

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter discusses the definition of terms and some theories related to the study. They are about journalistic writing, newspaper, Jakarta Globe, Cohesion in English.

2.1. Journalistic Writing

Stovall (2005) defined that “journalistic writing is formal, structured and demanding. The presentation of information is the main goal of writing, rather than the presentation and development of an individual writer's style” (para. 2). Journalistic writing also has four characteristics which are accuracy, precision, completeness and efficiency so that the readers can easily understand information delivered (Stovall, 2005, para 3). And Journalistic writing is easily found in printed media such as newspaper.

2.1.1. Newspaper

Newspaper is a media that uses journalistic writing style, so that people who make news at Newspaper Company are called as journalists. Newspaper has various segments such as, news, sport, entertainment, and advertising (Reah, 2002, p. 2). In Indonesia, there are many newspapers such as The Jakarta Post, The Jakarta Globe, Media Indonesia, Kompas, so on and so forth. Beside printed newspapers, Indonesia has online newspapers. Both of them have a lot of

consumers or readers who get information through newspapers articles.

Newspaper article is written by the journalists to give information about everything that has happened in the world. In writing newspaper article, pyramid style is used. Thompson (2005) explained that pyramid style “means that the ‘point’ of the story is sharp and succinct, and is then supported by more detailed information in layers” (p. 113). Newspaper article consists of headline, byline, lead paragraph, explanation, and additional information (<http://quest.arc.nasa.gov/>).

Headline is the most important part in newspaper article as Stovall (2005) stated that “headlines is a few words used to describe a story or articles; they appear in larger type than the body of the story, and they are what the reader uses to decide whether or not to read the story” (para. 10). Ricketson (2004) said that “headlines do for the story . . . need to get the reader’s attention, whether by enticing them, intriguing them or alarming them” (p. 169). In other words, writing headline is a kind of art.

Byline is the identity of journalists intended for giving information to the readers about people who has written the news (Ricketson, 2004, 289). Haws (1993) said “it provides a kind of psychic income by giving reporters recognition, and recognition can be a powerful compensator” (p. 14). In other words, byline can be defined simply as a name of journalist.

“Lead paragraph is the first paragraph or paragraphs of any piece of journalism, whether hard news or feature story. *In other words*, the lead for a feature may be one paragraph but it is more likely to be two or three or even four”

(Ricketson, 2004, pp. 183, 263). It is also able to be said that lead paragraph is important as well as headline to catch attention of the readers.

After knowing about headline, byline, and lead paragraphs, newspaper article also have a part to be developed. This part is called as explanation. Explanation can be descriptions and quotes. The most important thing is explanation has to provide information searched by the readers from headlines and lead paragraphs so that they can easily understand the information or news delivered. (Ricketson, 2004, 197)

Not only explanation used for developing newspaper article, but also additional information is needed. “*However*, additional information is the least important. Thus, if the news article is too long for the space it needs to fill, it can be shortened without rewriting any other part. This part can include information about a similar event” (<http://quest.arc.nasa.gov/>).

Like the newspaper itself, newspaper article also has two versions, printed and online. Online newspaper article is similar to printed newspaper article as Thompson (2005) stated that “the Online news editors say that it is closer to print journalism than broadcasting, for the simple reason that people read most of the information, rather than hear it” (p. 149).

But writing online newspaper article should pay attention to tools, computers or laptops, used by the readers or consumers to read it as Thompson said in his book:

Consumers use it in a different way from a newspaper or a book. The screen is quite a small frame; it uses pictures a great deal; it is brightly

coloured; and it is constantly inviting you to look at something else.

Online news has to be written very sharply, very concisely, and very personally. (Thomson, 2005, p. 149)

Reah explained previously that newspaper consists of news, sport, entertainment, and advertising (Reah, 1998, p. 2). And there is one common type of the items in both online and printed newspaper which is news article or news feature. Ricketson (2004) stated that “the news feature begins with the news of the day and develops it, either by explaining the meaning of the news or examining its implications” (p. 34). In the writer’s corpus which is The Jakarta Globe, news article is the most complete article because it provides news covering all the things happened not only in Indonesia but also in the world such as tsunami in Japan, sea games in Indonesia, Indonesia royal wedding, so on and so forth.

2.2. The Company Profile of Newspapers

2.2.1. The Jakarta Globe

The Jakarta Globe is a daily English newspaper in Indonesia. This newspaper was launched on 12th November 2008 by PT Jakarta Globe Media. (<http://www.thejakartaglobe.com/>). The Jakarta Globe has two version newspapers which are printed newspapers version and online newspapers version.

The online version is more than just an extension of The Jakarta Globe printed newspaper because it “complements the newspaper with the latest stories, a daily e-mail newsletter, breaking news around the clock and a searchable archive of stories” (<http://www.thejakartaglobe.com/>). Therefore, the consumers

or readers are able to find international and national news every time happened.

In the website, Jakarta Globe has some columns containing various articles. They are news articles, business articles, international articles, technology articles, sport articles, life & time articles, my Jakarta articles, opinion, and blogs. (<http://www.thejakartaglobe.com/>). Each article provides specific information, for instance sport articles. They provide various kinds of sports' news such as, football, badminton, rugby, so on and so forth. But the most complete articles are news articles. They provide news covering all the things happened not only in Indonesia but also in the world.

2.3. Cohesion in English

Halliday and Hasan (1976) defined cohesion as “the set of possibilities that exist in the language for making text hang together” (p. 18). Another definition is proposed by Yule (2006) by giving a description “texts must have a certain structure that depends on factors quite different from those required in the structure of a single sentence. Some of those factors are described in terms of cohesion” (p. 125). In other words, cohesion has a function to link one sentence with the other sentence in a text and makes them understandable for the readers.

Yule divided cohesive ties into reference to the same people and things, connections between phrases, and general connections that share a common element of meaning. For example:

My father once bought a Lincoln convertible. He did it by saving every penny he could. That car would be worth a fortune nowadays. However,

he sold it to help pay for my college education. Sometimes I think I'd rather have the convertible (Yule, 2006, p. 125).

In the example above reference to the same people and thing are expressed by *father – he – he – he; my – my – I; Lincoln – it*. Connections between phrases are expressed by *a Lincoln convertible – that car – the convertible*. And general connections that share a common element of meaning are expressed by 'money' (*bought – saving – penny – worth a fortune – sold – pay*) and 'time' (*once – nowadays – sometimes*) (Yule, 2006, p. 125).

Halliday and Hasan completely divided cohesion into two types: grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion. Grammatical cohesion consists of reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction. Meanwhile, lexical cohesion consists of reiteration and collocation. And all of them are called as cohesive ties (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 6).

2.3.1. Grammatical Cohesion

In sentences, grammatical cohesion can be seen through grammar consisting of reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 6).

2.3.1.1. Reference

Halliday and Hasan defined that "reference is the relation between an element of the text and something else by reference to which it is interpreted in the given instance" (p. 308). In short, reference exists in sentences when an item

refers to other item and makes the sentences cohesive. There are exophoric and endophoric reference.

Exophoric is a reference that must be made to the context of situation, but it does not link one sentence with other sentence so that it does not contribute directly to cohesion. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 37).

Endophoric is a reference that exists within a text. Endophoric could be anaphoric which refers back to the previous text and cataphoric which refers forward to the following text. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 33). For examples, “(a) **John** has moved to a new house. **He** had built it last year.” and “(b) **He who hesitates** is lost” (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, pp. 54-56)

In the example above, (a) is an example of anaphoric reference. *He* refers back to the previous text which is *John*. (b) is an example of cataphoric reference. *He* refers forward to the following text which is *who hesitates*. Halliday and Hasan divided reference into three types: personal, demonstrative, and comparative reference (Halliday and Hasan, 1976, p. 37).

2.3.1.1.1. Personal Reference

In cohesion in English book, Halliday and Hasan (1976) said “the category of personals includes three classes of personal pronoun, possessive determiners (usually called ‘possessive adjective’), and possessive pronouns” (p. 43). For instances, “(a) **John** has moved to a new house. **He** had built it last year. (b) **John’s** house is beautiful. **His** wife must be delighted with it. (c) That new house is **John’s**. I didn’t know it was **his**” (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 55)

In the example (a), *he* is personal pronoun referring back to *John*. In (b), *his* is possessive determiner referring back to *John's*. And in (c), *his* is possessive pronoun referring back to *John's*.

2.3.1.1.2. Demonstrative Reference

Demonstrative reference is one of reference types realized by using proximity in sentences. Proximity could be *this/that*, *these/those*, *here/now*, *there/then*, and *the*.

This/these and *that/those* means near and not near. *This/that* and *these/those* means singular and plural. And all of them are called as nominal demonstrative because they refer to location of person or object (participant). Meanwhile, *Here/there* refers to place near or not near, and *now/then* refers to this time or that time. And all of them are called as demonstrative adverbs.

Article *the* refers to something that has been mentioned before. Azzar (1999) gave an example in his book “Yesterday I saw **some dogs**. **The dogs** were chasing **a cat**. **The cat** was chasing **a mouse**. **The mouse** ran into **a hole**. **The hole** was very small” (p. 115). In the example *the* refer to something that has been mentioned before. First mention: *some dogs*, *a cat*, *a mouse*, *a hole*. And second mention: *the dogs*, *the cat*, *the mouse*, *the hole*.

2.3.1.1.3. Comparative Reference

There are two types of comparative reference: general comparison and particular comparison. General comparison expresses likeness and unlikeness

between things in the form of identify, similarity, and difference. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 77). In other words, the likeness refers to identity and similarity. Meanwhile unlikeness refers to difference. For examples, “(a) it’s **the same** cat as the one we saw yesterday, (b) it’s a **similar** cat as the one we saw yesterday, (c) it’s a **different** cat as the one we saw yesterday” (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 78). In the examples above, (a) is identity because there is only one cat which is the same *cat*. (b) is similar because *the cats* are like each other. (c) is different because there are *two different cats*.

Particular comparison expresses comparability between things in term of quantity or quality. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 80). The quantity refers to numerative element, for instances, **more** mistakes, **as** many mistakes, etc. Meanwhile, the quality refers to comparative adjective and comparative adverb, for instances, **easier** tasks, **so** difficult a task, Cambridge rowed **faster**, she sang **as** sweetly. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 81)

2.3.1.2. Substitution

Substitution is one of cohesive ties that can be realized if one word/phrase is substituted with other word/phrase. There are three types of substitution: nominal, verbal, and clausal (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 90).

2.3.1.2.1. Nominal Substitution

In nominal substitution, word/phrase is substituted by one, ones, and same. “The substitute *one/ones* always function as head of a nominal group, and can

substitute only for an item which itself head of nominal group” (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 91). Belloc gave an example, “I shoot the hippopotamus with **bullets** made of platinum. Because if I use leaden **ones** his hide is sure to flatten ‘em” (as cited in Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 91).

In the example the substitute *one/ones* is a nominal substitute because *ones* substitute for *bullets*. Here *bullets* is head of nominal group *bullets made of platinum* and *one* is head of nominal group *leaden ones*. The substitute *one/ones* always function as noun head. Moreover, *ones* has function of differentiating *bullets* from the one mentioned earlier, those *made of platinum*.

The substitute *same* is used to substitute “a nominal or other element in the process as a whole, including the process itself” (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 109). The *same* also can be used together with say, do, and be. *Say the same* substitutes for the fact, as in “**we can trust Smith**. I wish I could **say the same** of his partner”. *Do the same* substitutes for verbs and the following element in nominal structure as in “they all **started shouting**. So I **did the same**”. And *be the same* substitutes for nouns or adjectives as in “Charles is now **an actor**. Given half a chance I would **have been the same**” (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, pp. 107, 108-109)

2.3.1.2.2. Verbal Substitution

Verbal substitution is one substitution types having function as head of a verbal group and can substitute only for an item which itself head of verbal group. Verb is substituted by do and its position is always final in the sentence. For example, “... the words did not **come** the same as they used to **do**” (Halliday &

Hasan, 1976, p. 112).

In the example *do* is a verbal substitute because *do* substitutes verb *come*. As the previous explanation, *do* position is always final in the sentence. The verbal group *do* is able to exist with other form of English do such as, does, did, done or doing in sentences and the meaning is equal to the substitute one/ones.

2.3.1.2.3. Clausal Substitution

Clausal substitution is one of substitution types “in which what is presupposed is not an element within the clause but an entire clause” (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 130). Clausal substitution can be occur in reported clause, conditional clause, and modalized clause with positive form using *so* and negative form using *no*. For example, “Is **there going to be an earthquake?** – It says **so**” (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 130).

In the example, *so* is a clause substitute because *so* substitutes an entire clause *there's going to be an earthquake*. And *says* signals to different element outside the clause.

2.3.1.3. Ellipsis

Ellipsis is a cohesive tie that is realized by omission because it replaces one item by nothing. So ellipsis is well known as ‘substitution by zero’. There are three types of ellipsis: nominal ellipsis, verbal ellipsis, and clausal ellipsis. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 142)

2.3.1.3.1. Nominal Ellipsis

Nominal ellipsis means ellipsis within nominal group. Nominal ellipsis is able to upgrade words functioning as modifier: deictic, numerative, epithet or classifier to functioning as head. But classifier is very rarely found in nominal ellipsis.

Deictic consists of specific deictic, non-specific deictic, and post deictic. Specific deictic consists of possessive (*nominal: smith's, my father's, etc and pronominal: my, yours, etc*), demonstrative (*this, that, these, those, and which*), and indefinite determiner (*the*). Non-specific deictic consists of *each, every, all, both, any, either, no, neither, some, and a*. Post deictic is adjective that can be combined with article *the, a*, or other determiner and may be followed by numerative. Therefore, post deictic is different with normal adjective that must follow numerative.

Example, “Take **these pills** three times daily. And you’d better have some more of **those** too” (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 157). In the first line, *these* is deictic functioning as modifier, but in the second line *those* functions as head. *Those* refers to *those pills*, but the word *pills* is omitted in the sentence. So *those* is elliptical for *those pills*.

“The numerative element in the nominal group is expressed by numerals or other quantifying words, which form three subcategories: ordinals, cardinals, and indefinite quantifiers” (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 161). The Ordinals are *first, second, next, and so on*. The cardinals are *one, two, three, etc*. And The indefinite quantifiers are *much, many, more, most, few, a bit, etc*. Example, “**Four other**

Oysters followed them, and yet **another four**” (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 148).

In the first line, *four* is numerative functioning as modifier, but in the second line *four* functions as head. *Another four* refers to *another four Oysters*, but the word *Oysters* is omitted in the sentence. So *another four* is elliptical for *another four Oysters*.

Epithet is expressed by adjective. There are comparative and superlative adjective, for instance, “Which last longer, the curved rods or the **straight** rods? The **straight** are less likely to break” (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 148). In the question, *straight* is an epithet functioning as modifier. But it functions as head in the response. *Straight* in response refers to *straight rods* in the question, but the word *rods* is omitted. So *straight* is elliptical for *straight rods*.

2.3.1.3.2. Verbal Ellipsis

Verbal ellipsis means ellipsis within the verbal group. In other words, there is omission in the text which is verb. For examples, “(a) Have you been swimming? – Yes, I have (**been swimming**), (b) What have you been doing? – (**I have been**) Swimming” (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 167). Example (a) is called as Lexical ellipsis which is ellipsis from the right. Example (b) is called as operator ellipsis which is ellipsis from the left.

2.3.1.3.3. Clausal Ellipsis

Clausal ellipsis consists of modal element and propositional element.

The difference between Modal element and propositional element can be seen in

the sentence: “The Duke was (modal element) going to plant a row of poplars in the park (propositional element)” (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 197).

Modal element consists of subject and finite (modal block) element in verbal group. And modal ellipsis occurs in response to a WH- question, for instance, “What were they doing? – Holding hands” (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 198). The example is called as total modal ellipsis because all modal element is omitted. Meanwhile partial modal ellipsis which is subject present is rarely found.

Propositional element consists of residue (reminder of verbal group) and complement or adjunct. And propositional ellipsis occurs in response to statement, yes/no question, WH- questions. For Examples, “Who taught you to spell? – Grandfather did (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 199). The example is called as total propositional ellipsis because all propositional element is omitted.

2.3.1.4. Conjunction

Conjunction is one of cohesive ties that have function to link two clauses by using types of conjunction. Conjunction has “four categories: additive, adversative, causal, and temporal” (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 238). And the four categories conjunction are able to exist in external (what is being said) or internal (speech event) context.

2.3.1.4.1. Additive

Additive is one of conjunction types that has function to give addition in sentences. Additive conjunction “seems to have sense of there is something more

to be said” (Halliday and Hasan, 1976, p. 245). The following table shows additive types as in Halliday and Hasan book:

Table 2.1

Additive Conjunction

Additive			
simple additive relation (external and internal)	complex additive relation (Internal)	comparative relation (Internal)	appositive relation (Internal)
<i>or, and, and...too, nor, not...either, etc</i>	<i>by the way, alternatively, furthermore, moreover, etc</i>	<i>likewise, similarly, on the other hand, by contrast, etc</i>	<i>I mean, in other words, for instance, for example, , etc</i>

Complex additive relation (*furthermore/moreover and alternatively*) is the emphatic form of simple additive relation (*and, or*). They are used to emphasize additionalness and alternativeness. Comparative relation (*likewise, similarly, by contrast, etc*) are used to emphasize new sentence added has same/different effect with the previous sentence. Appositive relation (*I mean, for instance, etc*) are used to add emphasis in the following sentence by giving an example, explanation, etc.

2.3.1.4.2. Adversative

Adversative is another form of conjunction. Halliday and Hasan (1976) defined that “the basic meaning of the adversative relation is contrary to expectation” (p. 250). The following table shows adversative types as in Halliday and Hasan book:

Table 2.2

Adversative Conjunction

Adversative			
Adversative relation (External and Internal)	Contrastive Relation (Internal)	Corrective Relation (Internal)	Dismissive Relation (External and Internal)
<i>Yet, though, only, but, however, nevertheless, etc</i>	<i>But, however, in fact, actually, as a matter of fact, etc</i>	<i>Instead, rather, on the contrary, at least, rather, etc</i>	<i>In any case, which ever, anyhow, at any rate, etc, etc</i>

All types of adversative conjunction have same basic meaning which is contrary to expectation, but they have different effect. For example, *but* and *however* can exist in adversative relation and contrastive relation. *But* and *however* mean ‘in spite of’ in adversative relation, meanwhile they mean ‘as against’ in contrastive relation. Correlative relation means as against what has just been told (meaning or wording). Dismissive relation also has different sentences,

but contrary in this type means no matter.

2.3.1.4.3. Causal

Causal conjunction is used to show result of previous clause. This type of conjunction is divided into some types. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 260). The following table shows causal types as in Halliday and Hasan book:

Table 2.3

Causal Conjunction

Causal			
Causal relation (External and Internal)	Reversed causal relation (Internal)	Conditional relational (‘if...then) (External and Internal)	Respective relation (Internal)
<i>so, therefore, consequently, for this reason, as a result, for this purpose, etc.</i>	<i>for, because</i>	<i>Then, in that case, under the circumstances, otherwise, etc.</i>	<i>in this respect, with regard to this, otherwise, aside from this, etc</i>

Causal relation (*for this reason, as a result, for this purpose*) “are not distinguished in the simplest form of expression so. When expressed as prepositional phrase, they tend to be distinct” (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 257).

For this reason, as a result, for this purpose is prepositional phrase, meanwhile *so*

is simple adverb (coordinating conjunction). Reversed causal relation is less usual because its form '*b, because a*' is less acceptable than '*because a, b*'. Conditional relation (*then*) is not equal to causal relation (*therefore*), but they are exchangeable as cohesive form. Respective relation is related to conditional relation showed by (*otherwise*). In conditional relation it switches the polarity (positive and negative) in sentences, meanwhile it is equal to *aside from this* in respective relation meaning except for.

2.3.1.4.4. Temporal

Temporal conjunction relates two events with their time relations in sentences. The following table shows temporal types as in Halliday and Hasan book:

Table 2.4

Temporal Conjunction

Temporal					
Simple temporal relation	Complex temporal relation	Conclusive Relation	Temporal Relation	Here and Now relation	Summary relation
(External)	(External)	(External)	(Internal)	(Internal)	(Internal)
<i>(and) then, next, (just) then,</i>	<i>at once, soon, next time, next day,</i>	<i>finally, at last, first...then,</i>	<i>next, secondly, in conclusion,</i>	<i>up to now, hitherto, at this point,</i>	<i>to sum up, in short, to resume,</i>

<i>Previously,</i> <i>etc.</i>	<i>meanwhile,</i> <i>by this time,</i> <i>next moment,</i> <i>etc.</i>	<i>first...next, at</i> <i>first...finally,</i> <i>etc.</i>	<i>first...next,</i> <i>first...then,</i> <i>...to</i> <i>conclude</i> <i>with, etc.</i>	<i>from now</i> <i>on, etc.</i>	<i>etc.</i>
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Then is simple temporal relation that has sequential sense. *Then* can be complex temporal relation by adding another element. For instance, *Then* + ‘repetition’ (*next time, on another occasion, etc.*). Temporal conjunction is also used to express series of some processes in conclusive relation type (*finally, at last, etc.*), to express time with different tenses in here and now relation (*up to now, here, etc.*), and to express the way to summarize in summary relation (*to sum up, to resume, etc.*).

2.3.2. Lexical Cohesion

Lexical cohesion can be seen through vocabulary as Halliday and Hasan (1976) stated that “lexical cohesion is the cohesive effect achieved by the selection of vocabulary” (p. 274). And the difference between lexical and grammatical cohesion lies in the class of general noun. “The class of general noun is a small set of nouns having generalized reference within the major noun classes, those such as ‘human noun’, ‘place noun’, ‘fact noun’ and the like” (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 274). Lexical cohesion consists of reiteration and collocation.

2.3.2.1. Reiteration

Reiteration is a part of lexical cohesion consisting of repetition, synonym, superordinate, general noun, etc. And all of them are able to be found in sentences. As Halliday and Hasan defined that:

Reiteration is a form of lexical cohesion which involves the repetition of a lexical item, at one end of scale; the use of a general word to refer back to a lexical item, at the other end of scale; a number of things in between the use of a synonym, or superordinate. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 278)

There are examples showing reiteration types as in Halliday and Hasan book: “I turned to **the ascent** of the park. (a) **The ascent** is perfectly easy. (b) **The climb** is perfectly easy. (c) **The task** is perfectly easy. (d) **The thing** is perfectly easy” (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 279).

In the example above, (a) is repetition because the same word repeated which is *the ascent* referring to *the ascent*. (b) is synonym because *the climb*, having the same meaning with *the ascent*, refers to *the ascent*. (c) is superordinate because *the task*, covering *the ascent* already, refers to *the ascent*. (d) is general noun because *the ascent* is referred by *the thing* having meaning not only *the ascent*, but also something else.

2.3.2.2. Collocation

Collocation can be seen through a pair of lexical items. A pair of lexical items can be related as oppositeness, part to whole, part to part, hyponym of the same superordinate, same ordered series, so on and so forth. (Halliday & Hasan,

1976, p. 285).

The following examples show collocation types as in Halliday and Hasan book: “ (a) Boy ... girls, stand up ... sit down, (b) car ... brake, box ... lid, (c) Mouth ... chin, screen ... keyboard, (d) chair ... table, jaguar ... grand livina, (e) Sunday ... Monday, colonel ... brigadier” (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 285).

In the example above, (a) is a pair of lexical items related as oppositeness. (b) is a pair of lexical items related as part to whole. *Brake* is a part of *car*, and also *lid* is a part of *box*. (c) is a pair of lexical items related as part to part. *Mouth* and *chin* are a part of human face. (d) is a pair of lexical items related as hyponym of the same superordinate. Both *jaguar* and *grand livina* are hyponyms of car. (e) is a pair of lexical items related as same ordered series. After *Sunday* is *Monday*, and after *colonel* is *brigadier*. All of them exist in similar context or near sentence.