tied logically which
ignore the time and the expositor, and (b) Narrative discourse, a discourse which focused
on time chronological, written or spoken by first person or third person in the specific
time, and oriented to subject linguistic, the all forms of this discourse based and tied by
chronological time (Kridalaksana, 1984:208).

Then, based on its form, a discourse can be clasified into; (a) Prose, is the type of
discourse conveyed in the form of prose. It can be written or spoken, direct or indirect,
and also expository or narrative. This type of discourse includes novel, short story,
articles, and so on. (b) Play, is the type of discourse conveyed in the form of dialog,
either spoken or written. This includes causal conversation, classroom. Interaction, and
so on. (c) Poem, is a type of discourse which ruled in stanza, line, rhythm, and rhyme. It
can be spoken or written.

2.2 The Concept of Cohesion

Halliday and Hasan (1976:4) state that the concepts of cohesion is semantic one.
It refers to relation of meaning that exist within the text, and that define it as a text. It
means that the key to the concepts of cohesion is based on meaning, that is something
which exists in the language, not something which exists in people.
A relationship neglected aspect of the linguistic system is its resources for text construction, the range of meanings that are specifically related to something which is being said or written to its semantic environment. The essential component of these resources is cohesion. Furthermore, cohesive relation is relation between two or more elements in a text that are independent of the structure. For example between a personal pronoun and an antecedent proper name such as Robert... he, Stephanie... she, and so on. A semantic relation of this kind may set up either within a sentence or between sentences. Concerning with that, when it crosses a sentence boundary, and the concepts have been outlined by Halliday in his writing on stylistic, and the concepts was developed by his partner, Hasan, in his University of Edinburgh doctoral thesis. According to Halliday and Hasan, there are four concepts of cohesion, they are: (1) text; (2) texture; (3) ties; and (4) cohesion and coherence.

2.2.1 Text

Text is the verbal record of communicative event. Halliday and Hasan (1976:1) state: “The word text is used in linguistics to refer to any passage, spoken or written, of whatever length. That does form a unified whole.” This means that a text may be spoken or written, prose or verse, dialogue or monologue. It may be anything from a single proverb to a whole play, from a momentary cry for help to an all-day discussion on a committee.

A text is language in use. It is regarded as a semantic unit, a unit which is not of form but of meaning. A text is not a grammatical unit like a clause or a sentence and does not defined by its size. A text may be of any length.
Since it is not of the grammatical rank scale and does not consist of sentences, a
text is not tied to the sentences as its lower limit. In fact, many familiar texts such
as warning, titles, announcements, inscription, and advertisement come out as less than
one sentence in grammatical structure, and often consist of a verbal, nominal, adverbial
or propositional group.

Examples:

(1) No smoking!

(2) Stop!

(3) No shoes, no service!

However, there is no upper limit on the length of the text. A play, a lecture, a
meeting, or an entire book may – and in many genres such as fiction typically does—
comprise a single text in summary, text does not defined by its size but realization.

2.2.2 Texture

The concept of texture is entirely appropriate to express the property of being a
text. A text has texture, and this is what distinguishes it from something that is not a text.
It devices this texture from the fact that it functions as a unity with respect to its
environment (Halliday and Hasan 1976:2). This also means that every discourse has a
texture, which is identified by a thight relation between the sentences in the discourse
itself and which makes the sentences coheren (logically related). When a passage of
English containing more than one sentence is perceived as a text, there will be the
certain linguistic features present in that passage which can be identified as contributing to its total units and giving the texture. For examples:

(4) Jeremy and I went to Gramedia Book Shop. We bought some dictionaries.

(5) Pevita and her little sister are shopping. I am making a cake in my home.

The sentences in example (4) above are related one another that make the reader or the listener easy to understand what they are about. The word “we” from the example (4) clearly refers back (anaphoric to) “Jeremy and I.” This gives a cohesive relation that does not occur in the example (5). This cohesive relation, in the example (a), makes a texture in that two sentences.

2.2.3 Ties

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976:4) the concepts of tie make it possible to analyze a text in terms of its cohesive properties, and gives a systemic account of its pattern of texture. From this statement, we will know that the basic concept that is employed in analyzing the cohesion of a text is the tie.

A tie is a complex notion, because it does not only include in the cohesive elements itself, but also that is presupposed by it. A tie is the best interpreted as a relation between those two elements. For examples:

(6) Jeremy goes to Gramedia Book Shop. He buys dictionaries and pencils.

(7) Come and get three watermelons. Put the watermelon in your bag.
In the example (6) the two sentences related one another. In which there is a cohesive relation between “Jeremy” and “he”, which constitutes what we called tie. The particular kind which we can find in this example is called reference. While in example (7) there are actually two ties, of which one is reference kind occurs in the anaphoric relation of the three watermelons and the other is of a different kind and consists in the repetition of the word watermelon, a repetition which would still have a cohesive effect even if the two were not referring to the some watermelons.

2.2.4 Coherence and Cohesion

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 do not relate each other, we are reacting two dimensions of the paragraph: its contextual properties, what we call as coherence, and its internal properties, what we call as cohesion.

2.2.4.1 Coherence

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, narrative, or descriptive.

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.

2.2.4.2 Cohesion

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, from 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 or 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). It can be seen in this figure:
There are five types of cohesion, they are:

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.

Examples:

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

(b) Jeremy went to the market with his friend on the Sunday morning.
   They would bought some milks there.
   ‘There’ refers to ‘the market’.
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.

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.

Examples:

(a) Freddy will go abroad on Sunday, and Vanessa on Wednesday. (verb)

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

(c) Who was taken to the hospital yesterday?

Jeremy 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.

Examples:

(a) Do you want the blue or the purple shirt?

The purple one.
One is cohesive, it is a substitute for the word shirt.

(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.
- **Temporal**: then, next, in short, 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): Repetition, Synonymy, Antonymy, Hyponymy, and Meronymy.

### 2.3 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:

#### 2.3.1 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:

- Miley is in the **singing contest** on Sunday. Everyone believes that she will win the **singing contest**

#### 2.3.2 Synonymy

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

Examples:

- I am taken to the clinic
- I am taken to the hospital
  
  **Clinic**
  
  **hospital**

- She is a housemaid
- She is a servant
Antonymy occurs when two or more lexical items encode a contrast relationship. Examples:

- Male >> female
- Hot >> cold
- Satisfied >> dissatisfied
- Old >> young

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 recognized by adding a suffix such as “ess”, “ine”,

Examples:

Actor -> actress

Waiter -> waitress

2.3.4 Hyponymy

Hyponymy occurs when there is a relationship between a superordinate 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 superordinate class.

Examples:

- Jundice – Pneumonia ➔ Both terms are members of the superordinate 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 superordinate 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>Lion</td>
<td>lion</td>
<td>lioness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tiger</td>
<td>tiger</td>
<td>tigress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fox</td>
<td>fox</td>
<td>vixen</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The term lion is a hyponym of lion-lioness. Lion and lioness are co-hyponyms of lion. Lion is the super ordinate, while the specifically male term lion and the specifically female term lioness as co-hyponym. It can be seen in this figure:

![Diagram of hierarchy of animal terms]

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>Horse</td>
<td>stallion</td>
<td>mare</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cattle</td>
<td>bull</td>
<td>cow</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2.3.5 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:

Examples:

- Law – family law, civil law, contract law, government law, international law.

- Linguistics – discourse analysis, language acquisition, sociolinguistics, language structure.
2.4 Previous Study

The idea of writing this thesis is based on some books which supply relevant information to the topic. The writer refers to the related analysis based on the cohesion in discourse. Some of them are follows under the review.

1. Halliday and Hassan (1976:4) in their book entitled *Cohesion in English* say that 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 depend 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.

2. Thomas Bloor (1995) in his book entitled *The Functional Analysis of English*, explains about cohesive ties in the text which can be classified into four main types: reference; ellipsis and substitution, conjunction, and lexical cohesion. Further, the writer explains about the relationship between grammar and text. A text has some textual components of the grammar and the lexical cohesion is a part of cohesive components.

3. Hassan (1984:320) presents five categories of general lexical cohesion in his book entitled *Coherence and Cohesive Harmony in Understanding Reading Comprehension*. They are: (a) repetition, (b) synonymy, (c) antonymy, (d) hyponymy, and (e) meronymy.
4. Irma Wardhani (1997) in her thesis entitled “An Analysis of Cohesive Ties in the Discourse of the Traditional Minangkabau Wedding Ceremony” has analyzed that text of the discourse in Minangkabau traditional wedding ceremony (baralek) 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).