2.1 Theoretical Framework

These related theories are the basic in collecting and analyzing any information related to cohesive devices in the article of News Week Magazine. These steps are important before discussing further about the research problem. In this part the writer would like to review the theories related to the topic of the study. These theories include the concept of cohesion, and cohesive devices. All of these theories are given explanation and examples which are able to support them.

2.1.1 Linguistic Text

The word TEXT is used in linguistics to refer to any passage, spoken or written, of whatever length, that does form a unified whole. A text may be spoken or written, prose or verse, dialogue or monologue. It may be anything from a single proverb to whole play, from a momentary cry for help to an all-day discussion on a committee. A text is unit of language in use (Halliday & Hasan, 1976:1). Moreover, Halliday and Hasan (1976: 2) explain that text is not sentence; it is grammatical unit that is larger than a sentence but is related to a sentence in the same way that a sentence is related to a clause. Cited from Halliday & Hasan, to take the view that the primary determinant of whether a set of sentences do or do not constitute text it depends on cohesive relationships within and between the sentences, which create texture; a Text has texture and this is what distinguishes it from something that is not a text (Brown & Yule,
1983: 191). If a passage of English containing more than one sentence is perceived as a text, there will be certain linguistic features present in the passage that can be identified as contributing to its total unity and giving it texture. Halliday and Hasan (1976: 2) give example in the following line:

“Wash and core six cooking apples. Put them into a fireproof dish.”

It is clear that *them* in the second sentence refers back to (is anaphoric to) the *six cooking apples* in the first sentence. This anaphoric function of them gives cohesion to the two sentences, so that it can be interpret them as a whole; the two sentences together constitute a text. The cohesive relation that exists between *them* and *six cooking apples* provides the texture. The meaning of cohesive relation between *them* and *six cooking apples* is that both of them refers to the same thing. The two items are identical in reference and coreference. Halliday and Hasan give classification of types of cohesion relationship which can be formally strung up within a text, it provides cohesive ‘ties’ which bind a text together.

### 2.1.2 Cohesion

The concept of cohesion is a semantic one; it refers to relation of meaning that exist within the text, and that define it as a text (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 4). Cohesion is related to the surface structure of the text. Cohesion occurs when the interpretation of some element in the discourse is dependent on that of another. The one presupposes the other, in the sense that it cannot be decompiled effectively except by alter something to it. When this happens, a relation of cohesion is set up, the presupposing and presupposed elements are by means of at
least potentially integrated into a text. In this case, Halliday and Hasan (1976: 4) put the example:

E.g. Time flies.
   - You can’t; they fly too quickly.

In the example above, the cohesion is expressed in no less than three ties; the elliptical form you can’t, the reference item they, and the lexical repetition fly. Cohesion is part of the system of a language. The potential for cohesion lies in the systematic resources of reference, ellipsis, and so on that are built into the language itself. The actualization of cohesion in any given instance, however, depends not merely on the selection of some option from within these resources, but also on the other presence of some other element which resolves the presupposition that this sets up. It is the same with semantic relation that cohesion is expressed through the stratal organization of language. Language can be explained as a multiple coding system containing three levels of coding, or ‘strata’: the semantic (meaning), the lexicogrammatical (forms) and the phonological and orthographic (expression). The scheme of cohesion can be described in the following line.

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Meaning       (the semantic system)
    Wording   (the lexicogrammatical system, grammar, and vocabulary)
      ‘Sounding    (the phonological and orthographic system)
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The term ‘wording’ refers to lexicogrammatical form, the choice of words and grammatical structures. Within this stratum, the guiding principle in language is
that the more general meanings are expressed through the grammar, and the more specific meanings through the vocabulary. Cohesion is expressed partly through the grammar and partly through the vocabulary. By knowing the explanation above, generally cohesion is divided into two, grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion.

### 2.1.3 Cohesive Devices

Cohesion is set of meaning relations that is general to all classes of text, that distinguishes text from ‘non-text’ and interrelates the substantive meanings of the text with each other. Cohesion does not concern with a text means; it concerns how the text is constructed as a semantic edifice (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 26). In order to know the relations of meaning to ‘all classes’ of text, there are two main types of cohesion. Those are grammatical and lexical, grammatical referring to the structural content and lexical referring to the language content of the piece. Cohesive devices are the devices that create relation. These devices function as the formal links between sentences and between clauses. In the other word, cohesive devices of the text or language are tools that is used to the relationship between one part of sentence to another sentences, and one of clause to another clauses in the text. For past and contemporary researchers alike, Cohesion in English (Halliday and Hasan, 1976) has provided an important framework for identifying and analyzing cohesive devices in spoken and written discourse. In their work, Halliday and Hasan specify five types of cohesion: reference, ellipsis, substitution, conjunction, and lexical cohesion. Each cohesive device type consists of several subtypes.
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2.1.3.1 Grammatical Cohesion

Grammatical cohesive devices consist of four categories. They are reference, elipsis, substitution and conjunction.

a. Reference

Halliday and Hasan, (1976: 31) state that reference is the specific nature of information, that is signalled for retrieval. The information that is retrieved called as referential meaning. It refers to a thing and the cohesion lies in the continuity of reference. Reference is classified into three types, they are:

1. Personal Reference

   This reference relates to function in the speech situation, through the category of person. It is expressed by using he, him, his, she, her, hers, etc.

2. Demonstrative Reference

   Demonstrative reference is essentially verbal of pointing and the speaker identifies the referent by locating it on scale of proximity. (1976: 57). It is expressed by using adverbial demonstrative here, there, now, and then refer to the location of the process in space or time. The nominal demonstratives this, these, that, those and the refer to the location of something, typically some-entity, person or object that is participating in the process.
3. Comparative Reference

Comparative reference is indirect reference by means of identity or similarity. Comparative reference keeps track of identity and similarity through indirect references using adjectives like same, equal, similar, different, else, better, more, etc. and adverbs like so, such, similarly, otherwise, so more. This Reference is divided into two:

- General comparison means comparison that is simply in the term of likeness and unlikeness. For example: The difference in the sentence or utterance they were two different colors means being different to each other.

- Particular comparison expresses compability between things in respect of particular property, particular property can be a matter of quantity or of quality. The terms of quantity are expressed in the numerative element of nominal group, those are a comparative quantifier, eg: more in more mistake and adverb of comparison submodifying a quantifier, eg: as in as many mistake. The terms of quality are expressed in either of two ways; first is in Epithet element in the nominal group either by comparative adjective, eg: easier, more difficult in easier tasks, more difficult task, or by an adverb of comparison submodifying an adjective, eg: so in so difficult task. And the second is adjunct in the clause; either by a comparative adverb,
eg: faster in Cambridge rowed faster, or by an adverb of comparison submodifying an adverb, eg: as in she as sweetly.

b. Substitution

Substitution is the replacements of obvious in the content with a ‘filler’ word such as one, so, or do to avoid repetition. It is a process within a text which another item is used instead of the original. Or it may function as a noun, as a verb, or as a clause. The distinction between reference and substitution happen in different level. While reference is a relation on the semantic level between meanings, substitution is a relation on the lexicogrammatical level (level of grammar and vocabulary). Substitution is classified into three types; nominal substitution, verbal substitution and clausal substitution. Nominal substitution is the most typical substitution that use words one and ones. In verbal substitution, the most common substitute is the verb do which is sometimes used in conjunction with so as in do so. Clausal substitution is type of substitution in which what is presupposed is not an element within the clause but an entire clause. This substitution use words so and not. The following lines are the examples in each types of substitution:

-Nominal Substitution: Let’s go and see the bears. The polar ones are over on that rock.

-Verbal Substitution: Did Mary take that letter? She might have done.

-Clausal Substitution: Everyone thinks he’s guilty. If so, no doubt he’ll resign.
c. **Ellipsis**

Ellipsis is the omission of elements normally required by the grammar which the speaker/writer assumes are obvious from the context and therefore need not be raised. Ellipsis is also called as ‘substitution zero’ because the process can be interpreted as that form of substitution in which an item is replaced by nothing. Ellipsis divided into three types, nominal ellipsis, verbal ellipsis and clausal ellipsis. Nominal ellipsis is the omission of noun, verbal ellipsis is the omission of verb and the clausal ellipsis is the omission of a clause. For example:

- **Nominal Ellipsis:** *Gill likes the green tiles, I prefer the blue (X).*

- **Verbal Ellipsis:**
  
  _A:_ Will anyone be *waiting*?
  
  _B:_ Jim will (X), I think.

- **Clausal Ellipsis:** *I don’t know how to work with this stuff; I’ll have to learn how (X).*

  (X)= The omission.

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**d. Conjunction**

Conjunction is based on the assumption that there are in the linguistic system forms of systematic relationship between sentences (Halliday and Hasan, 1976:320). Conjunction consists of linkers that connect sentences and clauses to each other. There are some possible ways in which the system allows for the parts of a text to be connected to one another in meaning. Conjunction is a device which connects between
linguistic elements in a text. It is concerned with resources for connecting messages, via addition, comparison, temporality, and causality. The aim of conjunction is to create a logically articulated discourse. The form of common conjunctions are *and, but, so* and *then.* Conjunction is categorized into four groups.

1. Additive Conjunction

Additive conjunction structurally coordinates or links on sentence to another sentence, one clause to another clauses by adding to the presupposed item and are signalled through *and, also, too, furthermore, moreover, in addition to,* etc. Its function is to add information. Additive conjunctions may also have function to be negative form of the additive relation hat are expressed item and signalled by *nor, and…not, not… either, and… not… either and neither, and… neither,* etc.

The example of positive form:

> Was she in a shop? *And* was that really—was it really a sheep that was sitting on the other side of the counter.

The example of negative form:

> I couldn’t send all the horses, you know, because two of them are wanted in the game. *And* I haven’t sent two Messengers *either.*

An example (1.1) above shows that conjunction *and* has function for linking a series of question. An example (1.2) shows that conjunction expands forms with *either* have an additional element of explicitness in them, a sense of ‘and what is more’ (1976: 246).
2. Adversative Conjunction

Adversative conjunction is a contrary to expectation. The expectation may come from the content of what is being said (1976: 250). It is signalled from the simple words such as yet, though, only, but, in fact, rather, however, in the other hand, etc.

Example: All the figures were correct, they’d been checked. Yet the total came out wrong.

An example above yet shows that it has function as the contrary result of what have been said in the previous sentence.

3. Causal Conjunction

Causal conjunction is signalled by using words such as because, so, thus, hence, therefore, then, for this reason, as a result, in the respect, for this purpose etc. It has function to show a specific ones of result, reason, and purpose (1976: 256).

Example: You aren’t leaving, are you? Because I’ve got something to say to you.

An example above because means that he has a reason ‘why she is asking to her’.

4. Temporal Conjunction

Temporal conjunction is relation between two successive sentences in relating to external terms as content and perhaps be simply on of sequence in time; the one is subsequent to the other (1976: 261). Some temporal conjunctions are signalled by using words such as then, next,
after that, next day, until then, at the same time, at this point, and subsequently, etc.

Example: ‘Ticket, please!’ said the Guard, putting his head in at the window. In a moment everybody was holding out a ticket.

The example above shows in a moment has the same meaning with then. Both of them shows the sequence in time.

2.1.3.2 Lexical Cohesion

According to Halliday Hasan (1976: 318) Lexical cohesion is ‘phoric’ cohesion that is established through the structure of the lexis, or vocabulary, and hence (like substitution) at the lexicogrammatical level. In other words lexical cohesion is an analysis through the selection of vocabulary and analysis of lexical relation.

The existence of lexical cohesion shows that the fact of discourse does not form at random topic to another but has systematic ties. Lexical cohesive devices classified into two types.

a. Reiteration

A form of lexical cohesion which involves the repetition of a lexical item, at one end of the scale; the use of general word to refer back to a lexical item, at the other end of the scale; and a number of things in between—the use of a synonym, near synonym, or superordinate (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 278). The following lines are the description of each category.
1. Repetition of the Same Word

It is the use of repeated words in a text. There are two kinds of repetition. Those are wholly repeated form and partially repeated form.

Example: (1.1) *The Prime Minister* recorded her thanks to the foreign secretary. *The Prime Minister* was most eloquent.

(1.2) *Prof. Dr. Robert Johnson* leads the meeting *Prof. Johnson* talks about global economic challenge in the future.

The example (1.1) shows the wholly repeated form and (1.2) shows the partially repeated form.

2. Synonym

It is the repetition of different words in the same meaning.

Example: Accordingly... I took *leaved* and turned to the ascent of the peak. *The climb* is perfectly easy.

3. Superordinate

It is the use of noun replacement to general class.

Example: *Elena has flower garden in her backyard, but she just likes one kinds of rose.*

Flower is Superordinate of Rose.

4. General Word

A general word corresponds to major classes of lexical items. In this case, that general word can be the using of interpersonal elements.

Example: *Osama Bin Laden* was dead, that *terrorist* was shot by U.S NAVY in Pakistan.

Terrorist is general word for Osama Bin Laden.
b. Collocation

Colocation is the part of lexical cohesive devices that refers to lexical items that are likely to be found together within the same text. It occurs when a pair of words are not necessarily dependent upon the same semantic relationship but rather they tend to occur within the same lexical environment. Halliday and Hasan (1976: 285) state that there is obviously a systematic relationship between a pair of words such as boy and girl; they are related by the particular type of oppositeness.

The statement above is adopted from ‘Lyons’ classification. The basis of the lexical relationship can be extended by means of features as a cohesive force and say where there is cohesion between any pair of lexical items that stand to each other in some recognizable lexicosemantic (word meaning) relation (1976: 285). This does not only includes synonym and near synonym, such as climb... ascent, bean... rafter, disease... illness and subordinates, such as elm... tree, boy... child... skip... play but also includes pairs of opposite various kinds, complementary such as in the following lines.

Examples:
- Opposites (man => woman, love => hate, tall => short).
- Pairs of words from the same ordered series (days of the week, months, etc.)
- Pairs of words from unordered lexical sets, such as metonyms: part-whole (body/arm, car/wheel), part-part (hand/finger, mouth/chin) or co-hyponyms (black/white, chair/table).
- Associations based on a history of co-occurrence (rain, pouring, torrential).

2.2 Review of Previous Studies

To enlarge our knowledge about linguistics, the writer reviews the previous study who conducted a research on the same topic about cohesive devices. The first study is “Grammatical and lexical Cohesive Devices Used in Advertorials Taken from Indonesian Newspapers.” This is made by Andreas Eko Prasetya with registration number 11497115, English Department of Petra Christian University. From the research, the writer learned that Eko’s study was focused on grammatical and lexical. He wanted to know the types of cohesive devices classification are mostly used in the Indonesian newspapers namely Surya, Jawa Pos and Kompas. He used descriptive approach to collect the data.

The next study conducted by Yudi Indriaswari (2004) with title “A study of Cohesive Devices Of Gado-Gado Text in Femina Magazine”. The researcher used the theory of cohesive by Haliday and Hasan (1976) and descriptive approach to collect the data. His sources of the data were taken from Indonesian magazine. In this research focuses on different types of cohesive devices that occur in the frequency of occurrence are used most to connect one sentence with another sentence.
Another study has been made by Cannie Wijaya (2001) entitled “A Study of Cohesion in the Essays of Students of Writing IV of the Faculty of Letter, Petra Christian University”. In analyzing her research, Cannie Wijaya had purpose to find out whether the students of writing IV class understand cohesion or not. The scope of her research was the cohesive ties occurring in the essay and she limited her study only to the use of cohesive devices in the writing essay.

Actually, the related studies above are similar to this study that is discussed about cohesive devices, but they had a different object. However, this study differs from those previous studies above. This study only concern in cohesive devices are used in study of text linguistics. The objective of this study is to find out what kinds of cohesive devices are used in the article of Newsweek magazine, and describing the function of cohesive devices in that article.