

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter aims to review theoretical concepts relating to this study. The review of literature is organized into two main parts. The first part is cohesion in English which is provided by Halliday and Hasan (1976). Another part of this chapter presents previous studies related to the main study.

Cohesion in English

Toolan (1998: 23) asserts that a text is a structure needing various devices to hold their parts together. Cohesion is the implicit connectors used for connecting words between and across sentences in the discourse. Millward (2003) defines cohesion as vehicles leading to coherence. Words, phrases and their location within the discourse will give assumptions as to the meanings of what has gone before and what may follow. Gutwinski (1976, cited in Clark, 1983: 37) expresses that features of cohesion do not themselves constitute cohesion, but they mark which clauses and sentences are related in what manner.

Above are definitions of cohesion, given by different linguists; however, the most extensive description of cohesion is the work of Halliday and Hasan (1976).

Halliday and Hasan (1976: 4) state that:

Cohesion occurs where 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 effectively decoded except by recourse to it. When this happens, a relation of cohesion is set up, and two elements, the presupposing and presupposed, are thereby at least potentially integrated into a text.

Halliday and Hasan (1976: 13) mention that there are two distinct types of cohesive relations: grammatical and lexical cohesion which can be further divided into five categories: reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction and lexical cohesion.

According to Peansiri Vongvipanon (n.d., cited in Nattha, 2001: 15), all five categories mentioned above are divided into two groups. The first group is the citation of given information (reference, substitution, ellipsis and lexical cohesion). All of them refer to other elements in the text. Another group is the connected unit (conjunction) which is used for connecting ideas within the text.

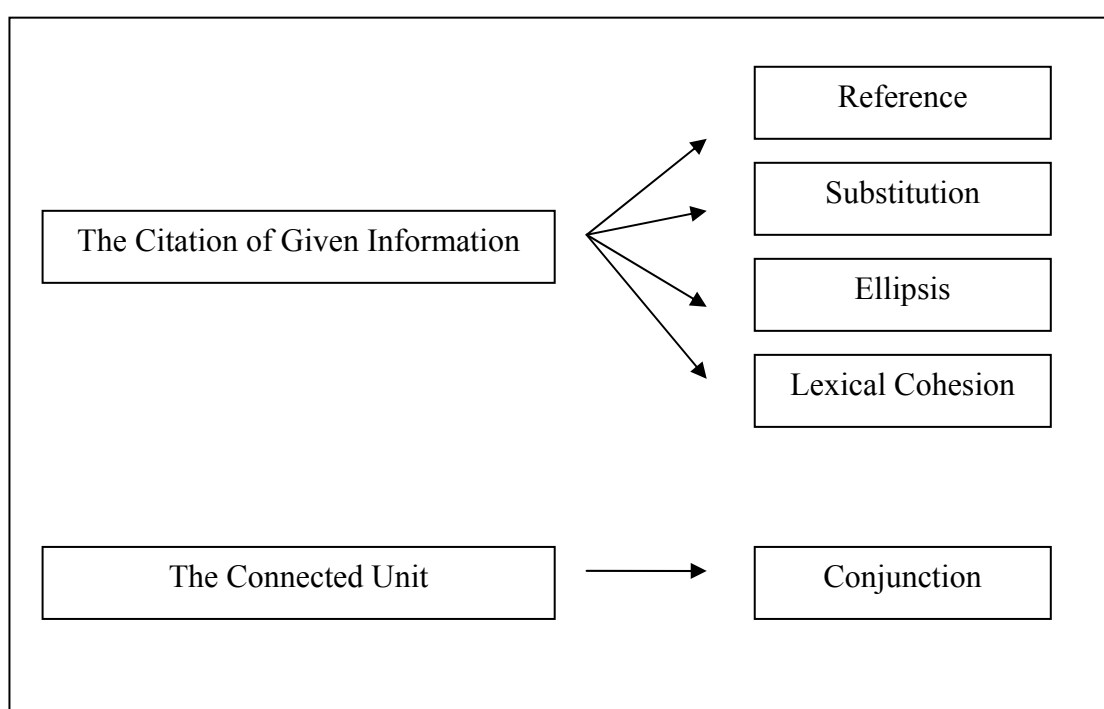


Figure 2.1 Two groups of cohesion

Source: Peansiri (n.d. cited in Nattha, 2001: 15)

According to Grimes (1975: 113), cohesion provides a relationship between what is being said at the moment to what has already been said. It is the way in which the new information is introduced, and it still keeps track of the old information, rather than what the content of the new or old information is. Within the citation of a given

information group, they refer to other items in the text which may come before or may follow. The relation forming a cohesive tie within the text is called endophoric relations. There are two kinds of endophoric relations: anaphora and cataphora (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 14, 17).

Anaphoric relation occurs if a word or phrase refers backward to thing already mentioned.

Ex. 1: *Look at **the sun**. It's going down quickly.*

- **It** (Subject: pronominal-singular, non-possessive) refers back to **the sun**.

(Brown and Yule, 1983: 193)

On the contrary, if a word or phrase refers forward; then, it provides cataphoric relation.

Ex. 2: *It's going down quickly, **the sun**.*

- **It** (Subject: pronominal-singular, non-possessive) refers forwards to **the sun**.

(Brown and Yule, 1983: 193)

Another group, as suggested by Peansiri (n.d. cited in Nattha, 2001: 15), is the connected unit or conjunction. This item does not depend on endophoric relation. McCarthy (1991: 46) mentions that “a conjunction does not set off a search backward or forward for its referent, but it does presuppose a textual sequence, and signals a relationship between segments of the discourse.”

In the following part, all categories of cohesion, classified by Halliday and Hasan (1976: 31-273), will be illustrated in depth.

Reference

The information which is to be retrieved is referential meaning, the identity of the particular thing or class of things that is being referred to. Three types of reference are as follows:

Personal Reference

Personal reference is used for relating other elements in the text. Halliday and Hasan (1976: 309) mention that “where the interpretation involves identifying, the reference item functions as a deictic and is always specific”. Deictic refers to as “a term for a word or phrase which directly relates an utterance to a time, place, or person(s)” (Richards and Schmidt, 2002: 147). The category of personal reference includes all specific deictics personal pronouns, possessive pronouns and possessive determiners (possessive adjectives).

Ex. 3: *John has moved to a new **house**. He had it built last year.*

- He (Subject: pronominal-singular, non-possessive) refers to **John**.

It (Object: pronominal-singular, non-possessive) refers to **house**.

(Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 55)

Demonstrative Reference

The system of this type is similar to that of personal one, but it is used for identifying the referent by locating it on a scale of proximity. Adverbial demonstratives (i.e. *here*, *there*, *now* and *then*) refer to the location of a process in space or time; whereas nominal demonstratives (i.e. *this*, *these*, *that* and *those*) and definite article *the* refer to location of something.

Ex. 4: *She found herself in **a long, low hall** which was lit up by a row of lamps hanging from the roof. There were doors all round the hall, but they were all locked.*

- **The** (definite article, nominal, deictic) refers to ***a long, low hall***.

(Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 72)

Comparative Reference

Comparative reference is an indirect reference by means of identity or similarity. The system of comparative reference differs from the first two types of reference as it is not based on identity of reference. The interpretation of this type of reference depends on the comparison of two items which usually involves identity, similarity and difference as well as numerical and qualitative comparisons.

Ex. 5: *It's the same cat as **the one we saw yesterday**.*

- **The same** (comparative-identity) presupposes ***the one we saw yesterday***.

(Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 78)

Substitution

Substitution is the replacement of one item by another. The structure of substituted item is the same as the item being substituted because it replaces the same kind of linguistic element.

Nominal Substitution

It is the substitution of a noun or noun group. The words used as substitutions of a noun or noun group are *one/ones* and *the same*. *One* and *ones* presuppose nouns

which function as head in the nominal group; while *the same* can substitute the whole nominal group including modifying elements.

Ex. 6: *John bought the round **glasses**. The oval ones hurt his nose.*

- **Ones** (nominal substitute-noun head) substitutes for the noun ***glasses***.

(Clark, 1983: 4)

Verbal Substitution

It is the substitution of a verbal group. The term *do* operates as head of a verbal group in the place that is occupied by lexical verbs. The substitution form in the verbal group includes *do*, *does*, *did*, *doing* and *done*.

Ex. 7: *Eastern people **take it seriously**, at least some of them do.*

- **Do** (verbal substitute-verb) substitutes for the verbal group ***take it seriously***.

(Rochester and Martin, 1979 cited in Clark, 1983: 5)

Clausal Substitution

It is the substitution in which the entire clause is substituted by the words *so* or *not*. *So* is a positive form of clausal substitution; while a negative form of clausal substitution is *not*.

Ex. 8: *Is there going to be an earthquake?* - *It says so.*

- So (clausal substitute-positive, reported) substitutes for the clause *there's going to be an earthquake*.

(Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 130)

Ellipsis

An elliptical element leaves specific structural element to be filled from elsewhere. It is interpreted the same way as substitution, but an elliptical element is replaced by nothing. Thus, ellipsis can be regarded as substitution by zero. McCarthy (1991: 43) states that writers use this element when they assume that it is obvious enough within the specific context.

Nominal Ellipsis

It is the omission of a noun in which the noun modifier is upgraded to the status of common noun. Nominal ellipsis also involves with numerative and deictics. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976: 147), nominal ellipsis can be divided into three main types: deictic as head, numerative as head and epithet as head.

1. Deictic as Head

Deictic as head can be divided into three sub types. They are specific, non-specific and post-deictics. As for the first one, specific deictic, it includes the use of possessives (e.g. his, hers, theirs) and demonstratives (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 155). The second type of deictic is non-specific deictic as head. Non-specific deictic (e.g. all, any, some) functions as head of the nominal group. As for the last type of deictic, post-deictic is adjective (e.g. usual, certain, well-known) also functions as head of the nominal group.

Ex. 9: *These **apples** are delicious. Let's buy some ϕ .*

- Some ϕ (nominal ellipsis-non-specific deictic) presupposes the noun *apples*.

(Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 159)

2. Numerative as Head

The numerative element in a nominal group is expressed by numerals or quantifying words which are ordinals (i.e. first, next, last), cardinals (i.e. three, the three) and indefinite quantifiers (i.e. many, most, a little) (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 161-162).

Ex. 10: *Those **cookies** were very good. I think I'll eat two more ϕ .*

- More ϕ (nominal ellipsis-numerative, indefinite quantifier) presupposes the noun *cookies*.

(Clark, 1983: 4)

3. Epithet as Head

The function of epithet is typically fulfilled by an adjective. Generally, adjectives are not commonly found as the head in ellipsis except the comparative and, especially superlative forms (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 163).

Ex. 11: *That **clown** is the finest ϕ I've ever seen.*

- The finest ϕ (nominal ellipsis-epithet, superlative) presupposes the noun *clown*.

(Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 164)

Verbal Ellipsis

The omission within a verbal group is verbal ellipsis. There are two types of verbal ellipsis.

1. Lexical Ellipsis

Lexical ellipsis will occur if the main verb is missing from the verbal group.

Ex. 12: *Is he **complaining**? – He may be ϕ ; I don't care.*

- He may be ϕ (verbal ellipsis-lexical ellipsis) presupposes the lexical verb *complaining*.

(Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 171)

2. Operator Ellipsis

Operator ellipsis involves the omission of operator or the modal element. In this case, the main verb still remains in the verbal group.

Ex. 13: *Has she been crying?* – No, ϕ *laughing*.

- ϕ laughing (verbal ellipsis - operator ellipsis) presupposes the operator *she has been*.

(Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 175)

Clausal Ellipsis

It is a process in which part of the clause in the presupposed item is omitted. It can be occurred with direct responses (e.g. yes/no and wh-questions), indirect responses, indirect question (e.g. yes/no questions) and/or indirect statement. However, it normally occurs with question-answer process.

Ex. 14: *Who killed Cock Robin?* – The sparrow ϕ .

- The Sparrow ϕ (clausal ellipsis-direct response, wh-question) presupposes *Killed Cock Robin*.

(Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 210)

Conjunction

The nature of conjunction differs from the other types of cohesion since it is the device establishing cohesive effect by its meaning, it does not provide referential relation. It is used for showing a certain meaning which presupposes the presence of other components in the discourse. Moreover, it explicitly maintains relationship between sentences through meaning. There are five types of conjunction.

Additive Conjunction

Additive conjunction presents additional information beyond the preceding sentence.

Ex. 15: *She's intelligent. And she's very reliable.*

- **And** (additive-simple, additive) shows that there is more information adding from the prior sentence.

(McCarthy, 1991: 48)

Adversative Conjunction

By using this type, the meaning of the following sentence contrasts to the meaning of the prior one.

Ex. 16: *They looked after him well. Yet he got no better.*

- **Yet** (adversative-adversative, simple) describes contrastive condition between the previous and following sentence.

(Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 321)

Causal Conjunction

This type of conjunction demonstrates cause and effect relations.

Ex. 17: *He was insensitive to the group's needs. **Consequently** there was a lot of bad feeling.*

- **Consequently** (causal-general, emphatic) provides the cause-consequence relation.

(McCarthy, 1991: 47)

Temporal Conjunction

Temporal conjunction is employed if the events in the discourse are linked in terms of time of occurrence.

Ex. 18: *He stayed there for three years. **Then** he went on to New Zealand.*

- **Then** (temporal-simple, sequential) gives a clue that the time of occurrence of the second sentence happens after that of the first one.

(Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 321)

Continuative Conjunction

Continuative conjunction is a word or phrase used for expressing continuity from one sentence to another.

Ex. 19: *What kind of a degree? – Well, in one of the professions.*

- **Well** (continuative) shows continuative relation between the prior and following sentences.

(Rochester and Martin, 1979, cited in Clark, 1983: 5)

(For more information on English grammatical cohesive items: reference, substitution, ellipsis and conjunction, and their functions, see Appendix A)

Lexical Cohesion

Lexical cohesion is the use of lexis or vocabulary that is semantically related in meaning to another lexis or vocabulary in an earlier part of the text. Lexical cohesion provides cohesive effect achieved by the selection of vocabulary.

As for this type of cohesion, the researcher applied a new categorization of lexical cohesion proposed by Hasan (1984, cited in Hoey, 1991). The new categorization, including repetition, synonymy, antonymy, hyponymy and meronymy, was systematized for the purpose of compensating the loss of clarity of her former study on lexical cohesion in 1976. In the following section, this new categorization of lexical cohesion or reiteration is described respectively.

Repetition

The use of the same word in a discourse is known as repetition.

Ex. 20: *A **conference** will be held on national environmental policy. At this conference the issue of salination will play an important role.*

- **Conference**: (lexical cohesion-repetition, complete repetition)

(Renkema, 1993 cited in Niska, 1999)

Synonymy

Two or more words having the same or similar meaning as another are called synonym.

Ex. 21: *The meeting **commenced** at six thirty. But from the moment it began, it was clear that all was not well.*

- The meaning of **Commence** and **began** are similar.

(McCarthy, 1991: 65)

Antonymy

Antonymy is a relation between lexical items which are established through the meanings of oppositeness (Talib, 2005).

Ex. 22: *Bill **created** a new life for himself, and he **destroyed** all reminders of his old one.*

- ***Created*** and **destroyed** are opposite in meanings.

(Clark, 1983: 84)

Hyponymy

Hyponymy is a relationship between words. The meaning of one word includes the meaning of another (Richards and Schmidt, 2002: 243). Normally, the heading, the title or the group are superordinate where hyponym is the type of superordinate.

Ex. 23: *We were in town today shopping for **furniture**. We saw a lovely **table**.*

- **Table** is hyponymy of the superordinate ***furniture***.

(Renkema, 1993 cited in Niska, 1999)

Meronymy

Meronymy is a relation between a concept and its parts (Talib, 2005). Two words have a relation of meronymy if A is a *part* of B; A is a *substance/stuff* of B and/or A is a *member* of B (Nodeworks encyclopedia, 2006).

Ex. 24: *It was **a canary**. **The beak** was injured.*

- **The beak** is a part of ***a canary***.

(Miller, 1993)

Previous Studies

The Studies of Thai Grammatical Structure Concerning Thai Cohesion

Many linguists and researchers have studied cohesion used in Thai texts. Their findings can be shed light on the systems of cohesion in their own language. In the following paragraphs, their researches and findings will be summarized.

Navavan Bandhumedha's (1982) Study: Thai Grammar

Navavan (1982: 215-228) suggests that there are five types of features creating relationship between sentences.

1. Reiteration

Reiteration is the meaning of one word which is the same, similar, different and/or includes the meaning of another.

Ex. 25: ฉัน ร้อน ยายจี๊ด หนาว

‘I feel hot. Jeed feels cold.’

- The meanings of ร้อน (ró:n : hot) and หนาว (nǎ:w : cold) are opposite.

(Navavan, 1982: 216)

Ex. 26: เขาคงต้อง ถูกประหารชีวิต แน่ ๆ ไม่ ถูกยิงเป้า ก็ นั่งเก้าอี้ไฟฟ้า

‘He must be executed by shooting or sitting on the electric chair.’

- ถูกยิงเป้า (thù:k jing pâw : will be executed by shooting) and นั่งเก้าอี้ไฟฟ้า (nâng kê:w íi: faj fá: : sit on the electric chair) have the meanings under ถูกประหารชีวิต (thù:k prà? hă:n chi: wít : will be executed).

(Navavan, 1982: 216)

2. Repetition

The repetition of a noun phrase and/or a verb always establishes relationship between sentences.

Ex. 27: ปีนี้ผมยังไม่มีเงินซื้อ หนังสือเรียน ให้ลูกเลย หนังสือเรียน แต่ละเล่มราคาแพงเหลือเกิน

‘I don’t have any money to buy my child a textbook. Each textbook is very expensive.’

- หนังสือเรียน (năng sǔ: rian : textbook) is repeated.

(Navavan, 1982: 216)

3. Omission

A noun or verb in a sentence is omitted because the fuller form is already contained in another sentence.

Ex. 28: นิดเคยไปเชียงใหม่ส่วนน้อยไม่เคย Φ

‘Nid have been to Chiang Mai. Noi has never been there.’

- ไปเชียงใหม่ (paj chiaṅ mǎj : go to Chiang Mai) is omitted after the auxiliary verb ไม่เคย (mâj khəj : never).

(Navavan, 1982: 216)

4. Substitution

It is the replacement of one word for another. The words used as substitutive elements, according to Navavan (1982: 217), are pronouns, demonstrative and distributive pronouns.

Ex. 29: เธอเอาเงินไปเถอะ นี้ ไม่ใช่ฉันดูถูกนะ

‘You should take this money. This is not the way I look down on you.’

- นี้ (nî : this) substitutes for เธอเอาเงินไปเถอะ (thə : ʔaw ɲən paj thə : You take this money.)

(Navavan, 1982: 217)

5. Conjunction

Conjunction shows how one sentence relates to another. Conjunction in Thai includes temporal relations, cause-effect relations, concessive relations, contrastive relations, additive relations and alternative relations.

Wipah's (1986) Study: Cohesion in Thai

Wipah studied *Cohesion in Thai*. The purpose of her study was to find out cohesion system in Thai, i.e. to describe how clauses are connected, what devices are used, and how these devices make different parts of a text hang together. The corpus data was in written and spoken forms. The spoken data corpus came from three sources: a conversation, a panel and a speech. The written data corpus comprised a variety of texts including an article, editorials, a letter, a narrative, a newsletter, a report and a travelogue, a report and narrative texts. In carrying out the research, she adopted Halliday and Hasan's (1976) model on cohesion in English as the hypothesis.

She found that reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction, repetition and lexical cohesion are cohesive devices in Thai. The frequencies of occurrence from the lowest to the highest are substitution, ellipsis, lexical cohesion, conjunction, repetition and reference respectively. The findings of her study can be summarized as follows.

1. Reference: Pronominal, demonstrative and comparative references were found as reference in Thai. Pronominal and demonstrative references form a tie by a coreferential ties within the text; while, comparative reference establishes link by comparing two elements. In terms of pronominal references, no matter it is personal pronouns, pronominally used nouns, zero pronouns or possessive pronouns, they all create cohesion in the text the same way. It is due to the fact that they are used for referring back to another linguistic form and creating a coreferential ties through the whole text; whereas demonstrative and comparative references form a ties which connect between two different parts of the text.

2. Substitution: Only one instance of substitution was found in her study. She claims that substitution plays a minor role in establishing cohesion in the text when comparing with other types of cohesion. She assumes that in Thai, instead of substituting other items, verb phrases, noun phrases and clauses tend to be either repeated or deleted.

3. Ellipsis: there are three types of ellipsis in Thai: nominal, verbal and clausal ellipses. The findings showed that nominal ellipsis in Thai can be divided into five types, adjective as head, noun phrase modifier as head, clausal modifier as head, numerative as head and determiner as head. In terms of verbal ellipsis, it includes the use of nuclear ellipsis (the omission of the main verb), auxiliary ellipsis (the omission of auxiliary verb) and total ellipsis (the omission of the whole verbal elements). She further found that there is no difference between these types of verbal ellipsis as they all supply the information targeted by the question and rest is left out. In this case, the message receivers have to recourse to the question for the interpretation. As for the last type, clausal ellipsis occurs in three types of dialogue pairs: question and response, statement and question, and statement and statement.

4. Repetition: Repetition in Thai includes the repetition of word, phrase, clause, structure (e.g. parallel structure) and meaning repetition (e.g. paraphrase). She claims that repetition in Thai is motivated by five factors: to avoid confusion, the lack of certain substitutes, to ease the production and comprehension process, to assert or reaffirm and to show interest and involvement in a conversation.

5. Lexical Cohesion: Lexical cohesion can be categorized into six types: synonymy, use of general terms, hyponymy, meronymy, antonymy and collocation. The use of vocabulary can create cohesion in the text through coreferentiality, identity of sense, general-specific relation, part-whole relation, co-extension and exclusion. The use of these relations adds cohesive quality to the text as they make parts of the text related and unified.

6. Conjunction: She found sixteen types of conjunctions: additive, enumerative, alternative, comparative, contrastive, concessive, exemplificatory, reformulatory, causal, purposive, resultative, conditional, inferential, temporal, transitional, and continuative relations. These elements establish links and specify the semantic relation that holds between clauses, sentences or paragraphs.

As mentioned in Chapter I, the study of cohesion in Thai suggested by Wipah (1986) is used for examining Thai data gained in this study; therefore, her categories of Thai cohesion including types and their cohesive elements will be shown in Appendix B.

Nitsuda Aphinanthaporn's (1991) Study: Cohesion in the Crimes News in Thairath Newspapers

The study named *Cohesion in the Crimes News in Thairath Newspapers* was done by Nitsuda. The purpose of her study was to study noun phrase and conjunction in the crimes news in *Thairath* newspapers. Her samples were collected from the news articles published in *Thairath* newspaper. She studied noun phrase and conjunction utilized as cohesion in headline, the lead and the body. After collecting data, the researcher analyzed it by calculating a percentage. This process was done by counting cohesive elements and then finding the total of their occurrence. After that, she calculated them as a percentage.

Her outcome was as follows: there are six types of noun phrase appearing in the news articles. They are proper name, noun, pronoun, kinship term, nickname and the status of the person. Moreover, the use of noun phrase in each part of the news articles is different. In headline, there are nominal ellipsis, lexical cohesion, and substitution. In the lead, there are nominal ellipsis, repetition, substitution and hyponym. In the last part of the news articles, the body, there are nominal ellipsis, repetition, substitution and personal reference.

From the frequencies of occurrence, the most common type is nominal ellipsis, followed by structure repetition, substitution, lexical cohesion, meaning repetition, noun phrase as reference, and pronoun, respectively.

In terms of conjunction, though, there is no conjunction used in headline, it still indicates the connection to the following text. As for the whole article, conjunction

may appear at the beginning or in the middle of the sentence. There are various types of conjunction found in the crimes news articles. Purpose, conclusion or consequence, cause and effect, sequence and condition are some examples of conjunction employed in *Thairath* newspaper.

Somsonge Burusphat's (1994) Study: Discourse Analysis

According to Somsonge's (1994: 118-137) theory, cohesion can be divided into seven types.

1. Cohesion through Discourse Structure

Cohesion through discourse structure occurs when each part of the discourse is constructed by having one theme.

2. Theme Cohesion

When a main theme organized with another sentence, there is cohesive effect because the interpretation depends on the previous sentence.

3. Cohesion through Reference

Reference occurs when a linguistic item is unable to be interpreted, but it has to refer to another element elsewhere. Moreover, it has to refer to the same reference. Reference can be categorized into three types.

1) Personal reference includes pronouns, pronominally used nouns (e.g. kinship term, proper noun, social status, occupation term) and zero pronouns.

2) Demonstrative reference is the use of demonstrative element for referring to another item.

3) Comparative reference is used for comparing one item with another. Comparative reference may be general comparison (identity, similarity, difference) or particular comparison (quantity and quality).

4. Cohesion through Substitution and Ellipsis

Substitution is the replacement of one word for another in order to avoid repetition. The interpretation of substitution depends on the previous item. As for ellipsis, it is a substitution by zero. When there is an elliptical element, the information still appears in the text, and it has to be retrieved from the prior statement.

5. Cohesion by Conjunction-Linkage

This type of cohesion in Thai consists of three types. Three types of conjunction-linkage include:

1) Explicit linkage is the use of explicit grammatical form which includes conjunctive morphemes (e.g. but, if, after that), parallelism (some parts of the structure is repeated) and paraphrase-restatement.

2) Implicit linkage has no linguistic item, but receivers know that there is a connection between sentences. This type includes the use of logical relationship (conditional, contrastive, cause-effect relation); and temporal relationship (the connection of event or action).

3) Grouping is the type of conjunction in which sentences having the same content will be organized in the same paragraph.

6. Cohesion through Lexical Items-Vocabulary

The connection creates through the use of exact repetition, synonymy or near- synonym or words within the same field.

7. Pragmatic Cohesion

The interpretation of pragmatic does not rely on the context, but it relies on the background knowledge of the message senders and receivers because it relates to external text situation.

To put it briefly, the researcher thinks that she can make use of cohesion through reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction (explicit linkage) and lexical item stated above directly for the analysis of this main study.

Suphaporn Ngampradit's (1997) Study: Cohesion in Television News Reporting: Scripted vs. Non-scripted News

In *Cohesion in Television News Reporting: Scripted vs. Non-scripted News*, Suphaporn compared the similarities and differences on cohesion in television news reporting. The researcher compared cohesion used between scripted and non-scripted news reporting from Thai television broadcasting channels 3, 5, 7 and 9. She then showed the statistic of each type of cohesion. Four types of cohesion found in both scripted and non-scripted news are as follows:

1. Personal reference was found in scripted news more than in non-scripted news. Furthermore, the word showing the status of the person is used more frequent than in non-scripted news.

2. Substitution and ellipsis showing relatedness of form are applied. The sentence of scripted news is longer than that of non-scripted news because there is less omission in scripted news. Ellipsis is used the most in channel 7 while channel 5 uses omission the least. Moreover, substitution is employed much more in scripted news.

3. Repetition and antonym appear in both scripted and non-scripted news. The repetition found is the repetition of a noun and verb.

4. Conjunction is classified into six groups: additive, alternative, contrastive, causal, conditional, and temporal relations. Additive conjunction is used the most in scripted news while the most occurred conjunction in non-scripted news is temporal conjunction.

Regarding Suphaporn's findings, it can be concluded that the same type of cohesion can be used differently in the same language if it is employed in different types of discourse.

Atcharakorn Kalayachitkoson's (2000) Study: Cohesion in Sunthornphu's Verse of Journey

Atcharakorn analyzed cohesion in the verses written by Sunthornphu. The analysis was based on the works of Halliday and Hasan (1976), de Beaugrande and Dressler (1981) and Wipah (1986). The data, gained from her study, was calculated in order to find the percentage.

She found many interesting results which are elaborated below:

1. The predominant types of cohesion that Sunthornphu used are repetition (sound repetition), the omission of subject and lexical cohesion (synonymy). The researcher states that these types of cohesion do not only make the verses beautiful, but they also give a variety of words making readers understand more about the verses.

2. Three types of reference were found; personal, demonstrative and comparative references. Personal reference is the use of personal pronoun. The third personal pronoun appears the most, followed by the first personal pronoun, with the second pronoun appearing the least. Another type of personal reference is pronominally used noun. This type of reference includes kinship terms, personal name and title term in order. Demonstrative reference is the reference of the previous item by using demonstrative pronouns and adjectives. Comparative reference is the

comparison in terms of likeness, unlikeness and quantity. Sunthornphu used comparative reference to show likeness the most. Atcharakorn assumes that comparative reference showing likeness helps readers to have a clear picture of what the writer is talking about.

3. Sound and word repetitions were found. Sound repetition is the repetition of a consonant and vowel sound. In case of word repetition, a word is repeated in order to indicate a plural noun, emphasize meaning, separate parts, provide onomatopoeia, give the information through suggestion and give the meaning by comparing. Repetition used for emphasizing meaning appears the most. According to Atcharakorn, in the parts that Sunthornphu wanted to emphasize in order to make the verses clearer, he used emphasizing meaning.

4. Two positions of ellipsis were found in the verses, in the subject and object positions. The majority of nominal ellipsis is located in the subject position. Sunthornphu used verbs as the main words to carry the verses. Atcharakorn claims that subject is omitted because the main subject of verb in the verses is Sunthornphu which is already known by readers; therefore, the subject does not have to be mentioned.

5. There are seven types of conjunctions utilized in the verses which include concessive, dilate information, causal, resultative, sequential, conditional and additive relations.

6. Synonymy, hyponymy and antonymy are three types of lexical cohesion used in the verses. When creating the verses, Sunthornphu used lexical cohesion for narrating the nature the most, while the least appeared type is terms referring to people. In case of words within the same lexical field, the most occurrence is names of the trees, whilst, names of the animals appear the least. As for antonymy, antonym showing relations was found the most, whereas the least used type is antonym showing direction.

Supadtra Kohkaew's (2003) Study: Cohesion in Thai Economic Articles from the Thai Newspaper 'Phujatkan'

Supadtra also conducted an analysis on cohesion in Thai. The objective of her study was to explore cohesion in Thai economic articles. Twenty-eight economic articles taken from the column *Setthasart-Noktamra* published in *Phujatkan* newspaper were chosen for her study. The works of Halliday and Hasan (1976) and de Beaugrande and Dressler (1981) were adapted for her study.

Supadtra found that apart from personal, demonstrative and comparative references, noun or noun phrase together with number is also reference called numerative reference. Nominal and discoursal are used as substitution. In case of ellipsis, there are phrasal (e.g. nominal, verbal, prepositional and conjunctive ellipses), sentential and discoursal ellipses functioning as zero substitution. Repetition found from her study is complete and partial repetitions. In terms of lexical cohesion, Supadtra divided it into five types: synonym, antonym, superordinate, general word and collocation. Lastly, the results also showed that twenty-one types of conjunctive relations can be situated in five positions: 1) at the beginning of the sentence, 2) in the middle of the sentence, 3) at the beginning of two sentences, 4) at the end of the sentence, and 5) two or more breaking parts of a conjunctive element occur within the same sentence.

Sunee Leelapornphinit's (2004) Study: Cohesion in the SamKok of Chaophraya Phrakhleng (Hon)

Cohesion in the SamKok of Chaophraya Phrakhleng (Hon) by Sunee, is the analysis of reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction and repetition. Her data was collected from the novel named *SamKok* written by Chaophraya Phrakhleng (Hon).

According to her study, there are all five categories of cohesion used in the novel named *SamKok*: reference (pronoun, pronominally used noun, noun with

modifier and demonstrative), substitution (verbal and sentential or discoursal substitutions), ellipsis (nominal and sentential or discoursal ellipses), repetition (nominal, verbal, sentential or discoursal repetitions and parallel structure) and conjunction. At the macro level, three types of conjunction were found: transitional, sequential and temporal with sequential. At the micro level, there are twenty types of conjunction (transitional, sequential, temporal, prepositional, informative, additive, adjunctive, reformulatory, enumerative, comparative, contrastive, conditional or conjectural, causal, resultative, procedural, possessive, co-participant, purposive, alternative and continuative). The results of five types of cohesion give rise to effects of language expression and the literary comprehension. Firstly, cohesion is important factors causing three aspects of language expression that represent 1) precise expression 2) significant meaning 3) unity and coherence. Secondly, cohesion makes readers comprehend much more of the literature.

The studies of Thai grammatical structure concerning Thai cohesion (pp. 24-36) present cohesion in Thai employed in different text types. These studies revealed many interesting aspects of cohesion in Thai text. Consequently, they can be used perfectly as a guideline for this current study. In the following pages, the similarities and differences of Thai cohesion obtained from these studies will be summarized in Table 2.1.

The Comparative Studies of English and Other Languages Relating to Cohesion

Jutamad's (1998) Study: An Analysis of Cohesion in English and Thai Short Stories: A Comparative Study

Jutamad, in her study entitled *An Analysis of Cohesion in English and Thai Short Stories: A Comparative Study*, attempted to explore the similarities and differences in terms of cohesion in English and Thai short stories. The data was analyzed under the frequency count method in two aspects: the frequency count of each type of cohesive devices and the frequency count of distance numbers occurring in each kind of cohesion.

The results revealed that both English and Thai writers prefer to use reference, while substitution is the least preferred device among the five kinds of cohesion. The use of cohesion in Thai is more varied than that of English. Her comparative study explains the similarities and differences in the use of cohesion in English and Thai. According to the comparative study, she found that the differences in the use of some cohesive items result from the differences in certain grammatical features between English and Thai. For example, *the* can create demonstrative reference in English; while only demonstrative adjective creates demonstrative reference in Thai; or noun can be omitted at the subject position in Thai, but this structure cannot occur in English.

She argued that each language has its own natural characteristics in the use of cohesion. The differences in some grammatical features between English and Thai could lead differences to the use of cohesion. She concluded that it is important to be aware of different linguistic forms which may lead to the differences in unification of text. The ignorance of these differences may cause problems in linguistic performance such as misinterpretation or loss of natural characteristics in translation.

Mohamed and Omer's (2000) Study: Texture and Culture: Cohesion as a Marker of Rhetorical Organization in Arabic and English Narrative Text

In *Texture and Culture: Cohesion as a Marker of Rhetorical Organization in Arabic and English Narrative text*, Mohamed and Omer investigated the influence of culture on texture by comparing written English and Arabic texts in terms of cohesive devices. Twelve narrative texts written in two languages were compared. Two types of text equivalents: translationally-equivalent parallel texts and contextually-equivalent were compared. The model of cohesion using for analysing data was largely based on Halliday and Hasan's (1976) categories.

After analysing, the results showed that English and Arabic writers used different cohesive patterns. The main factor causing the differences in terms of cohesion between English and Arabic is cultural differences. Arabic cohesion is context-based, generalized, repetition-oriented and additive. On the contrary, English cohesion is described as text-based, specified, change-oriented and non-additive. To put it simply, Arabic readers have to use contextual intermediaries to identify the intended referent of the pronoun, while English readers do not need to go beyond the cohesive item itself (a pronoun or repeated noun) to identify the referent. Arabic cohesion is generalized because the anaphoric item *The + N* is used to refer to a token of a particular type; English cohesion is specified since an anaphoric item is used for relating to its antecedent in a more specific manner. Moreover, Arabic cohesion is repetition-oriented as they are the reiteration of the same word. On the other hand, English cohesion is change-oriented because reference, substitution, ellipsis and synonym are used to replace the reiteration of the same word. Finally, Arabic cohesion is additive because it is used predominantly in Arabic, while English cohesion is mainly non-additive which includes adversative, temporal and causative.

Though the abovementioned study does not directly play a crucial part in the main study, this study can give a better understanding to the researcher in terms of cohesion used in English. Moreover, its findings confirm the previous studies as it showed that different languages use cohesion differently.

The Studies of Cohesion between English and Its Translation into Another Language

Khampee's (2002) Study: Cohesion Shifts in Translation: A Comparative Study between Thai and English

The objective of Khampee's study, *Cohesion Shifts in Translation: A Comparative Study between Thai and English*, was to compare the frequency of cohesion used in the two language texts and give explanations of the cohesion shift. Five Thai texts and their five English translated texts from *Kinnaree* magazines were analyzed within Halliday and Hasan's (1976) framework.

The results of his study indicate that lexical cohesion is the most prominent used pattern while substitution is the least utilized type in both English and Thai articles. However, the way in which English and Thai cohesion is used is different in many aspects. The differences cause cohesion shifts when Thai text is translated into English. There are four conceptual discrepancies of using cohesive devices which cause cohesion to be different from the SL to the TL.

1. Sentential boundary: Thai sentence boundary is difficult to identify. Conjunction is an element helping writer to combine each idea in the text to form a larger meaningful unit of a discourse. However, some elements of conjunction should be deleted and the rearrangement of sentences should be done when translating Thai into English.

2. Redundancy: Thai uses repetition several times, but English tries to avoid redundancy by using other lexical items such as synonymys, superordinates and/or general words.

3. Assumed known cohesive devices: Thai uses ellipsis several times, especially the omission of subject, verb or object which are unacceptable in English structure.

4. Definiteness and non-definiteness: in Thai, there is no article; hence, translators should follow English grammatical rule. For example, if the same word is repeated, *the* should be added.

Querol's (2004) Study: Substitution as a Device of Grammatical Cohesion in English Narrative and Its Translation into Spanish

Querol's *Substitution as a Device of Grammatical Cohesion in English Narrative and Its Translation into Spanish* aimed to describe how English literature makes use of substitution as a device of grammatical cohesion and the mechanisms employed in its translation into Spanish. The purpose of her study was to study from a quantitative and qualitative point of view the possible cohesion shifts in translation.

She found that ellipsis is the most frequent cohesive device, while substitution is the second most common in translations. According to the researcher, nominal and verbal substitutions are the most common types in English. These mechanisms in the Spanish translation normally constitute another grammatical device. To put it simply, the requirement of the subject in English makes the language use mechanisms such as substitution. However, Spanish tends to incorporate the subject in the verbal endings and the explicitness of it is not so common. Moreover, the omission of noun and clause are two main types of ellipsis in the Spanish translation. Reference does not widely appear in the Spanish translation. Nevertheless, the existence of gender markers in nouns and adjectives helps in establishing the referent immediately in

Spanish. This mechanism prompts ellipsis since no more presuppositions are required in the text. However, English language needs other type of mechanisms to deal with possible problems of ambiguity in the same situation. In case of lexical cohesion, translators combined it with grammatical cohesion in the Spanish translation in order to solve a case of substitution in the SL. She also mentions that her study confirms previous studies that each language has its own cohesion and usually employs them by following the internal rules of its own language.

This main study is not the study of cohesion shift; however, it is beneficial to the researcher because even though the SL and the TL convey the same message, the use of cohesion is applied dissimilarly between two languages. One of the main points making cohesion used differently is the grammatical rules of two languages.

In conclusion, the previous studies are the comparative studies of English and other languages relating to cohesion (pp. 40-42) and the studies of cohesion between English and its translation into another language (pp. 42-44). The outcomes of these studies showed that each language has its own use of cohesion. The discrepancies of cohesion between languages could lead to the differences in preference of cohesion applied. These findings perhaps support James (1980: 113), Larson (1984: 394) and Baker's (1992 cited in Querol, 2004) ideas that every language has its own sets cohesion and each type of cohesion may be employed differently between different languages.

Summary

This chapter has reviewed theoretical concepts particularly aiming at '*cohesion*'. It can be summarized that there are five types of cohesion: reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction and lexical cohesion. These devices are important elements which help in linking each part of the text together in order to create a meaningful unit. Moreover, they also help message sender to avoid repetition of the

known words by using other grammatical and/or lexical elements. It is clear that cohesion should be studied thoroughly through the written texts, news articles.

In this chapter, besides reviewing related literature, the researcher has also reviewed some previous related studies. The findings of the previous studies explain how cohesion is used in Thai texts; used between English and other languages; and used between English and its translation into another language. The findings of these studies make the researcher comprehends much more about the use of cohesion. Therefore, these studies can shed some light on cohesion studies.

As reviewed in the previous studies, many studies compared cohesion used between English and other languages including English and Thai; however, the comparison of English and Thai news articles still needs further investigation. One of the previous studies is the comparison of English and Thai cohesion which followed the model of cohesion provided by Halliday and Hasan (1976). Additionally, there is no comparative study of English and Thai cohesion in which the analysis of Thai cohesion is based on Thai work. The researcher strongly believes that the study of cohesion used in English and Thai news articles perhaps reveals some similar outcomes, and at the same time, the results may extend further as the analysis of Thai cohesion in this present study is based on Thai work. Thai cohesion suggested by Wipah (1986) was applied in the analysis of Thai cohesion as her study provides a comprehensive explanation on cohesion in Thai. Therefore, this present study is sure to reveal some more interesting factors of cohesion between English and Thai.

In the following chapter, the methodology, applied for analyzing cohesion between English and Thai used in the news articles, will be clarified.