

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 Review of Related Theories

This chapter consists some theories which supported this study. I took some of theories related to the topic from many sources. This chapter explains about Linguistics, Discourse, Speech, Cohesion, Cohesive Devices, Translation Theories, Molina and Albir Theory. All of those theories used in order to help researcher to find, and analysed the data found in data analysis.

2.1.1 Linguistics

Saussure defines linguistics as the study of language, and as the study of the manifestations of human speech. He said that linguistics is also concerned with the history of languages, and with the social or cultural influences that shape the development of language.

2.1.2 Discourse

Discourse is spoken or written communication between people, especially serious discussion of a particular subject. Discourse for Hall (1996) “is a group of statements which provide a language for talking about i.e. a way of representing a particular kind of knowledge about a topic” (p. 201). Discourses are produced through language and practices. They are ways of talking about and acting towards an idea or group of people.

According to Halliday & Hasan: 1976; Richards: 2002; Moeliono: 2004, a good discourse consists of a series of sentences that have aspects that are related to meaning, between one sentence linked to the meaning of another sentence from the beginning until the end. These aspects include cohesion, coherence, discourse topics, lexical aspects, grammatical aspects, phonological aspects, and semantic aspects. Some aspects of the discourse mentioned above can be grouped into two elements, namely cohesion, and coherence.

Mulyana (2005: 36) said that the cohesion element includes lexical, grammatical, phonological aspects, while coherence element covers the semantic aspect and the generalization aspect, where cohesion and coherence are almost the same because some signs of cohesion aspects are also signs of coherence aspects, but it is still possible to distinguish them.

2.1.3 Speech

In linguistics, speech is a system of communication that uses spoken words (or sound symbols). The study of speech sounds (or spoken language) is the branch of linguistics known as phonetics. The study of sound changes in a language is phonology. According to George Yule in *The Study of Language*, 3rd ed. Cambridge University Press (2006), "Human language is organized at two levels or layers simultaneously. This property is called duality (or

'double articulation'). In speech production, we have a physical level at which we can produce individual sounds, like *n*, *b* and *i*. As individual sounds, none of these discrete forms has any intrinsic meaning. In a particular combination such as *bin*, we have another level producing a meaning that is different from the meaning of the combination in *nib*. Thus, at one level, we have distinct sounds, and, at another level, we have distinct meanings. This duality of levels is, in fact, one of the most economical features of human language because, with a limited set of discrete sounds, we are capable of producing a very large number of sound combinations (e.g., words) which are distinct in meaning."

2.1.4 Cohesion

According to Halliday & Hasan (1976) cohesion is the semantic relation between one element and another in a text. Halliday & Hasan (1976); Richards (2002); Moeliono (2004) said a text is cohesive when the elements are tied together and considered meaningful to the reader. A good discourse consists of a series of sentences that have aspects that are related to meaning, between one sentence linked to the meaning of another sentence from the beginning until the end. These aspects include cohesion, types of coherence, discourse topics, lexical aspects, grammatical aspects, phonological aspects, and semantic aspects.

Some aspects of the discourse mentioned above can be grouped into two elements, namely cohesion, and coherence. Mulyana (2005) stated the cohesion element includes lexical, grammatical, phonological aspects, while the coherence element covers the semantic aspect and the generalization aspect, where cohesion and coherence are almost the same because some signs of cohesion aspects are also signs of coherence aspects, but it is still possible to distinguish them.

2.1.5 Cohesive Devices

According Halliday and Hasan (1976), Cohesive Devices are divided into two type of devices which are Grammatical Cohesion and Lexical Cohesion. However, in this research, the Cohesive Device that will only be focused in this research is Grammatical Cohesion.

2.1.5.1 Grammatical Cohesion

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), Grammatical Cohesion is constructed by the grammatical structure each component tie each other and it classified into four major classes: Reference, Substitution, Ellipsis, Conjunction.

2.1.5.1.1 Reference

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), Reference is a relationship between words and pronouns that refer to that word which classified into several type of reference which are:

2.1.5.1.1.1 Endophoric Reference

Endophoric reference found inside within the text to the situation in which the text occurs for the identity of the item being referred to. Endophoric reference are also classified into Anaphoric Reference and Cataphoric Reference.

2.1.5.1.1.1.1 Anaphoric Reference

Anaphoric Reference is where a word or phrase refers back to another word or phrase used earlier in a text.

Example:

“Rowan likes Caitlin the way she is”.

The word “she” refers back to another word “Caitlin” which used earlier in the text.

2.1.5.1.1.1.2 Cataphoric Reference

Cataphoric Reference describes an item which refers forward to another word or phrase which is used later in the text.

Example:

“Rowan likes her the way Caitlin is”.

The word *her* refers forward to word *Caitlin* which used later or after the word *her* in the text.

2.1.5.1.1.2 Exophoric Reference

Exophoric reference looks outside the text to the situation in which the text occurs for the identity of the item being referred to which only both speakers know what is being referred to in the conversation.

Example:

“They're late again, can you believe it?”

“I know! Well, they'd better get here soon or it'll get cold.”

2.1.5.1.1.3 Personal Reference

Personal Reference is reference by means of function in speech situation through the category of person.

Example:

“My Mom and I are leaving. We have seen quite enough of this thing”.

From the example above, there are two kind of personal reference which is *my* as the possessive adjective that refer to the speaker. *I* and *we* show personal pronoun. *I* refer to the speaker and *we* refer to my (speaker's) mom and the speaker.

2.1.5.1.1.4 Demonstrative Reference

Demonstrative Reference is reference by means of location on scale of proximity (*that, this, those, these*). It is essentially a form of verbal pointing. The speaker identifies the referent by locating it on scale of proximity.

Example:

“Last year, we went to Rowan's for a holiday. That was the best moment we've ever had”.

The demonstrative reference in example above is *that* which has the function of far proximity. It refers to *Rowan* that is located far from the speaker now. In addition, it is indirect speech.

2.1.5.1.5 Comparative Reference

Comparative Reference is indirect reference by means of identity or similarity. It is achieved through adverbs and adjectives of comparison, which is used to compare similarities or identities between items in a text. Comparative Reference classified into two types which are General and Particular comparison. Here below are the examples of Comparative Reference:

Table 2.1 Comparative Reference Types

General Comparison	Particular Comparison
Identity (same, equal, identical, identically)	Quality (better, worse)
Similarity (such, similar, so, similarly, likewise)	Quantity (more, less)
Difference (other, else, differently, otherwise)	

2.1.5.1.2 Substitution

Substitution takes place when one feature (in a text) replaces a previous word or expression, for instance:

“I left my pencil at home, do you have one?” In this example, *one* is replaced or substitution for “pencil”. 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. 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. Halliday and Hasan (1976) classified substitution into three main grammatical categories, namely, nominal, verbal, and clausal.

2.1.5.1.2.1 Nominal Substitution

Nominal substitution is substituting a noun or a nominal group with another noun. Elements of this type are *one, ones, and same*. In the following example, *one* substitutes car.

Example:

*This bike is broken. I will get a new **one**.*

2.1.5.1.2.2 Verbal Substitution

Verbal substitution involves substituting a verb or a verbal group with another verb. The verb element used to replace items in this type is *do*. Another word that used in this type of substitution is *do, do so, can do, can, does, did, done*.

Example:

I challenge you to win the game before I do!

2.1.5.1.2.3 Clausal Substitution

Clausal substitution involves substituting an entire clause. The words used as substitutes are *so* and *not*.

Example:

You're tired of living, don't you? So am I

2.1.5.1.3 Ellipsis

Halliday and Hasan (1976) emphasize the idea that ellipsis is a presupposition at the level of words and structures. Substitution and ellipsis are thought to be very similar in the sense that ellipsis can be thought of as a substitution by zero while substitution may be thought of as a kind of explicit ellipsis. Since it is a grammatical relation, it can be divided into three types, namely, nominal, verbal and clausal.

2.1.5.1.3.1 Nominal Ellipsis

Nominal Ellipsis means ellipsis within the nominal group and the omitted noun phrase is a word which can function as a modifier. The modifier can be joined with another structure. Often nominal ellipses involve deletions of nouns after, numerals, quantifiers or adjectives.

Example:

Although Rowan is the oldest boy in the family, Boy is the tallest [boy]

boy that is omitted is a noun.

2.1.5.1.3.2 Verbal Ellipsis

Moreover, Halliday & Hasan (1976); Beaugrande & Dressler (1981); Chirtiansen (2015) defined Verbal Ellipsis as ellipsis taking place within the verbal group.

Example:

Have you been drinking last night?

Yes, I have been [drinking]

drinking in the sentences is categorized as verb, which is omitted.

2.1.5.1.3.3 Clausal Ellipsis

Clausal ellipsis is the broadest subcategory and contains omissions that are not covered under nominal and verbal ellipsis yet. It is defined as the omission of a clause, a part of a clause or an element of a clause (a constituent). It may co-occur with nominal or verbal ellipsis.

Example:

Who was drunk last night?

Rowan was [drunk last night]

drunk last night is a clause, which is part of the sentence which is omitted.

2.1.5.1.4 Conjunction

Conjunctions constitute the last type of cohesive devices and the most obvious device in a text. They are rather different from other types of cohesive devices in that they do not refer to other linguistic items. They signal the idea that “what is to follow is systematically connected to what has gone before. Halliday and Hasan (1976) said

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 meaning which presuppose the presence of other components in the discourse. They adopt a scheme of just four categories, namely additive, adversative, causal, and temporal. According to Halliday (1985) in *An Introduction to Functional Grammar*, conjunction is classified into elaboration, extension, and enhancement.

2.1.5.1.4.1 Elaboration

Halliday (1985) stated Elaboration means one clause that expands another by elaborating on it (or some portion of it) by restating in other words, specifying in greater detail, commenting, or exemplifying. There are two categories of elaborative relation, namely apposition and clarification.

2.1.5.1.4.1.1 Apposition

Apposition is a word or phrase which explains another preceding phrase or clause. In this type of elaboration some element is represented, or restated, either by exposition or example. Look at the example below:

- Expository: *in other word, that is (to stay), I mean (to say), to put it another way.*
- Exemplifying: *for example, for instance, thus, to illustrate.*

2.1.5.1.4.1.2 Clarification

Here, the elaborated element is not simply restated but reinstated, summarized, made more precise or in some other way clarified for the purposes of discourse:

- Corrective: *or, rather, at least, to be more precise*
- Distractive: *by the way, incidentally*
- Dismissive: *in any case, anyway, leaving that a side*
- Particularizing: *in particular, more especially*
- Resumptive: *as I was saying, to resume, to get back to the point*
- Summative: *in short, to sum up, in conclusion, briefly*
- Verificative: *actually, as a matter of fact, in fact*

2.1.5.1.4.1.2 Extension

Halliday (1985) said extension means one clause expands another by extending beyond it by adding some new element, giving an exception to it, or offering an alternative. Extension involves either addition, adversative, or variation.

2.1.5.1.4.1.2.1 Additive

Additive conjunction acts to structurally coordinate or link by adding to the presupposed item divided into positive (*and, also, moreover, in addition*) and negative (*nor*).

2.1.5.1.4.1.2.2 Adversative

It is conjunction which relates two clauses that state contras each other. It acts also to indicate contrary to expectation and signalled by *but, yet, on the other hand, however*.

2.1.5.1.4.1.2.3 Variation

Variation includes replacive, subtractive and alternative ‘or’ types.

- Replacive: *on contrary, instead*
- Subtractive: *apart from that, except*
- Alternative: *alternatively*

2.1.5.1.4.1.3 Enhancement

Enhancement means one clause expands another by embellishing around it by qualifying it with some circumstantial feature of time, place, cause or condition. The various types of enhancement that create cohesion are spatio-temporal, manner, causal-conditional, and matter.

2.1.5.1.4.1.3.1 Spatio-Temporal

Spatial relations are being used as text-creating cohesive devices and the most apparently spatial cohesion is in terms of metaphorical space, for example *there* in “*there you’re wrong*”. Whereas temporal conjunctions are *then, when, whenever, next, afterwards, just then, before that, in the end, at once, soon, next time, next day, now, now that, meanwhile, at this moment, until, etc.*

2.1.5.1.4.1.3.2 Manner

Manner conjunctives create cohesion by comparison and by reference to means. They are *likewise, similarity, in different way*.

2.1.5.1.4.1.3.3 Causal Conditional

Conditional conjunctions are subdivided into positive (*so, then, in that case, in that event, under the circumstances*), negative (*otherwise, if not*), and concessive (*yet, still, though, despite this, however, even so, all the same, nevertheless*).

2.1.5.1.4.1.3.4 Matter

Here cohesion is established by reference to the ‘matter’ that has gone before. Typical expressions are *here, there, as to that, in that respect, in other respect, elsewhere*.

2.1.6 Translation Theories

2.1.6.1 Newmark

According to Newmark (1988), Translation is a way to rendering the meaning of a text into another language in the way that the author intended the text.”

2.1.6.2 Catford


According to Catford (1974), Translation is the use of replacement of textual material in one language (SL) by equivalent textual material in another language (TL).

2.1.6.3 Larson

According to Larson (1984), Translation consists of studying the aspects lexicon, grammatical structure, communication

situation, and cultural context of the sl text, analysing it in order to determine its meaning, and then reconstructing this same meaning using the lexicon and grammatical structure which are appropriate in the receptor and its cultural context.

2.1.6.4 Molina and Albir



Molina and Albir (2002) defined Translation technique as the smallest linguistic changes occurring in the Translation of the sl (SL) to the tl (TL). There are 18 Translation techniques, they are Adaptation, Amplification, Borrowing, Calque, Compensation, Description, Discursive, Creation, Established Equivalence, Generalization, Linguistic Amplification, Linguistic Compression, Literal Translation, Modulation, Particularization, Reduction, Substitution, Transposition, and Variation.

The researcher used some variations of Translation technique in order to produce good quality of the Translation. To classify the types of Translation technique used in TED Talks Video entitled “*Bill Gates: The next outbreak? We’re not ready*”, the researcher used the theory of Translation technique by Molina and Albir (2002) because it has many various types of Translation technique.

2.1.7 Molina and Albir (2002:509-511) Theory

2.1.7.1 Adaption

This technique is used to replace a source text (SL), cultural or social elements with one from tl to replace a source text (SL), cultural or social elements with one from target text (TL). Type of Translation which involves of changes to be made so that the

target text produced be in harmony the sl.

Example:

SL: His leg felt like a stone.

TL: Tungkai kakinya seperti terpaku

2.1.7.2 Amplification

The antonym of amplification is reduction, the example of Translation by using application technique can be observed in the following, to introduce detail that is not formulated in the sl. It means to make the original information become explicit in the tl.

Example:

SL: There are many Indonesians at the ship

TL: Banyak warga negara Indonesia di kapal itu.

2.1.7.3 Borrowing

To take a word or expression straight from another language. Borrowing Translation technique can be pure borrowing or without any change and naturalized borrowing.

Example of pure borrowing:

SL: zig-zag

TL: zig-zag

Example of naturalized borrowing:

SL: music

TL: musik.

2.1.7.4 Calque

Calque is a literal of foreign word or phrase and it can be lexical or structural. The example can be seen below, in other words a word or phrase borrowed from another language by literal or word for word Translation.

Example:

SL: He is the new assistant manager

TL: Dia adalah asisten manajer yang baru

2.1.7.5 Compensation

To introduce a sl element of information or stylistic effect in another place in the tl because it cannot be reflected in the same place as in the sl.

Example:

SL: A burning desire to share The Secret with the world consumed me.

TL: Hasrat yang menyala-nyala untuk membagikan rahasia kepada dunia membakar diri saya.

2.1.7.6 Description

Translation technique is different with amplification which makes the implicit meaning on source text become explicit on target text. In others word description technique can be conclude to description technique can can be conclude to replace a term or expression with a term or expression with a

description of its form or and function.

Example:

SL: I like panetton.

TL: Saya suka panetton, kue tradisional Italia yang dimakan pada saat tahun baru.

2.1.7.7 Discursive Creation

To established a temporary equivalence that is totally unpredictable out of contextual in other words this technique is used to Translate the title.

Example:

SL: The Minangkabau response to The Dutch colonial rule in nineteenth century.

TL: Asal-usul Minangkabau modern: respons terhadap kolonial Belanda XIX/XX. (Havid Ardi,2010:400).

2.1.7.8 Established Equivalence.

This technique is recognized Translation/accepted standard Translation (Newmark) of formal Translation. In other side is

to use term or expression recognized (by dictions or language in use) as an equivalent in the tl.

Example:

SL: Sincerely yours

TL: Hormat kami.

2.1.7.9 Generalization

Generalization is called neutralization technique. Generalization is called neutralization technique. In other word generalization technique is in opposition to particularization.

Example; Becak in Indonesia is Translated to Vehicle in English.

2.1.7.10 Linguistic Amplification

Linguistic Amplification is a technique to add linguistic this is often used in consecutive interpreting and dubbing. In other side linguistic amplification is in opposition to linguistic compression.

Example:

SL: Everything is up to you!

TL: Semuanya terserah anda sendiri!

2.1.7.11 Linguistic Compression

To synthesize linguistic elements in the target text. This is often used in simultaneous interpreting and in sub-titling. This technique is in opposition to linguistic amplification.

Example:

SL: Are you Sleepy?

TL: Ngantuk?

2.1.7.12 Literal Translation

To Translate a word or an expression word for word. It does

not mean to Translate one word for another.

Example:

SL: The President gave the present to Michael last week.

TL: Presiden memberi hadiah itu pada Michael minggu lalu.

2.1.7.13 Modulation

To change the point of view, focus or cognitive category in relation to the sl. Modulation technique it can be lexical or structural.

Example:

SL: Nobody doesn't like it.

TL: Semua orang menyukainya.

2.1.7.14 Particularization

To use a more precise or concrete term. This technique is in opposition to generalization.

Example:

SL: She likes to collect jewellery.

TL: Dia senang mengoleksi kalung emas

2.1.7.15 Reduction

To suppress a source text information item in the target text. This technique is in the opposite with amplification. In other words, the Implication is occurred in this Translation since the meaning already exist in the target text.

Example:

SL: She got a car accident.

TL: Dia mengalami kecelakaan.

2.1.7.16 Substitution (Linguistic, Paralinguistic)

To change linguistic elements for paralinguistic elements (intonation, gesture) or vice versa.

For example; in Indonesia, thumb up means yes or agree.

2.1.7.17 Transposition

To change a grammatical category of verb in source text become category of noun in the target text, verb in source text become adverb and so on. In other words, this technique is same with the translation shift based on the theory of Catford. He classified Translation shift become structure shift, class and unit shift and inter-system shift.

Example:

SL: I have no control over this condition.

TL: Saya tidak dapat mengendalikan kondisi ini.

2.1.7.18 Variation

To Change linguistic or paralinguistic elements (Intonation, gestures) that affect aspects of linguistics variation: changes of textual tone, style, social dialect, geographical dialect. In other words, introduce or change dialectal indicators for characters when Translating for the theatre, changes in tone when adapting novels for children.

Example:

SL: Give it to me now!

TL: Berikan baranag itu ke gue sekarang!

2.2 Previous Studies

There are a few previous studies that discussing about applying Grammatical Cohesion, the first previous study that researcher found was made by Normah (2013). In her research study she analyze “Grammatical Cohesion In Stephenie Meyer’s Novel The Second Life Of Bree Tanner”, This research focuses on analyzing *reference cohesive* device only. Based on the analysis in the research, the researcher concludes in the novel “The Second Life of Bree Tanner by Stephenie Meyer” that there are two types of reference which is used in the novel. The reference which is used are personal reference and demonstrative reference. In the novel there are 93 datum which is consist of 88 personal reference and 34 demonstrative references. Also, it is found that the most reference used in the research is personal reference that refer to Bree and Diego as both of them are the main character in the novel. The similarity between this study and researcher’s is both this research discusses about

grammatical cohesion which is cohesive device. The difference between this study and researcher's is this study only focused on analysing reference cohesive device only while researcher's including whole cohesive device.

The second previous study is belonging to Aryani Medinatul Rofiq'ah (2019). In her research entitled "Grammatical Cohesion Analysis of Students' Essay Writing", she used student's essay writing as an object to identify. Types of grammatical cohesion used in the essays writing composed by fourth semester students of English Language Education Department UIN Walisongo in the academic year 2017/2018. In the 33 essays writing composed by students, there are 1.145 grammatical cohesion ties in their essay. Reference items are the most frequent types among all the types grammatical cohesion. there are 703 instances, or 61.35 % of the total occurrences, The next position is conjunction with 403 instances or 35.15%. Then, substitution is the next position types of grammatical cohesion used in essay writing with 27 instances or 2.35 %. The next position is ellipsis with 12 instances or 1.15 % It means that the student only focuses in reference and conjunction ties to write their essay. It can find in the result of the data. The similarity between this study and researcher's is both analysed grammatical cohesions. The difference between this study and researcher's is this study used student's essay writing as an object while researcher's used speech video.

The third previous study is entitled "An Analysis of Grammatical Cohesive Device of the Short Story the Little Match Girl" by Hans Christian Andersen 2018/2019. The objective of this study is to analyse the grammatical cohesive

device especially the reference of a short story written by a famous author; Hans Christian Andersen entitled *The Little Match Girl*. The type of the study used in this case is descriptive qualitative research. This study is done by analysing the short story by locating the references used in the story and then calculating the amount of the references and determining the type of references found in to two categories, Anaphoric and cataphoric references. Based on the analysis, it was found that the short story contains 87 (eighty-seven) references, in which 81 (eighty-one) references belong to the anaphoric category and 6 (six) references belong to cataphoric category. The similarity between this study and researcher's is both analysed grammatical cohesion; grammatical cohesive. The difference between this study and researcher's is this study used short story as an object while researcher's used speech video.

The fourth previous study is *The Analysis of Grammatical Cohesion Reference In Jack Ma Speech Text "Believe In Your Dreams"* by Diniati Andre Come Rihi, I Gede Neil Prajamukti Wardhana (2022). The objective of this study is to analyse the grammatical cohesion reference of Jack Ma speech text "Believe in your dreams". The study used descriptive qualitative method. This study aimed to figure out the types of reference in the speech text and to give an explanation of the reference used in the speech. The source of data in this study is Jack Ma speech text "Believe in your dreams". The technique of collection data in this study used documentary. The technique of analysis data in this study is related to the theory, concepts, and methods of cohesion theory. This study used *Cohesion in English* by Halliday and Hasan. The finding in

this study showed that there are two types of reference found in Jack Ma speech text "Believe in your dream". In this speech text there are 36 utterances consist of 30 personal references and 6 demonstrative references. From the finding it was concluded that the most dominant type is personal reference in the speech text "Believe in your dreams" by Jack Ma. The type of personal reference in this study is spoken by the speaker (Jack Ma) who refers to himself and also the listeners/readers. The similarity between this study and researcher's is both used the same object which is speech video. The difference between this study and researcher's is this study only focused on aspect reference while the researcher's focused on whole cohesive device.

2.3 Theoretical Framework

This chapter contains some theories which is used as the guidance of the analysis. The researcher intends to analyze the grammatical cohesion by Halliday and Hasan (1976: 28) grammatical cohesion refers to the linguistic structure. Based on Halliday and Hasan (1976: 274) the various types of grammatical cohesion are reference, substitution, and ellipsis, and conjunction. The first question will be answered by using Halliday and Hasan (1976) theory on grammatical cohesion. In addition, the researcher used Translation technique of Molina and Albir (2002) theory for answering the second question.

