

# **THE USE OF COHESIVE DEVICES IN STUDENTS' WRITING**

**(A Thesis)**

**By  
SRI SUNINGSIH**



**MASTER IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING STUDY PROGRAM  
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BANDAR LAMPUNG  
2016**

## **ABSTRACT**

### **THE USE OF COHESIVE DEVICES IN STUDENTS' WRITING**

**By:**  
**Sri Suningsih**

This research aimed to find out types of grammatical and lexical cohesive devices and the correctness of cohesive devices in students' writing. This study was designed as qualitative study. The samples of this research were 3 groups of students in Pre-Intermediate, Advanced, and Academic Writing course. The data were collected through the document of students' recount writings analyzed by using the theory of cohesion by Halliday and Hasan (1976). The analysis was concerned with: grammatical cohesion (reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction), and lexical cohesion (reiteration and collocation).

The results of this study show that the three groups of students produced the five types of cohesive devices i.e; the third-semester students in Pre-Intermediate writing course utilized conjunction 49.64%, reference 45.84%, lexical 3.93%, ellipsis 0.39%, and substitution 0.19%. The fifth-semester students in Advance writing course utilized reference 49.44%, conjunction 44.51, lexical 5.73%, substitutuion 0.19, and ellipsis 0.12%. The seventh-semester students in Academic Writing course utilized reference 62.59%, conjunction 35.49%, lexical 1.82%, substitution 0.10%, and ellipsis 0%. Therefore, it is concluded that the trend of the three levels of students shows that the higher proficiency level of students, the more reference they acquired. In substitution, the proficiency levels of students do not influence to the achievement of substitution. In other words, the use of substitution in three groups of students are quite balance. In ellipsis, conjunction, and lexical cohesion, the higher proficiency of students, the less ellipsis, conjunction, and lexical cohesion emerged.

It is concluded that Indonesian major students could produce cohesive devices in their writing. However, they are quite ignore some cohesive devices i.e., substitution and ellipsis. In term of their incorrect use, the researcher concludes that there is small percentage of incorrect cohesive devices used by the students, they missuse certain cohesive devices.e.g; reference and conjunction.

They do not only create disorganized texts but also make the content incomprehensible.

Based on the analysis of those three groups of students, the researchers come to final conclusion that this study known as cross sectional study which is type of study that involves a representative subjects at one specific point in time in. Therefore, this is also the new phenomena in language research that has not been done by the previous researcher that makes it different with another research.

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**By:  
SRI SUNINGSIH**

A Thesis

Submitted in a partial fulfillment of  
The requirements for S-2 Degree



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LANGUAGE AND ARTS EDUCATION DEPARTMENT  
TEACHER TRAINING AND EDUCATION FACULTY  
LAMPUNG UNIVERSITY  
BANDAR LAMPUNG  
2016**



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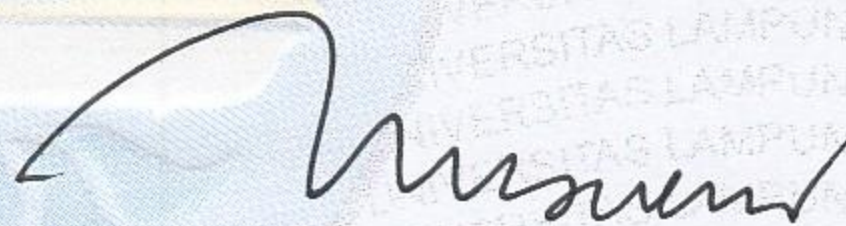
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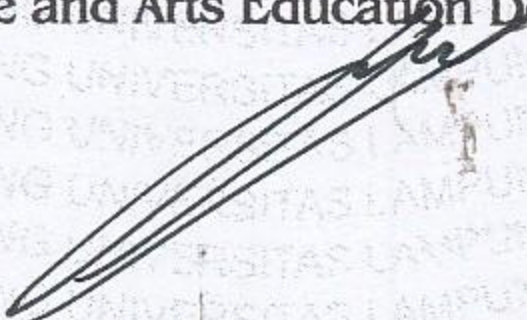


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## **DEDICATION**

By offering my praise and gratitude to Allah SWT for the abundant blessing to me, I would proudly dedicate this piece of work to:

- My beloved parents, Sunardi and Rusmini.
- My beloved future husband, Alvin Alyonni, S.S.
- My fabulous friends of the 1<sup>st</sup> batch of MPBI 2014.
- My Almamater, Lampung University.

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**MOTTO**

“In essence, if we want to direct our lives, we must take control of our consistent actions. It’s not what we do once in a while that shapes our lives, but what we do consistently.”

“Success in professional. It’s the result of a series of small disciplines that lead us into habitual patterns of success that no longer require consistent will or effort.”

“learn to convert the discomfort of discipline into the satisfaction of personal growth.

- Tony Robbins -

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First of all, I would like to express my deep gratitude to all my school teachers, my lecturers for giving me knowlegde in particular English to further my study in magister program of the English Education Department, Universitas Lampung. Furthermore, I would also like to extend my appreciation to the faculty of Universitas Lampung, Head of magister program of the English Education Department, Universitas Lampung Ibu Flora for gaining my English competence.

Secondly, I would also like to express my deepest gratefulness thesis first advisor Prof. Dr. Patuan Raja, M.Pd, my second thesis advisor Dr. Muhammad Sukurlan, M.A and my examiner Dr. Tuntun Sinaga, M.hum who had been guiding me from the very start writing up the finishing if my thesis. They had been patiently, kindly understanding encouraging especially when I was esperiencing difficulties, uncertainties, and even frustations in process of analyzing the data and writing up my thesis. My thanks are also addressed to Dr. Abdurrahman, M.Si as the second examiner for his contribution, ideas, and support.

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Finally but the most important; my parents Sunardi and Rusmini who always encourage, pray me all the time. Their loving, support have always been crucial in every aspect of my life. To them I dedicate this thesis.



Bandar Lampung, July 11<sup>th</sup>, 2016

The writer,

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Bandar Lampung, July 11<sup>th</sup>, 2016

The writer,

Sri Suningsih

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## ABBREVIATIONS

### Abbreviations

C	: Conjunction
C	: Correct
CC	: Correct Conjunction
CDs	: Cohesive Devices
CE	: Correct Ellipsis
CL	: Correct Lexical
CR	: Correct Reference
CS	: Correct Substitution
E	: Ellipsis
e.g	: Example
IC	: Incorrect
IC C	: Correct Conjunction
IC E	: Correct Ellipsis
IC L	: Correct Lexical
IC R	: Correct Reference
IC S	: Correct Substitution
L	: Lexical
N	: Number of Items
R	: Reference
S	: Substitution
S	: Sentence



## **I. INTRODUCTION**

This chapter describes background, research questions, objectives, and significance of the study.

### **1.1. Background**

The goal of language teaching in Indonesian is directed towards the students' attainment of communicative competence, consisting of grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence. The attainment of communicative competence is facilitated through oral and written communication known as the four language skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing). Listening and reading are categorized as the receptive skills, whereas speaking and writing are categorized as the productive skills.

In the teaching of English in university, several techniques to the teaching of writing have been invented. One of them is teaching genre-based writing (narrative writing, descriptive writing, argumentative writing, recount writing, etc). Students of English education study program in Indonesia have to pass English academic writing. Nevertheless, some students still experience some problems in generating and organizing ideas, and also in delivering their ideas into communicative text. That is reasonable since writing is the most complicated

language skill to master. The writing skill is more complicated than that of other language skills. Even sometimes an English native speaker may experience complication in a tricky situation. Basically writing skill requires a well-structured way of the presentation of thoughts in an organized and planned way (Braine and Yorozu: 1998).

One may get difficulty in showing a good command of writing. To produce a good writing, one needs to have knowledge of cohesion to make a text communicative, the text is likely to be much more powerful if a writer considers the aspect of cohesion and coherence. Halliday and Hassan (1976) emphasize the act of producing coherent as well as cohesive discourse in order to ensure texture or cohesion in writing. The effect of discourse devices on writing is also very strong since they provide the students with various kinds of grammatical devices which are used to stretch any piece of discourse to be cohesive. It is noteworthy that without having a good command of the linguistic ties, one can never construct a cohesive discourse. They perceive cohesion as the only factor that distinguishes texts from nontexts. The mastery of cohesive devices is a crucial element of effective academic writing and essential for academic success in any courses where English is the medium of instruction.

The utilization of cohesive devices in academic writing has attracted the attention of many researchers who are trying to address the issue of lack of cohesion in students' writing, especially in Indonesia, where English is taught as a foreign language.

Hidayanto (2015) investigates the types of cohesive device used by the third semester students of English Literature Universitas Brawijaya, and the dominant types of cohesive device used by the third semester students of English Literature in 7 expository essays. Rahman (2013) examines the use of cohesive devices in descriptive text by Omani students-teachers, the frequency of cohesive devices used by Arabic L1 student-teachers in their written discourse, the extent the student-teachers differ from native English speakers in the use of cohesive devices, the problems they face in using cohesive devices to achieve cohesion.

Ayub, Seken, K., and Suarnajaya, W. (2013) analyzes the types of cohesion and coherence in 30 students' English writings at the second grade of SMAN 1 Labuapi West Lombok using qualitative method. In line with that research, Andayani, P.A., Seken, I.K., Marjohan, A. (2014) analyzes the cohesion and coherence of students' narrative writings of 30 students of the ninth grade in SMP Negeri 2 Banjar.

Elawita (2012) investigates the appropriateness of using cohesive devices of students' writing of 33 students of English study program in STKIP-PGRI in the third semester in the course of writing III. Swastami (2014) investigates the cohesion found and also the most frequently of correctly and incorrectly used in recount text that written by second semester students IAIN Tulungagung. Abdurahman (2013) analyzed types of grammatical cohesive devices students in 10 students' their thesis writing and how these devices create cohesive discourse.



Xuefan (2007) analyzes the use of lexical cohesive devices in narration and argumentation text in quantitative study with participants of 30 English majors from Wuyi University in China Students.

Ghasemi (2013) reviewed some studies focusing on the use of cohesive devices and the relationship between the number of cohesive devices and writing quality.

Halliday and Hasan (1976) also point out that cohesion is one of the linguistic system's major resources for text construction. In fact, cohesion represents the presence of explicit cues in the text that allow readers or listeners to find semantic relations within it as part of linguistic system enhancing the semantic potentials of text. Besides that, linguistic ties makes text more cohesive and understandable. But, it seems that students do not use cohesive devices efficiently because the problem noticed by teachers is that students have many problems in writing effective discourse in general and in using cohesive devices in particular.

The five variables (lexical diversity, word frequency, word meaningfulness, aspect repetition and word familiarity) can be used to significantly predict L2 writing proficiency. The result finding done by Crossley and McNamara (2012) found that L2 writers categorised as highly proficient do not produce essays that are more cohesive, but instead produce texts that are more linguistically sophisticated. Consequently of their finding, the researcher has curiosity to conduct the research in term of cohesion in different level proficiency. That is Pre-Intermediate, Advanced, and Academic writing students to give other

overviews since cohesion has been the focus of attention for several researchers in different nations.

The previous studies described above also give readers an overview of the way EFL/ESL learners use cohesive devices in writings. In line with them, this study focusses on the use of cohesive devices in students' recount text that was also done by Swastami (2014). However, this study wants to investigate it in different proficiency level. That is third, fifth, and seventh semester in Pre-Intermediate, Advance, and Academic writing course in odd semester at one point in time or known as cross sectional study.

The reason for choosing recount text as subject for the study, since the people must have many experiences in their life and they commonly retell the events to someone for the purpose of informing. Another part that hasn't been discussed by the previous researchers is about the correctness of students' use of cohesion. Therefore the present researcher takes the point of correctness as the second major of her research, and cohesion as the main point of her research since the linking device also becomes one the objective of learning English on the university level. The competence to be achieved by the third semester students in Pre-Intermediate writing, the students are able to express ideas with the correct diction and grammar by examining the elements of good paragraph (topic sentence, supporting sentences, concluding sentence, paragraph unity, paragraph coherence) and the practice developed various types of organizing techniques paragraph (example, definition, description, analysis, classification, argumentation, analogy, comparison, cause and effect).

In addition, for Advanced writing students in the fifth semester, the students are expected to be able to express ideas in writing with the correct diction and grammar by examining structure of the text and practice to develop various types of text according to the English curriculum (description, hortatory explanation, analytical explanation, narration, news items, spoof, Anecdote, report, review), and students develop writing skills for a preliminary academic research (paraphrase, summary, Precis, note-taking).

Moreover, in academic writing, the seventh semester students are expected to be able to express ideas in writing with the correct diction and grammar by practicing to write papers, research proposal, research reports, and articles, reporting results research for scientific journals in good English writing.

Therefore, the students are expected to be competent in writing skill to achieve the goal of language learning. Unfortunately, there are some problems faced by the students in composing good writing. The use of linking devices remains a major difficulty in writing essay. This is caused of same words in linking devices are used for different purposes in writing essay. It creates confusion for students to write. Besides, in the preliminary research in writing course of English faculty Lampung university, the researcher found that majority of students faced the problem in writing that most of students still confuse in using cohesive devices appropriately in connecting sentences in a paragraph and one paragraph to each other in an essay. In short, the use of the same word with different purposes in cohesive devices makes the students difficult to determine the appropriate word in creating paragraphs.

The findings of the previous studies reveal that cohesion is one of the influential features in a judging the quality a writing of writing. The effect of discourse devices on writing is very strong since they provide us with various kinds of grammatical devices which are used to stretch any piece of discourse to be cohesive. It is noteworthy that without having a good command of the linguistic ties, one can never construct a cohesive discourse. Thus, since in traditional grammar the focus is on form not syntax, there was a need to have sentences in combination which are created with discourse analysis attempts.

### **1.2. Research Questions**

Research questions of this study are:

1. What cohesive devices are used by Indonesian English major students?
2. How is the correctness of cohesive devices in the students of Pre-Intermediate, Advanced, and Academic writing?

### **1.3. Objectives**

Objectives of this study are:

1. To find out what cohesive devices are used by Indonesian English major students.
2. To analyze how the correctness of cohesive devices in the students of Pre-Intermediate, Advanced, and Academic writing.



#### **1.4. Significance**

The significances of the study are:

##### **1.4.1. Theoretical**

The result of this research is expected to give contribution to provide additional information for the further educational research development in the field of cohesion.

##### **1.4.2. Practical**

###### **1.4.2.1. Teachers**

This research is expected to be the sources for teachers or educators to explore their skill in order to comprehend discourse analysis materials especially cohesive devices that often used in communication. Besides, the result of this research can be used by educators to learn how the appropriate cohesive devices used by students performance so that the students can achieve the objectives of the lesson.

###### **1.4.2.2. Students**

This research provides set of information for the students about the importance of cohesion to have a cohesive discourse. Besides, this research provides information in understanding about the very basics principles of cohesive devices, gives some insight into how students structure what they want to say and shows how one sentence or paragraph relates with another sentence or paragraph.

### **1.4.2.3. Graduate School of Teacher Training and Education Faculty of Lampung University**

The result of this research can be used as reference for other researchers who will conduct research in the same field. It also can help them to understand the unity of the text easier.

## **1.5. Scope**

The research was conducted in English department, Lampung University as one of English teacher and education university in Bandar Lampung. The subjects of the research are the third, fifth, and seventh semester students of Pre-Intermediate, Advanced, and Academic writing course of Lampung University. The researcher was examined data through analyzing all students' writing in those different proficiency levels, counting the use of cohesive devices, and inputting each of them according to the classification in each table of cohesive devices classification, categorizing the cohesive devices and the last is assessing the correctness and incorrectness of cohesive devices in students' writing

## **1.6. Definition of Key Terms**

- Writing is a process of communication that uses a conventional graphic system to convey a message to a reader. (Linderman, 2001: 10).
- Discourse Analysis is concerned with the study of the relationship between language and the contexts in which it is used. (McCarthy, 1991: 5).

- Cohesion refers to the connections which have their manifestation in the discourse itself, and coherence refers to the connections which can be made by the reader or listener based on knowledge outside the discourse. (Renkema, 2004: 103)
- Cohesive devices are useful English language conjunctions, transitional phrases, synonyms and pronouns that express ideas in a cohesive manner. They are used to join sentences together to make ideas more understandable to the reader. Coordinating, subordinating and correlative conjunctions are the most used cohesive devices and are used to connect ideas for cohesive, readable text. The devices which create cohesion are partly grammatical and partly lexical. The grammatical resources are reference, ellipsis (including substitution) and conjunction. The lexical resources are the taxonomic relations (synonymy/ antonymy, hyponymy, meronymy) and collocation. Each occurrence of cohesion in a text is called a “cohesive tie”.
- Reference concerns the relation between a discourse element and a preceding or following element. Reference deals with a semantic relationship whereas substitution and ellipsis deal with the relationship between grammatical units: words, sentence parts and clauses. In the case of reference, the meaning of a dummy word can be determined by what is imparted before or after the occurrence of the dummy word. In general, the dummy word is a pronoun.

- Substitution is the replacement of one item by another. It is a relation between linguistic items, such as words or phrases, rather than a relation between meanings and this distinguishes it from reference.
- Ellipsis is the omission of an item in which the form of substitution is replaced by nothing. In other words, it can be regarded as substitution by zero. Ellipsis is, thus, a relation within the text; where there is ellipsis in the structure, there is a presupposition that something is to be supplied or understood, and in the great majority of instances the presupposed item is present in the preceding text.
- Conjunction is the relationship which indicates how the subsequent sentence or clause should be linked to the preceding or the following (parts of the) sentence. This is usually achieved by the use of conjunctions (also known as connectives).
- Lexical cohesion refers to the links between the content words (nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs) which are used in subsequent segments of discourse. Two types of lexical cohesion can be distinguished: reiteration and collocation. (Halliday & Hassan: 1976)

To summarize, the present chapter has been devoted to the introduction of present research into cohesive devices in students' writing including the background, the research questions, the objectives, the significance, the scope, and explanation of key terms

## **II. LITERATURE REVIEW**

This chapter discusses the concept of writing, cohesion, correctness, genre, and the previous research of the use of cohesive device in students' writing.

### **2.1. Writing**

When one writes something, he/ she uses ordering words in order to make our writing well. Whatever our writing, accidentally we use grammar. Relating to our educational parts, our students use their appropriate grammar that has been taught when they are writing a composition.

Linderman (2001: 10) defines writing as a process of communication that uses a conventional graphic system to convey a message to a reader. It means that writing is process of sending the message by using letters, punctuation, words or sentences as a graphic system. Thus the process of communication can be said successful if the reader and the writer understand the language being used in written communication.

There are two terms in writing: composition and essay writing which involves far more than the production of grammatical sentence: it demands creativity and originality, since it is generally intended not only to inform but also to entertain. A composition, on the other hand, is a task which involves the students in manipulating words in grammatically correct sentences and in linking

those sentences to form a piece of continuous writing which successfully communicates the writer's thoughts and ideas on a certain topic (Heaton, 1975:127).

Writing involves more than just producing words and sentences. To be able to produce a piece of writing, one should be able to write a connected series of words and sentences which are grammatically and logically linked, so that the purpose we have in mind will suit the intended readers. (Tesfaye and Tsadik: 2008). Writing reinforces the grammatical structures, idioms, and vocabulary that we have been teaching our students, when our students write, they also have a chance to be adventurous with the language, to go beyond what they have just learned to say, to take risks, when they write, they necessarily become very involved with the new language; the effort to express idea and the constant use of the eye, hand, and brain is a unique way to reinforce learning.

Writing should be done with the understanding from the past time in order to inform and express what had happened, it should be well-organized in order to be understandable for the readers. "Process writing is a way of looking at what people do when they compose written text." (Harmer, 2004). It means of expressing thought, ideas, or information by written form. To get good writing, the writer should consider everything to support the topic, e.g: right grammatical, choosing good language or considering other complement.

Writing skill deals with the ability to arrange the graphic system such as letter, words, and sentences of certain language being used in written communication in order that reader can understand the information. The writing



skills are complex and difficult to teach, requiring mastery not only of grammatical and rhetorical devices but also of conceptual and judgment elements. The following analysis attempts to group the many and varied skill necessary for writing good prose into five general components:

- Language use: the ability to write correct and appropriate sentences.
- Mechanical skills: the ability to use correctly those conventions peculiar to the written language. e.i. punctuation, spelling.
- Treatment of content: the ability to think creatively and develop thoughts, excluding all irrelevant information.
- Stylistic skill: the ability to manipulate sentence and paragraphs, and the use language effectively.
- Judgment skills: the ability to write in an appropriate manner for a particular purpose with a particular audience in mind, together with an ability to select, organize and order relevant information (Heaton, 1975:135).

In short, students' writing skill should be evaluated in several factors i.e: mechanics (including spelling and punctuation), vocabulary, grammar, appropriate content, diction (or word selection), rhetorical matters of various kinds (organization, cohesion, unity, appropriateness to audience, topic, and occasion); as well as sophisticated concerns such as logic and style.

Cohen (1994) states that there are ten steps in assessment of writing, i.e : content (depth and breadth of coverage), rhetorical structure (clarity and unity of the thesis), organization (sense of pattern for the development of the ideas),

register (appropriateness of level of formality), style (sense of control and grace), economy (efficiency of language use), accuracy of meaning (selection and use of vocabulary), appropriateness of language conventions (grammar, spelling, punctuation), reader's understanding (inclusion of sufficient information to allow meaning to be conveyed), reader's acceptance (efforts made in the text to solicit the reader's agreement)

Based on the statements above, it can be inferred that cohesion must be acquired by the learner who is learning any languages. So that the sentence is clearly linked to the text.

## **2.2. Cohesion**

For several years, the analysis of cohesion in texts has been a key topic in the study of discourse. Cohesion refers to the relations of meaning that exists within a text. It is part of the system of language which has the potentials for meaning enhancement in texts. The most salient phenomenon of discourse is the fact that sentences or utterances are linked together. For this "connectedness", this "texture", two concepts are used: cohesion, referring to the connections which have their manifestation in the discourse itself, and coherence, referring to the connections which can be made by the reader or listener based on knowledge outside the discourse. In a sentence like "Mary got pregnant and she married" the fact she refers to Mary is an example of cohesion, and the interpretation that her pregnancy was the reason for her to marry is an example of coherence. (Rankema, 2004).

We shall be looking at what discourse analysts can tell us about contextualized uses of structures and grammatical its orientations to cover significant areas at present under-represented in grammar teaching. We begin by looking at grammatical cohesion, the surface marking of semantic links between clause and sentences in written discouse, between utturances and turns in speech. (McCarthy: 1991)

Halliday and Hasan (1976: 04) note that cohesion occurs where the interpretation of some elements in the discourse is dependent on that of another. They find five sources of cohesion that can be found in English: cohesion through reference, cohesion through substitution, cohesion through ellipsis, cohesion through conjunction, and cohesion through lexical items. Of these various types of cohesive relations, the first four are grammatical, while the other is lexical. Each of these cohesion sources will be discussed briefly in the following section.

## **1. Reference**

The first source of cohesion discussed in English by Halliday and Hasan (1976) is cohesion through reference. They state,

Reference is the specific nature of the information that is signaled for retrieval... and the cohesion lies in the continuity of reference, whereby the same thing enters into the discourse a second time (1976:31).

Reference concerns the relation between a discourse element and a preceding or following element. Reference deals with a semantic relationship whereas substitution and ellipsis deal with the relationship between grammatical units: words, sentence parts and clauses. In the case of reference, the meaning of a dummy word can be determined by what is imparted before or after the

occurrence of the dummy word. In general, the dummy word is a pronoun. Rankema (2004:104).

(1) *I see John is here. **He** hasn't change a bit.*

(2) ***She** certainly has changed. No, behind John. I mean Karin .*

But reference can also be achieved by other means, for instance, by the use of a definite article or an adverb, as in the following examples:

(3) *A man crossed the street. Nobody saw what happened. Suddenly **the** man was lying there and calling for help.*

(4) *We grew up in the 1960s. We were idealistic **then**.*

In general, reference is subcategorized into two groups: exophora, or exophoric reference (situational reference which is not cohesive/ reference which lies outside the text in the context of situation) and endophora, or endophoric reference (textual reference/ reference which refers to preceding text).

See the differences between endophora and exophora in sentences below;

(5) *I saw Sally yesterday. She was lying on the beach.*

“She” is an endophoric reference since it refers to something already mentioned in the text, i.e. “Sally”. By contrast, see sentence (6)

(6) *She was lying on the beach.*

If it appeared by itself, contains an exophoric reference; “she” refers to something that is not present in surrounding text, so there is not enough information given within the text to independently determine to whom “she” refers to. It can refer to someone the speaker assumes his/her audience has prior knowledge of, or can refer to a person he/she is showing to his/her listeners.

Without further information, in other words, there is no way of knowing the exact meaning of an exophoric term.

Endophora is divided into *anaphora* (reference to preceding text) and *cataphora* (reference to following text). A special type of referential cohesion results from the use of pronouns;

(7) *John said that **he** was not going to school.*

(8) *When **he** came in John tripped over the blocks.*

Back-referential pronouns, such as the pronouns in (7), are called anaphora. The term is derived from a Greek word which means “to lift up” or “to bring back”. Forward referential pronouns, such as the one in (8), are called cataphora: *cata-* is the opposite of *ana-*. In the examples mentioned here. “*he*” can also refer to another person. Then it is called an *exophor* or a deictic element. Anaphoric relations are not only found when personal pronouns are used. See the proverb in the following example.

(9) *If John is not going to school, Then I won't **do** it either.*

The research into anaphora is focused on the following question: How are anaphora interpreted and which factors plays role in the interpretation process? Compare the following discourse fragments.

(10) *Mary said nothing to Sally. She would not understand the first thing about it.*

(11) *Mary told Sally everything. She could not keep her mouth shut.*

In (10) “*she*” can only refer to “*sally*”. In (11) both references are grammatically possible. While in (12). “*she*” can only refer to “*Sally*”.

- (12) *Mary told Sally everything. She could not keep her mouth shut and Mary really told her off for doing it.*

An interesting phenomenon can be observed in the following sentences.

- (13) *Julius left. He was sick.*  
 (14) *He was sick. Julius left.*  
 (15) *He was sick. That's why Julius left.*

In (13) "he" can refer to Julius. In (14) it is much more plausible that "he" refers to someone other than Julius while, in (15) "he" can be interpreted as referring forward to "Julius". These differences can be explained by assuming an interpretation principle suggested by Peter Bosch;1983 in Rankema (2004).

- (16) *Principle of natural sequential aboutness*

Unless there is a reason to assume the contrary, each following sentence is assumed to say something about object introduced in previous sentences.

On the basis of this principle", according to Bosch; 1983 in Rankema (2004), the "he" in (14) cannot be interpreted as Julius. The fact of Julius leaving says nothing about the preceding sentence: "He was sick." In (15), on the other hand, the word "that" indicates that something is going to be said which is linked to the preceding sentence. This indication is reinforced by the reader's knowledge that one consequence of "being sick" is found in the words which follow, that is, that sickness can be a reason for leaving. It is for this reason that the sentence about Julius can be linked to the preceding sentence. This interpretation is, therefore, very much dependent on the reader's general knowledge. This can also be seen in the following example, in which the relation is the same as in (15).

- (17) *He screamed. That is why Julius left.*



As someone's screaming is not usually a reason for that same person's leaving, it can be assumed on the basis of the interpretation principle that the second sentence does not say anything about the person in the first sentence. Thus, the "he" in (17) cannot be interpreted as referring to "Julius".

Experimental research has determined which factor plays a role in the interpretation of anaphora. In an experiment conducted by Susan Ehrlich; 1980 in Rankema (2004), subjects were given sentences of the following type.

(18) *Steve blamed Frank because he spilled the coffee.*

(19) *Jane blamed Bill because he spilled the coffee.*

The time it took for the subjects to determine which name was the antecedent for the anaphor "he" was measured. Most of the subjects determined that "he" in sentence (18) referred to Frank. This decision did not require grammatical knowledge but general knowledge. Spilling coffee is clumsy and inconvenient and is, therefore, a reason for blame. If Steve is blaming Frank, then it is most likely the latter who spilled the coffee. The use of general knowledge is a pragmatic factor. In (19) this knowledge is not necessary for the interpretation of "he". Knowledge of grammar makes it clear that "he", being a male-gender pronoun, can only refer to Bill.

If pragmatic factors always play a role in the interpretation of anaphora, then the subjects would have spent equal amounts of time in determining the antecedent for both sentences (18) and (19). If, however, readers first apply their grammatical knowledge and only then their general knowledge, if necessary, then the interpretation of (18) will take less time than that of (19). After all, in the case

of (19) grammatical knowledge is sufficient. The experiment did indeed prove that the interpretation of (19) took less time than that of (18). This led to the conclusion that pragmatic factors only play a role when grammatical clues are lacking.

### ➤ Types of Reference

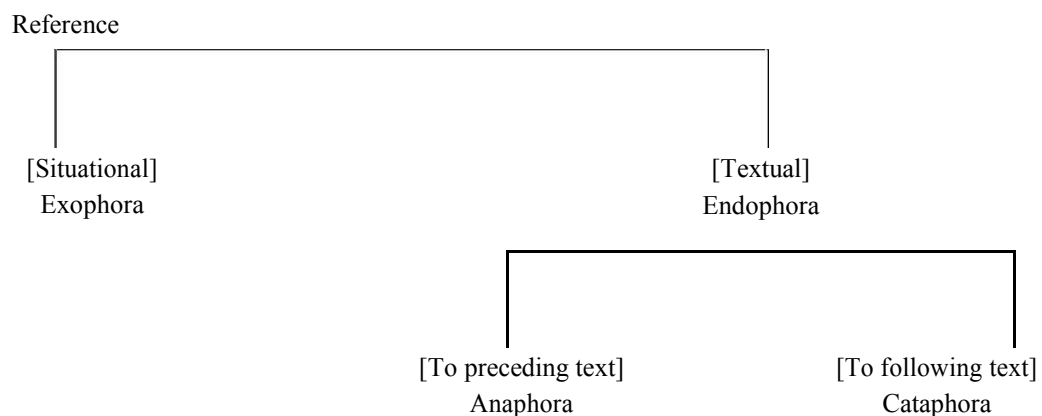


Figure 2.1: Types of reference.

Reference is divided into three parts: personal, demonstrative, and comparative reference. The following is a brief discussion on each type of references.

#### a) Personal Reference

Halliday and Hasan (1976:37) define personal reference as “reference by means of function in the speech situation, through the category of “person”. There are three classes of personal reference: personal pronouns, possessive adjectives (possessive determiners), and possessive pronouns. Table 2.1 shows three classes of personal reference found in English.

Table 2.1: Personal reference in English (Halliday and Hasan 1976:38)

<i>Semantic category</i>	<b>Existential</b>	<b>Possessive</b>	
<i>Grammatical function</i>	<b>Head</b>		<b>Modifier</b>
<i>Class</i>	<b>noun (pronoun)</b>	<b>Determiner</b>	
<i>Person:</i>			
speaker (only)	I me	Mine	My
addressee(s), with/without	You	Yours	Your
other person(s)	We us	Ours	Our
speaker and other person(s)	He him	His	His
other person, male	She her	Hers	Her
other person, female	They them	Theirs	Their
other person; objects	It	[its]	Its
object; passage of text	One		one's
generalized person			

## b) Demonstrative reference

Demonstrative reference is achieved by means of location, on a scale of proximity. These demonstratives are also semantically subcategorized into selective demonstratives and non-selective demonstratives. Table 2.2 shows the system of demonstrative reference found in English.

Table 2.2: Demonstrative reference in English (Halliday and Hasan 1976:38)

<i>Semantic category</i>	<b>Selective</b>		<b>Non-selective</b>
<i>Grammatical function</i>	<b>Modifier/Head</b>	<b>Adjunct</b>	<b>Modifier</b>
<i>Class</i>	<b>Determiner</b>	<b>Adverb</b>	<b>Determiner</b>
Proximity:			
Near	this these	here [now]	
Far	that those	there then	
Neutral			The

## c) Comparative reference

Comparative reference involves identity or similarity. The reference may be anaphoric, or cataphoric or even exophoric depending on its referent point.

English comparative reference grammatically functions as either a modifier or an adjunct and it consists of two classes: adjectives and adverbs. Table 2.3 gives Halliday and Hasan's system of comparative reference in English.

Table 2.3: Comparative reference in English (Halliday and Hasan 1976:39)

<i>Grammatical function</i>	<b>Modifier: Deictic/Epithet (see below)</b>	<b>Submodifier/Adjunct</b>
<i>Class</i>	<b>Adjective</b>	<b>Adverb</b>
<i>General comparison:</i> Identity general similarity	same identical equal similar additional	Identically similarly likewise so such
difference (ie non-identity or similarity)	other different else	differently otherwise
<i>Particular comparison:</i>	better, more etc [comparative adjectives and quantifiers]	so more less equally

Comparative reference is categorized into two groups including general comparison and particular comparison.

a. General comparison

General comparison is a “comparison that is simply in terms of likeness and unlikeness, without respect to any particular property: two things may be the same, similar or different ... [and it] is expressed by a certain class of adjectives and adverbs” (Halliday and Hasan 1976:77).

The kinds of general comparison:

- Identity: same, equal, identical, identically
- Similarity: such, similar, so, similarly, likewise

- Deference: other, different, else, differently, otherwise.

Examples:

- a. *we have received exactly the **same** report as was submitted two months ago.*
- b. *there are **other** qualities than conviviality needed for his job.*
- c. *find a number **equal** to the square of the sum of digits.* (20). (Halliday and Hasan, 1976:78)

All the examples in (20) consist of general comparison reference. In (a) same means, the report is like the report that was submitted two months ago. Same is identity general comparison. In (b) other is the comparative reference in a form of difference. It means there are additional qualities needed for this job. In (c) equal is identity general comparison, which means the number that, same to the square of square of the sum of its digits.

b. Particular comparison

Particular comparison, on the other hand, is a “comparison that is in respect of quantity or quality which is also expressed by means of adjectives or adverbs; not of a special class, but ordinary adjectives and adverbs in some comparative form”.

Examples:

- a. *there were twice as many people **there** as last time*
- b. *he's a **better** man than I am*
- c. *there are more things in heaven and earth, Horatio, than are dreamt of in your philosophy.* (21). (Halliday & Hasan, 1976:82)

As in (a) is the enumerative comparative reference. It refers to the people who were there last time. In (b), better is particular comparison which better is an epithet. (c) is numerative comparison reference which more refers to (the things) that are dreamt of in your philosophy.

## 2. Substitution

Cohesion through substitution is the second source of cohesion discussed by Halliday and Hasan (1976:88-141). They (1976:88) define substitution as the replacement of one item by another. It is a relation between linguistic items, such as words or phrases, rather than a relation between meanings and this distinguishes it from reference.

Substitution is the replacement of a word(group) or sentence segment by a -dummy" word. The reader or listener can fill in the correct element based on the preceding. Three frequently occurring types of substitution are that of a noun (22), of a verb (23) and of a clause (24). (Rankema: 2004)

- (22) *These biscuits are stale. Get some fresh ones.*
- (23) A: *Have you called the doctor?*  
 B: *I haven't **done** it yet, but I will **do** it.*  
 A: *Though actually, I think you should **do** it.*
- (24) A: *Are they still arguing in there?*  
 B: *No, **it** just seems so.*

Table 2.4: Substitution forms in English (Halliday and Hasan 1976:141)

		Non-prominent (given)	Prominent (new)
Nominal	Thing (count noun)	one(s)	the SAME
	Process (nominalized) Attribute } Fact	So	Do Be the SAME Say
	Verbal	Process(+...)	Do so
Clausal ( ): report, condition, Modality	Positive	So	SO
	Negative	Not	NOT



### ➤ Types of Substitution

Halliday and Hasan (1976:90) divide substitution into three types based on their inherent characteristic. The three types of substitution in English include nominal substitution, verbal substitution, and clausal substitution.

#### a) Nominal Substitution

Nominal substitution is expressed by the using of word “one, ones, and same”. As shown in Table 2.4 above, in nominal substitution the English substitute one/ones always functions as the head of a nominal group and can substitute only for an item which is itself the head of a nominal group. In example (25), the word ‘one’ is a substitute for the nominal group ‘the box with those candles in’.

*If only I could remember where it was that I saw someone putting away the box with those candles in I could finish the decorations now. –You mean the little colored **one**?. (25) Page 91 [3:5]*

#### b) Verbal Substitution

Verbal substitution is the second type of substitution. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976:112), the verbal substitute in English is *do* and it operates as the head of a verbal group, in the place that is occupied by the lexical verb; and its position is always final in the group. Verbal substitution may either function within the same sentence scope or extend across sentence boundaries.

In example (26) the verb ‘do’ is a substitute for the previous verbal group ‘know the meaning of half those long words’ and the presupposed item is in the same sentence.

*I don’t know the meaning of half those long words, and, what’s more, I*

*don't believe you **do** either!'. (26) Page 112 [3:56] b*

### c) Clausal Substitution

The third type of substitution is clausal substitution, a “further type of substitution in which what is presupposed is not an element within the clause but an entire clause. The words used as substitutes are *so* and *not*” (Halliday and Hasan 1976:130).

In example (27) the word ‘so’ substitutes for the whole clause ‘There is going to be an earthquake’, while the word ‘not’ in example (28) is a substitute for the clause ‘No one has gone home’.

*Is there going to be an earthquake? –It says **so**. (27) Page 130 [3:96]*

*Has everyone gone home? –I hope **not**. (28) Page 133 [3:100]*

## 3. Ellipsis

Cohesion through ellipsis can be thought of as the omission of an item in which the form of substitution is replaced by nothing. In other words, it can be regarded as substitution by zero. Ellipsis is, thus, a relation within the text; where there is ellipsis in the structure, there is a presupposition that something is to be supplied or understood, and in the great majority of instances the presupposed item is present in the preceding text.

### ➤ Types of Ellipsis

Three types of ellipsis can be found in English: nominal ellipsis, verbal ellipsis, and clausal ellipsis.

a. Nominal Ellipsis

Nominal ellipsis is ellipsis within the nominal group. In the following examples (29 and 30) the context allows the listener to understand what is eluded. However, as shown in the examples, both ‘chocolates’ and ‘messengers’, are omitted and replaced by nothing in the sentences.

*Have another chocolate. –No thanks; I’ve had my three. (29) Page 162 [4:38] a*  
*‘The other messenger’s called Hatta. I must have two, you know. One to come, and one to go.’ (30) Page 163 [4:38] b*

b. Verbal Ellipsis

Verbal ellipsis is ellipsis within the verbal group. In example (31), the progressive verb form ‘been swimming’ in the answer ‘Yes, I have...’ is omitted.

*Have you been swimming? –Yes, I have. (31) Page 167 [4:54] a*

c. Clausal Ellipsis

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976:197), a clause in English, either in a monologue or dialogue, can be deleted if the clause is still communicative. Since a clause in English has two elements, the modal element and the propositional element, either of them can be omitted in clausal ellipsis. Clausal ellipsis, therefore, includes the ellipsis of either element.

As noted above, two types of clausal ellipsis are derivable from the two major divisions of the clause. Example (32) shows the ellipsis of the modal element and example (33) shows the ellipsis of the propositional element. The modal element ‘the Duke was’ is omitted in the answer of the first example, while in the latter example the propositional element ‘going to plant a row of poplars’ is

omitted in the answer.

*What was the Duke going to do? –Plant a row of poplars in the park. (32)*

Page 197 [4:97]

*Who was going to plant a row of poplars in the park? –The Duke was. (33)*

Page 197 [4:98]

#### **4. Conjunction**

Cohesion through conjunction is the fourth type of cohesive relation discussed in *Cohesion in English*. According to Halliday and Hasan, conjunction, since it is not simply an anaphoric relation, is rather different in nature from other types of cohesive relation, from both reference and substitution and ellipsis. They state,

Conjunction elements are cohesive not in themselves but indirectly, by virtue of their specific meanings; they are not primarily devices for reaching out into the preceding (or following) text, but they express certain meanings which presuppose the presence of other components in the discourse (1976:226).

Since cohesion is the relation between sentences in a text and the sentences of a text can only follow one after the other, in describing conjunctions as a cohesive device, the focus of attention will be on their function in relating linguistic elements that occur in succession together. Conjunction differs greatly from the previously discussed cohesive devices in that it adds not only meanings of their own but also creates ties between entire segments of text of various lengths.

##### ➤ **Types of Conjunction**

Halliday and Hasan (1976:238) identify four types of conjunction in English: additive, adversative, causal, and temporal. These types of conjunction

are described and given examples to illustrate as follows.

a. Additive Conjunction

Additive conjunction is a generalized semantic relation in the text-forming component of the semantic system that is based on the logical notion of ‘and’. Since sentences follow one another one at a time as the text unfolds; they cannot be rearranged in different sequences and different bracketings. Therefore each new sentence either is or is not linked to its predecessor. If it is, ‘and’ (the additive relation) is one way in which it may be so linked. The non-temporal additive conjunction ‘and’ is shown in example (34).

*He heaved the rock aside with all his strength. **And** there in the recesses of a deep hollow lay a glittering heap of treasure.* (34) Page 235 [5:8]

The classification of additive relation can be seen in the table below:

Table 2.5: The classifications of additive conjunction

	<b>Eksternal/ Internal</b>	<b>Internal (unless otherwise specified)</b>		
<b>Additive</b>	<b>Additive, simple:</b> <b>Additive:</b> and, and also. <b>Negative:</b> nor, and...not. <b>Alternative:</b> or, or else.	<b>Complex, emphatic:</b> <b>Additive:</b> furthermore, in addition, besides <b>Alternative:</b> alternatively <b>Complex, de emphatic:</b> <b>Afterthought:</b> incidentally, by the way	<b>Apposition:</b> <b>Expository:</b> this is, I mean, in other word <b>Exemplificat oty:</b> for instance, thus.	<b>Comparison:</b> <b>Similar:</b> likewise, similarity, in the same way <b>Dissimilar:</b> on the other hand, by contrast

(Halliday & Hasan, 1976:243)

b. Adversative Conjunction

The adversative conjunction is a relation used as “contrary to expectation”

(Halliday and Hasan 1976:250). Since the expectation may be derived from the content of what is being said, or communication process, cohesion can be found as being either external or internal adversative relation. The normal adversative conjunction in English is ‘yet’. In example (35), the cohesive form *yet* is used to add another sentence which is contrary to what the preceding sentence implied.

*All the figures were correct; they'd been checked. Yet the total came out wrong.* (35) Page 250 [5:30]

Adversative relation is expressed by using of word *but, however, on the other hand, nevertheless*. It can be seen on the table below:

Table 2.6: The classifications of adversative conjunction

	<b>Eksternal/ Internal</b>	<b>Internal (unless otherwise specified)</b>		
<b>Adversative</b>	<b>Adversative</b> <b>Adversative</b> <b>‘proper’:</b> <b>Simple:</b> yet, though, only.  <b>Containing</b> <b>‘and’:</b> but <b>Emphatic:</b> however, nevertheless, despite this.	<b>Contrastive:</b> <b>Avowal:</b> in fact, actually, as a mater of fact <b>Contrastive</b> <b>(external):</b> <b>Simple:</b> but, and <b>Emphatic:</b> however, on the other hand, at the same time	<b>Correction</b> <b>Of meaning:</b> instead, rather, on the contrary <b>Of wording:</b> at least, rather, I mean	<b>Dismissal:</b> <b>Closed:</b> in any case, in either case, which ever way it is <b>Openended:</b> In any case. anyhow, at any rate, however it is.

(Halliday & Hasan, 1976:243)

### c. Clausal Conjunction

Causal conjunction is a cause-effect relation. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976:256), the specific relations of result, reason and purpose are included under the heading of causal relations. In English the simple form of causal



relation is expressed by words and expressions such as ‘so’, ‘thus’, ‘hence’, ‘therefore’, ‘consequently’, ‘accordingly’, ‘because of that’, and ‘as a result of that’. The word ‘so’ in the following example is a causal conjunction.

*...she felt that there was no time to be lost, as she was shrinking rapidly; so she got to work at once to eat some of the other bit.* (36) Page 256 [5:43] a

The classification of adversative conjunction can be seen on the table below:

Table 2.7: The classifications of causal conjunction

	<b>Eksternal/ Internal</b>	<b>Internal (unless otherwise specified)</b>		
<b>Causal</b>	<b>Causal, general:</b> <b>Simple:</b> So, then, hence therefore <b>Emphatic:</b> Consequently, because of this <b>Causal, specific:</b> <b>Reason:</b> For this reason, on account of this <b>Result:</b> As a result, in consequence <b>Purpose:</b> For this purpose with this mind	<b>Reversed causal:</b> <b>Simple:</b> For, because <b>Causal, specific:</b> <b>Reason:</b> It follows, on this basis <b>Result:</b> Raising out of this <b>Purpose:</b> To this end	<b>Conditional (also external)</b> <b>Simple:</b> Then <b>Emphatic:</b> In that case, in such an event, that being so <b>Generalized:</b> Under the circumstance <b>Reversed polarity:</b> Otherwise, under other circumstances	<b>Respective :</b> <b>Direct:</b> In this respect, in this regard, with reference to this <b>Reversed polarity:</b> Otherwise, in other respects, aside from this.

(Halliday & Hasan, 1976:243)

#### d. Temporal Conjunction

Temporal conjunction is simply a relation of sequence in time. It relates two sentences in terms of their sequence in time: the one is subsequent to the other. The conjunctive relations of the temporal conjunction can be simple or complex. The simple temporal conjunctions in English include the words ‘then’,

‘next’, ‘after that’, ‘at the same time’, ‘previously’, etc. The complex temporal conjunctions in English can be as specific as the expressions ‘next day’, ‘five minutes later’, or ‘five minutes earlier’. Example (37) shows how a temporal conjunction ‘then’ connects all the sentences together as the story develops.

*Alice began by taking the little golden key, and unlocking the door that led into the garden. **Then** she set to work nibbling at the mushroom...till she was about a foot high: **then** she walked down the little passage: and **then** – she found herself at last in the beautiful garden. (37) Page 261 [5:53]*

The classification of temporal conjunction can be seen on the table below:

Table 2.8: The classifications of temporal conjunction

	Eksternal/ Internal	Internal (unless otherwise specified)		
Temporal	<b>Temporal, simple (external only):</b> <b>Sequential:</b> Then, next, after that <b>Simultaneous:</b> Just then, at the same time <b>Preceding:</b> previously, before that <b>Conclusive forms:</b> <b>Sequential:</b> first....then <b>Conclusive:</b> At the first.....in the end	<b>Complex (external only):</b> <b>Immediate:</b> At once, thereupon <b>Interrupted:</b> soon, after a time <b>Repetitive:</b> Next time, on another occasion <b>Specific:</b> Next day, an hour later <b>Durative:</b> Meanwhile <b>Terminal:</b> Until then <b>Punctiliar:</b> At this moment.	<b>Internal temporal:</b> <b>Sequential:</b> Then, next, secondly <b>Conclusive:</b> Finally, in conclusion <b>Correlative forms:</b> <b>Sequential:</b> First.....next conclusive.... Finally	<b>‘Here and now’:</b> <b>Past:</b> Up to now, hitherto <b>Present:</b> At this point, here <b>Future:</b> From now on, hence forward, <b>Summary:</b> <b>Summarizing:</b> To sum up, in short briefly <b>Resumptive</b> : to resume, to return to the point

(Halliday & Hasan, 1976:243)

## 5. Lexical Cohesion

Cohesion through lexical items is the last source of cohesion described in *Cohesion in English*. Therefore, according to Halliday and Hasan (1996:274), lexical cohesion is the cohesive effect achieved by the selection of vocabulary. In English, there are two types of lexical cohesion, reiteration and collocation. The following section discusses each type of lexical cohesion.

### 1) *Reiteration*

Halliday and Hasan (1976:278) state,

Reiteration is a form of lexical cohesion which involves the repetition of a lexical item, at one end of the scale; the use of a general word to refer back to a lexical item, at the other end of the scale; and a number of things in between the use of a synonym, near-synonym, or superordinate.

#### ➤ **Types of Reiteration**

##### a) Repetition

Repetition is the act of repeating exactly the same word as has been mentioned before and it often involves reference in second occurrence by matching definite articles. Repetition is just the simple repetition of a word, within a sentence or a poetical line, with no particular placement of the words (in Trianasari, 2013; Bloomsbury, 1999:1592) i.e:

*There was a large **mushroom** growing near her, about the same height as herself; and, when she had looked under it, it occurred to her that she might as well look and see what was on the top of it. She stretched herself up on tiptoe, and peered over the edge of the **mushroom**,... (38) Page 278*

In (a), there is repetition: mushroom refers back to mushroom.

## b) Synonym

Synonymy is two or more words with very closely related meaning or same meanings which are often intersubstitutable in sentences. Crystal (1995) states that synonymy is lexeme which has the same meaning—a definition which sounds straight forward enough. i.e:

*Accordingly ... I took leave, and turned to the **ascent** of the peak. The **climb** is perfectly easy... (39)*

In (b), climb refers back to ascent, of which it is a synonym.

## c) Hyponymy

The use of a general word to refer back to a lexical item is known as hyponymy. Finegar, 2004:189 in Swastami, N., 2014 defines hyponymy as a subordinate, a specific term whose referent is included in the referent of a superordinate term. i.e:

*Henry's bought himself a new **Jaguar**. He practically lives in the **car**. (40)*

In (c), *car* refers back to *Jaguar*, a kind of car, and *car* is a name for a more general class, or in other words, a general word to refer to *Jaguar*.

## d) Metonymy (Part vs. whole)

metonymy is relation between word which has a part and whole meaning. i.e:

*At its six-month check up, the **brakes** had to be repaired. In general, however, the **car** was in good condition. (41)*

The first sentence the plural nouns “brakes” is a part of the noun “car” which exists in the second sentence.

e) Antonymy

Antonym is word which is in the some sense opposite in meaning. (in Trianasari, 2013 Bloomsbury, 1999:77) i.e:

*The old movies just don't do it any more. The new ones are more appealing. (42)*

Here the examples of reiteration (in Halliday and Hasan, 1976; Rankema, 1993):

*"There is a boy climbing the tree".*

- a. *The boy is going to fall if he is not careful. (Repetition). (43)*
- b. *The lad is going to fall if he is not careful. (Synonym). (44)*
- c. *The child is going to fall if he is not careful. (Hyponymy/ subordinate). (45)*
- d. *After a hard storm yesterday, the leaking roofs need to be repaired. In general, however, the house is in good condition. (Metonymy). (46)*  
The relation between roof and house is between part and whole.
- e. *In that terrible situation, the old people did not want to take a risk. But young were braver. (Antonym). (47)*  
The old is contrasted with the young.

## 2) Collocation

Collocation is a form of lexical cohesion achieved through the association of lexical items that regularly co-occur. This not only brings extension to the basis of the lexical relationship that features a cohesive force but also indicates that cohesion lies between any pair of lexical items that relate to each other in some recognizable lexicosemantic (word meaning) relation. In addition, it is important to note that cohesion obtained by collocation is not limited to a pair of words since it is also very common to see long cohesive chains that are built up out of lexical relations of this kinds, with word chains like *sheep* and *wool*, *congress* and *politician* or *collage* and *study*. i.e:

(48). *Red Cross* helicopters were in the air continuously. The *blood bank* will soon be desperately in need of *donors*.

(49). The hedgehog *scurried* across the road. Its *speed* surprised me.

In the five types of cohesion (reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction, and lexical cohesion), the interpretation of discourse element is dependent on another element that can be pointed out in discourse. In the last example (49), the correct interpretation of the word “speed” is only possible by reading the preceding sentence within which the word “scurried” is of primary importance.

#### ➤ **The Sample of Cohesive Text**

The property of flow and connection in a written text that stems from the linguistic links among its surface elements. A paragraph has good cohesion when each sentence is clearly linked to the next. Coherence and Cohesion mean that all of the parts are connected logically and linguistically to form a whole. Paragraphs may be organised according to a sequence of time (chronological order), space (describing something from top to bottom or foreground to background) or arranging information in order of importance. Another common way of ordering information in a paragraph is to present the most general information first and then move on to focus on the more detailed, specific information.

Individual sentences can have connections within them. A word that connects parts of a sentence is called a conjunction. The common coordinating conjunctions are: 'and', 'but', 'or', 'yet', 'nor'. There are also subordinating conjunctions. These establish the relationship between a dependent clause and the rest of the sentence. A few common examples are: 'as', 'because', 'whereas', 'in

order that', 'since', 'although'. Read the two texts below;

#### Text A

Two types of reflection can be identified. **These** are called specular and diffuse reflection. **Specular reflection** occurs when the irregularities of the reflecting surface are small compared to the wavelength of light. The most common example of **specular reflection** is the image you see in a mirror. **Here**, the incident rays and the reflected rays are parallel and in the same plane as the normal. **Diffuse reflection** occurs when the wavelength of the incident light is smaller than the size of the surface irregularities. **In this case**, the incident rays are parallel, but because of the roughness of the surface the angle of the incidence will vary with each ray. When a surface is **rough**, some of the reflected energy may penetrate the surface and, providing the material has an absorption band, the reflected energy will be depleted of that band.

#### Text B

Two types of reflection can be identified. These are called specular and diffuse reflection. When the irregularities of the reflecting surface are small compared to the wavelength of light, specular reflection occurs. The image you see in a mirror is the most common example of specular reflection. The incident rays and the reflected rays are parallel and in the same plane as the normal here. Diffuse reflection occurs when the wavelength of the incident light is smaller than the size of the surface irregularities. Because of the roughness of the surface the angle of the incidence will vary with each ray in the case where the incident rays are parallel. Some of the reflected energy may penetrate the surface and, providing the material has an absorption band, the reflected energy will be depleted of that band when a surface is rough.

Text A is more easily readable than text B. This is because it follows the pattern of referring back to what is known and giving new information. In text A, most sentences start with something that has been mentioned in the previous sentence. This creates a good sense of cohesion and flow. Text B, however, starts most new sentences with a new idea, making it difficult for the reader to follow the thread of the story. If the readers reconsider text A above, they can see the connections made to previous information by the words which are highlighted.

Paragraphs must follow in a sequential and logical order. In other words, the information must be presented coherently. In good writing, the ideas in

different paragraphs are also usually linked linguistically using cohesive devices. These include: use of synonyms, pronouns, verb tenses, time references, and grammatical reference. In the previous unit, we saw how these devices operated between sentences. The bold words and phrases in the following texts show how cohesion is achieved, both within paragraphs and between paragraphs.

### **Eclipse safety**

On a normal day, one is not tempted to stare at the Sun, and the eye-blink reflex normally prevents you from doing so. **However**, during the **partial phase of an eclipse**, people's interest has been called to the Sun, and during the crescent phases the total intensity of sunlight may be inadequate to activate the eye-blink reflex even though the specific intensity of regions of the solar photosphere that is still visible remains high. **Thus**, people should observe the Sun only through **special filters**. **These** filters cut out all but about 1/100 000 of the photospheric light, reducing the photosphere to a **safe level for observation**.

Solar **filters** made of aluminized Mylar, which is a coated plastic, are very popular and are available inexpensively. As long as **these** Mylar filters are undamaged, without creases or pinholes, they are safe to look through. Unfortunately, **they** are now often distributed in the form of eyeglasses, which may tempt people to stare at the Sun through them, rather than as simple rectangles to hold up and look through. Although the solar intensity seen through **them** has been reduced to a **safe level**, it is still a good extra safety precaution never to stare at the Sun.

A **very safe way** to view the **partial phases** is with a pinhole camera. **Such** a device is no more than a small hole, perhaps 2 mm - 5 mm across, in a piece of cardboard or aluminium foil. **This** small hole is held 0.5 m - 1 m or so above a piece of paper or cardboard, and one looks down at this second surface with the Sun over one's back. The shape of the **partial phase** is visible on **this** second surface and is completely safe to look at. The interstices among the leaves of a tree often act as their own natural pinholes, and the ground or other surfaces under trees often show multiple pinhole images of the partial eclipse and its progression.

An **analogous method** using an optical device is 'eyepiece projection', where an eyepiece is cranked beyond **its** normal focal point and used to project an image of the partially eclipsed Sun on a paper, cardboard or other screen. One looks only down at **the** screen, never up through the telescope.

These paragraphs are cohesive because the first paragraph helps guide the reader by ending with information about observing the Sun through special filters,



the second paragraph is connected to the first paragraph by describing one particular type of filter, the third paragraph connects back to the ideas in the second paragraph by considering a safer method of looking at the Sun, the final paragraph connects back by describing an 'analogous device'.

### **Variation of the Earth's rotation rate, variation of the length of day**

The variation of the length of day (LOD), as measured by geodetic observations over recent decades, is at the level of several milliseconds for periods shorter than a few years. **These short-term variations** are mainly induced by atmospheric and oceanic effects on the Earth. **They** can be computed from models constrained by meteorological data by considering three variables. **First**, that the atmospheric pressure (or indirectly the ocean pressure) pushes on the Earth's topography (e.g. on the mountains) thereby producing a torque which changes the Earth's rotation; **second** that the density variations in the atmosphere give an additional torque (gravitational torque); and **finally**, that the winds also induce a friction torque on the Earth's surface. Similar torques are also introduced by the ocean. Altogether, **these phenomena** induce acceleration and deceleration of the Earth's rotation at short time scales and, in turn, associated variations in the LOD.

**Besides these variations**, there are decade variations of the LOD which are usually attributed to an exchange of angular momentum with the core because of the correlation between the surface magnetic field variations and the variations of the LOD at these time scales. This.....

There is **also** a very **long-term trend** in the variation of the LOD as observed from paleontological data (coral growth in time) and from eclipse data (lag between the date deduced from a uniform rotation and the date given in past records); this very long-term trend is related to the deceleration of the Earth's rotation induced by tidal friction. Due to friction, the tidal bulge created by the classical **tidal torque** has .....

**In addition to the tidal torque** which is the predominant.....

In the example above, we can see that the connection between the paragraphs is the changing length of time associated with variation of the Earth's rotation rate. The first paragraph deals with variation over a few years, the second paragraph deals with variation over decades, the third paragraph deals with long-term trends, the final paragraph connects back to 'tidal torque' and indicates to the reader that there is something 'in addition' to this.

Also, if we consider the first paragraph, we can see the internal cohesion. The second sentence begins with 'these short term variations' which connects back to the first sentence. 'They' connects back to the second sentence and the third sentence mentions three variables. We then get connection with 'first', 'second' and 'finally'. Cohesive devices serve to make logical links explicit and enhance flow.

### **2.3. Correctness**

Within language teaching, “correctness” usually refers to accuracy within the linguistic system and its various subsystems, including tense forms, grammatical concord, spelling and punctuation among other matters (Allison: 1999).

Bartsch (1987) distinguishes six types of correctness in language: correctness of basic means of expression, correctness of lexical items, correctness of syntactic form, correctness of text, semantic correctness and pragmatic correctness.

Language acquires various forms and variations because it changes according to the use to which it is put. Every form and variation in language is meaningful and functional. As indicated above, correct of use language involve the use of the appropriate form of language with the right people on the right occasion and in the right manner. The standar form of language is always given priority over other forms, but non standar forms of language are needed on some occasions and used by particular groups of people in the speech community and

are also acceptable to other people in some circumstances. For learners of foreign languages, it is important to know the standard language forms, but it is equally important to get acquainted with deviations from norms and standards and to know where and how these variations apply, which is theoretically ideal but practically difficult and sometimes dangerous (Yong and Peng: 2007).

In public discussions about correct written English, for example frequent omission of “third person –s” endings, where the standard variety requires them, is likely to be castigated as an error (an inaccurate linguistic form). Errors of this kind can then easily be taken as tokens of carelessness or lack of concern (undesirable attitudes and behaviour) in the eyes of critics. Within language teaching circles, comments on learners’ writing will often take fuller account of other aspects of language that are being learnt and applied by some success. The reactions of other influential elements in a community, however, such as employers reading letters of application or draft copy for advertising, often seem liable to remain focused on matters of surface correctness. Errors in this respect can easily be judged to reflect adversely on a writer’s competence in other respects (Allison: 1999). Therefore, it is important to see learners’ correctness of language use in order to know their learning achievement.

#### ➤ **Criteria of Correctness in Cohesion**

The researcher analyzed the students’ correctness based on criteria of correctness cohesion in Cambridge advanced learner’s dictionary- third edition;

## REFERENCES.

## Personal references;

- He : used to refer to a man, boy or male animal that has already been mentioned. *Don't ask Andrew, he won't know.*
- Him : used, usually after a verb or preposition, to refer to a man, boy or male animal that has just been mentioned or is just about to be mentioned. *If you see Kevin give him my love.*
- She : used to refer to a woman, girl or female animal that has already been mentioned. *I asked my mother if she'd lend me some money, but she said no.*
- Her : (belonging to or connected with) a woman, girl or female animal that has just been mentioned or is known about. *If your sister's around, bring her too.*
- They : used, usually after a verb or preposition, to refer to a man, boy or male animal that has just been mentioned or is just about to be mentioned. *If you see Kevin give him my love.*
- Them : the object form of 'they' used after a verb or preposition. *I've lost my keys. I can't find them anywhere.*

- It : (as subject or object) the thing, animal or situation which has already been mentioned. *"Where's my pen? It was on my desk a minute ago." "You left it by the phone."*
- Its : belonging to or relating to something that has already been mentioned. *The dog hurt its paw.*

#### Demonstrative references;

- This : used for a person, object, idea, etc. to show which one is referred to. *Can you sign this form here for me?*
- These : pronoun plural of "this"
- That : used to refer to a person, object, idea, etc. which is separated from the speaker by space or time. *I've never liked that cousin of hers.*
- Those : pronoun plural of "that"
- Here : now. *Shall we break here and have a coffee?*
- There : adding together the distance or time to and from a particular place
- *It was 20 miles there and back.*

#### Comparative reference

- The same : exactly like another or each other. *My twin sister and I have got the same nose.*

- **Similar** : looking or being almost, but not exactly, the same. *My father and I have similar views on politics.*
- **Other** : different from the thing or person already mentioned. *I've no cash - is there no other way of paying?*

## CONJUNCTIONS

### Additive conjunction;

- **And** : used to join two words, phrases, parts of sentences or related statements together; also or in addition to. *We were wet and tired.*
- **Besides** : in addition to; also. *She won't mind your being late - besides, it's hardly your fault.*
- **Thus** : with this result. *They planned to reduce staff and thus to cut costs.*
- **Likewise** : in the same way. *Just water these plants twice a week, and likewise the ones in the bedroom.*

### Adversative conjunction;

- **However** : despite whatever amount or degree. *However hungry I am, I never seem to be able to finish off a whole pizza.*

- On the other hand: used when you are comparing two different facts or two opposite ways of thinking about a situation. *On the one hand I'd like a job which pays more, but on the other hand I enjoy the work I'm doing at the moment.*
- Instead : in place of someone or something else. *There's no coffee - would you like a cup of tea instead?*

#### Causal conjunction;

- So : and for that reason; therefore. *My knee started hurting so I stopped running.*
- Because : for the reason that. *We can't go to Julia's party because we're going away that weekend.*
- Otherwise : used after an order or suggestion to show what the result will be if you do not follow that order or suggestion. *Phone home, otherwise your parents will start to worry.*

#### Temporal conjunction;

- Then : next or after that. *Let me finish this job, then we'll go.*
- Finally : used especially at the beginning of a sentence to introduce the last point or idea. *Finally, I'd like to thank everyone for coming this evening.*

## 2.4. Genre

The word genre comes from the French (and originally Latin) word for 'kind' or 'class'. The term is widely used in rhetoric, literary theory, media theory, and more recently linguistics, to refer to a distinctive type of text, (Chandler in Bradford-Watts, 2001, Gerot and Wignell, 1994). They state, “a genre can be defined a culturally specific text type which result from using language (written or spoken) to (help) accomplish something.”

According to Swales (1990), a genre comprises of a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes. These purposes are recognized by the expert members of the parent discourse community, and thereby constitute the rationale for the genre. This rationale shapes the schematic structure of the discourse and influences and constrains choice of content and style. Communicative purpose is both a privileged criterion and one that operates to keep the scope of a genre as here conceived narrowly focused on comparable rhetorical action. In addition to purpose, exemplars of a genre exhibit various patterns of similarity in terms of structure, style, content and intended audience. If all high probability expectations are realized, the exemplar will be viewed as prototypical by the parent discourse community. (p. 58)

In conclusion, genre refers to any staged, purposeful social activity which is accomplished through language. Genres may also be referred to as text types.



Genres are used for specific purposes with each genre having specific language features and schematic structure.

Paltridge (2001) states, "The notion of genre...provides a basis for extending current syllabus models, as well as for selecting and sequencing syllabus items and, in turn, focusing on them in the language learning classroom" (p. 9), since it incorporates vocabulary and grammatical structures that are typically associated with functional-notional approaches to syllabus design; a focus on situation, social activities, and topic that derives from situational and content-based syllabuses; and a focus on specific language learning tasks and activities that draws from task-based and procedural approaches to language teaching and learning. (Paltridge, 2001, p. 9)

In other words, using genre as a starting point in curriculum design by listing genres necessary for student understanding within a context-typical in content-based curricula allows the teacher to (a) collect real samples of appropriate texts, (b) design activities to foster understanding of the genre, (c) draw attention to key vocabulary and grammatical structures associated with that genre, and (d) demonstrate to the students how these interact with the who, what, where, when, how, and why of the text in terms of situation and context, allowing the relationship between culture and language to be directly addressed. Tasks give students the opportunity to experiment with the genre, manipulating their texts to accommodate changes which can be expected to occur with variation of contextual factors. Tasks also give teachers an opportunity to monitor students and take advantage of teachable moments that arise to increase student awareness

of sociocultural factors which affect choice of form within the context. A genre-based course is, essentially, an outcome-based course, with the aim being explicit student awareness of and proficiency in the target genres. It allows teachers to focus on both form and meaning, as well as how meanings are made. (Bradford-Watts, 2001)

An important reason to consider genre-based instruction is that of empowerment: If students are able to understand, access and manipulate genres, they acquire "cultural capital" (Hammond & Mackin-Horarick, 1999, in Paltridge, 2001, p. 8). Not teaching this explicitly denies students the means to participate in and challenge the cultures of power they will encounter when interacting with members of the target culture.

According to Gerot and Wignell (1994), there are thirteen types of genre; spoof, recounts, reports, analytical exposition, news item, anecdote, narrative, procedure, description, hortatory, exposition, explanation, discussion, and reviews. Every genre has a number of characteristics and it has the specific purpose which makes it different from other genre. In this study, it is only focused on recount.

### ➤ **Recount**

Recount text is used to tell an experience in the past, obviously recount text uses past form. Recount text does not use conflict, but it uses series of event as characteristic. Recount text with complete generic structure will be constructed by structuring orientation, events and reorientation.

According to Siswanto (2005: 202) recount is a text that tells someone's experiences in a chronological order. Derewianka (1990:15) also asserts in recount, we construct past experience. A recount is the unfolding of a sequence of events over time. It is used to tell past events for the purpose of informing or entertaining. It focuses on a sequence of events. In general, it is begun with an orientation. It provides the background information needed to understand the text such as who was involved, where it happened and when it happened. Then, the recount unfolds with a series of events (ordered in a chronological sequence). At various stages, there may be some personal comments on the text we call it re-orientation.

The generic structure of recount text (Derewianka, 1990: 145):

1. Orientation –scene setting opening, it gives the readers the background information needed to understand the text such as who was involved, where it happened, and when it happened.
2. Events –recount of the events as they occurred, for example, I saw a book.....these events may be elaborated on by adding, for example, descriptive details.
3. Reorientation –a closing statement: When I get back, I told my mom (with elaboration in more sophisticated text)

Table 2.9: An annotated example of a recount

Topic: May Gibbs

Text Structure	Text	Language Feature- Example
<i>Orientation-</i> provides the reader with background information needed to understand the text e.g. who,	<i>Cecilia May Gibbs</i> or Mamie as she was sometimes <i>called</i> <i>was born</i> in England on <i>17 th</i> <i>January, 1877. When she was</i>	<i>Topic Word:</i> Cecilia May Gibbs <i>Past Tense:</i> called, was born, migrated

when, where	<i>four years old</i> her family migrated to Australia.	<i>Circumstances of time:</i> 17 th January, 1877, when she was four years old
<i>Sequence of events-</i> series of events typically ordered in chronological order.	May's <i>interest</i> in art was obvious from an early age. Her parents <i>encouraged</i> her to attend school at <i>the Art Gallery of Western Australia</i> . <i>Later, when May was twenty three</i> her parents sent her to London <i>for art classes</i> .	<i>Nominalisation:</i> interest <i>Verb:</i> encouraged (sensing) <i>Time Connective:</i> Later <i>Noun group:</i> the Art Gallery of Western Australia <i>Circumstance of time:</i> when May was twenty three <i>Circumstance of purpose:</i> for art classes
	<i>During the next nine years</i> May visited London <i>three times</i> . On <i>her third visit</i> May took along <i>some manuscripts for children's books</i> , but they <i>were rejected because publishers</i> said they were <i>more suitable</i> for Australian children. She returned to Australia in 1913 where she <i>illustrated</i> a series of children's books.	<i>Circumstance of time:</i> During the next nine years <i>Noun groups:</i> her third visit, some manuscripts for children's books <i>Binding conjunction:</i> because <i>Topic specific vocabulary:</i> manuscripts, publishers, illustrated. <i>Verbs:</i> illustrated, were Rejected <i>Comparative:</i> more suitable
	<i>By 1918</i> May Gibbs was famous for <i>her beautiful Watercolour pictures of gumnuts and gum blossoms, which culminated in 'The Tales of Snugglepot and Cuddlepie'</i> . This children's book was an immediate success. May married in 1919 and lived in <i>her</i> home 'Nutcote' on the shores of Sydney Harbour, where she gained <i>inspiration</i> from her natural bush garden. <i>She published two children's comic strips and a series of short stories.</i> <i>One of the comic strips</i> gained <i>popularity</i> nation- wide.	<i>Time Connective:</i> By 1918... <i>Noun group:</i> her beautiful watercolour pictures of gumnuts and gum blossoms, two children's comic strips, a series of short stories <i>Reference items:</i> her, this, she, one <i>Evaluative language:</i> beautiful <i>Relative Clause:</i> which culminated in... <i>Nominalisations:</i> inspiration, popularity <i>Topic specific vocabulary:</i> comic strips
	<i>May continued to draw</i> cartoons <i>until</i> she was ninety years old. Through a love of the Australian bush, <i>which was displayed</i> in her artwork and stories, she has encouraged young Australians to care for their natural environment.	<i>Foregrounding human element:</i> May <i>Conjunction:</i> until <i>Verb group:</i> continued to draw <i>Relative Clause:</i> which was displayed..
<i>Re-orientation-</i> rounds off the sequence of events. This may	<i>May Gibbs</i> left a legacy to all young Australians. <i>Even</i> today	<i>Foregrounding of human element:</i> May Gibbs...

take the form of a summary statement/an evaluative comment/a return to the starting point	children <i>enjoy</i> reading the stories and looking at the illustrations of the <i>unique</i> Gum Nut characters.	<i>Conjunction</i> : even <i>Sensing verb</i> : enjoy <i>Evaluative language</i> : enjoy, unique
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Furthermore, Derewianka (1990) identified that there are five types of recount text, they are:

a) Personal Recount

Telling about activities whereas the writer or speaker involves or do by him or herself (i.e., oral anecdote, diary entry) use the first person pronouns (I, we). Personal responses to the events can be included, particularly at the end. Details are often chosen to add interest or humor.

b) Factual Recount

Record the particulars of an incident (i.e., report of a science experiment, police report, news report, historical account). A factual recount is concerned with recalling events accurately. It can range from everyday tasks such as a school accident report to a formal, structured research tasks such as historical recount. The emphasis is on using language that is precise, factual and detailed, so that the reader gains a complete picture of the event, experience or achievements. This type uses the third person pronouns (he, she, it, and they). Details are usually selected to help the reader reconstruct the activity or incident accurately. Sometimes the ending described the outcome of the activity (i.e., science experiment). Details of time, place and manner may need to be precisely stated, i.e.: at 2.35 pm., between *Jhonson St* and *Park Rd*, the man drove at 80 *kph*. The

passive voice may be used, i.e., the beaker was *filled* with water. It may be appropriate to include explanations and justifications.

c) Imaginative Recount

Imaginative or literary recounts entertain the reader by recreating the events of an imaginary world as though they are real. “A day in my life a family pet”, for example. Emotion language, specific detail and first person narration are used to give the writing impact and appeal.

d) Procedural Recount

A procedural recount records the steps taken in completing a task or procedure. The use of technical terms, an accurate time sequence and first person narration (I or we), give credibility to the information provided. Examples include a flow chart of the actions required for making bread, a storyboard a videotaped script or advertisement, the steps taken to solve mathematical problem.

e) Biographical Recount

A biographical recount tells the story of person’s life using a third person narrator (he, she, and they). In this case of an autobiography, first person narration (I, we) is used. It is usually factually accurate and records specific names, times, places, and events, a purely factual, informative biography, however, would lack the appeal provided by personal responses and memorable anecdotes. There is often evaluation of the subject’s achievements in the final section.

From five types of recount text above, the focus of the research is personal recount since it tells the activities whereas the writer or speaker involves by herself or himself. The theme that is used of personal recount such as students' experience.

## **2.5. Review of Previous Research**

The following description is discussed some previous research on cohesive devices in writing genres' research in the use of cohesive devices.

Nur Hafiz Abdurahman, Bambang Wijaya, Urai Salam (2013) conducted the research entitles grammatical cohesion analysis of students' thesis writing with the aim of study to find out the types of grammatical cohesive devices students mostly used in their thesis writing, how these devices create cohesive discourse. They analyzed background part of 10 theses writing written by students of English Education Study Program with descriptive case study. Their finding show that reference stands on top with an enormous amount of occurrences compared with others. Conjunction stays on the second position, and is followed by ellipsis and substitution. Despite the missing of clausal substitution and verbal ellipsis, numbers of grammatical cohesive devices used by students are quite varied. In conclusion, it can be assumed that students are more familiar with the use of reference although they are able to use other type of grammatical cohesive devices as well. Moreover, regardless of some inappropriate uses, students of English education department of Tanjungpura are able integrating English

grammatical cohesive devices into their writing. It can be seen by the huge gap between percentages of appropriate uses compared to the inappropriate ones.

Ayub, Seken, K., and Suarnajaya, W. (2013) analyzed cohesion and coherence in of 30 students' English writings at the second grade of SMAN 1 Labuapi West Lombok. They wanted to know the types of cohesive devices, the types of topical progressions, the problems of coherence used by the students. The data were analyzed qualitatively. The finding reveals that the students used the five types of cohesive devices to build cohesion in their English writings: reference (personal, demonstrative, comparative), substitution (nominal, clausal), ellipsis (nominal, verbal,), conjunction (additive, adversative, causal, temporal), and lexical cohesion (repetition, synonym, superordinate, general word, and collocation). In the use of reference, personal reference was dominantly used. In substitution, verbal substitution was not found. In ellipsis, clausal ellipsis was not used. While, in lexical cohesion, repetition is used most frequently. From the frequency and the percentage of each subcategory, it is concluded that most students knew how to utilize the various cohesive devices in their writing although they were in different frequency and percentage. It also shows that the dominant types of cohesive devices used by the students were reference (40.84%), followed by lexical cohesion (37.99%), conjunction (19.60%), ellipsis (1.35%), and the least substitution (0.29%). Some problems in coherence of students' writings were reference, conjunction, lexical cohesion, tenses, auxiliary 'to be', passive voice, infinitive, gerund, subject-verb agreement, noun, preposition, and text structure.



Andayani, P.A., Seken, I.K., Marjohan, A. (2014) analyzed the cohesion and coherence of 30 students' narrative writings in SMPN 2 Banjar in qualitative study to find out the cohesion of English narrative writings produced by the students under study, the coherence of English narrative writings, the problems encountered by the students under study in creating cohesion and coherence in their English narrative writings. The result shows that the students produced the five types of cohesive devices to serve the coherence of their writings of which reference 70.77% with personal reference as the dominant use. Then, it was followed by conjunction 28.51%, substitution 0.57%, ellipsis 0.14%, lexical cohesion was used 137 item dominated with repetition 78%, The students' produced coherence of the narratives through the development of themes, and the generic structure. Some problems of coherence identified were the problems with reference (personal, demonstrative), conjunction (additive, adversative, causal, temporal) and limited choice of lexical item.

Hidayanto, Riyan (2015) conducted a qualitative research in a study on the cohesion used in the expository essay of English literature students. study program of English, universitas Brawijaya. He analyzed 7 expository essays written by third semester students of English Literature with the purpose of study to find out the types of cohesive device, and the dominant types of cohesive device used by the students. The result of his analysis revealed that third semester students of English literature could employ all the four types of grammatical cohesion to build cohesion in their expository essays: reference (personal, demonstrative, comparative), substitution (nominal), ellipsis (nominal, verbal,

clausal), conjunction (additive, adversative, causal, temporal). In regard to grammatical cohesion, the most commonly used type is reference (66%), while in lexical cohesion, the most frequently used type is repetition (59%).

Zuhair Abdul Amir Abdul Rahman (2013) conducted the research entitled *The Use of Cohesive Devices in Descriptive Writing by Omani Student-Teachers*. The aims of his finding are to know the types of cohesive devices used by Arabic L1 student-teachers in their written discourse, how frequently students use cohesive devices in their writing, to what extent student-teachers differ from native English speakers in the use of cohesive devices, the problems students face in using cohesive devices to achieve cohesion. The study sample consisted of three groups. The first group comprised 30 1st-year students who joined the English department after they had finished their foundation year. The second group consisted of 30 3rd-year students who had already completed the foundation year and five semesters during which they had studied several courses in writing and discourse analysis. The 3rd group comprised 29 native speakers of English who were working at Sohar University in the Foundation Program and other faculties. None of these participants was a professional writer. A qualitative research methodology was utilized to analyze the writing of the two groups to reveal the points of strengths and weaknesses in their writing. The results of the study indicated that there was a notable difference between the natives' and the students' use of cohesive devices in terms of frequency, variety, and control. While L1 English users' writing displayed a balance between the use and frequency of various types of cohesive devices, the students overused certain

types (repetition and reference) while neglecting to use the others, thereby often, rendering their written texts noncohesive.

Chen Xuefan (2007) examined how lexical cohesion approached in Chinese college EFL writing. The subjects were 30, 15 first year and 15 third year English majors from Wuyi University in China. Quantitative study was used as the method of study. The results indicated a sub category of lexical cohesive device exact repetition had overwhelming dominance in Chinese. College EFL writing writers use of lexical cohesive devices was not affected by language proficiency but partly influenced by writing in different text types. There was no correlation between reiteration ties and text type but students used significantly more collocation ties in narration than argumentation.

Elawita (2012) conducted a research in analyzing of cohesion in composing essay composed by 33 students of English study program in STKIP-PGRI West Sumatra in the third semester in the course of writing III by applying descriptive qualitative study. The aim of her study was to know how the appropriateness of using linking devices in students' writing. The finding showed that most of the students or 64% were unable to use appropriate linking devices in the writing essay, because they still difficult how to use each words of linking devices correctly, and they do not know kind of linking devices and the function of linking devices itself. Those were summarizing, comparison and contrast, cause and effect, sequencing, example and illustration, opinion and reason. Furthermore, most of the students or 36% were able to arrange good sentence in the paragraph because they understand the elements or kinds of linking devices itself. Then, the

rest of the students who could arrange good sentence in the paragraph, caused by there were background knowledge about using the linking devices correctly.

Mohsen Ghasemi (2013) conducted a qualitative research entitles an investigation into the use of cohesive devices in second language writings. He investigated CDs used in different genres composed by learners from around the globe and the relationship between the use of CDs and quality of their essays. This study reviewed some studies focusing on the use of cohesive devices and the relationship between the number of cohesive devices and writing quality. The Findings proved that language users resorted to pronominal more than other cohesive devices in order for creating textuality between the sentences. There might be some other reasons for the distinct differences between the natives and nonnatives in the use of certain cohesive devices on account of cross-linguistic differences. On the one hand, it could be emanated from the lack of nonnativescially, because English non natives may language lack knowledge of what proficiency makes a written material a meaningful English text. This may be resulted from little exposure to or insufficient feedback, which in turn lead to little knowledge of how language users connect sentences to create textuality. So, they lack the competence in producing linguistically well formed written material to create meaningful texts that convey the information appropriately and accurately as well as coherently. On the other hand, these difficulties could also be due to the linguistic knowledge of English they have been offered so far. They may have been taught by inexperienced teachers with limited discourse knowledge and experience in teaching cohesion and coherence.

Swastami Novi (2014) analyzed the use of cohesion in recount text composed by 145 second semester students of English education program at State Islamic Institute of Tulungagung to know the cohesive devices correctly used in recount text, to know the cohesive devices incorrectly used in recount text composed by students. Descriptive quantitative was used as the method of this study. These results showed that the writers (students) predominant use of lexical cohesive device than grammatical cohesive device but a high frequency in using correct cohesive device is conjunction (42,8 %) in grammatical cohesive device, it is larger than repetition (39,7 %) in lexical cohesive device. However, it seems that writer never use of ellipsis (0 %) and substitution (0 %). Thus, Frequencies show that ellipsis and substitution are the most problematic area concerning the other cohesive devices. Learners also seem have a problem of incorrect reference (8,8 %) in grammatical cohesive devices, repetition (1,3%) and synonym (1,3 %) in lexical cohesive device. The use of incorrect references usually reveals when writer refer to something in a given sentence without identifying the item to be referred to, either personal or demonstrative reference. In accordance with the results of correct and incorrect use of conjunctions given above, writers seem to have a quite amount in using conjunction (88,6 %). The main error used by writer is confusion in using the appropriate conjunction to fit its function might refer to the predominant of one cohesive device in each type of conjunction.

Azzouz, B. (2009) conducted a descriptive study in a discourse analysis of grammatical cohesion in student's writing to see the various kinds of linguistic

ties and their effects on writing cohesive discourse as well as to see students' use of grammatical cohesive devices. The sample represented one group of second-year L.M.D students of the department of foreign languages at the University of Constantine. The number of the subjects' population amounts to 40 students. The results showed that the use of grammatical cohesive devices by Second- Year Students of English at the Department of Foreign Languages, University of Mentouri, Constantine, is quite enough. However, some inappropriate uses of grammatical cohesive devices are easily noticed concerning the total use of those devices. In addition, some grammatical cohesive devices are widely used but inappropriately; and some of them are less used but appropriately. Students' use of grammatical cohesive devices mainly appears with the use of conjunctions because they are most probably known by learners; however, most of the conjunction devices are used inappropriately. Also, it is remarked that in each type of grammatical cohesive devices used there is always a predominant device.

### **III. RESEARCH METHOD**

In order to answer the research questions and achieve the objectives of the research, research method should be constructed thoroughly. The research method consists of research design, subject of the research, data collecting techniques, steps in collecting the data, validity and reliability, and data analysis.

#### **3.1. Design**

This study focuses on identifying students' written product on the use of cohesive device. Qualitative performance analysis is chosen as the design of this study. According to Buneci (2008), qualitative performance analysis is defined as the qualitative performance validation and diagnosis of applications. Qualitative performance validation assesses whether an observed behavior is expected or unexpected. Qualitative performance diagnosis searches and offers the application user possible causes of unexpected behavior.

The author was interested in a qualitative performance analysis which draws on human experience in creating and using qualitative descriptions of mechanism. In this qualitative research, the author focuses a text as an object of analysis which is in the analysis of text there are four types of analysis namely conversation analysis, performance analysis, narrative analysis and grammatical structures analysis. Here the author chooses qualitative performance analysis as

the technique in analyzing students' performance in using cohesive device in written text. The data collection was presented through document of students's essay writing.

### **3.2. The Subjects**

The subjects of the research are one class of students in Pre-intermediate Writing (the third semester students), Advanced Writing (the fifth semester students), and Academic Writing (the seventh semester students) of English Education Department, Teacher Training and Education Faculty, Lampung University in academic year 2015-2016. In the course of Writing, they have been learning various types of genre.

The reason for choosing students in Pre-Intermediate Writing, Advanced Writing, and Academic Writing as the subjects of this study is to prove whether each students at different proficiency levels have different trend in their adoption of some cohesive items.

### **3.3. Data Collecting Techniques**

The data of cohesive devices used by students in writing were taken by giving students the writing assignment in recount text. In collecting the data, this research was employ these following techniques:



### **3.3.1. Administering Writing Assignment**

The three groups students were assigned to write their personal recount. The example of writing instruction is described as follows;

- Write your personal recount at least 5 paragraph or at least 200 words.

### **3.3.2. Collecting the Documents**

The documents were collected in form of textual data, such as the students' writing. They were analyzed descriptively through manual coding, and categorizing. For coding the data, the primary types of cohesion are shown by their initial letters: R (reference), S (substitution), E (ellipsis), C (conjunction), L (lexical). For categorizing the data, each type of cohesion shown was categorized through matrix.

## **3.4. Steps in Collecting the Data**

In collecting the data, this research uses these following steps:

### **3.4.1. Determining the Subject of the Research**

In determining the subject of the research, this research used purposive sampling. The researcher seized one class of third, fifth, and seventh semester students in Pre-Intermediate, Advance, and Academic writing courses.

### **3.4.2. Administering Writing Assignment**

Firstly, in administering writing assignment for the third semester students, the lecturer of Pre-Intermediate writing course (Prof. Dr. Patuan Raja, M.Pd) distributed the writing assignment concerning students' personal recount. After the first draft was submitted, then they did the peer correction. Here, the researcher was as observer who was involved in the process of observing the peer correction process in the class. Then in the second meeting, the students submitted the second draft and did more peer correction. In the final stage, they had completed their third draft to be submitted to the lecturer.

For the fifth semester students, the lecturer assigned the students to rewrite their personal recount that had ever been written when they were in the the third semester. Here, eventhough they used their previous task when they were in the third semester, yet their competence has been in their level now that is in the advance writing.

For the seventh semester students, the lecturer assigned the students to make several tasks concerning academic writing, on of the task is composing their personal recount/ retell their experience during their internship (KKN program).

### **3.4.3. Collecting the Document**

After the students had composed their writing, the lecturer asked the students to submit the assignment, then the the document of students' writing assignment was given by the the reseacher to be analyzed.

### **3.5. Validity and Reliability**

Validity in qualitative research is defined as whether the data are plausible, credible and reliable, and can be defended when challenged. Here, the researcher used time triangulation in investigating the results of data in students' writing assignment. Time triangulation is applied to both cross-sectional and longitudinal studies. Cohen and Manion (1997) maintain that cross sectional data is collected with time-related processes from different groups at one point in time, while longitudinal studies collect data from the same group at different points in time sequence. Cross sectional studies compare the measurements for the individuals in different samples at one point in time, while longitudinal studies examine selected processes in the same individuals comparing the same sample's results repeatedly over time. Therefore, the present study was conducted as cross sectional study which took 3 samples group at one point in time. Those three samples taken by the present researcher are valid subjects.

### **3.6. Data Analysis**

The data were collected through data collecting technique was analyzed by using theory proposed by Miles and Huberman, 1994 in Suparman (2009: 124) in the form of matrix. That is general review of information, developing codes or categories, making preliminary counts of data and determine how frequently codes appear in the database. Therefore, in analyzing the data of the students' English writing, the descriptive analysis was done through several steps;

- Firstly, the data of the students' English writing were collected from the students' writing assignment. In choosing the data, the researcher analyzed 20 students' writing in each of their different proficiency levels or all 60 students' writing.
- Secondly, counting the use of cohesive devices. The researcher counted every cohesive device in students writing, and inputted each of them according to the classification in each table of cohesive devices classification.
- Thirdly, categorizing the cohesive devices. The researcher displayed the numeric form of the devices with the formula:

$$P = \frac{N}{T} \times 100\%$$

P = Percentage

N = Types or sub-types of cohesive devices

T = Total cohesive devices produced by students

- The last step in analyzing the data, that was assessing the correctness and incorrectness of cohesive devices in students' writing. The researcher divided the table into the correct and incorrect use for each of them based on the criteria of correctness in cohesion. e.g;

As an innocent little girl who loves *his* brothers much and to follow her brother's orders, I granted their wish. (IC)

As an innocent little girl who loves *her* brothers much and follows her brother's orders, I granted their wish. (C)

I was so ashamed. I also fear that *the* mother would be angry because of my act. But surprisingly, my mother was not angry at me *then* she was just laughed. (IC)

I was so ashamed. I was also afraid that *my* mother would be angry because of my act. But surprisingly, she was not angry with me. *In fact*, she was just laughed.

## V. CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION

This chapter presents the finding and conclusion derived from the result of the research.

### 5.1. Conclusion

Based on the statement of research problem, the results show:

#### 5.1.1. Students' Cohesive Devices

Indonesian English major students could produce various types of grammatical and lexical cohesive devices in their writing i.e., grammatical and lexical cohesive devices. In broad outline, the students use all devices e.g., reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction in grammatical cohesive device. Moreover, in lexical cohesive devices, they use repetition, synonym, hyponymy, metonymy, antonymy which categorizing as reiteration lexical. Not only reiteration, collocation was also used in their writing. Since the researcher focuses on the three proficiency levels i.e., the third semester students, the fifth semester students, and the seventh semester students, here is given the frequency of cohesive devices used by those three proficiency levels students;

The third semester students in Pre-Intermediate writing course utilize conjunction 49.64%, reference 45.84%, lexical 3.93%, ellipsis 0.39%, and substitution 0.19%.

The fifth semester students in Advance writing course utilize reference 49.44%, conjunction 44.51, lexical 5.73%, substitution 0.19, and ellipsis 0.12%.

The seventh semester students in Academic writing course utilize reference 62.59%, conjunction 35.49%, lexical 1.82%, substitution 0.10%, and ellipsis 0%.

Based on the the conclusion, the researcher assumes that the third semester students tend to use conjunction, the fifth semester students tend to use repetition in lexical cohesion, while the seventh semester students frequently use reference.

Of four grammatical cohesion types, reference especially demonstrative reference stands out to be the highest frequency device. The high percentage of reference's occurrence in this research is dominated by the use of demonstrative reference "the".

In lexical cohesive devices, the students frequently repeat some words or sentences several times even more than one repetition. e.g., We must find the emergency door, finally we find the emergency door. (We had to find the emergency door, finally we found it).

Anaphoric reference was mostly used than cataphoric. It might be cataphoric is commonly found in conversation or dialogue.

There are only small numbers of substitution used by students. One reason that affects this phenomenon is probably due to the excessive use of references. Nominal substitution is basically has the same function as in personal reference; therefore, due to the less familiarity of using nominal substitution, students tend to

use personal reference.

### **5.1.2. Students' Incorrect Cohesive Devices**

In term of students' incorrectness in using cohesive devices, the researcher found incorrect reference and incorrect conjunction. i.e; The third semester students use incorrect reference 0.28%, incorrect conjunction 0.13%, the fifth semester students use incorrect reference 1.00%, incorrect conjunction 0.69%, the seventh semester students use incorrect reference 0.39%, incorrect conjunction 0.36%.

Based on the data which shows the small percentage incorrect cohesive devices, it can be said that most students are able to apply cohesive devices in their text. Yet, they misuse certain cohesive devices.e.g; reference and conjunction.

Reference becomes problematic area for the students, they have problem to distinguish the singular and plural objects, make vague reference, commit unnecessary repetitive reference, are unable to make a parallel form of the whole paragraph, and excessively use "the" which then makes them unable to decide whether "the" is needed or not. It seems that the students have a lot experience in using the device. Eventhough there are some rules in using article "the", the students still assume that it is a negligible case. In addition, many students probably do not realize the function of "the". They know it serves as an article; nonetheless, students are not aware of its other function as a cohesive device.

In conjunction, some incorrect use are due to the confusion to use



appropriate conjunction, the unnecessary use conjunction for one clause, and failure to maintain the theme-rheme relationship between sentences. Most of incorrect conjunction are unable to tie explicitly the relation between sentences appropriately; there are some additives which are signaled by adversative conjunction or vice versa. i.e;. The use of “then” as a temporal conjunction is often replaced by “and”. Eventhough “then” and “and” have different function, they frequently emerge in the same use. e.g., I tell my mom and she was angry (I told my mom then she was angry).

Due to a little percentage of substitution and ellipsis, the researcher could not find their incorrect use. For most students, writing is a process of translating their ideas into English. While they were translating, they translated mechanically, paying no attention to English syntax, and less modification.

As has been clarified by the researcher in the background of study in chapter 1 due to her couriosity of Crossley and McNamara (2012) finding that L2 writers categorised as highly proficient do not produce essays that are more ceohesive, but instead produce texts that are more linguistically sophisticated. These findings have important implications for L2 writing development and L2 writing pedagogy. The results of their study suggest that L2 writers judged to be more advanced produce texts with fewer cohesive devices. It brings the present researcher to determine three different sample groups (the third semester students in Intermediate writing course, the fifth semester students in Advance writing course, and the seventh semester students in Academic writing course) which is able to represent the number of students proficiency level. The finding of present

study shows that the students proficiency level does not influence students writing to build cohesion.

## **5.2. Implication**

Based on the findings and conclusions, a number of claims concerning cohesion are made in the present section; including those directed to students, and those directed to teachers.

### **5.2.1. Students**

The lowest percentage of cohesive devices used by the students is ellipsis and substitution. Therefore, it is suggested that English department students should emphasize the students' understanding about replacement and ommiting of a word or sentence in order to avoid the readers boredom in reading a text.

The highest percentage of cohesive devices used by the students is reference and conjunction. Therefore, it is also suggested that the English teachers should emphasize the students' understanding about grammatical and structural forms of sentence.

### **5.2.2. Teachers**

The cohesion is better taught both written and spoken by designing material which is able to enhance students' competence in creating coherent and cohesive texts, developing classroom language to make the students accustomed to be well organized text, and instructing a peer correction to make the students

aware their weaknesses in order to find out the causes of the incorrectness and to avoid the similar mistakes, designing appropriate assessment so that the students' competence can be measured well. Moreover, the teacher can motivate their students to enlarge vocabulary which will help them to use synonyms, antonyms, and superordinates rather than overuse repetition. Concerning with redundancy and misuse of conjunctions in the students' writing, the variety of cohesive structures in different categories should be taught to students to avoid redundancy and repetition. Based on analysis, the high frequency of the additive conjunction "and" may suggest students' limitation of use to the most common conjunctions.

Another implication is concerned with the relationship of form and function of cohesion. English teachers should make the students understand the connection between the form and the function of language which will help them become aware how to build cohesion in a text. For instance the use of "then" as temporal conjunction often replaced by "and" which should have different function. Therefore, the relationship between form and function be emphasized to students.

### **5.3. Suggestion**

The findings of this study suggest a more deeply investigation related to the issue of cohesion study. Further study on the same topic in other discourse genres, e.g., argumentative and hortatory text, will give better understanding and a clearer picture of how discourse cohesion is structured and achieved in the

English writing. It would be very interesting to compare aspects of discourse cohesion in various discourse genres and examine how they differ in terms of the use of cohesive devices.

The present chapter has been devoted to the conclusions, i.e., claims concerning the research topic, implication, i.e., claims concerning language teaching writing, and suggestions. i.e., claims concerning cohesion research approaches and topics. At the end, the researcher strongly expects that this study can be a great contribution as a reference for the further research related on cohesion especially in writing.

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