# CHAPTER II REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

#### **A. Theoretical Review**

#### 1. Textbook

# a. Definition of Textbook

English textbook plays important role in the teaching learning process of English lesson. Nowadays, people can find textbooks easily at bookstores and libraries. Although most textbooks are published in printed format, now, some can also be viewed online. According to Hornby "textbook means a book giving instruction in a branch of learning".<sup>1</sup>

In another definition, textbook is a manual of instruction or a standard book in any branch of study which is produced according to the demands of educational institutions.<sup>2</sup> In order to use a textbook systematically and flexibly, it is important to understand how it is put together and how it can be adapted to meet the needs of the particular learners. The textbook provides a plan for learning, a visible outline of what is to be learned in the classroom as a bank of resource materials and ideas. What happen in the classroom fills out and transforms the outline into learning experience for students.

There is relation between teacher and textbook. The relation between teacher and text book is an important consideration and at it is a partnership that share common goals to which each side brings its special contribution. The aim of text book should correspond as closely as possible to the aim of the teacher, and both should seek to meet the needs of the learners to the highest degree. The partnership is helped when aims and objectives are well defined, and when the difference but

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Hornby, *Oxford Advance* Learner's *Dictionary of Current English*, (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1995), p. 893.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Wikipedia,"*Textbook*" http://www.wikipedia.org/wiki/textbook, retrieved on 20<sup>th</sup> July 2010.

complementary roles of the teacher and course book are clearly perceived and well balanced.

Textbook are used in different ways in language programs. For example, a reading textbook might be the basis for a course on reading skills, providing both a set of reading texts and exercise for skill a practice. A writing textbook might provide model compositions and list of topic for students to write about. A grammar textbook might serve as a reference book and provide examples as well as exercise to develop grammatical knowledge.<sup>3</sup> The textbook does not stand alone; teachers do need a manual with specific information about how to begin, conduct and end each lesson given in the book.

From the definition above we can conclude that textbook is kind of book used in some studies at school or college as standard works in a particular skill or subjects as standard works with appropriate contents.

## b. The Role of Textbook

A textbook has many functions for teachers in order to run the teaching learning process well, or its has an important role in teaching learning process. Grant in his book *Making The Most of your Textbook* said that textbook do several useful jobs, there are as follow<sup>4</sup>:

- They can identify what should be taught or learned, and the order in which it should be taught or learned.
- 2) They can indicate what methods should be used
- They can provide, neatly, attractively, and economically, all or most materials needed
- 4) They can save the teacher an extraordinary amount of time.
- 5) They can act as very useful learning- aid for the students

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Jack C Richards, *Curriculum Development in Language Teaching*, (Cambridge : Cambridge University Press, 2002) p. 254.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> Neville Grant, Making The Most of your Textbook, (New York : Longman, 1989) p. 8

In line with it, According to Cunningworth, a textbook is best seen as a resource in achieving aims and objectives that have already been set in term of learners needs. They should not determine the aims themselves or becomes the aims. A course book has multiple roles in English learning teaching and converses  $as^5$ :

- 1) A resource for presentation materials (spoken and written)
- 2) A source of activities for learner's practice and communicative interactions.
- 3) A reference for the learners on grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, etc
- 4) A source of stimulations and ideas for classroom language activities
- 5) A syllabus (where they reflect learning objectives that have already been determined)
- 6) A support for less experienced teachers who have yet to gain in confidence.

## c. The Kinds of Textbooks

Grant categorizing a textbook into two of categories of textbook. The two categories are *traditional textbooks*, and *communicative text books*. They may describe as follows:

1) Traditional Textbooks.

Traditional textbooks are still being published today. So the label is used to describe a type of textbook, rather than the date when it was published. The traditional textbook tries to get students to learn the language as a system. Once they have learned the system, it is hoped that they are then equipped to use the language for their own purposes in any way they think fit.

Traditional textbook have all or most of these characteristics:

a) They tend to emphasis the forms, or patterns, of language (the grammar) more than the communicative functions of language

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Jack C Richards, op. cit., p. 251

the job we do using it, for example, asking for information, making request, apologizing, asking the way, etc.

- b) They tend to focus on reading and writing activities, rather than listening and speaking activities.
- c) They often make use of great deal of first language.
- d) They emphasis the important of accuracy
- e) They tend to focus rather narrowly a syllabus and examinations.
- f) They are often attractive to some teachers, because they seem easy to use, and are highly examination- oriented.<sup>6</sup>
- 2) Communicative Textbook

Communicative textbooks try solve this problems by creating opportunities for the students o use the language in the classroom, as a short of "halfway house" before using it in real life. Communicative course book vary quite a lot, but very broadly they have the following characteristics:

- a) They emphasis the communicative functions of language the jobs people o using the language.
- b) They try to reflect the students needs and interests
- c) They emphasis skills in using the language, not just the forms of language, and they are therefore activity based.
- d) They usually have a good balance among the four language skills, but many emphasize listening and speaking more than traditional course book does.
- e) They tend to be very specific in their definition of aims.
- f) Both content and methods reflect the authentic language of everyday life.
- g) They encourage work in groups and pairs, and therefore make heavier demands on teacher's organizational abilities.
- h) They emphasize fluency, not just accuracy.<sup>7</sup>

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> Neville Grant, *op.cit.*, p. 13.

#### d. The Function of Textbook

According to Jack C. Richard in the Book *Curriculum Development in Language Teaching*, the functions of textbook as follow<sup>8</sup>:

1) They provide structure and syllabus for a program

Without textbooks a program may have no central core learners may not receive a syllabus that has been systematically planned and developed.

2) They help standardize instruction

The use of a textbook in a program can ensure that the students in different classes receive similar content and therefore can be tested in the same way.

3) They maintain quality

If a well developed textbook is used, students are exposed to materials that have been tried and tested, that are based on sound learning principles, and that are paced appropriately.

4) They provide a variety of learning resources

Textbook are often accompanied by workbooks, CDs and cassettes, videos, CD-ROMs, and comprehensive teaching guides, providing a rich and varied resource for teachers and learners.

5) They are efficient

They save teachers' time, enabling teachers to devote time to teaching rather than materials production.

6) They provide effective language models and input.

Textbooks can provide support for teachers whose first language is not English and who may not be able to generate accurate language input on their own.

7) They can train teachers

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> Neville Grant, *op.*, *cit.* p. 14.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> Jack C Richards, op. cit., p. 254-255

If teachers have limited teaching experience, a textbook together with the teacher's manual can serve as a medium of initial teacher training.

8) They are visually appealing

Textbook usually have high standards of design and production and hence are appealing to learners and teachers.

## 2. The Indicators to Measure of Text

# a. Definition of Text

According to Richards "text is a piece of spoken or written language. A text may be considered from the point of view of its structure and/or its functions."<sup>9</sup> A full understanding of a text is often impossible without reference to the context in which it occurs.

Nunan added that "text refers to a written or taped record of a piece of communication"<sup>10</sup> but Feez and Joyce argued that "a text is any stretch of language which is held together cohesively through meaning."<sup>11</sup> Actually when we speak or write something, we have made a text. So, any instance of living language that is playing some parts in context of situation we shall text. It may be either spoken or written. Based on the participant there are spoken and written text.

Text is something that happens, in the form of talking or writing, listening or reading.<sup>12</sup> When we analyze it, we analyze the product of this process, and the term 'text' is usually taken as referring to the product, especially the product in its written form, since this is most clearly perceptible as an object.

#### b. Genre

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> Jack Richards, *et. al.*, *Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics*, (Hong Kong: Longman Group, 1985), p. 292

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>10</sup> David Nunan, *Introducing Discourse Analysis*, (London: Penguin Group, 1993), p. 20

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup> Feez and Joyce, *Text Based Syllabus Design*, (Sydney: Macquire University, 2002), p.4

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>12</sup> Halliday and Matthiessen, *An Introduction to Functional Grammar*, (New York: Oxford University Press, 2004), p. 524.

Gerot and Wignell stated that "Genre is one of the most important and influential concept in language education. Genre can be defined as a culturally specific text-type which results from using language (written or spoken) to (help) accomplish something."<sup>13</sup>

According to Richards "genre is a particular class of speech events which are considered by speech community as being of the same type."<sup>14</sup> It can be concluded that there are differences between each genre to another. There are some genres texts: spoof/ recount, reports, analytical exposition, news item, anecdote, narrative, procedure, description, hortatory, explanation, discussion, and reviews. But in this study the writer only discusses about recount text.

#### c. Recount Text

1) Definition of recount text

According to Anderson, "recount is a piece of texts that retells past events, usually in the order in which they happened."<sup>15</sup> The purpose of a recount is to give the audience a description of what occurred and when it occurred.

Since texts are constructed in order to achieve different purposes, they are constructed in different ways. Consequently, there are a lot of text types in English. They, however, are categorized into two kinds, namely literary texts and factual texts. There are three main text types in the literary texts, i.e. narrative, poetic, as well as dramatic. Meanwhile, such text types as recount, explanation, discussion, informative report, exposition, procedure, as well as response belong to factual texts.

Recount as one of factual texts can be said as the simple text type because it even can be about familiar and everyday things

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>13</sup>Gerot Linda and Wignell Peter, *Making Sense of Functional Grammar*, (North South Wales: Gerd Stabler, 1995), p. 17.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>14</sup> Jack Richards, et. Al. op.cit., p. 122.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>15</sup> Anderson, *Text Types in English* 1 & 2,(South Yarra: McMillan Education Australia, 1997), p. 48.

or events. It, however, can he more demanding if it is used on formal context such as report of a science experiment, police report, news report, historical account, etc.

In line with Anderson's idea, Derewianka states that in a recount we reconstruct past experience, a recount is the unfolding of sequence of events overtime.<sup>16</sup> We are using language to keep the past alive and help us to interpret experience.

2) Types of Recount Text

According to Anderson, there are some types of recount text<sup>17</sup>:

a) Eyewitness accounts

An eyewitness account is one example of a recount. The eyewitness may be called on to give details about an event such as a car accident, an explosion or a fight. The audience may be a police officer, readers of a newspaper or viewers of a TV news report. The purpose of the account is to provide details about event in the order in which they occurred.

Example of eyewitness recount:

I was walking along Main Street about 10 a.m. when I saw this blue car stop outside the bank. Next thing I saw this man with a mask on. He jumped out of the car and ran into the bank. I then walked up to the door of the bank and looked in. by this time the robber had everyone in the bank lying on the floor. At this point I hurried to the telephone box in park and called the police.

b) Speeches

A speech is a spoken text that can have a variety of purpose. A recount speech would be one where the speaker tells the

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>16</sup> Derewianka, *Exploring How Texts Work*, (Australia: Primary English Teaching Association, 1990), p.140.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>17</sup> Anderson, op.cit., p. 56

audience about a past happening. The speaker would recount the events in the order in which they took place.

When preparing a speech, the speaker should do the following:

- i. Be clear about the topic and purpose of the speech.
- ii. Do research so that the speech is accurate.
- iii. Remember who the audience will be (friends, young children or adults) and what they might expect (to be entertained)
- iv. Practice the speech, checking that the voice is clear, that important words are stressed, and that it is spoken neither too quickly nor too slowly.
- v. Think about body language, such as when to use facial expressions or hand gestures and how to stand.<sup>18</sup>
- c) Letters

Letters can be written for all sorts of reason. Some letters can be recount text types because the writer retells events to the reader. These letters can be posted or faxed. More and more people are now using e-mail (electronic mail) to send their recounts.

d) Conversations

A conversation is a spoken text between two or more people. Conversations can have different purpose to explain, to describe or to argue. Some conversations can have the purpose of recounting events. Conversations are written with special punctuation marks to show the words that were spoken by the participants. When the actual words are written, this is called direct speech. The actual words are written inside quotation marks. Originally, the quotation marks used at the start of the direct speech were "and the end of the speech was shown by". Today because of the influence of word processors, direct speech

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>18</sup> Anderson, op.cit., p. 74

is usually shown between single quotation marks. Examples of recount conversations are: talking with your family about what you did at school today, telling a friend who missed last night's episode of 'home and away what happened'.

e) Television Interviews

An interview is a special type of conversation that can be a recount text. Often on current affairs shows or chat shows the guests are asked to recount part of their lives.<sup>19</sup>

3) Constructing a written recount

The recount text type retells past events, usually in the order in which they happened. The steps for constructing a written recount are:

- a) A first paragraph that gives background information about who, what, where and when (called an orientation)
- b) A series of paragraphs that retell the events in the order in which they happened
- c) A concluding paragraph (not always necessary)
- 4) Language features in a recount

The language features usually found in a recount are:

- a) Proper nouns to identify those involved in the text
- b) Descriptive words to give details about who, what, when, where and how
- c) The use of the past tense to retell the events
- d) Words that show the order of events $^{20}$
- 5) The recount scaffold

We can see from the models and the previous activity that a recount text can have three main parts.

a) A first paragraph that gives background information about who, what, where and when (an orientation)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>19</sup> Anderson, *op.cit.*, p. 71. <sup>20</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 50.

- b) A series of paragraphs that retell the events in the order in which they happened.
- c) A concluding paragraph that may including a personal comment (always necessary)<sup>21</sup>
- 6) Tense and recounts

Tense is the time that the action takes place in the text. It can be in the past (already happened), in the present (is happening now) or in the future (will happen later). Recounts use the past tense.

## d. Discourse Analysis

Discourse refers to the piece of communication in context.<sup>22</sup> Hornby argued that "discourse is a kind of spoken or written language."<sup>23</sup> The example of spoken language is the use of language in communication or when making conversation with other people.

According to Richards discourse is a general term for examples of language use, language which has been produced as the result of an act of communication. Whereas grammar refers to the rules a language uses to form grammatical unit such as clause, phrase, and sentence, discourse refers to larger units of language such as paragraph, conversations, and interviews. Sometimes the study of both written and spoken discourse is known as discourse analysis.<sup>24</sup>

Discourse analysis is the study of how sentence in spoken and written language form larger meaningful units such as paragraphs, conversations, interviews. For example, discourse analysis deals with:

- a. How the choice of articles, pronouns, and tenses affects the structure of discourse.
- b. The relationship between utterances in a discourse.

 <sup>&</sup>lt;sup>21</sup> *Ibid.* p. 53.
 <sup>22</sup> David Nunan, *op.cit.*, p. 20.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>23</sup>Hornby, *op.cit.*, p.330

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>24</sup> Jack Richards, et. al., op.cit., p. 83.

c. The moves made by speakers to introduce a new topic, change the topic, or assert a higher role relationship to the other participants.<sup>25</sup>

Discourse analysis is also study these text-forming devices. However, they do so with reference to the purpose and functions for which the discourse was produced, as well as the context within which the discourse was created.<sup>26</sup>

McCarthy stated that discourse analysis can be defined as the study of the relationship between languages of the context in which it is used not just concern with the description and analysis of spoken interaction. In the other word, discourse analysis is basically concern with the relationship between language and the context of its use.<sup>27</sup>

The context in which the language is used is very important. It can influence the interpretation of a discourse since it determines whether the discourse is a request, instruction or an exemplification. Moreover, it can also affect the choice of language which is used in the discourse. And so, discourse analysis influences the interpretation of a discourse or text. An useful interpretation of a literary work can be reached by an analysis of the text's organization as discourse. Thus, discourse analysis can be useful in interpreting the text, because the text belongs to literary work.

Meanwhile, cohesive devices keep cohesiveness among elements within a discourse or text. Cohesive relationships between words and sentences in the discourse or text can help us recognize the unit beyond a sentence. And so, the cohesive text will make the readers understand what the writer really intends to. However, readers are very creative interpreter whenever he/she reads a written text.

In addition, specifically, Halliday and Hasan define text as not just a string of sentences. It is not simply a large grammatical unit,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>25</sup> Jack Richards, op.cit., p. 84

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>26</sup> David Nunan, *op.cit.*, p.20.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>27</sup>McCarthy, *Discourse Analysis for Language Teachers*, (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1991), p. 5

something of the same kind as a sentence, but differing from it in size, a sort of super sentences a semantic unit. Because it is semantic unit, its texture (the state of being a text) is determined by its interpretation within a particular context.<sup>28</sup> Thus, the text can be either spoken or written and of any length. While a text may be of any length, it is normally longer than one sentence. Consequently, it can be spoken or written.

Discourse study is also considered as the discipline devoted to the investigation of relationship between form and function on verbal communication. In spoken discourse, the speaker has to say meaningful and united utterances or discussion so that the hearer can comprehend what the speaker says. In written discourse, the writer usually has time to think about what to say and how to say it, that is meaningful and related sentences are well formed and can be understood easily.

We can conclude from the definition above that discourse analysis deals 'with everything that has something to do with a set of language or communication activities, either spoken or written that build a set of certain meaning based on its.

#### 3. Cohesion

According to Richards in *Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics* stated that "cohesion is the grammatical and/or lexical relationships between the different elements of a text. This may be the relationship between different sentences or between different parts of a sentence."<sup>29</sup>

Cohesion is the resources within language that provide continuity in a text, over and above that provided by clause structure and clause complexes. Hence, cohesive relations are non-structural relations which

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>28</sup> Halliday and Hasan, *Cohesion in English*, (London: Longman, 1976), p. 291.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>29</sup> Jack Richards, op.cit., p. 45

work to help a text hang together.<sup>30</sup> That is, sequences of sentences or utterances which seem to 'hang together'. These are words and phrases which enable the writer or speaker to establish relationships across sentence or utterance boundaries, and which help to tie the sentences in a text together.<sup>31</sup>

Halliday and Hasan mention that cohesion refers to relations of meaning that exist in the text, and that defines it as a text. Furthermore, Halliday and Hasan explain that cohesion is a semantic relation between an element in the text and some other elements that are crucial to the interpretation of it.<sup>32</sup>

From the information above, cohesion serves to relate individual utterances to be understood logically and chronologically as a discourse or text. The elements in the discourse or text are dependent one another. Furthermore we can also state that cohesion expresses the relation and the continuity that exist between one art of the text and another. Cohesion also has a function as a tie to link one sentence to another. This relationship has function to convey meaning from the speaker's mind, idea, or thought in order to make readers easier to understand it.

It is in line with the concept from Baker stated "cohesion as a network of lexical, grammatical and other relations which Provides links between various parts of text."<sup>33</sup> From this statement, we can draw a conclusion that cohesion helps us to create a text and thus it is the text forming component of linguistic system; its resources for text construction, the range of meanings that are specifically associated with relating what is being spoken or written to its semantic environment. Thus, cohesion doesn't concern about what a text means, it concerns how the text is constructed as a semantic edifice.

 <sup>&</sup>lt;sup>30</sup> Gerot and Wignell, *op.cit.*, p. 170
 <sup>31</sup> David Nunan, *op. cit.*, p. 5.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>32</sup> Halliday and Hasan, *op.cit.*, p.4

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>33</sup> Baker, In Other Word: A Discourse Book on Translation, (London: Rout ledge, 1992), p. 180.

#### 4. Grammatical Cohesion

There are four types of grammatical cohesion. They are reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction. Every type is elaborated in the following explanation:

#### a. Reference

Reference is systems which introduce and track the identity of participants through text. It is related to textual meaning and thus to mode.<sup>34</sup> We find very different patterns between spoken and written texts and these differences are accentuated the more 'written' the text is. According to Halliday and Hasan "reference is the relatiton between an element of the text and something else by reference to which it is interpreted in the given instance. Reference is a potentially cohesive relation because the thing that serves as the source of interpretation may itself be an element of text".<sup>35</sup> There are three types of reference: personal, demonstrative, and comparative reference. Each type is explained below:

 Personal reference is a reference by means of function in the speech situation, through the categories of person, such as 1, me, you, we, us, him, etc. The category of personals includes the three classes of personal pronoun, possessive pronouns (mine, yours, ours, etc.) and possessive identifiers (my, your, our, etc.). For example:

a) Cathy is the new student from Australia.

b) <u>She</u> sits next to me.

In the second sentence, <u>she</u> refers <u>Cathy</u> to in the preceding sentence. The word <u>she</u> is personal reference. It is called pronoun of the third person singular which is grammatically function as a head.

2) Demonstrative reference is a reference by means of location, on a scale of proximity. In the case of demonstrative, the words this, these, that, those, here, now, there, the, and then are used. Halliday

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>34</sup> Gerot and Wignell, *loc.cit*.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>35</sup> Halliday and Hasan, *op.cit.*, p. 308-309.

and Hasan add this, these, and here imply proximity to the speaker; that, those, and there imply distance from the speaker. The use of demonstrative reference is shown in the example below:

- a) There seems to have been a great deal of sheer carelessness. This is what I can't understand.
- b) There seems to have been a great deal of sheer carelessness. Yes, that what I can't understand.

The basic sense of this is one of proximity, this refers to something as being near, that refers to something as being not near. The 'that' term tends to be more inclusive, though the two are more evenly balanced in English than their equivalents in some other languages. Proximity is typically from the point of view of the speaker, so this means 'near me'.<sup>36</sup>

3) Comparative reference.

Whereas personals and demonstratives, when used anaphorically, set up a relation of co-reference, whereby the same entity is referred to over again, comparatives set up a relation of contrast. In comparative reference, the reference items still signals you know which, not because the same entity is being referred to which what I am now talking about is the same or different, like or unlike, equal or unequal, more or less. Comparative reference items function in nominal and adverbial groups and the comparison is made with reference either to general features of identity, similarity and difference or to particular features of quality and quantity.<sup>37</sup> For examples:

- It's the same cat as the one we saw yesterday; a)
- b) It's a similar cat as the one we saw yesterday; and
- It's a different cat from the one we saw yesterday. c)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>36</sup> Halliday and Matthiessen, *op. cit.*, p. 557. <sup>37</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 560

The referent was the one we saw yesterday, and the comparative same, similar, and different were pointing forward to it.

#### **b.** Substitution

There are three types of substitution they are: nominal, verbal and clausal substitution.  $^{38}$ 

1) Nominal Substitution

In nominal substitution, there are three items that occur as substitutes: one, ones, and same.

Example: There are some new tennis balls in the bag. These <u>ones</u> have lost their bounce.

The underlined word in the second sentence above, that is one, is the substitution of tennis ball in the preceding sentence. And so, the word one in the second sentence illustrates cohesion based on substitution

2) Verbal Substitution

Example: You think john already knows? I think everybody does.

The word does in the sentence above, is the substitution of knows in the preceding sentence.

3) Clausal Substitution

Example: It is going to rain? I think so.

The word so in the sentence above, is the substitution of going to rain in the preceding sentence.

# c. Ellipsis

Ellipsis is describes as a form of substitution in which the original item is replaced by zero. Ellipsis occurs when some essential structural is omitted from a sentence or clause and can only be recovered by referring to an element in the preceding text.<sup>39</sup>

As with substitution, there are three types of ellipsis:

1) Nominal Ellipsis

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>38</sup> David Nunan, op. cit., p. 24-25

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>39</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 26.

Example : Joan brought some carnations and Catherine sonic sweet peas.

Ellipsis item : brought in the second clause.

2) Verbal Ellipsis

Example : Have you been swimming? Yes, I have. Ellipsis item : been swimming in the second clause.

3) Clausal Ellipsis

Example : What was the Duke going to do? — Plant a row of poplars in the park.

Ellipsis item: the Duke was going to in the second clause.

# d. Conjunction

Conjunction differs from reference, substitution and ellipsis in that it is not a device for reminding the reader of previously mentioned entities, actions and states of affairs. In other words, it is not what linguists call an anaphoric relation. However, it is a cohesive device because it signals relationships that can only be fully understood through reference to other parts of text. There are four different types of conjunction, they are: temporality, causality, addition and adversity.<sup>40</sup> Examples of each type follow.

1) Adversative Conjunction

Example: Carol, <u>however</u>, changed her behavior because she wanted to become part of a new group.

2) Additive Conjunction

Example: No one wants to be rejected. <u>And</u> to prevent rejection we change our behaviors often.

3) Temporal Conjunction

Example: A friend of mine went to an out-of-stage college. <u>Before</u> she left, she expressed her feelings about playing role to win new friend.

<sup>40</sup> David Nunan, op. cit., p. 26-27

4) Causal Conjunction

Example: Today's society sets the standards. The people more or less follow it. Consequently, there exists the right behavior for the specific.

# 5. Lexical Cohesion

Lexical cohesion refers to relationship between and among words in a text. Lexical cohesion is primarily related to field. We discover the field of a text through its content words. Fields tend to have specialized vocabularies and tend to engage in specialized activities. Thus we are interested not only in the words but also in the kinds of activities they engage in. 41

Lexical cohesion occurs when two words in a text are semantically related in some way; they are related in terms of their meaning.<sup>42</sup> There are two major categories of lexical cohesion are reiteration and collocation.

# a) Reiteration

Reiteration includes repetition, synonym, superordinate, and general word.<sup>43</sup> The example of reiteration as follows:

1) Repetition

The most direct form of lexical cohesion is the repetition items, for example the word bear in sentence:

Algy met a bear. The bear was bulgy.

Here the second occurrence of bear harks back to the first. In this instance, there is also reference item the, signaling that the listener knows which bear is intended; and since there is nothing else to satisfy the 'the'. We conclude that it is the same bear. But this referential link is not necessary to lexical cohesion. If we had Algy met a bear. Bear are bulgy, where bears means 'all bear', there would still be lexical cohesion of bears with bear. In this case,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>41</sup> Gerot and Wignell, *op.cit.*, p. 177
<sup>42</sup> David Nunan, *op. cit.*, p.28.
<sup>43</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 29.

however, there would be only one tie; whereas in the example cited first there are two, one referential (the) and one lexical (bear)

2) Synonym

In synonymy, the experiential meaning of the two lexical items is identical; this does not mean that there is a total overlap of meaning, simply that so far as one kind of meaning goes, they mean the same. The standard literature in semantics.<sup>44</sup>

Example : You could try reversing the car up the <u>slope</u>. The incline isn't all that <u>sleep</u>.

3) Superordinate

Example : <u>Pneumonia</u> has arrived with the cold and wet conditions. The <u>illness</u> is striking everyone from infants to the elderly.

4) General word

Example: Did you try the <u>steamed buns</u>? Yes, I did not like the <u>things</u> much.

## b) Collocation

Collocation is the way in which words are used together regularly. Collocation refers to the restriction on how words can be used together, for example which prepositions are used with particular verbs, or which verbs and nouns are used together.<sup>45</sup>

At the same time there are other instances of lexical cohesion which do not depend on any general semantic relationship of the type just discussed, but rather on a particular association between the items in question, a tendency to co-occur. This co-occurrence tendency is known as collocation. For example:

A little fat man of Bombay

was smoking one very hot day,

but a bird called a snipe

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>44</sup> Halliday and Hasan, *Text And Context: Aspects Of Language In A Social-Semiotic Perspective*, (Victoria: Deakin University Press, 1978), p. 76.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>45</sup> Jack Richards, op.cit., p. 46

flew away with his pipe, which vexed the fat man of Bombay.<sup>46</sup>

There is a strong collocational bond between smoke and pipe, which makes the occurrence of pipe in line 4 cohesive.

Clearly there is a semantic basis to a collocation of this kind, a pipe is something you smoke, and the words pipe and smoke are typically related as range to process in a behavioral process clause. Hence pipe here will be interpreted as the pipe that he was smoking at the time.

#### **B.** Previous Research

The researcher will describe some these that are relevant to make the thesis arrangement easier as follows:

1. Kartikasari, Faculty of Language and Art, UNNES Semarang 2010 (The Cohesion of Conversational Texts of Senior High School English Textbook). This research was aim at analyzing kinds of cohesive devices found in conversational texts of an English electronic textbook. The objectives of this research were to find out whether the text book applies any cohesion and to describe the kinds of cohesive device found in the conversational texts. In this research, she analyzed 19 conversational texts from the electronic textbook and found that each of the text has applied cohesive device, both grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion. Reference dominated the grammatical cohesion while lexical cohesion is dominated by reiteration. Conjunction can be found in all the conversational text that has been analyzed. Other cohesive devices such as substitution, ellipsis, and collocation were applied in some conversational text.<sup>47</sup>

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>46</sup> Halliday and Matthiessen, *op.cit.*, p. 577

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>47</sup> Kartikasari, *The Cohesion of Conversational Texts of Senior High School English Electronic Textbook*, Skripsi Pendidikan Bahasa Inggris, (Semarang: UNNES, 2010), p. iv.

- 2. Nurlaila Tuttaqwa, Bachelor Program of English Language Education of State Institute for English Islamic Studies Walisongo/IAIN Walisongo 2009 (Analysis of Speaking Exercises in Look Ahead 1, An English Course for Senior High School Student Year X Published By Erlangga). The objectives of this study are to identify to what extent the speaking exercise in Look Ahead 1 that relevant with the criteria of speaking exercise this uses the library research approach, which is the technique of analysis use the contents analysis (evaluating textbook). In this research, she analyzed 36 speaking exercises which displayed in the Look Ahead 1. the result of her analysis reveals that in terms of kinds of test, speaking skill contents and kinds of practice exercise, those exercises are sufficient enough to improve students ability in speaking skill because the exercise in this book covers all of those criteria, in term of its relevance with curriculum. <sup>48</sup>
- 3. Dwi Eka Aryani, Faculty Of Language and Art, UNNES Semarang 2007(The Generic Structure of Written Text in English on Sky Textbook), state that the aim of English teaching based on school based curriculum is that the students of senior high school hopefully can reach the informational level of literacy since they are prepared to continue their study to the university level. In the standard of competence for tenth year students of senior high school, they should learn five genres; namely recount narrative, descriptive, procedure, and news item. She concluded that the textbook is relevant to the current curriculum. <sup>49</sup>

However this research is different with previous research, but the writer have some purpose that is improving students' understanding of different cohesion. In first thesis to analyze the cohesion of conversational texts of senior high school English textbook and the second thesis an analysis

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>48</sup> Nurlaila tuttaqwa, Analysis of Speaking Exercises in Look Ahead 1, An English Course For Senior High School Student Year X Published By Erlangga, (Semarang: IAIN, 2009), p. vii

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>49</sup> Dwi. E Aryani, *The Generic Structure of Written Text in English on Sky Textbook*, Skripsi Pendidikan Bahasa Inggris, (Semarang: UNNES, 2007), p. xiv.

written text's of generic structure in English on sky textbook. But the writer will analyze the cohesion of recount texts in look ahead English textbook.

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