

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This part contains some theories in analyzing the data. It will give us some information concerning this novel analysis. The writer will describe the theories based on the problems. It concerns about Cohesion, The type of Cohesion and Torey's Tiger's Child novel.

A. The Definition of Cohesion

Cohesion is one part of discourse connections. Discourse connection is the fact that sentences are linked together⁵. And discourse connection is one part of discourse analysis, is the discipline devoted to the investigation of the relationship between form and function in verbal communication⁶. For this connectedness, this texture, two concepts are used; those are cohesion referring to the connections which have their manifestations in the discourse itself, and coherence referring to the connections which can be made by the reader or listener based on knowledge outside the discourse.

Writing does not only focus on coherence, but also cohesion. Another book also explains about the meaning of cohesion and coherence. The term coherence refers to content aspects. Coherence is the way all sentences should be clearly connected to each other. Without connecting words or phrases, the supporting ideas may be hard to follow because they don't relate to the topic sentence. A text can be said coherence if it presents its argument in clear, logical,

⁵Jan Renkema. *Introduction to Discourse Studies*, (University of Tilburg) page 35

⁶Ibid. page 1

and comprehensible order⁷, while the term cohesion refers to formal aspect of writing, especially on the paragraph and sentence level. It is clear that cohesive refers to the connection which exists between the elements in the text⁸.

Here the researcher will explain more about cohesion because it related to the problem. Cohesion is one of the aspects that are taken into consideration in the textual analysis of translations⁹. Another book explains that cohesion is the connection which results when the interpretation of a textual element is dependent on another element in the text¹⁰.

Consider the following example: *"The store no longer sold porcelain figurines. It used to, the man behind the counter said, but they did not 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 texts.

Baker (1992) includes cohesion in the study of textual equivalence defining it as the network of lexical, grammatical, and other relation which

⁷Alice Oshima and Ann Hogue, *Writing Academic English: A writing and Sentence Structure Workbook For International Student* (USA: Addition Wesley Publishing Company, 1983), 4.

⁸Jan Renkema. *Introduction to Discourse Studies*, (University of Tilburg) page 35

⁹Mercedes Querol, *Substitution as a device of grammatical cohesion in English narrative and its translation into Spanish*. Page 2

¹⁰Jan Renkema. *Introduction to Discourse Studies*, (University of Tilburg) page 35

provides links between various parts of a text¹¹. Halliday and Hasan (1976) make a detailed classification of the cohesive devices in English. These authors distinguish between grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion. According to them, grammatical cohesion embraces four different devices¹²:

B. The Definition of Grammatical Cohesion

According to Laurel J. Brinton, the term grammar is used to refer to the rules of principles by which a language works its system or structure¹³. From this statement, we can conclude that grammar is the rule for forming word and making sentence. By grammar, the writer can make a good writing. Grammatical cohesion is one of the aspects in cohesive device. It is the grammatical connection between clauses and sentences which make the text can be read and understandable. In analyzing grammatical cohesion, we can analyze the deep structure that focused on the context¹⁴. Michael Halliday and Ruquaiya Hassan (1976) said in his book "discourse Studies" that they distinguish four types of cohesion. They are substitution, ellipsis, reference, and conjunction.

¹¹Mercedes Querol, Substitution as a device of grammatical cohesion in English narrative and its translation into Spanish. Page 2

¹²Jan Renkema. *Introduction to Discourse Studies*, (University of Tilburg) page 103

¹³Laurel J. Brinton, *the structure of modern English* (Amsterdam: John Benyamin publishing company, 1984), page 8.

¹⁴Halliday M A K and Ruquaiya Hassan, *cohesion in English* (USA: longmaninc, new York 1976), page 37

C. The Type of Cohesion

The type of cohesion base on Halliday and Hassan is device to be two points. Those are grammatical cohesion and Lexical cohesion. Grammatical cohesion is one of the aspects in cohesive device. It is the grammatical connection between clauses and sentences which make the text can be read and understandable. Michael Halliday and Ruquaiya Hassan (1976) said in his book “discourse Studies” that they distinguish four types of cohesion. They are substitution, ellipsis, reference, and conjunction. Lexical cohesion is achieved by the selection of vocabulary¹⁵. 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: reiteration and collocation

1. Grammatical Cohesion

Grammatical cohesion is one of the aspects in cohesive device. It is the grammatical connection between clauses and sentences which make the text can be read and understandable. In analyzing grammatical cohesion, we can analyze the deep structure that focused on the context¹⁶. Michael Halliday and Ruquaiya Hassan (1976) said in his book “discourse Studies” that they distinguish four types of cohesion. They are substitution, ellipsis, reference, and conjunction.

¹⁵ Mercedes Querol, Substitution as a device of grammatical cohesion in English narrative and its translation into Spanish. Page 4

¹⁶Halliday M A K and Ruquaiya Hassan, *cohesion in English*(USA: longmaninc, newYork1976), page37

a. Substitution

The replacement of one item by another¹⁷, another reference, 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 preceding¹⁸. In Michael book explain that substitution is similar to ellipsis, in that, in English, it operates either at nominal, verbal or clausal level¹⁹. Three frequently occurring types of substitution are that of a noun, of a verb, and of a clause²⁰. The items commonly used for substitution in English are²¹:

1. One(s) : I offered him a seat. He said he did not want one
2. Do : Did Mary take that letter? She might have done.
3. So/not : Do you need a lift/ if so, wait for me; if not, I'll see you there.
4. Same : she chooses the roast duck; I chose the same.

Most learners practice and drill these items in sentence-level grammar exercises. There are not easily and directly translatable to other languages, many common, everyday substitutions tend to be learnt idiomatically (e.g. responses such as ‘I think/hope so’). While it is easy to formulate basic rules for substitution, at more advanced levels of usage, subtleties emerge that may be more difficult to explain and present. For example, there are restrictions on

¹⁷Mercedes Querol, Substitution as a device of grammatical cohesion in English narrative and its translation into Spanish. Page 3

¹⁸Jan Renkema. *Introduction to Discourse Studies*, (University of Tilburg) page 103

¹⁹Michael McCarthy. *Discourse Analysis for Language Teachers*. (Cambridge University Press) page 45

²⁰Jan Renkema. *Introduction to Discourse Studies*, (University of Tilburg) page 103

²¹Michael McCarthy. *Discourse Analysis for Language Teachers*. (Cambridge University Press) page 45

reduced forms which might otherwise cause stress to fall on the substitute *do*, which is normally never prominent when it stands alone, as opposed to auxiliary *do* in ellipsis, which can be stressed (e.g. 'Did you win?' 'Yes, I DID'):

A : will you unlock the gate?

B : I HAVE done already/ I've DONE already.

Where the speaker does wish to give prominence to the substitute *do*, then *so* is used as well: e.g. "I went to lock the gate. When I got there, I found somebody had already DONE so" another example "The Lion was about to reply when suddenly they came to another gulf across the road. But this one was so broad and deep that the Lion knew at once he could not leap across it". *so* substitutes for *gulf*.

b. Ellipsis

Ellipsis is the omission of a word or part of a sentence. Ellipsis is closely related to substitution, and can be described as "substitution by zero" the division that is normally used is nominal, verbal and clausal ellipsis²². Another book explains, Ellipsis is the omission of element normally required by the grammar which the speaker/writer assumes are obvious from the context and therefore need not be raised. This is not to say that very utterance which is not fully explicit is elliptical; most messages require some input from the context to make sense of them. Ellipsis is distinguished by the structure having some 'missing' element. If two people have to stack and label a pile of items and one says to the other 'you

²²Jan Renkema. *Introduction to Discourse Studies*, (University of Tilburg) page 103

label and I'll stack', the fact that label and stack are usually transitive verbs requiring an object in the surface structure is suspended because the context 'supplies' the object. Another way of saying this is, of course, that structures are only fully realized when they need to be, and that ellipsis is a speaker choice made on pragmatic assessment of the situation, not a compulsory feature when two clauses are joined together.

For example, *Dormouse* is elided after *two*, "There was a table set out under a tree in front of the house, and the March Hare and the Hatter were having tea at it: a Dormouse was sitting between them, fast asleep, and the other two were using it as a cushion, resting their elbowson it, and talking over its head".

We shall concentrate here on the type of ellipsis where the 'missing' element is retrievable verbatim from the surrounding text, rather in the way that anaphoric and cataphoric references are, as opposed to exophoric references. For example: "*the children will carry the small boxes, the adults the large ones*," Where "will carry" is supplied from the first clause to the second, this type of main verb ellipsis is anaphoric.

Ellipsis as a notion is probably a universal feature of languages, but the grammatical options which realize it in discourse may vary markedly. For instance, English *does* have the kind of cataphoric ellipsis suggested by our rejected example "The children the small boxes, the adult will carry the large ones". English has broadly three types of ellipsis: nominal, verbal, and clausal.

Ellipsis within the verbal group may cause greater problems. Two very common types of verbal group ellipsis are what Thomas calls echoing and auxiliary contrasting²³. Echoing repeats an element from the verbal group:

A : Will anyone be waiting?

B : Jim will, I should think.

Contrasting is when the auxiliary changes:

A : Has she remarried?

B : No, but she will one day, I'm sure

Thomas also makes the point that in English, varying degrees of ellipsis are possible within the same verbal group:

A : Should anyone have been told/

B : John should/should have/should have been

c. Reference

Reference concerns the relation between a discourse element and a preceding or following element. Reference deals with a semantic relationship whereas substitution and ellipsis deal with the relationship between grammatical units: word, sentence part and clauses. In the case of reference, the meaning of a dummy word can be determined by what is imparted before or after the occurrence of the dummy word²⁴. Reference items in English include pronouns

²³Michael McCarthy. *Discourse Analysis for Language Teachers*. (Cambridge University Press) page 43

²⁴Jan Renkema. *Introduction to Discourse Studies*, (University of Tilburg) page 104

(e.g. he, she, it, him, they, etc), demonstratives (this, that, these, those), the article the, and items like such a. a complete list is given in Halliday and Hasan (1976: 37-9)²⁵.

This mechanism relates one element of the text to another one for its interpretation, which can be present or not (enaphoric and exophoric reference). Reference is a semantic relation. In the following example, *they* refers to *children*.

Example "*All children, except one, grow up. They soon know that they will grow up, and the way Wendy knew was this*".

The opening lines of a famous English novel, *Jude the Obscure*, by Thomas Hardy, show different types of reference at work:

Example: "*The schoolmaster was leaving the village, and everybody seemed sorry. The miller at Cresscombe lent him the small white tilted cart and horse to carry his goods to the city of his destination, about twenty miles off, such a vehicle proving of quite sufficient size for the departing teacher's effects*"

The italicized items *refer*. For the text to be coherent we assume that *him* in "lent *him* the small white tilted cart" is *the schoolmaster* introduced earlier; likewise, *his* destination is the schoolmaster's. Referents for *him* and *his* can be confirmed by looking *back* in the text; this is called *anaphoric* reference. *Such a* also links back to *the cart* in the previous sentence. The novel opens with *the* schoolmaster leaving *the village*. Which schoolmaster? Which village? On the previous page on

²⁵Michael McCarthy. *Discourse Analysis for Language Teachers*. (Cambridge University Press) page 35

the novel, the two words *at Marygreen* stand alone, so we reasonably assume that *Marygreen* is the name of *the* village, and that the character is (or has been) schoolmaster of that village. We are using more than just the text here to establish referents; the author expects us to share a world with him independent of the text, with typical villages and their populations (*everybody*) their schoolmasters and millers. References to assumed, shared worlds outside of the text are *exophoric* references. Because they are not text internal, they are not truly cohesive, but because they are an equally important part of the reader/listener's active role in creating coherence, they will be included in our general discussion of factors which contribute to textuality that is the feeling that something is a text, and not just a random collection of sentences.

d. Conjunction

Conjunction is a relationship which indicates how the subsequent sentence or clause should be linked to the preceding or the following sentence. This is usually achieved by the use of conjunction. The following are examples of three frequently occurring relationships: addition, causality, and temporality²⁶.

Other books, conjunction is Particular expressions contribute to create discursive connections²⁷. For example:

1. Addition

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

²⁶Jan Renkema. *Introduction to Discourse Studies*, (University of Tilburg) page 104

²⁷Mercedes Querol, Substitution as a device of grammatical cohesion in English narrative and its translation into Spanish. Page 4

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

2. Causality

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.

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

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

Halliday offers a scheme for the classification of conjunctive relations and includes phrasal types as well as single word everyday items such as *and*, *but*, *or*, etc. here is a simplified list based on Halliday's three category hadings of *elabotation*, *extention*, and *enhacement*²⁸.

Type	Sub-Type	Example
Elaboration	Apposition	In other words
	Clarification	Or rather
Extention	Addition	And/but
	Variation	alternatively
Enhancement	Spatio-temporal	There/ previously
	Causal-conditional	Consequently/in that case

²⁸Michael McCarthy. *Discourse Analysis for Language Teachers*. (Cambridge University Press) page 47

2. Lexical Cohesion

On the other hand, lexical cohesion is achieved by the selection of vocabulary²⁹. 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: **reiteration** and **collocation**.

1. Reiteration

Reiteration includes not only repetition but also synonymy. Reiteration can also occur through the use of word that is semantically linked to a previous one, for example, “*young*” and “*old*” in general, reiteration is divided into the following five types.

a. Repetition (often involving reference)

Ex: a conference will be held on national environmental policy. At this conference the issue of salination will play an important role.

b. Synonymy (often involving inference)

Ex: a conference will be held on national environmental policy. This environmental symposium will be primarily a conference dealing with water.

c. Hyponymy (e.g the relation of “flower” to “tulip”)

Ex: we were in town today shopping for furniture. We saw a lovely table.

²⁹Mercedes Querol, Substitution as a device of grammatical cohesion in English narrative and its translation into Spanish. Page 4

d. Metonymy (part vs. whole)

Ex: at it six month checkup, the brakes had to be repaired. In general, however, the car was in good condition.

e. Antonym (e.g. white vs. black)

Ex: The old movie just doesn't do it any more. The new ones are more appealing.

2. Collocation

Collocation, the second type of lexical cohesion, 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 "collage and study".

D. Torey's the Tiger's Child

Torey Hayden Born: 21 May, 1951 in Livingston, Montana, USA.
 Education: Billings Senior High School, Billings, Montana, 1969; Bachelors of Arts, Whitman College, Walla Walla, Washington (biology/chemistry) 1973; Master of Science, Montana State University/Billings, Billings, Montana (special education)1975; PH.D studies (incomplete), University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota (educational psychology/special education) 1979. Torey Hayden is an educational psychology and special education teacher who since 1979 has chronicled her struggles in the classroom in a succession of bestselling

books. She currently lives and writes in North Wales, U.K with her husband and daughter. (see appendix 1)

The tiger's child is a novel which written by Torey Hayden in 2005. The novel "*The Tiger's Child*" by Torey Hayden, consists of 264 pages and divided into 32 chapter. Torey Hayden wrote the novel By The title "The Tiger's Child" at 1995 published by Avon books HarpenCollins, New York. She published this novel in her intensive literary career. In published by Qanita , Jln. Yodkali No. 16 Bandung Indonesia 2003.

The Tiger's Child is the sequel to *One Child*. It was published in 1995, fourteen years after *One Child*. In the prologue, the author says that she was hesitant to write a sequel, simply because much of what was going on in Sheila's life since was rather grim. Torey changed her mind about writing a sequel in response to numerous queries from her readers, and also in response to Sheila, who overcame her abusive and deprived background to become a competent adult. The first 40 pages of the book are a review of *One Child*. Torey wrote that book in eight days, never intending to publish it, but rather to better understand her relationship with Sheila. When she finished it, she realized that she had a book, and that she needed to find Sheila and let her read it.

The Tiger's Child novel tells about a teacher that tries to help a girl that gets the bad treatment when she was child by her mother and also by her father. This bad treatment makes Sheila become has bad psychological when she growth up and Torey as her teacher try to help her but the bad experience and anxious experience makes Sheila can not remember the event that happened her when she

was child. This situation makes Torey difficult to help her because Sheila does not want to remember.

Finding Sheila was not an easy task. Torey had lost contact with her five years previously, and had not seen her for seven. When Torey found her again, Sheila was thirteen. She was living with her father, but she had spent some time in foster care. It was strange for them both, to see each other again after so much time had passed. They both felt as though they knew each other well, but after so much time, they really were strangers. Furthermore, Sheila's memory of the experience and of Torey was not entirely positive. Torey had moved away at the end of the school year that Sheila had been in her class. Sheila had difficulty separating Torey's leaving from her mother's abandonment of her. At one point, she told Torey that she had actually made things worse for her, in that Sheila had not realized how bad her life was before being in Torey's class.

Personally, I think the problem was that Torey wasn't really in a position to do more. The problems in Sheila's life were simply too big to easily fix, and Sheila had little else in the way of support. She had a drug addicted, alcoholic father and a string of foster homes. There's only so much a teacher can do, no matter how much she cares. But when she found Sheila again, they had a chance to work through some of Sheila's issues and form a relationship again.

All of this does sound pretty grim, but the book does have a reasonably happy ending. Sheila does amazing well, especially considering everything she has been through. This book is able to include more of her point of view than the

first book, since she is older, and it is interesting to see how she viewed things.

This book is also an amazingly fast read, and hard to put down. (See appendix 2)