CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter overviews related literature which is based on the relevant theories. It covers the identification of advertisements and national geographic magazine as the field of this study and the basic concepts of elliptical construction: definitions, elements, and types.

2.1 Advertisement

Upon identifying advertisement, we need to break down several elements that are common and relevant to the object of the study. The source material used in this study is the advertisement in the form of printed paper magazine that comprises both visual and verbal elements. To comprehend this further, several definitions need to be brought.

As described by Lunyal (2014), advertisements are short verbal texts that are generally accompanied with visuals which make advertisements interesting for readers who interact with them. The definition is in line with the previous concept of advertisements proposed by Cook (2001) in which he defines advertisements as a combination of language and images. He observes, ”…ads are multimodal, and can use pictures, music, and language, either singly or in combination, as the medium permits”. In accordance to the given definition, advertisement could be considered as a proper field of ellipsis study as it comprises both verbal and visual components in
its discourse to convey the desired meanings (Lunyal, 2014). Both of which are elaborated as follows:

2.1.1 Verbal Component

Adapted from Krauss (2002), verbal is defined as "of or concerned with words". Both sign languages and writing are generally understood as forms of verbal communication, as both make use of words. Hence verbal component in the context of advertisement is the written words or text.

A text is an actualization of the language use, as it is distinctively defined in comparison to the definition of sentence which is “an abstract unit of linguistic analysis”. We identify a piece of language as a text as soon as we recognize that it has been produced for a communicative purpose (Widdowson, 2007). The communicative purpose is essential to a text, because in the actual use of language i.e. text, it is a means to connect the reader to the text. The connection is to transfer meaning and intention of the text’s author, who is one of the parties involved, to the reader, who is another party. As a text is being read, the reader is placed in a situation created by this “communicative purpose”. If a text does not communicate, its reader will not realize the meaning and intention of that text (Mikhchi, 2011).

2.2.2 Visual Component

Debes & William (1978) have defined visual language as “the intentional use of culturally acquired signs in culturally established patterns for the purpose of
communication.” The forms that visual language can take are three following divisions:

1. body language (i.e., the use of gestures and bodily movements for non-verbal communication),

2. object language (i.e., the use of objects for non-verbal communication),

3. sign and symbol language (i.e., the use of sign and symbol systems, for example Isotypes and Blissymbolic, for non-verbal communication)

Consistently Ausburn & Ausburn (1978) explain that visual is a language with its own grammar, vocabulary, and syntax. Furthermore, they also add fourth type of visual language which is the abstract language elements, that “is represented by such graphic element as color, light and shadow, line and flow movement, juxtaposition of items, perspective, and relative size of items.”

Departing from prior definition of visual element of advertisement, semiotic approach will be applied to analyze the visual element of the advertisement. ‘Semiotics’ refers to the science of sign in society (Saussure, 1974). Semiotics offers a premise of systematic, comprehensive and coherent study of communication phenomena as a whole (Hodge & Kress, 1988). To put it simply, semiotics is the study of sign and its practice, where inherently, a sign can be defined as any entity (images, objects, etc.) that refers to something that has been previously established in social conventions (Eco, 1976). The semiotic approach has different branches. All
other sub-disciplines of semiotic that are necessary will be used to give a better understanding.

Moreover, differentiating the verbal and visual component in printed paper ads as the focus of the analysis is a little bit tricky. This is because an advertisement could have a photo of particular product/things that contains text, designed logo or stylized font-like symbols. Those things could not be specified into specific classification because somehow, there is no clear divining line between them. Consequently the common structure of an advertisement must firstly be presented. Based on Nugroho (2009), there are 4 generic structures of the verbal elements in printed advertisement:

1. The primary announcement is commonly known as the phrases written in the big capital font, including the surrounding words or phrases that form a unit.

2. The secondary announcement is constructed in the form of simple phrasal unit and often related to the enhancer as the information written is often similar and based on a more detailed information that are described in the enhancer.

3. The enhancer is generally the description written in the small font that forms a unit of paragraphs.

4. The other linguistic elements are small items such as some Tags, Call and-Visit Information, the Emblem, etc.
Furthermore, in this study, the focus of the analysis will only be limited to the primary and secondary announcement of the advertisement, as these two were mostly formed in the form of phrasal unit instead of a complete sentence, thus subjected to the ellipsis study. In addition (Cheong, 2004) also claimed that the primary announcement is the most prominent linguistic component in a printed advertisement.

2.2 Concepts of Ellipsis

The definitions suggested by various experts are presented below as it is necessary to be reviewed before coming into the core discussion about ellipsis.

2.2.1 Definitions of Ellipsis

According to Martin (2001), “Ellipsis (or elliptical construction) refers to the resources for omitting a clause, or some parts of a clause or group, in contexts where it can be assumed”. Another definition in further year is postulated by Parrot (2004), asserting that ellipsis is the case of leaving out the words or phrases within a discourse. Generally, in the case of ellipsis, the left out words or phrases are representing the information that is already available, thus making it possible to be easily assumed. In short, ellipsis or elliptical construction is the process of omitting one or more words from any textual unit that are otherwise required by the remaining elements of that complete construction.

Without any help of ellipsis, the issue that pops up is redundancy, that is lengthy sentence with repeated elements. Hence, redundancy needs to be negated and
ellipsis must be applied. Simply stated, ellipsis is the omission of some elements of a discourse to make it brief, efficient and effective without missing the meaning, given that the context is already established and clear as the reader could infer the information of the omitted element from the remaining element in the base construction. In general, the function of ellipsis is to make a sentence or expression more concise, leaving the unnecessary of repetitive information.

2.2.2 The Elements of Ellipsis

There are three elements that are important to be brought to give more clarity to the specified concept. The descriptions of the elements of ellipsis are displayed below.

1. Redundancy

Ellipsis is used to avoid repetition (Quirk & Greenbaum, 1973). When the given information is repeated in second time, it becomes ineffective. What has been previously mentioned becomes unnecessary information if it is used again and again. If it is written in the complete form, the sentence takes on redundancy. It is imperative to leave the structural slots out in order to be the effective writing. Hence, the second or further repetition must provide only new information that is truly needed by the first. Furthermore it can be concluded that the function of the ellipsis is to avoid redundancy to get the effective information.
2. Presupposition

Halliday & Hasan (1976) define presupposition as a way for identifying particular things through the use of reference that has already existed in previous information. The given and new information has a correlation in meaning. The correlation, then, becomes the device to recourse to what has gone before, that is, presupposition. One is presupposing, while the other is presupposed. One element will give clue to interpret the other. The first element provides the source of information to be presupposed in the second as in Joan bought some Carnations, and Catherine some sweet peas (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). The presupposed element is the word “bought”, as it reads in full form as “Catherine (bought) some sweet peas”. Because of ellipsis, the second one is not fully written for the information that is already established in the first. Furthermore, Aminudin (2003) adds that the presupposition can also be related to the efforts in understanding the unity of the content of a reading text.

3. Cohesion

Cohesion is defined as the set of possibilities that exist in the language for making text hang together (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). It has relation among elements realized. These relations show the meaning which is independent upon each other. When some elements within the text need an interpretation of others by referring to what has been left out, there is cohesion. Hence, Halliday & Hasan (1976) explain that the concept of cohesion is a semantic one; this concept refers to the relations in
meaning that exists within the text. Based on those definitions, it can be underlined that cohesion is not a structural relation but semantic one in which the text becomes a semantic unit.

2.2.3 Types of Ellipsis

There are very diverse types of ellipsis and each of their sub-types, but on the very surface, ellipsis may be divided into two different categories; those are cohesive and incohesive ellipsis:

2.2.3.1 Cohesive Ellipsis

Cohesive ellipsis focuses on the relations between sentences. Halliday & Hasan (1976) claim that there are no structural relations in between the sentences and because of that reason, the study of cohesion becomes important.

Ellipsis as a means of cohesion is basically classified into three different categories; they are Nominal, Verbal, and Clausal Ellipsis (Halliday & Hasan, 1976).

1. Nominal Ellipsis

Nominal ellipsis can generally be described as ellipsis within nominal group. The structure of nominal group is commonly indicated by head, as usually referred to thing, pre-modifier, as what precedes the head, and post modifier, that comes after the head. In nominal ellipsis, the function of head is replaced by one of modifiers. The modifiers may be composed by various elements (deictic, numerative, epithet or
classifier). Deictic is normally represented by determiner, numeral, epithet by adjective, and classifier by noun. For example:

- *Smith and Jones are on holiday. I wonder if (either (Smith or Jones)) has left an address.*

(Halliday & Hasan, 1976)

2. Verbal ellipsis

Verbal ellipsis is simply defined as ellipsis in verbal group. There is omission of some words in verbal group. It can be said, then, that the structure of elements is not expressed. As generally the characteristic of ellipsis is indicated by the missing structural slots. The left out structural slots in elliptical verbal group causes missing information, which requires an interpretation of elements that are not expressed. The interpretation is needed since the information is available there and this missing slot should be filled out to get the complete information. For example:

- *Have you been swimming? – Yes, I have (been swimming)*
- *What have you been doing? – (I have been) Swimming*

(Halliday & Hasan, 1976)

3. Clausal ellipsis

Clause in English is considered as the expression of various speech functions, such as statement, question, response and so on. Clausal ellipsis has a two-part structure consisting of modal element and propositional element. The modal element
has the subject plus the finite element of the verbal group, while the propositional has the residue. For example:

– What was the Duke going to do? – (The Duke was going to) plant a row of poplars in the park.

(Halliday & Hasan, 1976)

2.2.3.2 Incohesive Ellipsis

There is another work of ellipsis that focuses on the occurrence of an elliptical construction within the sentence, between individual clauses; in which it is perceived from or presupposed based on the intra-sentence perspective.

Although intra-sentence ellipsis does not contribute to the cohesion, it will still be relevant to this study because according to Quirk et al. (1989), there are several criteria in which ellipsis may be utilized.

The very first criterion is precise recoverability of all the ellipted items, which means that in a context where no ambiguity arises, there should be no confusion as to what words that are needed to recover and fill the ellipted/omitted items.

The second criterion is the grammatical defectiveness of the elliptical structure, which means that it should be obvious to notice that there are several words that have been omitted.
The third criterion explains that after the missing words are being re-inserted, the meaning of the grammatical sentence remains unchanged to the original sentence before the ellipsis is applied.

The last two criteria are interdependent. One of them needs the omitted item to be textually recoverable while the other one says that the missing item is present in the text in exactly the same form. The latter criterion is dependent on the former.

Despite all the mentioned criteria of the ellipsis, Quirk et al. (1989) claim that upon its use, all those criteria are not always applicable.

Moreover in the later year, Quirk & Greenbaum (1990) categorize the incohesive ellipsis to three types: textual ellipsis, structural ellipsis, and situational ellipsis:

1. Textual ellipsis

Textual ellipsis is considered to have a strong connection to the cohesion as the context is needed in order to identify what has been ellipted. According to Biber, Johansson, Leech, Conrad, & Finegan (1999), textual ellipsis is defined as the recoverable omitted elements from the linguistic context. Hence, it can be said that in order to interpret the textual ellipsis, it depends on what has been said or written in that specific linguistic context. Furthermore, Quirk & Greenbaum (1990) categorize textual ellipsis into anaphoric and cataphoric ellipsis. In the former, the
interpretation will be dependent on what comes before. The following example may help to illustrate the said definitions:

– *She was poor but (she was) honest.*

(Swan, 2001)

On the contrary, in the latter, the interpretation will be dependent to what comes after. According to Broughton's (1990) view, cataphoric ellipsis is less common and it makes the sentence to be a bit harder to read.

– *Those who prefer (to stay indoors), can stay indoors.*

(Quirk & Greenbaum, 1990)

Textual ellipsis is strongly connected to the missing elements within the sentences that have at least two clauses. If a particular sentence consists of only one clause, it will not be possible to apply incohesive ellipsis. Before the focus of the discussion is subjected into more specified area, the distinction between simple and complex ellipsis must be clarified.

A. Simple and complex ellipsis

When focusing on textual ellipsis on the elements that have been omitted from particular clauses of a sentence, it is imperative to firstly draw the line in between the simple and complex ellipsis. *Simple ellipsis* may be considered when the ellipsis occurs in only one of the conjoined clauses whereas *complex ellipsis* involves items
that are ellipted both anaphorically and cataphorically within the same sentence (Quirk, 1980). For example:

– I’ll gladly pay for the hotel, if you will (pay) for the food. (anaphoric simple ellipsis)

(Quirk et al., 1989)

– John can (pass the examination), and Bob certainly will, pass the examination. (cataphoric simple ellipsis)

– My brother is using the car this morning and (my brother) will be (using the car) this afternoon. (anaphoric simple ellipsis)

(Quirk, 1980)

All of these examples show the ellipted items within the same clause.

– Bob is (unhappy), and (Bob) always will be unhappy. (complex ellipsis)

(Quirk, 1980)

In the first clause, subject complement is ellipted cataphorically then realized in the second clause. On the contrary, in the second clause, the realized subject in the first clause is ellipted anaphorically. Therefore it can be recognized as complex ellipsis if both the anaphoric and cataphoric references existed.
B. Textual ellipsis with the focus on the ellipted elements

Given that the distinction between simple and complex ellipsis has been reviewed, the textual ellipsis will be divided even further into different parts in accordance to which elements are being ellipted. It may be differentiated based on ellipsis of subject, auxiliary, predicate, etc.

a. Ellipsis of subject

Ellipsis of subject requires several conditions; the subject can be omitted in coordinated clauses if the subject is identical within the clauses. In addition, one auxiliary or more can also be omitted together with the subject as long as they are identical.

- Margaret is selling her bicycle and (Margaret is) buying a car.
  (Quirk et al., 1989)
- Peter must have broken in and (Peter must have) stolen the papers.
  (Quirk, 1980)

Unlike coordinate clauses, in the case of subordinate clauses, the omission is commonly not allowed. It is only in rare occasion that the ellipsis in subordination can be ellipted.

- John told Alice that loved her. – incorrect

(Quirk, 1980)
– She proceeded to give illustrations, until (she was) checked by Evelyn.

(Broughton, 1990)

b. Ellipsis of auxiliary

Similar to the previous types, Ellipsis of auxiliary also requires several conditions; According to Quirk (1980), if only the auxiliary is to be omitted, the realized items must already present in the first clause.

The following examples formulated by Quirk (1980) help to demonstrate various possibilities that can be applied to the same sentence.

– Peter will be taking the course and Peter will be passing the examination. – nothing ellipted, identical subject and auxiliaries.

– Peter will be taking the course and he will be passing the examination. – nothing ellipted, identical auxiliaries and subject replaced with referential pronoun.

– Peter will be taking the course and (Peter) will be passing the examination. – subject ellipted, identical auxiliaries stay.

– Peter will be taking the course and (Peter) (will be) passing the examination. – both subject and auxiliaries are ellipted.

The conditions illustrated by above examples could be different when the subjects of clauses are not identical. If this is the case, only the auxiliary may be ellipted.
– *John will be playing the guitar and Mary (will be) preparing the supper.*

(Quirk, 1980)

– *She looks older than my mother (does).* – comparative clause

(Biber et al., 1999)

c. Ellipsis of predicate

Ellipsis of predicate is generally applied in coordinated clauses. Following the anaphoric formulation, the first clause remains unchanged while the subsequent clauses can contain the ellipted elements.

– *The adults ate chicken, the teenagers (ate) hamburgers, and the youngest children (ate) pizza.*

(Greenbaum & Nelson, 2002)

Additionally, lexical verbs may be omitted together with the auxiliaries as long as these are identical. For example:

– *I was reading a detective story and Peter (was reading) a novel.*

(Tárnyiková, 1993)

Dušková (1994) further adds that “expressed and ellipted forms do not have to be identical” as the following example depicts:

– *I have done little, but John (has done) even less.*
Ellipsis of predicate may also be combined with the omitted subject complement or object (Swan, 2001). The following examples follow the cataphoric formulation:

– *The food (is ready) and the drinks are ready.* – ellipsis of predicate together with subject complement.

– *Phil (washed the dishes) and Sally washed the dishes.* – ellipsis of predicate together with object.

Ellipsis of predicate along with the subject complement (Quirk, 1980) or object (Greenbaum & Nelson, 2002) may both be found together with ellipsis of subject. For example:

– *It’s cold in December in England, but (it’s cold) in July in New Zealand.* – ellipsis of predicate and subject complement combined with ellipsis of subject.

– *Last year we spent our holiday in Spain, the year before (we spent our holiday) in Greece.* – ellipsis of predicate and object combined with ellipsis of subject.

**d. Ellipsis of direct object**

Ellipsis of direct object requires the realized items to be retained in the last clause (cataphoric formulation) (Quirk, 1980).

– *Mary washed (the shirts), Jane ironed (the shirts), and Alice folded the shirts.*

It may be changed into a complex ellipsis if the subjects are identical.
- Mary washed (the shirts), (Mary) ironed (the shirts), and (Mary) folded the shirts.

e. Ellipsis of subject complement

According to Quirk (1980), if the verb in the last clause is other than be, the realized items must present in the last clause (cataphoric formulation).

- George was (angry) and Bob certainly seemed angry.

When the verb in the last clause is be, the realized items can be in either first (anaphoric formulation) or last clause (cataphoric formulation). (Quirk, 1980)

- Bob seemed angry, and George certainly was (angry).
- Bob seemed (angry), and George certainly was angry.

If the subject is identical in both clauses, complex ellipsis may be encountered.

- John felt (hungry), and (John) was hungry.

(Quirk, 1980)

f. Ellipsis of adverbial

A lot of elements can be considered to be under the scope of adverbial, from conjuncts, disjuncts to adjuncts. Despite that, ellipsis of adverbial is rarely found.

Although it is not very common, Swan (2001) provides the example in which ellipsis, following the cataphoric formulation, illustrating the adverbial case:
– *We drove (across America), rode (across America), flew (across America) and walked across America.* – ellipsis of subject involved

Ellipsis of adverbial can sometimes occur when the adverbial is adjunct and is realized at the end-position. Then the adjunct applies to both the clauses like the following example:

– *Mary spoke (rudely) and John answered rudely.* (Quirk, 1980)

### 2. Structural ellipsis

Crystal (2004) identifies structural ellipsis as a special type of ellipsis where the grammar comprehension is required in order to determine the full form of a sentence. For example:

– *I believe (that) you are mistaken.*

The other elements that could be ellipted in structural ellipsis are determiners, particles, pronouns operators and other closed-class words. Furthermore, Quirk & Greenbaum (1990) claim that structural ellipsis commonly occurs in block-language, like headlines, book titles, and other variety of similar writings. Based on its occurrence, it can be said that the structural ellipsis takes form as a device of economy where components of little informational value are omitted as depicted in the following example.

– *(The) US (is) heading for (a) new slump.*

(Quirk & Greenbaum, 1990)
Even further, Quirk & Greenbaum (1990) noticed that situational and structural ellipsis are sometimes quite difficult to be distinguished to each other as there is no clear defining line between them.

3. Situational ellipsis (elision)

Situational ellipsis also known as elision is another type of an elliptical structure (Tárnyiková, 1993). It refers to a kind of omission commonly used in informal speech. Swan (2001) states that more often than not, if the meaning is already clear, the unstressed words are mostly ellipted at the start of a sentence. As elision naturally concerns the first part of a sentence, it is also commonly named as initial ellipsis. Biber et al. (1999) explain that the term initial ellipsis is employed just to mark the position of the ellipsis. He further defines the situational (initial) ellipsis as the case of leaving out words with contextually low information value, at the beginning of a turn, a clause, or (occasionally) a non-clausal unit. Therefore, as the name itself has already been self-explanatory, situational ellipsis depends on the situation and not on the textual relations. Hence, it cannot be considered to be contributive towards the cohesion of the whole text.

These following examples are instances of elision:

– (I am) glad you think so.

– (It is) strange how the ants come in when it’s about to rain.

(Huddleston & Pullum, 2002)
(Have you) seen Lucy?

(Swan, 2001)

The purpose of elision or situational ellipsis is in consonance to the general purpose of ellipsis as a whole, that is to economize the speech, as it has described by Tárnyiková, (1993). Broughton (1990) observes that the utilization of expressions with elision appears to be more frequent in contrast to their non-ellipted forms such as:

- (I) thank you.
- (It is) no problem.

Departing from the broad types of ellipsis that have been reviewed above, the focus of the study should be further specified. Understanding that the categorization might be too many, this study will concentrate its investigation of ellipsis only to the types of incohesive ellipsis, the reason is that, in order to answer the second statement of problems stated in first chapter, the most relevant concept must be utilized. As the object of this study is advertisement which could be classified as functional text, the subdivision of incohesive ellipsis is considered to be the most appropriate and relevant concept to further answer the research problems stated on the very first chapter.
2.3 National Geographic Magazine

Restating the observed description of the first chapter, the source text utilized in this study is National Geographic Magazine, as it comprises various types of advertisements and is widely known at international level. Hence the language used in the advertisements is English and considered to be the most proper and relevant field for this study.

National Geographic itself is the official media sources in the form of magazine founded by the National Geographic Society in 1888. It was also considered as one of the most powerful cultural institutions in United States at that time (Pérez-Marín, 2016). Primarily, the magazine is released as a journal for scholarly audience. At its first establishment, four historical developments at the end of the 19th century contributed towards the creation of the magazine; the emergence of mass journalism, the development of photoengraving technology, the emergence of distinct academic disciplines, and the awakening of Americans’ interest in foreign lands (Pauly, 1979). All of those, resulting in its iconic trademark known by its audience through the use of dramatic photography and stylistic combination of scientific framing and unique selection of theme.

The magazine is published monthly, discussing the specific theme and variety of topics on each of its release. The topic discussed on this platform varies widely from science, geography, history, to world culture. As for its worldwide fame and popularity, the National Geographic Magazines has significant international audience,
resulting in many published editions covered in other language all around the world. Currently the National Geographic Magazine is being led by its tenth editorial director, Susan Goldberg.

National Geographic magazine as one of notable media provides some spaces for the advertisements in between of their main contents as its common format. Furthermore, the three editions of “Why Birds Matter”, “The New Big Brother”, and “Through an Astronaut’s Eyes” released on January, February, and March, in that particular order, are chosen to be the objects of the study, as these three comprise the most productive advertisements which mostly contain elliptical construction.