CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter will present some theories that the writer is going to apply to make the analysis. It discusses textuality, cohesion theories, Halliday and Hassan's Theory, speech, APEC (Asia – Pacific Economic Cooperation), and previous of the study.

A. Textuality

The remaining standards of textuality are user-centered, concerning the activity of textual communication by the producers and receivers of texts. In the literature on this topic, seven criteria are given for textuality, that is, criteria that a sequence of sentence must meet in order to qualify as a text.

1. Cohesion

Cohesion is the connection which results when the interpretation of textual element is dependent on another element in the text. Consider the following example.

> The store no longer sold porcelain figurines. It used to, the man behind the counter said, but they didn't sell very well. Since the business had switched to plastic, sales were doing a lot better.

The interpretation of "it" is dependent on that of "store" just as "they" is dependent on that of "porcelain figurines". The meaning of "used to" is dependent on "sold porcelain figurines". The word "plastic" can only be completely interpreted in relation to "(porcelain) figurines". Cohesion refers to the connection which exists between elements in the text.

2. Coherence

Coherence is the connection which is brought about by something outside the text. This 'something' is usually knowledge which a listener or reader is assumed to possess.[13] The dominant view has come to be that the connectedness of discourse is a characteristic of the mental representation of the text rather than of the text itself. The connectedness thus conceived is often called coherence. Language users establish coherence by actively relating the different information units in the text. Generally speaking, there are two respects in which texts can cohere:

a. Refential Coherence, smaller linguistic units (often nominal groups) may relate to the same mental referent.

b. Relational Coherence, text segments (most often conceived of as clause) is connected by coherence relations like cause - consequence between them.[14]

3. Intentionality

Intentionality concerns the text producer's attitude that the set of occurrences should constitute a cohesive and coherent text instrumental in fulfilling the producer's intentions. Intentions of text producers:

a. Intention to produce a text whose language configuration is cohesive and coherent.

b. All the ways in which text producers utilize texts to pursue and fulfill their intentions.

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[13] Jan Renkema, *Discourse Studies*, (Amsterdam: John Benyamins Publishing Company, 1993), 35
[14] T Sanders and H Pander Maat, *Linguistic Approaches*, (Netherlands: Utrecht University Press, 2008), 592

4. Acceptability

Acceptability concerns the receiver's attitude that the set of occurrences should constitute a cohesive and coherent text having some use or relevance for the receiver. Acceptability often relies on situationality and/or on Grice's maxims to make sense of texts trying to "construct" their acceptability (mainly in terms of cohesion and coherence).

5. Informatively

Informatively concerns the extent to which the occurrences of the text are expected vs. unexpected or known vs. unknown. C. Shannon and W. Weaver's *information theory* (based on a statistic notion): the greater the number of possible *alternatives* at a given point, the higher the information value when one of them is chosen In language: the degree of informatively is inversely proportional to *contextual probability,* e.g.: *The sea is water.* It is not informative, but it becomes informative in a more complex statement: The Sea is water *only in the sense that water is the dominant substance present. Actually, it is a solution of gases and salts in addition to vast numbers of living organisms.*

The degree of probability of a textual element can be different at different levels:

e.g. syntactically probable, conceptually improbable:

All our yesterdays have lighted fools to dusty death (Macbeth V v 22)

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is more informative than

All our Western agencies have guided tours to dusty Death Valley.

Syntactically improbable, conceptually probable:

Him who disobeys, me disobeys. (Milton *Paradise Lost* VVII.1)

is more informative than

Whoever disobeys him, disobeys me. (Concept of *markednes*)

6. Situationality

Situationality concerns the factors which make a text relevant to a situation of occurrence. Situationality is connected with coherence and acceptability, e.g. Slow Children at Play

Some elements in text refer to the context of situation (e.g. deictics) and cannot be decoded unless reliance on situationality is made Conditions of situational relevance can also be created artificially, e.g. in advertising:

It's a cool place to live. Let's keep it that way

(WWF Advertisement against global warming due to pollution, used as a caption for a satellite photograph of the Earth's atmosphere) In conversation, situationality is sometimes subject to negotiation by participants.

7. Intertextuality

Intertextuality concerns the factors which make the utilization of one text dependent upon knowledge of one or more previously encountered texts.

- The production and reception of a given text depends upon the participants' knowledge of other texts.

Text types: narrative, descriptive, expositive, argumentative, instructive. The generic structure potential associated with each (culturally recognizable) situation is based on intertextual knowledge: the "script" and/or communicative conventions concerning the linguistic behavior associated with a given situation for written language, concept of text genre (a repertoire of typified social responses in recurrent situations):

"what a given speech community, at a given time and over a considerable period of time, accepts as a traditional, conventional and in some specific way standardized textual model to be constantly re-used for specific communicative purposes (Suter 1993)

In the professional / scientific environment:

a recognizable communicative event characterized by a set of communicative purpose(s) identified and mutually understood by the members of the professional community that uses it. It is conventionalized with constraints (customary, but also legal) on

allowable contributions (cf. Swales 1990). Some parts of a text can be understood only on the basis of previous knowledge of other texts

e.g. "A tale of two cards"

Headline for an article in the Daily Mail describing the Xmas cards sent by Blair and Howard – reference to Dickens's novel *A Tale of Two Cities.*

The above seven standards of textuality are called constitutive principles, in that they define and create textual communication as well as set the rules for communicating. There are also at least three regulative principles that control textual communication: the *efficiency* of a text is contingent upon its being useful to the participants with a minimum of effort; its *effectiveness* depends upon whether it makes a strong impression and has a good potential for fulfilling an aim; and its *appropriateness* depends upon whether its own setting is in agreement with the seven standards of textuality.

In discourse studies not all criteria are considered equally important. "Intertextuality" is only dealt with in the field of text typology. "Situationality" and the subjective characteristics "Intentionality" and "informativeness" are of only secondary importance. They do play a role in research into textual functions where function is defined as the goal (intentionality) and the effect (primarily the transfer of information) in a specific situation. The criterion 'acceptability' only occurs in normative approaches to discourse studies, for example, in the

investigation into the question: what is good text? The concept of coherence plays a role primarily in research on text processing: which knowledge (outside the text) is used to make connections within a text in discourse studies much attention has been paid to the first criterion for textuality : 'cohesion' , the apparent connection in discourse.[15]

B. Cohesion Theories

Before defining what cohesion is, it is useful to reflect on the notion of text. In linguistics, the word "text" refers to any passage, spoken or written, of whatever length, that forms a unified whole. In other words, any speaker of English who reads or hears a passage which is more than one sentence in length, is able to understand whether it forms a unified whole or whether it is just a collection of unrelated sentences. This suggests that there must be objective factors involved, namely certain features which are characteristic of texts and not found otherwise. So, studying cohesion means to identify what it is that distinguishes a text from a disconnected sequence of sentences. In other words, what provides cohesion to texts. As texts are best regarded as semantic units, the concept of texture is appropriate to express the property of "being a text".

All texts have texture, and this is what distinguishes them from what is not a text. So, if a passage in English containing more than one sentence is perceived as a text, it means that it has some linguistic features which contribute to its semantic unit and which give it texture. Example: - *Wash*

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[15] Jan Rankema, Discourse Studies, 36 -37

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and core six cooking apples. Put them into a fireproof dish. It is clear that *them* in the second sentence refers back to *six cooking apples* in the first sentence. So, the texture is provided by the cohesive relation between *them* and *six cooking apples*. In this way, we interpret the two sentences as a whole; the two sentences together constitute a text.

Another example of cohesive tie could have been as follows: - *Wash and core six cooking apples. Put the apples into a fireproof dish.* Here, the item functioning cohesively is *the apples*, which works by repetition of the word *apples*.

The concept of cohesion is a semantic one. So, as other semantic relations, cohesion is expressed through the strata organization of language. Language can be explained as a multiple coding system comprising three levels, or "strata":

1) The level of semantics (meanings);

2) The level of lexicogrammar (forms);

3) The level of phonology and graphology (expressions)

At the level of wording (the choice of words and grammatical structures), there is no clear-cut distinction between vocabulary and grammar. The guiding principle in language is that the more general meanings are expressed through the grammar, while the more specific meanings through the vocabulary. Cohesive relations fit into the same pattern. So, cohesion is expressed partly through the grammar and partly

through the vocabulary. Therefore, we can refer to grammatical cohesion and to lexical cohesion.

Cohesion means formal links between phrases or sentences which make the text is clear and readable.[16] Jan Rankema says in his book that cohesion is the connection which results when the interpretation of a textual element is dependent on another element in the text.[17]

Brown and Yule say that there are three broad types of cohesion.

a. Reference

Reference items in English include pronouns (e.g. he, she, it, him, they, etc.), demonstratives (this, that, these, those), the article the, and items like such a. There are three kinds of reference, they are Anaphoric reference (this occurs when the referent has appeared at an earlier point in the text), Exophoric reference (the identity of a presuming item can be retrieved from the immediate context of situation), and Cataphoric reference (the reverse of anaphoric reference and is relatively straightforward, but language learners may lack awareness or confidence to put it into use in constructing texts, and may need to have the feature explicitly taught or exercised.

b. Ellipsis and Substitution

Ellipsis is the omission of elements normally required by the grammar which the speaker or writer assumes are obvious from the context and therefore need not be raised. Then, substitution is similar to ellipsis, in that, in English, it operates either at nominal, verbal or clausal

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[16] Guy Cook, Discourse, (England: Oxford University Press, 1989), 14

[17] Jan Rankema, Discourse Studies: An Introductory Text Book, (Amsterdam and Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company, 1993), 35

level. Ellipsis and substitution assume a lot from the context; they proceed on the basis that omitted and substituted elements are easily recoverable, and are therefore natural in speech situations where a high degree of contextual support is available.

c. Conjunction

A conjunction does not set off search backward or forward for its referent, but it does presuppose a textual sequence, and signals a relationship between segments of the discourse.[18]

C. Halliday and Hassan's Theory

According to Halliday and Hassan, Cohesion occurs, "when the interpretation of some element in the discourse dependent on that of another".[19] Michael Halliday and Ruquaiya Hassan distinguish five types of cohesion.

1. Substitution

Substitution is the replacement of a word (group) or sentence segment by a "dummy" word. The reader or listener can fill in the correct element based on the preceding. There are three types of substitution:

a. Nominal: *one, ones, same*, example: These biscuits are stale. Get some fresh *ones*.

b. Verbal: *do*, example:

A: have you called a doctor?

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[18] Michael McCarthy, *Discourse Analysis for Language Teachers*, 35 - 47
[19] M A K Halliday and Ruquaiya Hassan, *Cohesion in English*, (London: Longman, 1976), 13

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B: I haven't *done* it yet, but I will *do* it.

A: Though actually, I think you should *do* it.

c. Clausal: *so, not*, example:

A: Are they still arguing in there?

B: No, *it* just seems so.

2. Ellipsis

Ellipsis, the omission of a word or part of a sentence, is closely related to substitution. Ellipsis can be described as 'substitution by zero'. In the case of ellipsis, the division that is normally used is the same as that applied to substitution.

a. Noun, example: These biscuits are stale. Those are fresh.

b. Verb, example: He participated in the debate, but you didn't.

c. Clause, example: who wants to go shopping? You?

3. Reference

Reference, the act of referring to a preceding or following element, deals with a semantic relationship. Substitution and ellipsis deal with the relationship between grammatical units: words, sentence parts and clauses. In this case of reference, the meaning of a 'dummy' word can be determined by what is imparted before or after the occurrence of the dummy word. In general, the dummy word is a pronoun. Example:

I see <u>John</u> is here. <u>He</u> hasn't changed a bit.

But reference can also be achieved by other means, for instance, by the use of a definite article or an adverb as in the following examples:

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A man crossed the street. Nobody saw what happened. Suddenly the man was lying there and calling for help.

We grew up in the 1960s. We were idealistic then.

It is the act of referring to the preceding or following element. There are two kinds of reference: exophoric and endhophoric. Exophoric is the meaning of word refers to other as identified in the context of situation. While endophoric means the meaning of as textual reference. But only endophoric is cohesion. Endophoric is devided into two types, they are anaphora and cataphora.

a. Anaphora Reference

It is back to referential pronoun. Referring someone or something that has been previously identified, to avoid repetition.

Example: Sue told that she was not going to beach last week.

The word "Sue" is referred by the pronoun "She", it is called anaphora.

b. Cataphora Reference

It is the opposite of anaphora: it is forward referential pronoun.

Example: When he came in, John was sleeping on sofa.

The word "He" refers to "John", so it is called cataphora.

According to Halliday and Hassan's theory, reference is classified into three parts: Personal reference, demonstrative reference and comparative reference.[20]

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[20] M.A.K.Halliday and Ruquaiya Hassan, *Cohesion in English*, (United Stated: Longman, 1984), 37.

a) *Personal reference*, which is rather applied to face-to-face conversations and the referring expressions are:

- Personal pronoun is a word that refers to personal. Such as *I, you, we, she, he, it, they, me, him, us, her, them.*

  John has bought a new car. I didn´t know it was <u>his</u>.

- Personal determiners (possessives): *my, your, their, our, her, its, mine, yours, theirs, ours, hers, his, its.*

  Example: <u>Your</u> bicycle is new.

- Relative Pronoun: *who, that, which.*

  Example: The man <u>who</u> is calling you is my uncle.

b) *Demonstrative reference* is a form of verbal pointing which uses demonstrative referring expressions such as *this, that, these, those, now, then, far,* etc. When it comes to the use of *this* and *that*, it is important to say here that while *this* may be either exophoric or anaphoric, *that* appears only in anaphoric position:

- Determiners: the, this, that, those, these.

  Example: *This* legislation is unduly harsh and punishes someone for merely being present.

- Demonstrative Adverb: here, there, then.

  Example: My sister has lived *here* for about two years.

c) *Comparative reference* uses comparative referring expressions.

- Comparative Adjective such as same, identical, equal, other, different, more, better.

Example: the car is more expensive than the motorcycle.

- Comparative Adverb such as *similar, less and so on.*

Example: It's a <u>similar</u> case to the one we had here last year.

4. Conjunction

Conjunction is a relationship which indicates how the subsequent sentence or clause should be linked to the preceding or the following (parts of the) sentence. This is usually achieved by the use of conjunctions. The following are examples of three frequently occurring relationships; addition, causality, temporality. The relationship can be hypotactic (as in the a-examples which combine a main clause with a subordinate clause or phrase) or paratactic (as in the b-examples which have two main clause).

1) Addition, the basic additive conjunctions are and, besides, in addition, in other word, or and likewise.

   a. *Besides* being mean, he is also hateful.

   b. He no longer goes to school *and* is planning to look for a job.

2) Causality, Causal conjunctions are *so, thus, hence, therefore, consequently, accordingly,* because, because of and otherwise.

   a. He is not going to school today *because* he is sick.

   b. Mary got married to John last year *and* now she's pregnant.

3) Temporality, Temporal conjunctions are: *finally, then, at the same time, after that, next.*

   a. *After* the car had been repaired, we were able to continue our journey.

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b. The car was repaired. *Afterward* we were able to continue our journey.

4) The basic meaning of the *adversative conjunctions* is 'contrary to expectations'. These conjuncts are, e.g.: *but, however, though, anyway* and *yet*. Here is one example: *He wanted to marry me; **however**, I said 'no'.*

5. Lexical Cohesion

Lexical Cohesion does not deal with grammatical and semantic connections but with connections based on the words used. Two types of lexical cohesion can be distinguished. They are reiteration and collocation. Reiteration is divided into five types, they are: repetition, synonym, hyponym, metonym, and antonym, here are in detail.

a. **Reiteration** includes not only repetition but also synonymy. Reiteration can also occur through the use of a word that is systematically linked to a previous one, for example, "young" and "old". And it is form of lexical cohesion which involves the repetition of a lexical item, the use of general word to refer back to a lexical item, and a number of things between the uses of synonym, near synonym, or super ordinate.[21] In general, reiteration is divided into the following five types. Here are the details:

- Repetition (often involving reference)

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[21] Halliday and Hassan, *Cohesion in English*, 278

Repetition is the act or process or an instance of repeating or being repeated.[22]

e.g: A *conference* will be held on national environmental policy. At this *conference* the issue of salivation will pay an important role.

- Synonymy (often involving reference)

Synonymy is two or more words with very closely related meaning or same meanings which are often intersubstitutable in sentences.[23]

e.g : A *conference* will be held on national environmental policy. This *environmental symposium* will be primarily a conference dealing with water.

- Hyponymy (e.g. the relation of "flower" to "tulip)

Hyponymy is refers to something that is well known from the class membership with the close relationship between the meanings of lexemes, in which the meaning of one lexeme is included in (under) the meaning of another lexeme.[24]

e.g : We were in town today shopping for *furniture*. We saw a lovely *table*.

- Metonymy (relationship of part and whole)

e.g : at its six-month checkup, the *brakes* had to be repaired. In general, however, the *car* was in good condition.

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[22] http://www.thefreedictionary.com/repetition. Accessed at April21,2014
[23] George Yule, *The study of Language,* (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1995), 118
[24] Howard Jackson, *Word and Their Meaning,* (London and New York: Longman, 1988), 65

- Antonymy (eg. White vs Black)

  Jackson, antonym deals with the oppositeness of meaning, word with opposite meaning of various kinds.[25]

  e.g : The *old* movies just don't do it any more. The *new* ones are more appealing.

b. **Collocation** deals with the relationship between words on the basis of the fact that these often occur in the same surroundings. Some examples are: "sheep" and "wool", "congress" and "politician" or "college" and "study".

e.g: The hedgehog *scurried* across the road. Its *speed* surprised me.

The correct interpretation of word "speed" is only possible by reading the preceding sentence within which the word "scurried" is primary importance.[26]

D. Speech

According to Bruce speech is prior to writing not only historically but also genetically and logically, because we know that speech comes first.[27] Speech is the vocalized form of human communication. It based upon the syntactic combination of lexical and names that are drawn from very large (usually $> 10,000$ different words) vocabulary. And according to Plato's Cratylus who describes a speech as a form of action and words as instruments with which actions can be performed.[28] Speech often uses in

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[25] Jackson, *Word and Their Meaning,* 64
[26] Jan Renkema, *Discourse Studies,* 37 -40
[27] Bruce Bolinger, *"Aspect of Language",* (Harcourt Brace Javanovish, Inc. 1981), 274
[28] Jan Renkema, *"Discourse studies an introductory Textbook",* (John Benjamins, Amsterdam Publishing company:1993), 7

daily habits than write. Speech is the verbal means of communicating. Speech consists of the following:

1. Articulation (how speech sounds are made)
2. Voice (use of the vocal folds and breathing to produce sound)
3. Fluency (the rhythm of speech)

When a person has trouble understanding others (receptive language), or sharing thoughts, ideas, and feeling completely (expressive language), then he or she has a language disorder. When a person is unable to produce speech sounds correctly or fluently, or her voice, then he or she has a speech disorder.[29]

E. APEC (Asia – Pacific Economic Cooperation)

The idea of APEC was firstly publicly broached by former prime minister of Australia, Mr. Bob Hawke, during a speech in Seoul, Korea in January 1989. Later that year, 12 Asia – Pacific economies met in Canverra, Australia to establish APEC. The founding members were: Australia, Brunei Darussalam, Canada, Indonesia, Japan, Korea, Malaysia, New Zealand, the Philippines, Singapore, Thailand and the United States, Hong Kong, China and Chinese Taipei joined in 1991. Mexico and Papua New Guinea followed in 1993. Chile acceded in 1994. And in 1998, Peru, Rusia and Viet Nam joined, taking the full membership to 21. Between 1989 and 1992, APEC met as an informal senior official and ministerial level dialogue. In 1993,

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[29] http://www.asha.org/public/speech/development/language_speech.htm

former United States President, Mr. Bill Clinton, established the practice of an annual APEC Economic Leaders' Meeting.

APEC is the primer Asia – Pacific economic forum. Our primary goal is to support sustainable economic growth and prosperity in the Asia – Pacific region. We are united in our drive to build a dynamic and harmonious Asia – Pacific community by championing free and open trade and investment, promoting and accelerating regional economic integration, encouraging economic and technical cooperation, enhancing human security, and facilitating a favorable and sustainable business environment. Our initiatives turn policy goals into concrete results and agreements into tangible benefits. This conference holds once time in every year.[30]

F. Previous Studies

In conducting the research, the researcher also pay attention on a considerable previous studies. The researcher gets an inspiration of this study from the previous studies. The first researcher who studies about cohesive devices entitled "Grammatical Cohesion Errors found in the expository essay written by the English Department Students of STAIN Kediri". The conclusion of the thesis is "the most type of grammatical error is error of reference. The total is 136 items on 73,51%, the second grade is errors of conjunction for about 49 items or 26,48%. Substitution and ellipsis are in the last stages, they are for about zero. Item or with the percentage is 0%". By

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[30] http://www.apec.org/Meeting-Papers/Ministerial-Statements.aspx

Anik Sugiarti (2013). The topic in analyzing cohesive devices using "Halliday and Hassan's theory", which include the types of cohesion.

In this research, the writer analyzes cohesion of Susilo Bambang Yudhoyono's speech in APEC Economic Leader Conference. This study classify the cohesion using "Halliday and Hassan's theory" which is classified into five categories, they are substitution, ellipsis, reference, conjunction and lexical cohesion. This study is different from the previous studies because this study is more complex in analyzing the cohesion. This study is similar to the previous studies because they use "Halliday and Hassan's theory" although they have different subject.