

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

In this chapter deals with the review of related literature that explain the theory that related with the writing quality and grammatical cohesion. The explanation will be started with text and textuality that has been the criteria of a good writing. Also there is grammatical cohesion as one of the devices to build the textuality and argumentative essay as the text that is used in this study.

A. Text and textuality

A text functions as a single meaningful unit when linguistic items correlate in sentences. A text has meaning as a text when each individual sentence has its cohesive relations with other sentences within a text.⁶ In another word, a text is a sequence of sentences and there is cohesion and coherence as the property of the text. The property also called as the main characteristic of the text itself that create texture. Both text and texture must walk together through the text. So that, the textuality can be built.

According to Renkema, there are seven criteria of textuality. First is *cohesion*. It is refers to the surface relations between the sentences that create a text .i.e. to create connected sentences within a sequence. The formal surface of the text components works according to grammatical forms and conventions. It helps the reader /hearer to sort out the meaning and uses. A second criterion is *coherence*. It refers to the relations held between the

⁶ MAK Halliday and Ruqaya Hasan, *Cohesion in English*. London: Longman. 1976: 24

underlying surface text, which is made of concepts and relations and the amount of their relevance to the central thought of the text. The third is *intentionality* that it refers to the text producer's attitudes that the set of linguistic resources of the text should handle the text in a way that fulfill the procedures intentions and communicates the message to be conveyed in an appropriate and successful way. Other means that writers and speakers must have the conscious intention of achieving specific goals with their messages, for instance, conveying information or arguing an opinion. Fourth, *acceptability* requires that a sequence of sentences be acceptable to the intended audience in order to qualify as a text. The fifth *informativeness*; it means that a text must contain new information. And the sixth is *situationality*, it means that the text must consider about the situation in which the text has been produced and dealt with. The last is *intertextuality*, the sequences of sentences is related with the form or meaning to other sequences of sentences.⁷

From the explanation above, we know that there are seven criteria , we will study about the cohesion as the first surface of a text.

B. Cohesion

Based on the description above, cohesion is one of the requirements of a text. Cohesion is a complex phenomenon to describe. It is the connection which the results when the interpretation of textual element is dependent on

⁷ Jan Renkema, *Discourse Studies An Introductory Textbook*, (Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company. 1993), 34-36

another element in the text. In another way, Halliday and Hasan define cohesion as the the continuity that exists between one parts of the text and another. In other words, cohesion is regarded as a semantic concept that refers to relations of meaning that exist within the text.⁸

Cohesion defines a text as text. A cohesive tie is a semantic relation between an element in a text and some other element that is crucial to the interpretation of it.⁹ The two semantically connected elements can lie within the text or one element can lie outside the text. For Halliday and Hasan, cohesion depends upon lexical and grammatical relationships that allow sentence sequences to be understood as connected discourse rather than as autonomous sentences. Even though within-sentence cohesive ties do occur, the cohesive ties across "sentence boundaries" are those which allow sequences of sentences to be understood as a text.

1. Grammatical cohesion

Grammatical cohesion refers to the various grammatical devices that can be used to make relations among sentences more explicit. Moreover, McCharty explains that grammatical cohesion as the surface marking of semantic links between clauses and sentences in written or spoken.¹⁰ Cohesive devices are used to tie pieces of text together in a

⁸ Hassan, *Cohesion in English*. 226

⁹ Stephen P. Witte; Lester Faigley. *College Composition and Communication*, Vol. 32, No. 2, *Language Studies and Composing*. May, 1981), pp. 189-204. <http://links.jstor.org/sici?sici=0010-096X%28198105%2932%3A2%3C189%3ACCAWQ%3E2.0.CO%3B2-E>. Accessed on 5th of June 2013

¹⁰ M. McCharty, *Discourse Analysis for Language Teacher*. (London: Cambridge University Press. 1991). 34



specific way. The aim is to help the reader understand the items referred to, the ones replaced and even the items omitted. There are reference, substitution, ellipsis and conjunction.

a. Reference

According to Halliday and Hassan, reference is the relation between an element of the text and something else by reference to which it is interpreted in the given instance. Reference is a potentially cohesive relation because the thing that serves as the source of the interpretation may itself be an element of text.

Based on Halliday and Hasan theory, there are three types of reference: personal, demonstrative and comparative. The definite article is included into the sub-type of demonstratives. Various types of referential cohesion enable speakers and writers to make multiple references to things and people within a text.

Personal reference is reference by means of function in the speech situation.¹¹ It used to identify individuals and things or objects that are named at some other point in the text. It can be classified into existential and possessive based on the semantic category and others category like in the table 2.1.

¹¹ Ibid, 37

Table 2.1
Personal Reference

<i>Semantic category</i>	Existential	Possessive	
<i>Grammatical Function</i>	Head		Modifier
<i>Class</i>	Noun (pronoun)	Determiner	
<i>Person:</i>			
Speaker Only	I, me	Mine	My
Addressee(s), with/without other person	You	Yours	Your
Speaker and other person(s)	We, us	Ours	Our
Other person, male	He, him	His	His
Other person, female	She, her	Hers	Her
Other persons, object	They, them	Theirs	Their
Object, passage of text	It	[its]	Its
Generalized person	One		One's

Demonstrative reference is essentially a form of verbal pointing.¹² It is expressed through determiners and adverbs. This type of reference is achieved by means of location, on a scale of proximity. What is understood by proximity is nearness in place, time, occurrence or relation. Here is the table 2.2.¹³

Table 2.2
Demonstrative reference

<i>Semantic category</i>	Selective		Non-selective
<i>Grammatical function</i>	Modifier/head	Adjunct	Modifier
<i>Class</i>	Determiner	Adverb	Determiner
<i>Proximity:</i>			
Near	This, these That, those	Here [now]	The
Far		There, then	
Neutral			

The third type of referential cohesion is comparative. Comparative reference is cohesion in reference that shows the

¹² Ibid, 57

¹³ Ibid, 57

comparison between one item and another within a text in terms of identity or similarity. Halliday and Hasan distinguish between the two sub-types of comparative reference: general and particular.¹⁴ General comparative reference expresses likeness between things, in the form of identity, similarity and unlikeness or difference. Particular reference expresses comparability between things. This is comparison in respect of quantity or quality. Particular comparison in terms of quantity is expressed by a comparative quantifier or an adverb of comparison sub modifying a quantifier. Particular comparison in terms of quality is expressed by comparative adjectives or adverbs sub modifying an adjective.

Table 2.3
Comparative reference¹⁵

<i>Grammatical function</i>	Modifier	<i>Submodifier/Adjunct</i>
<i>Class</i>	Adjective	Adverb
<i>General Comparison</i>		
Identity	Same, equal identical	Identically
Similarity	Similar, additional	Similarly, likewise, so, such
Difference	Other, different, else	Differently, otherwise
<i>Particular comparasion</i>	Better, more – (comparative adjectives and quantifiers)	More, few, less, some,

Reference is always described grammatically since it includes the categories of person, number, proximity and degree of comparison.

Halliday and Hasan use the term co-interpretation for the meaning of

¹⁴ Ibid, 78

¹⁵ Hasan, 39

reference.¹⁶ The role of reference is to link semantically an item of language to its environment. personals, demonstratives and comparatives are text-forming devices that enable readers to define the identity between language instances. Another types of grammatical cohesion is substitution, the characteristics of it is different with reference.

b. Substitution

In her point of view, McCarthy outlines that substitution is similar to ellipsis, in that, in English it operates as nominal, verbal or clausal.¹⁷ In another hand, Halliday and Hassan 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 .

The different types of substitution are defined grammatically. The substitute may function as a noun, as a verb, or as clause. Based on the function, there are three types of substitution: nominal, verbal and clausal.¹⁸

¹⁶ Ibid, 314

¹⁷ McCharty, *Discourse Analysis for Language Teacher*. 45

¹⁸ Halliday and Hasan. *Cohesion in English*. 90

- 1) Nominal substitution, where the noun or a nominal group can be replaced by a noun. "One" / "ones" always operate as a head of... nominal group.

e.g. "there are some new tennis balls in the bag .These *ones* have lost their bounce".

In this example, "tennis balls" is replaced by the item "ones".

- 2) Verbal substitution, the verb or a verbal group can be replaced by another verb which is "do" .This functions as a head of verbal group, and it is usually placed at the end of the group.

e.g. A: Annie says you drink too much.
B: So do you?

Here,"do" substitutes "*drink too much*".

- 3) Clausal substitution, where a clause can be usually substituted by "so" or "not".

e.g. A: It is going to rain?
B: I think so.

In this example, the clause "*going to rain*" is substituted for "so".

From the description above, we found that reference and substitution are different. 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.

c. Ellipsis

Ellipsis is the process in which one item within a text or discourse is omitted or replaced by nothing. Ellipsis occurs when something that is structurally necessary is left unsaid, as it has been understood already. "Where there is ellipsis, there is a presupposition, in the structure that something is to be supplied or 'understood'. This is not quite the same thing as saying that we can tell from the structure of an item whether it is elliptical or not. For practical purposes we often can; but it is not in fact the structure which makes it elliptical. An item is elliptical if its structure does not express all the features that have gone into its make-up - all the meaningful choices that are embodied in it.¹⁹

There are some differences between ellipsis, reference and substitution. To know more about the difference, look at the examples below:

- a. This is a fine hall you have here. I'm proud to be lecturing in it. (reference)
- b. This is a fine hall you have here. I've never lectured in a finer one. (substitution)
- c. This is a fine hall you have here. I've never lectured in a finer. (ellipsis)

Ellipsis takes place in similar grammatical environments to substitution. Thus, we have nominal, verbal and clausal ellipsis. The grammar of Nominal Ellipsis permits the omission of Head Nouns in a

¹⁹ Ibid, 144

Nominal Group as in example below where two in the final clause means *two cucumber sandwiches*.

'Have you got the cucumber sandwiches cut for Lady Bracknell?'
 'Yes, sir.'
 (Algernon inspects them and takes two.)

Verbal ellipsis is common in all short form answers and responses as is exemplified in example below where there are two examples of verbal ellipsis in responses. In both cases the tie is with save you in the first sentence of the verbal exchange. In these instances, it is the lexical verb that is omitted.

'I'll help you. I'll save you.'
 'You can't.' (Ellipsis)
 'I can.' (Ellipsis)

And the other example below illustrates clausal ellipsis; the word *don't* stands in place of don't open the door.

Get up quick and open the door. If you don't, they will break it down.

d. Conjunction

The fourth and final type of cohesive relation that we find in the grammar is that of conjunction. Conjunction is rather different in nature from the other cohesive relations. Conjunctive elements are cohesive not in themselves but indirectly, by virtue of their specific meanings; they are not primarily devices for reaching out into the preceding (or following) text, but they express certain meanings which presuppose the presence of other components in the discourse. With conjunction, on the

other hand, we move into a different type of semantic relation, one which is no longer any kind of a search instruction, but a specification of the way in which what is to follow is systematically connected to what has gone before.

Halliday and Hasan , handle conjunctive adjuncts under four main headings: additive, adversative, causal and temporal.²⁰ Additive conjunction serves to further the discourse topic. It differs from the paratactic relation of coordination by introducing the new clause as an extra piece of information, perhaps reinforcing what has already been said. The second and, however, introduces a supplementary idea. Adversative conjunction is explained as introducing an item of information which is 'contrary to expectation'. The expectation may be derived from the content of what is being said, or from the communication process, the speaker-hearer situation.

The next type is causal conjunction marks the relationships of reason, consequence and purposes. Temporal conjunction specifies the time sequence relationship which exists between sentences.

First he forgot his money, *and then* he forgot his keys.
Previously he had never absent for a day

²⁰ Ibid, 238

Table 2.5
Types of conjunction.²¹

Additive	Additive simple:		Complex, emphatic:		Apposition:		Comparison:	
	Additive	Negative	Additive	Alternative	Expository	Similar	Similar	Likewise, similarly, in the same way
Adversative	And, and also	Or, or else	Furthermore, in addition, besides	Alternatively	That is, I mean, in other words	Dissimilar	On the other hand, by contrast	
	Nor, and ... not		Complex de-emphatic:	Incidentally, by the way	For instance, thus			
			After thought					
Adversative	Adversative 'proper':		Contrastive:		Correction:		Dismissal:	
	Simple	Yet, though, only, but	Avowal	In fact, actually, as a matter of fact,	Of meaning	Closed	In any case, in either case, whichever way it is	
	Containing 'and' emphatic	However, nevertheless, despite this	Simple emphatic (external comparative)	But, and however, on the other hand, at the same time	Of warding	Open-ended	In any case, anyhow, at any rate, however it is	
Causal	Causal relation		Reversed causal relation		Conditional relation		Respective relation	
	Simple	So, thus, hence, therefore	Simple	Because, for	Simple	Direct	In this respect, in this regard, with reference to this.	
	Emphatic	Consequently, accordingly,			Emphatic			

²¹ Ibid, 241-242

Temporal	because of this		Causal specific		event, that being so		Reserved polarity	Otherwise, in other respect, aside from
	Causal specific		Causal specific		Generalized			
	Reason	For this reason, on account of this as result, in consequence for this purpose, with this in mind	Reason	It follows, on this basis arising out of this to this end	Reserved polarity	Otherwise, under other circumstance		
	Result		Result					
	Purpose		Purpose					
	Temporal, simple:		Complex		Internal temporal		'here and now'	
	Sequential	Then, next, after that	Immediate	At once, thereupon	Sequential	Then, next, secondly	Past	Up to now, hitherto
	Simultaneous	Just then, at the same time	Interrupted	Soon, after a time	Conclusive	Finally, in conclusion	Present	At this point, here
	Preceding	Previously, before that	Repetitive	Next time, on another occasion,	Correlative form		Future	From now on, henceforward
	Conclusive:		Specific		Sequential conclusive		Summary:	
Simple	Finally	Durative	Next day, an hour later, Meanwhile	Sequential conclusive		Summary:		
Correlative forms		Terminal punctiliar				Summarizing	To sum up, in short, briefly	
Sequential conclusive	First . . . then . . . at first . . . in the end.		Until then, at this moment			Resumptive	To resume, to return to the point	

2. Lexical Cohesion

Lexical cohesion deals with the meaning of a text. This is the cohesive effect of achieved by the selection of the vocabulary.²² It concerns the way in which lexical items relate to each other and to other cohesive devices so that textual continuity is created. Lexical cohesion concerns two distinct but related aspects: reiteration and collocation.

a. Reiteration

Reiteration 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.²³ Reiteration includes not only repetition but also synonym. Reiteration can also occur through the use of a word that is systematically linked to a previous one, for example, "young" and "old". In general, reiteration divided into the following five types.²⁴ They are repetition, synonymy, hyponymy, metonymy, antonymic. Below are the examples:

- 1) The *party* will be held in a big hall. At this *party*, Reza Artamevia will attend and sing two songs. (repetition)
- 2) This is the seventeenth birthday party of Aurel. In her anniversary she got a lot of gifts from her friends and family. (synonym)
- 3) We were in town shopping for furniture. We saw a lovely sofa. (hyponym)
- 4) It had been two days since the *lamp* had to be repaired. However the motorcycle was in a good condition. (metonymy)
- 5) The *young lady* wears a great dress and so does the *old* one. (antonym)

²² Ibid, 274

²³ Ibid, 318-319

²⁴ Jan Rankema, *Discourse Studies*. 39

b. Collocation

Collocation is the use of “a word that is in some way associated with another word in the preceding text, because it is a direct repetition of it, or is in some sense synonymous with it, or tends to occur in the same lexical environment.”²⁵ Some examples are *sheep* and *wool*, *congress* and *politician* or *college* and *student*. Here is the example:

Red Cross’ helicopters were in the air continuously.
The *blood bank* will soon be desperately in need of
donors.²⁶

C. Argumentative Essay

One kind of essay is an argumentative essay. An argumentative essay is often a series of short arguments held together by a large design. The purpose of argumentative essay is to persuade a reader that your opinion is valid to change a reader’s mind about a particular subject. We not only give information but also present an argument with the PROS (supporting ideas) and CONS (opposing ideas) of an argumentative issue. We should clearly take our stand and write as if we are trying to persuade an opposing audience to adopt new beliefs or behaviour.²⁷

To write an argumentative essay, we need to consider some aspect. One of them is an argumentative issue. It means that the topic should be narrowed down, contain an argument and it can be adequately supported.²⁸

²⁵ Halliday and Hasan. *Cohesion in English*. 319

²⁶ Jan Rankema, *Discourse Studies*. 40

²⁷ Oya Ozagac, *Argumentative Essay*. Copyright @ Bogazici University SFL. Accessed on August, 2nd 2013. Page 1

²⁸ *Ibid.* 1

After that, we need to decide our side, PROS (supporting ideas) or CONS (opposing ideas).

Besides that, we have to consider about the organization of the argumentative essay. Here are some organization patterns that might be used to develop our argumentative essay:²⁹

Pattern 1:

Thesis statement:
 PRO idea 1
 PRO idea 2
 CON(s) + Refutation(s)
 Conclusion

Pattern 2:

Thesis statement:
 CON(s) + Refutation(s)
 PRO idea 1
 PRO idea 2
 Conclusion

Pattern 3:

Thesis statement:
 CON idea 1 -----> Refutation
 CON idea 2 -----> Refutation
 CON idea 3 -----> Refutation
 Conclusion

There are also some connectors that can be used to help the reader in understanding our text. The connectors can be a clause or a sentence. It depends on the position or the situation of our argument. Here some examples of language point or connectors or transition of argumentative essay.³⁰

1. Pointing out opposing arguments (CONS):

e.g Opponents of this idea claim / maintain that ...

Those who disagree/are against these ideas may say/assert that ...

²⁹ Ibid. 2

³⁰ Ibid, 4

Some people may disagree with this idea.

2. When stating specifically why they think like that:

e.g. The put forward this idea because ...
They claim that ... since ...

3. Reaching the turning point:

e.g. However,
but
On the other hand,

4. To refute the opposing idea, we may use the following strategies:

- Compromise but prove that their argument is not powerful enough:

e.g. They have a point in thinking like that.
To a certain extent they are right.

- Completely disagree:

e.g. After seeing this evidence, there is no way we can agree
with what they say.

- Say that their argument is irrelevant to the topic:

e.g. What we are discussing here is not what they are trying to
prove.
Their argument is irrelevant.

Those aspects, such topics, organization or language are used to construct an essay that can be . It is the logical ideas to support our idea. Argumentation is effective only when ideas can be presented (and sequent accepted or rejected) logically. One cannot logically debate religious beliefs, facts, or individual taste. For example, you may believe that blue is the most beautiful in the world, but you will never persuade someone who prefers red.