

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 Writing

Harmer (2004:33) stated that " writing activity is used to help students to perform a different kind of writing activity (in this case integrated in speaking and listening), students need to able to write to do these activities ". It can be concluded that the students can perform writing activity through speaking and listening. For example, in speaking when the teacher asks two students to do conversations, the students can learn to write. The students had heard some conversations when listening. Then, they write what has been discussed when the teacher plays cassette about story. The students can also write by rewriting what has been heard of them. So, writing and listening can be integrated in learning English.

Written text has a number of convention which separates it out from speaking. Apart from differences in grammar and vocabulary, there are issue of letter, word, and text formation, manifested by handwriting, spelling, and layout and punctuation (Harmer, 2001:255). Furthermore, Oshima and Hogue (2006:3) said that "writing is not easy. It takes study and practice to develop this skill. For both native speakers and new learners of English, it is important to note that writing is a process, not a product."

Langan (2003:139-150) stated on his book that there are four bases in writing an effective paper; those are:

a. Unity

To achieve unity is to have all the details in the writing, it is related to the writer and to his three supporting topic sentences. Each time the writers think of something to put into their paper, ask themselves whether it relates to their ideas and their supporting points. Here, it can be concluded that the unity is needed to make the text clearly and it is more understandable. The readers will be easy to understand when they read the text.

b. Support

After realizing the importance of specific supporting details, all text should include such vivid details. It means that the writer should put the detail information to support the writing such as in narrative, the writer should write the character, the setting and the plot clearly.

c. Coherence

All the supporting ideas and sentences in a text must be organized so that they coherence. Key techniques for tying together the material in a text include a clear method of organization (such as time order or emphatic order), transitions, and other connecting words. The statements mean that the writer must make coherence

d. Sentence skills.

Here are the examples of sentence-skills mistakes: quotation marks, capitalization, singular-plural, parallelism, sentence fragment, misspelled, tenses, apostrophe, etc. By having sentence skills, the writer will make the text more clearly because the punctuation and the tenses are appropriate.

2.2 Genre

Knap and Watkins and Watkins (2005:21) said genre is an organizing concept for cultural practices and places occasion, function, behavior and interactional structures. It is very rarely useful to think of it as a kind of text. In the other hand Hyland (2009:15) stated that genre is a term for grouping text together, representing how writer typically uses language to respond to recurring situations. Thus from the explanation above, the researcher concludes that genre is simple text or type of literature which is communicative in its explanations to the students and increase ability the students ability in writing.

The several of writing as regard their sentence can be divided into three kinds (Hyland, 2009:18): exposition, description, and narrative. The expository tells how to do something or informs the reader about something; the descriptive provides accurate details and appeals to the senses and the narrative a story. Here, the final project focuses on the narrative text. It happens because narrative text has a generic structure that forces the students to write systematically to create complication. Besides, the students must use their imagination in writing narrative.

2.3 Narrative Text

Knap and Watkins and Watkins (2005:2001) said narrative is simply about entertaining a reading audience. It also has a powerful social role beyond that of being a medium for entertainment. In other hand, Elliot (2005:3) said narrative (story) in the human sciences should be defined provisionally as discourse with a

clear sequential that connect events in a meaningful way for a definite audience and thus offer insight about the world and or people's experience of the story.

Based on the explanation above, it can be concluded that narrative is a text focusing specific participant and to amuse entertain and deal with actual or vicarious experience in different ways, meanwhile narrative text deals with problematic events which lead to crisis or turning of some kind, which in turn find a resolution and narrative is telling of some true event or connected sequences of events.

Tarigan in Istiana (2009:13) explained that "narrative has social function to amuse, entertain and to deal with actual vicarious experience in different ways, narrative deal with problematic events which lead to a crisis or turning point of some kind, which in turn finds a resolution". There are many types of narrative. Furthermore, Susilohadi (2008:143) divided narratives into imaginary, factual or a combination of both. They may include fairy stories, mysteries, science fiction, romances, horror stories, adventure stories, fables, myths and legends, historical narratives, ballads, slice of life, and personal experience.

Knap and Watkins and Watkins (2005:224) said there are four generic structures in narrative text; those are orientation, sequences of events and resolution.

a. Orientation

It tells the audience about who is in the story, when the story is taking place and where the action happening. It is also called sets the scene and introduces the participants.

b. Evaluation

It explains the condition, behaviour, and the attitude of the participant.

c. Complication

It sets off a chain of events that influences what will happen in the story. It begins when a crisis arises.

d. Resolution

In this part, the crisis is resolved, for better or for worse. The characters finally sort out the complication.

Besides having generic structure, narrative text also uses significant grammatical features that support the form of a narrative text. Knap and Watkins (2005:221) said action verb, temporal connectives, past tense, reflection/evaluations, mental verb, action verb metaphorically, rhythm, repetition. Furthermore, according to Knap and Watkins (2005:225), narrative text has grammatical features such as:

- a. Past tense: most of the sentences are written in the past tense. The reason is we tell the story which happened in the past
- b. Noun : noun here means the figure, participants, or characters in the story. They can be human or non- human (animal, fairy,etc.)
- c. Action verbs are verbs which indicate the actions done by the character of the story.
- d. Saying verbs are verbs which are commonly use to indicate subclause or indicate the direct utterances said by the character in the story, like : said, replaid,answer, etc.

- e. Adjective is a word that modifies something (person, animal or thing)
- f. Adverb / adverbial phrase is a word that modifies verb whereas adverbial phrase is a range of words in which adverb as core to modify verb.
- g. Conjunction is a word used to connect between main clause and subclause. It is used when we want to make complex sentence.

Based on the explanation above, the grammatical structure is needed to make a good text. Beside that, the social function of the text can be clearly shown. In this case, the reader will be easy to understand the text and they will be amused when they are reading the text.

2.3.1. Discourse Analysis

Discourse analysis is not only widely recognized as one of the broadest, but also the least defined areas in linguistics. According to Schiffrin (1994:20), there are three definitions of discourse which are influenced by different paradigms where they reflect to different assumption between formalist, functionalist, and formalist-functionalist dichotomy. Furthermore, Shcrriffin (1994:20) explains more that discourse is often defined in two ways: a particular unit of language (above the sentence), and a particular focus (on language use).

As the highest unit of language above the sentences or the clauses are 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. In addition, discourse is 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 writes clearly.

Every speaker or writer is expecting that his/her utterances or written text will be understood and appreciated by the recipients. In this situation, of course, 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 the speaker means. That is why, as the consequence, the goal of language will be obtained. However, the participants, either the speaker (writer) or hearer (reader) should certainly understand thoroughly about the discourse and its structure or organization.

Every text has different characteristic of discourse, such as narrative, conversation, exposition, poem, and so on. Otherwise, the formal characters which characterization each types of discourse in every language often differ from one language to another (Nida, 2008:42). According to his point of view, the discourse can be classified into various is, such follows:

1. Based on the medium used

Based on the medium used, a discourse can be classified into:

a. Written discourse.

This is a type of discourse that is conveyed in written form, through writing 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.

b. Spoken discourse

This 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.

Here, it can be seen that the discourse based on the medium is written and spoken discourse. Both of them have some differences. From the explanation above, the differences between written and spoken discourse such as the written discourse must be read to get the information, enjoy and understand. Mostly, the form of written discourse is a text. On the other hand, the spoken discourse is orally, so it must be listened by the recipient to get the information and understand it. Mostly, it is in form of conversation and speech.

2. *Basic on thematic orientation*

This discourse can be classified into:

- a. Expository discourse is oriented in the subject and parts that tied logically which ignore the time and the expository.

- 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 (Tarigan in Iswanti, 2007:4).

From the explanation above, it is seen that based on the thematic orientation, the discourse is divided into expository and narrative discourse. The difference between expository and narrative discourse is in the chronological time. The expository does not use the chronological time, but the narrative does.

3. *Based on the form of discourse*

This discourse can be classified as follows:

- 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. These include casual 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.

From the form of discourse, it is concluded that it refers to the literature form. The discourse analysis can be used to analyze element of text such as

cohesion and coherence. In this final project, the researcher focuses more to cohesion.

2.4 Cohesion

According to Halliday and Hasan (2014: 4), cohesion occurs where the interpretation of some element in the text is dependent on that of another. In other words, one element presupposes the other element, in the sense that it cannot be effectively decoded except by reference to it. When this happens, a relation of cohesion is established, and the two elements, the presupposing and the presupposed, are thereby integrated into a text

Moreover, Widdowson, (2004: 31) states that “cohesion is a matter of contextual appropriateness of linguistic forms-sentences or in other words, there is a meaning relation between sentences to others in the text. This relation is realized in the form of formal linguistic devices”, it means that the text can be realized by formal linguistic devices. According to Paltridge (2011:134), ‘text is a stretch of language interpreted formally, without context.’ While ‘discourse: stretch of language perceived to be meaningful, unified, and purposive. From these extracts it can be seen that there is disagreement about the meaning of these two terms. Text analysis is the study of the formal linguistics’ devices that distinguish a text from random sentences. While, discourse analysts also study these text forming devices.

The concept of cohesion accounts for the essential semantic relations whereby any passage of speech or writing is enabled to function as text. In English cohesion, Halliday and Hasan systematize this concept by classifying it

into two ‘big’ types of distinct categories – grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion; categories which have a theoretical basis as types of cohesive relation, but which also provide a practical means for describing and analyzing texts. Grammatical cohesion category is represented in the text by particular features: reference, substitution, ellipsis and conjunction. While lexical cohesion includes reiteration and collocation. Through these categories the concept of cohesion is emerging as the most comprehensive explanation about the analysis of relation among sentences within a text. Furthermore, Halliday and Hasan (2014) divide the concept of cohesion into two: grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion.

Furthermore, the explanation above shows that the cohesion is needed to create semantic relations between the sentences. Besides, the cohesion will make the text more coherence. In the end, the message of the text can deliver well to the readers.

2.5 Cohesive Devices

Cohesive devices are the tools of cohesion to create the unity of meaning within a text. In the text, cohesive devices can be defined in the form of words, utterances, phrases which organise or manage a discourse. Millward (2012) says that:

Cohesive devices are certain words or phrases and their location within the discourse will activate a set of assumptions as to the meaning of what has gone beforehand or will generate a set of expectations to what may follow. So that, word or phrases can create links across the boundaries of mere fragments or can chain related items together.

From the explanation above, it can be concluded that cohesive devices are words, utterances or phrases that their meanings are dependent on the other words,

utterances, or phrases either precede or follow them. Their meaning are related each other and be unified whole.

Some studies in analyzing cohesive devices are done by the experts Halliday and Hasan (2014). The theory of Halliday and Hasan is shown in Figure 2.1 below:

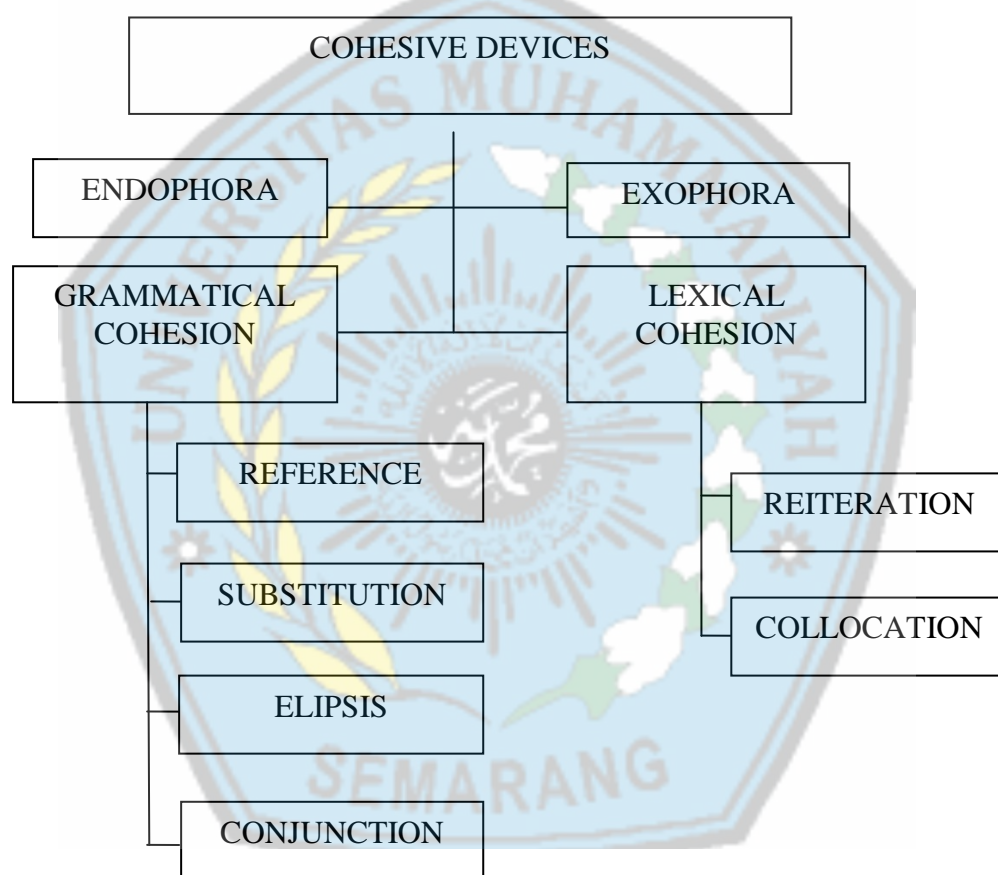


Figure 2.1 The Diagram of Halliday and Hasan's Theory of Cohesive Devices (2014)

Based on Figure 2.1 on Halliday and Hasan's theory, cohesive devices are divided into two characteristics: endophora which refers to textual meaning and exophora which refers to situational meaning. Endophora has two kinds; they are

anaphora and cataphora in which anaphora is if the relation presupposes something that has gone before, while cataphora is when a relation is presupposed by something in the following part. Halliday and Hasan also said that cohesive devices are also divided into two types; they are grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion.

2.5.1 Grammatical Cohesion

Cohesion has a vital role in creating the unity of text. A non-cohesive text may result in the reader or listener losing their concentration. The recipient will not be able to obtain the message intended if the information conveyed to him/her is not linked together. This in turn will lead to a lack of communication. Cohesion carries the receiver forward.

Grammatical cohesion refers to the linguistic structure. The highest structural unit in the grammar is the sentence (Halliday and Hasan, 2014: 28). The structure determines the order in which grammatical elements occur and the way they are related within a sentence. Cohesive relationships with other sentences create a certain linguistic environment, and the meaning of each sentence depends on it. Various linguistic means help for identifying whether a text can function as a single meaningful unit or not.

There are some grammatical cohesion devices, those are:

a. Reference

Halliday and Hasan (2014) distinguish between the two kinds: anaphoric and cataphoric. Anaphoric reference points listeners or readers backwards to what is previously mentioned. On the contrary, cataphoric

reference looks forward in the text in order to identify the elements the reference items refer to.

For the example:

Look at *the sun*. *It's* going down quickly. (It refers back to the sun.)

It's going down quickly, *the sun*. (It refers forwards to the sun.)

b. Substitution

Halliday and Hasan (2014) use the term 'substitutes' to describe substitution links. Halliday and Hasan (2014: 89) explained that "A substitute is a sort of counter which is used in place of the repetition of a particular item"

You think Joan already *knows*? – I think everybody *does*. (Does substitutes for knows).

c. Ellipsis

The basic difference between the two types of cohesion is that in ellipsis¹⁴ there is nothing to be inserted into the structural slot of the missing information (Halliday and Hasan 2014: 143). It is divided into three:

1. Nominal Ellipsis

Nominal ellipsis occurs within the nominal group where the function of the omitted head is taken by some modifying element. For example:

Four other Oysters followed them, and yet another *four*.

2. Verbal Ellipsis

Verbal ellipsis occurs within the verbal group whose structure does not fully express its systemic features. For example:

What *have you been doing?* – Swimming.

3. Clausal Ellipsis

Clausal ellipsis refers to ellipsis of a whole clause or part of a clause, as in the example:

When is John coming? – *Next weekend.*

d. Conjunction

Conjunction is defined as a text-making resource. It refers to links between clauses or “the ways in which the different parts of a text fit together” (Scott and Thompson 2001: 4). Halliday and Hasan as cited in Paltridge (2011:135), distinguish additive, adversative, causal and temporal types of conjunctive relations in terms of ideational meaning (external) and interpersonal meaning (internal).

Table 2.1. Types of Conjunction based on Halliday and Hasan in Paltridge (2011:135)

Types of conjunction			
Additive	adversative	causal	temporal
<i>simple:</i> and, nor, or	<i>proper:</i> yet, but, however	<i>general:</i> so, because of, thus	<i>simple:</i> then, next, afterwards
<i>complex:</i> moreover, in addition, besides that, additionally	<i>contrastive:</i> but, on the other hand, actually, in fact, at the same time	<i>specific:</i> for this reason, as a result, for this purpose	<i>complex:</i> at once, this time, the last time, meanwhile, at this moment, until then
<i>comparative:</i> likewise,	<i>corrective:</i> instead, on the	<i>conditional:</i> then, under the	<i>sequential/ conclusive:</i>

similarly, on the other hand	contrary, at least	circumstances	at first, in the end; finally, at last
<i>appositive:</i> I mean, in other words, for example, thus	<i>dismissive:</i> in any case, anyhow, at any rate	<i>respective:</i> in this respect, with regard to this, otherwise	<i>'here and now' / summarizing:</i> up to now, up to this point; to sum up, briefly
<i>From a marketing viewpoint, the popular tabloid encourages the reader to read the whole page instead of choosing stories. And isn't that what any publisher wants?</i>	<i>The eldest son works on the farm, the second son worked in the blacksmith's shop, but the youngest son left home to seek his fortune.</i>	<i>Chinese tea is becoming increasingly popular in restaurants, and even in coffee shops. This is because of the growing belief that it has several health-giving properties.</i>	<i>The weather cleared just as the party approached the summit. Until then they had seen nothing of the panorama around them.</i>

2.5.2 Lexical Cohesion

Lexical cohesion is a group of words which is lexically cohesive when all of the words are semantically related. Lexical cohesion refers to the reader perceived unity of text achieved by the author's usage of words with related meaning. Crystal (2010: 118) states that to study lexicon of English, accordingly, is to study all aspects of the vocabulary of the language. The borderline between grammatical and lexical cohesion is the cohesive function of the class of general noun. Lexical cohesion occurs when two words in a text are semantically related in some way – in other words, they are related in terms of their meaning.

Cohesion expresses the continuity that exists between one part of the text and another one. This continuity is significant from two aspects. On the one side, the continuity shows at each stage in the discourse the points of relations or

contact with what has been said before. On the other hand, the continuity provided by the cohesion helps the readers to fill in the gap in the discourse, to supply all the components of the message which are not present in the text but are important and necessary to its interpretation. There are some holes in a complete text because it is not possible for the writer to supply all the details. But the reader can supply the missing points even though the text is not complete. It is so because the cohesion makes the interaction between reader and the text possible. Cohesion is used by both readers and writers to create coherence in the text. On the whole, cohesive devices contribute to texture, readability and comprehensibility of a text.

According to Halliday and Hassan (1984:320), present five categories of general lexical cohesion. They are: (a) repetition, (b) synonymy, (c) antonymy, (d) hyponymy, and (e) Meronymy.

Lexical cohesion refers to relationship among lexical items – in a text and, in particular, among content words. It has several devices, those are:

a) Repetition

It refers to words that are repeated in the text, as well as words that have changed to reflect tense or number. Repetition, or sometimes called reiteration, is the most direct and obvious source of lexical cohesion since it is the mere identical recurrence of a preceding lexical item.

Example: *Algy met a bear. The bear was bulgy.*

In this example, the second occurrence of bear refers back to the first. Also, there is the referential link the signaling that the same bear is intended.

Repetition therefore establishes a cohesive tie between at least two identical lexical items.

While Cook (2014: 19) says that repetition is words can create the same sort of chain pronouns, and there are sometimes good reasons for preferring it.

Here are the kinds of repetition:

1. Full repetition

It means that we should repeat one function in a sentence fully without any reductions or changes of form.

Example: *The pineapple ...the pineapple...the pineapple...they might write.*

2. Repetition with another form

It is happening if a word is repeated with another construction or another word but it still has a same base form.

Example: *The pineapple ...the luscious fruit ...our meal ... the tropical luxury.*

3. Repetition with substitution

It is repetition with the same reiteration using substitution/pronouns.

Example: *Dona is a kind girl. She always helps her mother.*

4. Repetition by hyponym

It is already known that superordinate has subordinate. The repetition that happens on subordinate is called hyponym.

Example: *Sometimes, we find a proud **scientist**. **The physicist** assumes that **socialist** is lower than his. The graduates of natural science feel that they are higher than the graduate of social science.*

b) Synonymy

It refers to the relationship between words that are similar to meaning. In this case, “lexical cohesion results from the choice of a lexical item that is in some sense synonymous with a preceding one... (Halliday and Hasan, 2014: 33)”

Example:

*What **people** want from the government is frankness.*

*They should explain everything to **the public**.*

c) Antonymy

It refers to opposite meaning. In this type of lexical cohesion, cohesion comes about by the selection of an item which is opposite in meaning to a preceding lexical item.

Example:

*Ali **received** a letter from the bank yesterday. He will **send** answer next day.*

d) Hyponymy

It refers to classes of lexical items where the relationship is one of ‘general – specific’. It means the meaning of one of the words includes the meaning of the other word.

Example:

*A **dog** is a symbol of loyalty. That **animal** is mine.*

From the example above, the words, animal and dog are related in such a way that dog refers to a type of animal, and animal is a general term that includes dog as well as other types of animal.

e) **Meronymy**

It refers to lexical items which are in whole part relation. In this kind of lexical cohesion, cohesion results from the choice of a lexical item that is in some sense in part-whole relationship with a preceding lexical item.

Example:

*An English **daily** Monday talked about the result of presidential election.*

*The **editorial** described that pre-election speeches caused good results.*

