CHAPTER IV FINDINGS AND DATA ANALYSIS

This chapter is concerned with the analysis of the data of recount texts in *Look Ahead* English textbook. As stated in the previous chapter, the writer analyzed them in order to find out types of cohesive devices.

A. FINDINGS

All of the recount texts that the writer analyzed contain cohesive aspect. The author of the textbook the writer had analyzed applied cohesion aspect to relate some words and ideas in the paragraph of the text. In constructing texts for textbook, the author of textbook used both grammatical and lexical cohesion. From all of the recount texts the writer analyzed, it can be seen that they contain many aspects such as reference, ellipsis, conjunction and lexical cohesion. However substitution is difficult to find.

The following table shows the data after being analyzed.

Text	Reference	Substitution	Ellipsis	Conjunction	Reiteration	Collocation
1	75.86%	0%	6.89%	17.24%	81.82%	18.19%
2	74.99°/)	0%	6.25%	18.75%	66.67%	33.33%
3	65%	0%	10%	25%	100%	0%
4	53.33%	0%	20%	26.67%	25%	75%
5	63.16%	0%	10.53%	26.32%	63.33%	36.67%
6	46.67%	0%	20%	33.33%	53.33%	46.67%
7	40%	0%	20%	40%	70%	30%

The seven recount texts the writer analyzed contain both grammatical cohesion and lexical one. The textbook writer applied cohesion aspect in order to relate some words and ideas being informed in the text. The writer can see that in the texts, the idea in the previous sentence is written cohesively with the sentence following it. The writer can also prove through the data above that the ideas in recount texts in the textbook flow cohesively.

From the table above, reference was the most dominant grammatical cohesion in the first recount text. It was 75.86%. On the other hand, the percentage of reiteration was higher than collocation. It was 81.82%. The same as in the second text, the percentage of reiteration was 66.67% higher than the percentage of collocation. The dominant grammatical cohesion aspect occurred in these texts was reference. It was 74.99%. Reference was also the most dominant grammatical cohesion in the third text. Its percentage was 65%. Meanwhile, reiteration was 100%. In the fourth and fifth texts, the most dominant grammatical cohesion was also reference. They were 53.33% and 63.16%. However in the fourth text, collocation was higher than reiteration. It was 75%. In the fifth text, reiteration was 63.33%. It was higher than collocation, which is 36.67%. In the sixth text, the most dominant grammatical cohesion was still reference. It was 46.67%. In the seventh text, reference and conjunction were dominant grammatical cohesion. It was 40%. In addition, in the sixth and seventh texts, reiteration was higher than collocation. Their percentages were 53.33% and 70%.

We can see from the table that in general the recount texts from the "Look Ahead I An English Course for Senior High School Students Year X" are cohesive text in good categorize, since the rate of the percentage both of the grammatical and lexical cohesion are in 51%-75% based on Halliday and Hasan's theory

B. DATA ANALYSIS

In analyzing the data, the writer used Halliday and Hasan theory. Halliday and Hasan divide cohesion into five types; those are reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction and lexical cohesion. Therefore, the writer classified the data according to the kinds of cohesive types.

1. Grammatical Cohesion

Grammatical cohesion consists of four types. They are reference, ellipsis and conjunction. Reference is the act of referring to a proceeding of following element, deals with a semantic relationship. Meanwhile,

¹ Halliday and Hasan, *Cohesion in English*, (London: Longman, 1976), p. 9.

Substitution and ellipsis; can be thought of in simplest terms as processes within the text; substitution as the replacement of one item by another, and ellipsis as the omission of an item. Conjunction refers broad to the combining of any two textual elements. The following the further 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.² There are three types of reference. They are personal reference, demonstrative reference and comparative reference.

1) Personal reference

Personal reference is reference by means of function in the speech situation, through the category of person, such as 1, me, you, mine, his, etc. It also can be said that personal reference is by mean a personal pronouns, possessive pronouns (mine, yours, etc) and possessive identifiers (my, your, etc).³

The sentence in example below is taken from one of the texts analyzed in the study.

Example:

I think \underline{my} first memories began when I started school at about five years old.

Sentence above is an example of personal reference. It is taken from text 1. In sentence of text above, the word <u>my</u> refers to I (the speaker). The word my is a personal reference, which indicates the first person singular that shows possessive function of the speaker which is grammatically function as modifier that. Modifies the head that is "memories". This kind of reference is categorized in personal reference because the type of reference, which is used in the sentence, belongs to personal reference device. The word my is mentioned in the

² Gerot Linda and Wignell Peter, *Making Sense of Functional Grammar*, (North South Wales: Gerd Stabler, 1995), p. 170.

³ David Nunan, *Introducing Discourse Analysis*, (London: Penguin Group, 1993), p.23

following clause of the sentence. It is named an anaphoric reference because the information is got from the previous part of clause.

Example:

I had a naughty friend named Giant-O because he was fat.

In sentence above, the word he above is also personal reference. It points back to Giant-O. It is called pronoun of the third person singular which has grammatical function as a head. It is anaphoric reference since the information is got from the previous part of clause.

2) Demonstrative reference

Another type of reference is demonstrative reference. Talking about demonstrative reference, it means talking about distant or proximity. In demonstrative reference there are three systematic distinctions toward the selective nominal demonstrative that are this, these, that and those. The distinctions are between near (this, these) and not near (that, those); between singular (this, that) and plural (these, those); between modifier (this, etc, plus noun) and head (this, etc, without noun).⁴

Example:

a) From about 1895 to 1901 he painted realistic works in a traditional style. Then he entered what was called the Blue Period. During this time he only used shades of blue in his paintings to show poverty he saw in Barcelona.

Example 4

b) One day I hit him over the head with my bag. His parents were very angry with me. But I didn't feel sorry at all at that time.

The word this in sentence (a) which is taken from text 5 in the third paragraph is demonstrative reference. It refers to the Blue Period. It is anaphoric reference since the information is got from the preceding clause. Furthermore, the word that in sentence (b) which is taken from text I is also demonstrative reference. The word that here

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⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 23

refers anaphoric to the sentence "His parents were very angry with me".

3) Comparative reference

Meanwhile the last type of reference is comparative reference. It is said so because a thing cannot just be 'like', it must be like something, whereas the something is retrievable either backward (cataphoric) or forward (anaphoric). This type of reference includes forms that express identity, general similarity, difference and particular comparison.⁵

- a. Identity, the form expressing referential identity same and selfsame are used mainly as determiners. There is no identity which indicates the comparative reference in the recount texts
- b. General similarity; the referential forms expressing general similarity such, so and likewise have different grammatical function.

Example:

Nevertheless, since then giant-o has become my good friend. It was such an unforgettable childhood.

The sentence above is taken from text 1. The word such is used referentially to mean giant-o becomes my good friend.

- c. Difference; the referential form of difference is other including its related forms (the) other and another and else. They tell the listener/reader that one speaker/writer is referring to some target item other than antecedent. There is no difference which indicates the comparative reference in the recount texts I analyzed.
- d. Particular comparison; the particular comparatives (e.g., more, less, better, worse, etc.).

Example:

⁵ Halliday and Matthiessen, *An Introduction to Functional Grammar*, (New York: Oxford University Press, 2004), p. 560.

Picasso was one of the most outstanding and important artists of the 1990's.

The sentence above is taken from text 5 paragraph 1. Here, the most referentially to mean that there is no artist more outstanding and important of the 1990's than Picasso. In other word, there is no artist that can be used to compare with Picasso in the 1990's.

b. Substitution

Substitution might be understood as the replacement of one item by another whereas the substitute item has the same function as that for which it substitutes. Substitution is a wording rather than in the meaning. There are three types of substitution; they are nominal, verbal, and clausal substitution.⁶

1) Nominal substitution

The substitution is identified by using the words 'one', 'ones' and 'same'. The substitute 'one' or 'ones' always functions as head of nominal group, and can substitute only for an item which itself head of a nominal group .There is no cohesive device, which indicates the nominal substitution types in recount texts that the writer analyzed.

2) Verbal substitution

Another type of substitution in English is verbal substitution. The verbal substitution is 'do' with the usual morphological scatter do, does, done, doing. In many ways, the verbal substitute 'do' is parallel to the nominal substitution 'one', where both, the nominal substitute 'one' and the verbal substitute 'do', are used to replace lexical 'thing' which always function as head. There is no cohesive device, which indicates the verbal substitution types in recount texts the writer analyzed.

3) Clausal substitution

The last kind of substitution is clausal substitution, in which what is presupposed is not an element within the clause but it is the entire

⁶ David Nunan, *Introducing Discourse Analysis*, (London: Penguin Group, 1993), p. 24

clause. The words functioned as substitution devices are so and not. It means that when 'so' and 'not' are used in a sentence, the meaning of the sentence automatically refers to the whole meaning of the sentence preceding or following it. There is no cohesive device, which indicates the clausal substitution types in recount texts the writer analyzed.

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.⁷

As with substitution, there are three types of ellipsis

1) Nominal ellipsis

Nominal ellipsis means ellipsis within the nominal group. Nominal ellipsis involves the omission of the head of a noun phrase, sometimes with some modifiers. Look at the example:

Example:

A Dutch tourist who drunkenly tried to pet a circus lion in its cage in southern France was nursing a wounded hand and neck on Tuesday after being scratched in return, police said.

The example above contained in text 5 paragraphs 1. There is a case of ellipsis in this sentence; the omitted item is wounded. The full form is a Dutch tourist who drunkenly tried to pet a circus lion in its cage in southern France was nursing a wounded hand and wounded neck on Tuesday after being scratched in return, police said.

2) Verbal ellipsis

The second type of ellipsis is verbal ellipsis. It means ellipsis within verbal group. In this term, the subject is always omitted from the clause. For example:

Example:

I fell from a big tree and broke my hand.

⁷ David Nunan, *op.cit.*,, p. 25-26

The example above contained in text 1. In this sentence, there is omission of the subject "I". The full form is I fell from a big tree and I broke my hand. This sentence is cohesive since there is no repetition that will make the sentence not effective.

Example:

He liked hitting and pulling my head.

Similar with the sentence above, the example is taken from text 1. In the last clause that is and pulling my head seems that it is incomplete statement. It seems as if it stands for he liked pulling my head. This sentence is cohesive since there is no repetition so the sentence is more effective.

3) Clausal ellipsis

The last kind of ellipsis is clausal ellipsis, which misses not only an element within the sentence, but it needs the whole clause to complete the sentence. See the example:

Example:

Picasso was one of the most outstanding and important artists of the 1990's.

The example above contained in text 5 paragraph 1. There is a case of ellipsis in this sentence; the omitted item is artists and Picasso was one of the most. The full form of this sentence is Picasso was one of the most outstanding artists and Picasso was one of the most important artists of the 1990's.

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.⁸

In a text, it is inevitable for us to concern with the actual sequence of sentences that build a text as a discourse. Those sentences are coming one after another together with their own meaning within the sentence itself (structural relation) or between the sentences (cohesive relation). Thus some ties to link one part with another part of the sentence are needed, and one of that tie is called conjunction. Examples of each type follow

1) Additive conjunction

The first classification is additive conjunction, which has function to relate one clause to another. Examples:

- a) Startled, I awoke to find two beautiful girls who were sitting in front of me giggling and watching me.
- b) In 1954, he met his future wife, Aniswati, at a seminar <u>and</u> in 1955 he married.
- c) 1 had spent the day there and I was very tired.

All those sentences (a), (b) and (c) above are examples of additive conjunction that function to give additional information to the sentence related, where the whole unity of clause is considered as a complex sentences. Based on the Classification of additive conjunction, and belongs to the simple form of additive conjunction and adds information to the preceding sentence.

Basically, additive conjunction has so many elements in the data but the writer only take an example above.

2) Adversative conjunction

The second type of conjunction is adversative conjunction. This type of conjunction gives contrary expectation sense, where the expectation may be derived from the context of what being said or from communication process.

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⁸ David Nunan, op. cit., p. 26-27

Example: I tried to stay awake, <u>but</u> didn't succeed.

The word but in sentence above has function as adversative conjunction. It is taken from text 3. The occurrence of it gives a contrary connection; that is the subject I has tried to stay awake, in contrary; lie or she can not do that.

Example: Mongkon's passport however identified her as a male.

The word however in sentence above also has function as adversative conjunctive device. This sentence is in text 7 paragraph 2. The word however indicates the contrary to the expectation from something that has been mentioned in the previous paragraph.

3) Causal conjunction

The third type of conjunction is causal conjunction. It is the conjunction that shows the causal relation which includes result, reason or purpose of what has been said.

Example: I had a naughty friend named Giant-O because he was fat.

The sentence above (text 1) tells that something that stated in the text previously is the result of something that stated in the text later. Here, the word -2cause is the conjunction to link cause and effect in one clause to another. The other devices that function to link causal connection are since, so, then, etc.

4) Temporal conjunction

The fourth type of conjunction is temporal conjunction which relates to sequence in time, where the one is subsequent to the other. There are some devices that used to link temporal connection between clauses. Example:

- a) Distric Judge Bala Reddy sentenced Mongkon to the jail term <u>after</u> she pleaded guilty to trafficking in 1.52 grams of cocaine and 25 tablets containing 2.5 grams ketamine.
- b) From about 1895 to 1901 he painted realistic works in a traditional style. Then he entered what was called the Blue Period.

There is a temporal sequence in the sentences above, after in the example (a) and then in the example (b).

2. 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. ⁹ the two major categories of lexical cohesion are reiteration and collocation.

a. 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.¹⁰

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.

Example:

Prostitute Mongkon Pusuwan, 37, was charged with drug trafficking last month, an offense carrying a caning punishment for <u>males</u>. The problem, according to the Straits Times, was Mongkon looked every inch like a <u>woman</u>.

The sentence above is containing lexical cohesion, which belongs to collocation. It is identified from the case of antonym. The word 'male' is the antonym of 'woman'.

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⁹ Gerot and Wignell, *op.cit.*, p. 177

¹⁰ Jack Richards, et. al., Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics, (Hong Kong: Longman Group, 1985) p. 46

b. Reiteration

Reiteration is the repetition of lexical item or the occurrence of a synonym of some kinds of the context of reference items. 11

Example:

Picasso was one of the most outstanding and important artists of the 1990's. He is best known for his paintings.

The above sentences are taken from text 5 paragraph 1. In these sentences, the reiteration case is identified from word `outstanding' which has the same meaning with the word 'best known'. It belongs to the synonym case.

¹¹ David Nunan, op.cit., p.29