

## CHAPTER II

### THE GRAMMATICAL COHESION OF RECOUNT TEXT IN ENGLISH TEXTBOOKS.

This research can be included in discourse analysis. Therefore, this chapter discussed about some things related to the title.

#### A. Discourse Analysis

Cohesion includes in discourse area because cohesion is a part of written language.

According to Jack Richard, 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 many things. First, the choice of articles, pronouns, and tenses affects the structure of discourse (address forms, cohesion). Second, the relationship between utterances in a discourse (adjacency pairs, coherence), and then the moves made by speakers to introduce a new topic, change the topic, or assert a higher role relationship to the other participants.<sup>1</sup>

Beside that, discourse deals with human feelings, ideas, attitudes, and meaning in a context of situation. In line with David Nunan's idea, discourse refers to the piece of communication in context.<sup>2</sup> It means the context in which the language is used is very important. It can influence the

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<sup>1</sup>Jack Richards, *et. al.*, *Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics*, (Hong Kong: Longman Group, 1985), p.84

<sup>2</sup>David Nunan, *Introducing Discourse Analysis*, (London: Penguin Group, 1993), p.20

interpretation of a discourse since it determines whether the discourse is a request, instruction or an exemplification. Discourse analysis also influences the interpretation of a discourse or text. So, discourse analysis can be useful in interpreting the text.

Based on the explanation above, we can conclude 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. Cohesion is one of the discourse component because it deals with the tightness of sentence in spoken and written language.

## **B. Cohesion**

### **1. Definitions of Cohesion**

The term cohesion is familiar in the study of language.

It is part of the system of a language.

Cohesion defined as the resources within language that provides continuity in a text, over and above that provided by clause structure and clause complexes. Hence, cohesive relations are non-structural relations which work to help text hang together.<sup>3</sup>

Richards stated that “cohesion is the grammatical and/or lexical relationships between the different elements of

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<sup>3</sup>Gerot Linda and Wignell Peter, *Making Sense of Functional Grammar*, (North South Wales: Gerd Stabler, 1995 ), p.170

a text. This may be the relationship between different sentences or between different parts of a sentence.”<sup>4</sup>

In order to strengthen the definitions above, Halliday and Hasan mention that cohesion refers to relations of meaning that exist in the text. Furthermore, cohesion is a semantic relation between an element in the text and some other elements that are crucial to the interpretation of it.<sup>5</sup> Halliday and Hasan (1976) state:

Cohesion occurs where the interpretation of some elements in the discourse is dependent on that of another. That one presupposes the other, in the sense that it cannot be effectively decoded except by recourse to it. When this happens a relation of cohesion is set up, and the two elements, the presupposing and the presupposed, are thereby at least potentially integrated into a text.<sup>6</sup>

From the information above, the writer concludes that the cohesiveness of a text is the text unity. It is the tightness of the text. It plays a special role to create a good and systematic text. It also has a function to make sure that sentences stick together. It occurs by two supporting elements that will be good and understandable sentences.

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<sup>4</sup>Jack Richards, et. al., *Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics*, p.45

<sup>5</sup>Halliday and Hasan, *Cohesion in English*, (London: Longman, 1976), p.4

<sup>6</sup> Halliday and Hasan, *Cohesion in English*,...,p.3

## 2. Types of Cohesion

Halliday and Hasan (1989) classify cohesion into two types. Firstly, Grammatical cohesive devices which consist of (a) Reference: pronominal, demonstrative, definite article and comparative, (b) Substitution and ellipsis: nominal, verbal and clausal, and (c) Conjunction: adversative, additive, temporal and causal. Secondly, Lexical cohesive devices which consist of repetition, and collocation.<sup>7</sup>

### a) Grammatical Cohesion

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

#### 1) Reference

Gerot and Wignell (1994) explain that “the reference refers to system that introduce and track the identity of participant through the text.”<sup>8</sup> According to Halliday and Hassan (1989) “reference is the relation between an element of the text and something else by reference to which it is interpreted in the given instance”. There are three types of reference. Each type will be explained below.<sup>9</sup>

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<sup>7</sup>Halliday and Hasan, *Cohesion in English*,... p.80-81

<sup>8</sup>Gerot Linda and Wignell Peter, *Making Sense of Functional Grammar*, p.105

<sup>9</sup>Halliday and Hasan, *Cohesion in English*,... p.40-41

- a. Personal reference is a reference by means of function in the speech situation, through the categories of person, such as I, 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.). Example: My best friend is called Jenny. **She** lives next the door to me.
- b. 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. Example: **There** are some books in the desk. Come **here** and sit down, please!
- c. Comparative reference 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. Example : It is **the same** car as the one we saw yesterday. It is **the similar** car as the one we saw yesterday.

Beside that, Halliday and Hasan (1976) classify reference into exophora and endophora. if it is endophoric, it may be anaphoric or cathaphoric.

Exophora, according to them is one, which does not name anything; it signals that reference must be made to the context of situation. Endophora is textual reference, that is, “referring to anything as identified in the surrounding text”. Endophora reference is further classified into anaphora (reference to preceding text) and cataphora (reference to following text).<sup>10</sup>

In order to strengthen the reader’s understanding related to the example of reference, the following are the examples of reference found in the newspaper:

(1) **There** were times when **I** would enter the busway lanes reserved for Transjakarta buses, (2) hoping to avoid the police. (3) The one time **I** was caught, (4) **I** bribed my way out; naughty, (5) **I** know, but a practical solution nonetheless.<sup>11</sup>

In the text above, there are two types of reference, personal reference found in the clause number 1, 3,4, and 5. It was **I**. Another types of reference is demonstrative reference in clause 1. It was **there**.

## 2) Substitution

Substitution is replacement of language element into others in a bigger composition in order to get

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<sup>10</sup> Halliday and Hasan, *Cohesion in English*,... p.33

<sup>11</sup> Endy M. Bayuni, “*Trying to Arrive in Better Shape in Jakarta*”, *Jakarta Post*, <http://thenation.newspaperdirect.com/epaper/viewer.aspx>, retrieved on 3<sup>rd</sup> January 2016

clearer difference, or to explain some certain language elements. There are three types of substitution, they are: nominal, verbal and clausal substitution.<sup>12</sup>

a. Nominal Substitution

In nominal substitution, there are three items that occur as substitutes: one, ones, and same. Example: What do you like? apple or grape? I like the last **one**.

b. 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.

c. 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.

In order to strengthen the reader’s understanding related to the example of substitution, the following are the examples of substitution found in the newspaper:

(1) “I will be there to defend my title (2) and I hope I will be able to do **so**,” (3) he said in a statement released ahead of the tournament.<sup>13</sup>

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<sup>12</sup>Halliday and Hasan, *Cohesion in English*,... p.91-92

<sup>13</sup> David Harding, “Djokovic Begins in 2016 Season in Qatar”, *Jakarta Post*, <http://thenation.newspaperdirect.com/epaper/viewer.aspx>, retrieved on 3<sup>rd</sup> January 2016.

In this text, we can find the example of clausal substitution found in clause 2. It was **so**. The word ‘so’ in the sentence above, is the substitution of defend my title.

### 3) Ellipsis

Substitution and Ellipsis are very similar to each other. But, Ellipsis is simply ‘substitution by zero’. Ellipsis is the omission of a word or a part of a sentence. It occurs when some essential structural elements are omitted from a sentence or clause and can only be recovered by referring to an element in the preceding text.<sup>14</sup> For example: Joan brought some carnations, and Catherine some sweet peas.

The structure of the second class is Subject and Complement. And it can be interpreted only as Catherine brought some sweet peas. As with substitution, there are three types of ellipsis: (1) Nominal (2) Verbal (3) Clausal.<sup>15</sup>

In order to strengthen the reader’s understanding related to the example of ellipsis, the following are the examples of ellipsis found in the newspaper:

(1) My morning routine now involves a 10-minute walk to the main road, (2) a short ride on a Metro Mini

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<sup>14</sup> David Nunan, *Introducing Discourse Analysis*, (London: Penguin Group, 1993), p.25

<sup>15</sup> Halliday and Hasan, *Cohesion in English*, p.142-143



bus, (3) a one-stop ride on the commuter train from Kebayoran to Palmerah (4) and another 10-minute walk to the office. (5) The complete journey, including the wait, takes up to 45 minutes.<sup>16</sup>

From the text above, no word ‘My morning routine’ in the second and third clauses. It shows ellipsis by omitting that word.

#### 4) Conjunction

Conjunction is rather different in nature from the other cohesive relations, from both reference, substitution, and ellipsis. Conjunctive elements are cohesive not in themselves but indirectly, by virtue of their specific meanings. The definition of cohesion is a relationship which indicates how the sentence or clause should be linked to the preceding sentence by using cohesive ties which relate a sentence, a clause or a paragraph to each other.<sup>17</sup>

There are four different types of conjunction, they are: temporality, causality, additive and adversative. The following are the examples of each types of conjunction.

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<sup>16</sup> Endy M. Bayuni, “*Trying to Arrive in Better Shape in Jakarta*”, *Jakarta Post*, <http://thenation.newspaperdirect.com/epaper/viewer.aspx>, retrieved on 3<sup>rd</sup> January 2016

<sup>17</sup> Halliday and Hasan, *Cohesion in English*,... p.226

- a. My family likes to spend holliday by visiting some places **and** they **also** like to go fishing in the sea.

The word *and* and *also* in the above sentence are conjunctions which connect the first and the second clause. Here, *and* and *also* signal the presentation of additional information. These conjunctions are additive.

- b. It was raining very hard yesterday. **However**, my classmates went to the exhibition.

- c. I am afraid i'll be home late tonight. **Nevertheless**, i won't have to go in until late tomorrow.

The relationship signalled by *however* and *nevertheless* are adversative because the information in the second sentence of each text moderates or qualifies the information in the first.

- d. Chinese tea is becoming increasingly popular in restaurants, and even in coffe shop. This is **because** there is belief that tea has several health-giving properties.

In this type of conjunction, the relationship is one of cause and consequences. Here, the word *because* signals the clausal and effect relation. The first sentence shows the effect and the second is as the clause. This conjunction called as causality.

e. I went over to my friend's house and I said 'we'll go for a walk'. And we went far away and I said I don't know our way home. **And then** we kept on walking and we were very hungry. **After that**, we saw a village and we want to talk to them and we said 'we're hungry'. **Then**, they gave us some food and we thanked them and we went walking off. And then we stopped and sat down. **And then** we saw a giant and I screamed 'coooee'.

Temporal relationship exist when the events in a text are related in terms of the timing of their occurrence. Here the temporal conjunction *and then, then, and after that*.

In order to strengthen the reader's understanding related to the example of conjunction, the following are the examples of conjunction found in the newspaper:

(1) The reason why most Indonesians are slow (2) when they walk the streets of New York or London is (3) **because** it's a force of habit. (4) Jakarta's heat **and** humidity are simply not suitable for a rapid pace, (5) unless you want to end up like me — sweaty and stinky.<sup>18</sup>

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<sup>18</sup> Endy M. Bayuni, Jakarta Post, <http://thenation.newspaperdirect.com/epaper/viewer.aspx>, retrieved on 3<sup>rd</sup> January 2016

In this text, we can find the example of conjunction in clause 3 and 4. It was **and** and **because**. Here, the word 'because' signals the clausal and effect relation. The clause shows in clause 1 and the effect shows in clause 3. We called it as causality conjunction.

Another one is additive conjunction. It was **and**. The word 'and' signal the presentation of additional information.

#### b) Lexical Cohesion

Lexical cohesive devices refer to the role played by the selection of vocabulary in organizing relation within a text. It does not deal with grammatical and semantic connection but with the connection based on the words used. It occurs when two words in a text are semantically related in some way; they are related in terms of their meaning.<sup>19</sup> There are two major categories of lexical cohesion are reiteration and collocation.

##### 1. Reiteration

This is the repetition of a lexical item, or the occurrence of a synonym of some kind. For example : word 'famous' which has the same meaning with the word 'well known'. Example: Cristiano Ronaldo is **famous** artist in Spain. He is **well known** for his reputation in playing football.

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<sup>19</sup>David Nunan, *Introducing Discourse Analysis*,... p.28

## 2. 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>20</sup> For example: the word ‘male’ is the antonym of ‘woman’. ‘Love’ is the antonym of ‘hate’, ‘girl’ is the antonym of ‘boy’. Example: I **love** cat because it is very cute. But, my mom **hate** it.

### C. Recount Text

There are many kinds of text such as procedure, narrative, descriptive, report, recount, and etc. In this study, the writer focused on recount text. Recount text is a text that retells past events. The purpose of a recount is to give the audience a description of what occurred and when it occurred. Orientation, events, and re-orientation is generic structure of recount text.

Recount text divided into five types: (1) Personal Recount. This usually retells an event that the writer was personally involved in. (2) Biography Recount. This usually retells accounts of a person’s life. (3) Factual Recount. This usually retells an incident, for example: a science experiment, police report. (4) Imaginative

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<sup>20</sup>Gerot Linda and Wignell Peter, *Making Sense of Functional Grammar*, p.177

Recount. The writer writes an imaginary role and giving details of events in the recounts, for example: a day in the life of a pirate; a story of a mango tree. (5) Historical Recount. This retells historical events in the past.<sup>21</sup>

#### **D. English Textbook**

One of the most important media used by teacher to conduct teaching and learning process is textbook. It is used as a guidance in running the class. From the definition, textbook is a book that teaches a particular subject, used in school.<sup>22</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>23</sup> It means, English textbook is standard book in the subject of English that is studied in school.

A textbook has many functions for teachers in order to run the teaching learning process well, or it has an important role in teaching learning process. According to Jack C. Richard, the functions of textbook are as follows.<sup>24</sup>

- a. They provide structure and syllabus for a program. Without textbooks a program may have no central core learners may not

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<sup>21</sup>Th. M. Sudarwati and Eudia Grace, *Pathway to English*, (Jakarta: PT Gelora Aksara Pratama,2013), p.197

<sup>22</sup>Victoria Bull.ed, *Oxford Learner's Pocket Dictionary*,...p.459

<sup>23</sup>Wikipedia, "Textbook" <http://www.wikipedia.org/wiki/textbook>, retrieved on 23<sup>th</sup> October 2015.

<sup>24</sup>Jack C Richards, *Curriculum Development in Language Teaching*, (Cambridge : Cambridge University Press, 2002 ), p.254-255

receive a syllabus that has been systematically planned and developed.

- b. 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.
- c. 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.
- d. 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.
- e. They are efficient. They save teachers' time, enabling teachers to devote time to teach rather than materials production.
- f. 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.
- g. They can train teachers. If teachers have limited teaching experience, a textbook together with the teacher's manual can serve as a medium of initial teacher training.

Beside the functions, textbook also has multiple roles in English learning teaching and converses as follows.<sup>25</sup>

- a) A resource for presentation materials (spoken and written).
- b) A source of activities for learner's practice and communicative interactions.
- c) A references for the learners on grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, and etc.
- d) A source of stimulations and ideas for classroom language activities.
- e) A syllabus (where they reflect learning objectives that have already been determined).
- f) A support for less experienced teachers who have yet to gain confidence.

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<sup>25</sup> Jack C Richards, *Curriculum Development in Language Teaching*,...p.251