

**AN ANALYSIS OF THE COHESIVE DEVICES ON  
SELECTED DESCRIPTIVE TEXTS**



**A Thesis**

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ANALYSIS OF THE COHESIVE DEVICES ON SELECTED DESCRIPTIVE  
TEXTS

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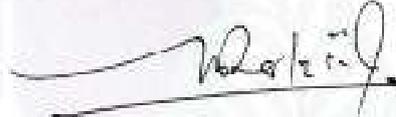
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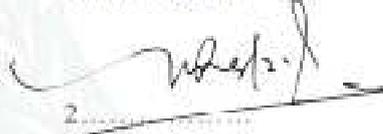
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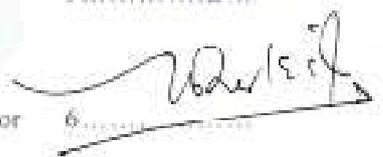

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Makassar, 8 November 2018

Nur janna



## ABSTRAK

**NUR JANNA.** *An Analysis of Cohesive Devices on Selected Descriptive texts*  
(dibimbing oleh **Ria Rosdiana Jubhari** dan **Marleiny Radjuni**)

Penelitian ini bertujuan untuk memperlihatkan tipe piranti kohesif yang ditemukan dalam text deskripsi, mengetahui bagaimana penggunaan piranti kohesif yang ditemukan dalam text deskripsi dan menemukan tipe gramatikal dan leksikal kohesi yang paling dominan digunakan disetiap bagian pembukaan, isi dan penutup dari text deskripsi pada majalah Colours Garuda.

Penulis menganalisis data menggunakan metode deskriptif kualitatif. Data tersebut dianalisis berdasarkan teori Halliday and Hasan. Sampel dari penelitian ini adalah seluruh alat piranti dalam 3 text deskripsi yaitu *Pekanbaru*, *Bengkulu*, and *Muna Island* pada majalah Colours Garuda edisi April, Mei dan September 2017. Teknik pengumpulan sampel yang digunakan oleh penulis adalah sampling purposive.

Hasil dari penelitian ini menunjukkan bahwa terdapat lima jenis piranti kohesif yang digunakan dalam text deskripsi seperti reference, ellipsis, konjungsi, reiterasi dan kolokasi. Pertama adalah penggunaan reference seperti demonstratif yang digunakan dalam teks 1, 2 & 3 dan lebih mengacu pada lokasi, personal yang digunakan dalam teks 1, 2 & 3 dan mengacu pada orang-orang yang terlibat dalam kejadian dan komparatif yang digunakan untuk membandingkan dua hal dan hanya muncul dalam teks 1. Kedua adalah elipsis yang terdiri dari nominal yang digunakan untuk menghilangkan kata nominal, verbal dan klausa dan muncul dalam teks 1, 2 & 3. Ketiga adalah konjungsi terdiri dari aditif yang digunakan untuk menghubungkan kata, klausa, frasa dan kalimat dan muncul dalam teks 1, 2 & 3, adversatif digunakan untuk menghubungkan dua klausa yang berlawanan dan hanya muncul dalam teks 1, kausal untuk menghubungkan dua klausa yang digunakan sebagai sebab dan akibat dan muncul dalam teks 2 & 3 dan temporal yang digunakan untuk menunjukkan hubungan waktu antara kalimat dan hanya muncul dalam teks 2. Keempat adalah reiterasi yang terdiri dari repetisi yang digunakan untuk mengulangi kata benda, kata sifat dan kata kerja dan muncul dalam teks 1, 2 & 3, sinonim digunakan untuk menunjukkan dua kata-kata yang memiliki makna sama dan hanya muncul dalam teks 1, superordinate yang digunakan untuk menghubungkan kata umum dan spesifik dan hanya muncul dalam teks 1 dan general word yang digunakan untuk menghubungkan kata paling umum dan kata spesifik dan muncul dalam teks 2 & 3. Kelima adalah kolokasi digunakan untuk mengasosiasikan kata yang memiliki korelasi dalam bidang na dan muncul dalam teks 1, 2 & 3. Penelitian ini juga menunjukkan kohesi gramatikal yang dominan disetiap bagian pembuka, isi and penutup



pada teks deskripsi adalah demonstratif dan kohesi leksikal yang dominan disetiap bagian text tersebut adalah repetisi.



## ABSTRACT

**NUR JANNA.** *An Analysis of Cohesive Devices on Selected Descriptive texts* (Supervised by **Ria Rosdiana Jubhari** and **Marleiny Radjuni**)

The objectives of this study were to disclose the types of cohesive devices found in the selected descriptive texts, to know how the types of cohesive devices used in the selected descriptive texts and to find out the dominant cohesive devices which contain in the opening, content and closing of selected descriptive texts of Colour Garuda magazine.

The writer used qualitative descriptive method. The data were analyzed based on Halliday and Hasan (1976). The samples of this research were whole cohesive devices that exist in 3 texts namely *Pekanbaru*, *Bengkulu* and *Muna Island* on April, May, and September edition 2017 of Colour Garuda magazine. The technique of sampling that used by writer was purposive sampling

The result of this study showed that there are five types of cohesive devices used in selected descriptive texts i.e. reference, ellipsis, conjunction, reiteration and collocation. The first is the use of reference which includes of demonstrative that is used in text 1, 2 & 3 and more refers to locations, personal that is used in text 1, 2 & 3 and refers to people which include in the event and comparative that is used to compare two things and only appears in text 1. The second is ellipsis which only consists of nominal that is used to omit nominal, verbal and clausal and appear in text 1, 2 & 3. The third is conjunction which consists of additive that is used to link word, clause, phrase and sentence and appears in text 1, 2 & 3, adversative that is used to relate two clauses which are contras and only appears in text 1, causal that is used to relate two clause which are as cause and result and appears in text 2 & 3 and temporal that is used to show time link between sentences and only appears in text 2. The fourth is reiteration which consists of repetition that is used to repeat noun, adjective and verbal word and phrase and appears in text 1, 2 & 3, synonym that is used to show two words that have same in meaning and only appears in text 1, superordinate that is used to relate the general and specific word and only appears in text 1 and general word that is used to relate common general word and specific word and appears in text 2 & 3. The fifth is collocation that is used to associate the words which have correlation in same field and appears in text 1, 2 & 3. This study also showed that the dominant of grammatical cohesion in opening, content and closing parts of the descriptive

demonstrative reference and the dominant of lexical cohesion in these is repetition.



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# CHAPTER I

## INTRODUCTION

This chapter describes background of the study, identification of the problem, scope of the research, research questions, objective of the research and significance of the research.

### 1.1 Background of the study

As human beings, people need a language for communication with others. Hence, language is defined as “a signaling system which operates with symbols of vocal sound, and which is used by a group of people for the purpose of communication” as Susanto (2007:2) said in Puspitosari (2011:1). This indicates that there are many ways of communication that can be used by people. Reading is one of interactive ways that used by writers and readers through the text. In which, writers do more communication to share ideas to the readers. When reading the text, the readers must be able to understand what the writers mean and need to catch the messages in the text. Sometimes it is hard to understand the correlation between parts of the text. Hence, the readers have to improve their knowledge to avoid misunderstanding with the text.

To avoid reader’s misunderstanding of the content of text, cohesion is needed to comprehend the text. Cohesion refers to the meaning in the text, and

defined as a text (Halliday and Hasan, 1976:4). The cohesion consists of grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion. The writers use grammatical



devices to create connection of elements in text and lexical cohesion as the way vocabulary links to the parts of the text.

Cohesion is one part of the rule that can make the discourse meaningful and united (Halliday and Hasan, 1976:4). Clauses and sentences as part of a discussion are linked using cohesive devices to unite them and create meaning. Cohesion constructs the text elements that are related to each other. This relationship implies continuity between parts of the text with others parts. To easily interpret the text, this continuity or unity is needed that achieved by the existence of the cohesion in the text.

One type of discourse is written text. It can be found in the magazine which commonly contains many articles that can be in form of various text types including descriptive text. One of the magazines that contain descriptive text is Colours Garuda Indonesia magazine whose purpose to describe about various places in Indonesia and around the world. The writer considers several aspects in choosing the descriptive text in Colours Garuda magazine. These texts are important to be analyzed because they contain much information about many places in Indonesia and abroad that are needed by people to guide them in choosing the place to travel. Through the texts, people will know explanation and description about tourism destination. If they understand well about the text, it can be as effective information. As a result, they can choose

right place that they want to visit.



This study, the writer analyzes cohesive devices on descriptive texts of Colours Garuda magazine because the text will only be effective if the message in the text can be interpreted well by the readers. Furthermore, it also important to find out what kinds of cohesive devices in opening, content and closing part of the text to know the features of cohesive devices in those parts. For these reasons, the readers have to pay attention to the rules of understanding it. Therefore, it is really important to see how the elements in the text can link together to create particular meaning in text and to know what kind of the features of cohesive devices in each parts of the text.

## 1.2 Identification of the Problem

Based on the background above, the problems of this study can be formulated as follows:

1. Readers may misunderstand in interpreting a text due to their difficulty to overview the connection of word, phrase, clause, sentence and paragraph. This lack of knowledge includes the types and functions of word that are used as link and ties the text that called as cohesive devices.
2. There is possibly a misunderstanding of the reader in determining the feature of cohesive devices in those parts of descriptive text; opening, content and closing. This is potentially because the dominant of occurrence of cohesive devices in opening, content and closing of the descriptive text is not clear.



### 1.3 Scope of the Problems

In this research, the writer is interested in the use of cohesive devices in selected Descriptive text of Colours Garuda. In analyzing the cohesive devices, the research applies Halliday and Hasan (1976) in *Cohesion in English* which includes the grammatical cohesion consisting of reference, substitution, ellipsis and conjunction and lexical cohesion consisting of reiteration and collocation.

### 1.4 Research Questions

Based on previous explanation, the writer formulates this following problems formulation:

1. What the types of cohesive devices are used in the selected descriptive texts?
2. How the cohesive devices are used in the selected descriptive texts?
3. What are the types of cohesive devices that dominantly occur in opening, content and closing of the selected descriptive texts?

### 1.5 Objective of the Research

The objectives of this study are:

1. To disclose the types of cohesive devices used in the selected descriptive texts.
2. To analyze how cohesive devices used in the selected descriptive texts.
3. To find out the types of cohesive devices dominantly used in opening, content and closing of the selected descriptive texts.



## 1.6 Significance of the Research

### 1. Theoretical Implications

The findings of this study are expected to contribute to the field of discourse analysis in the part of cohesive devices especially in grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion. It is also expected to enrich understanding and knowledge, particularly on Halliday and Hasan as a theory of cohesive devices as the way in building the cohesion in both spoken and written.

### 2. Practical Implications

The results of this study are expected to contribute to writer's knowledge in understanding and using cohesive devices in descriptive text. Furthermore, it is expected the readers of Colours Garuda magazine probably can take advantages of this finding. Also, it can help next researchers when they analyse text using cohesive devices theory, especially for the students of the English Department Hasanuddin University.



## BAB II

### THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This section deals with previous studies conducted on the analysis of cohesive devices, various definitions of discourse, discourse analysis, the concept of cohesive, cohesion and its types and definition about descriptive text.

#### A. Previous Studies

There have been numerous studies on Cohesive Devices. These studies are very helpful in establishing the thesis of the current study, which is the theory of Cohesive Devices.

In the previous studies, the writer found three theses in the same field that used Halliday and Hasan theory. This thesis analyzed grammatical and lexical devices. Yurni, (2012) limited her study into referring, substitution, conjunction and lexical cohesion. She explained the function of each types such as reference which function as connecting the meaning of the word, conjunction as explicit relationship between sentence or clause, substitution as relation between linguistic item, and lexical cohesion as the word associated with other. The percentage of cohesive used is reference (25%), conjunction (25.78%), substitution (2.34%), repetition (34.37%), general words (0.78%), super ordinate (1.56%), and collocation (4.68%). The dominant cohesive used in the article is repetition. Nusu, (2013) also analyzed grammatical and Lexical Cohesions in differenet object; Second Inaugural



speech of Barack Obama. He limited the research into Grammatical (reference, conjunction) and Lexical cohesion (reiteration, collocation). He found some cohesive devices consist of reference 56.9%, conjunction 24.6% , reiteration 18.5% and collocation 0.0%. The most dominant dominant of cohesive devices is reference.

Bachtiar (2014) analyzed Cohesive Device in Students' Thesis Proposal that just analyzed the use of grammatical cohesion. He analyzed the use of cohesive devices in the thesis Proposal that focused on the use of grammatical cohesion. She found some kinds of cohesive device used in her research are reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction. There are 1,512 cohesive devices which consist of 1,166 items of reference, 7 item of ellipsis, 331 item of conjunction and 9 item of substitution.

Another thesis used different theory; it is Formal Links (Cohesive Devices) of the article of Korea English magazine "Korea's stance in the face of global warming" (Norpl.K, 2009). This thesis combined the theory by Halliday and Hasan with theory by Guy Cook. He found parallelism, reference, substitution, conjunction, and lexical cohesion. The article has semantic relation meaning and semantic parallelism.

Not only in theses, there are also several researches about cohesive devices in article journals. Most of the journals used Halliday and Hasan

y. These are that analyzed both the grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion. For instance, Bahazig (2016) analyzed cohesive devices in student's



essay writing. The dominant cohesive used are reference and conjunction. Although the essay is cohesive but some area still need improvement. Agustina (2015) analyzed the cohesion devices in relation to the quality of engineering students' genre-based writings. She found that there is no significant relationship between the number of cohesive devices used and student writing quality. Iqra, Asad, and Mudassar (2013) used another object; it is a short story by Anton Chekhov. They limited their study into ellipsis, reference and substitution. In using the cohesive devices, the writer created humor in her short story. Gbenga and Emanuel (2012) did the comparative of the use of cohesive devices between professional and popularized legal texts. The cohesive structures of the professional text and the popular texts are almost same. The referring devices are predominantly used in both categories

Then, the following researchers only analyzed the grammatical cohesion. Feliks (2017) analyzed coherence and cohesion in an EFL graduate essay and found that the essay is cohesive as some references, ellipsis, substitutions and conjunctions are well-used. Sharif (2015) analyzed the cohesive devices in psychology research papers. He found that the researchers used different types of cohesive devices to perform different actions like to show contrast, to explain, to connect two sentence, etc.

Some other studies on cohesive devices only focused on lexical devices. Qudah (2016) analyzed the use of lexical devices in political discourse. He found that Barack Obama employed lexical reiteration with all components namely partial and total repetition, synonymy, super ordinate,



general word and the various shades oppositeness in language use. He was also very much selling himself and the agenda of his regime in his speech. Malah (2015) analyzed the lexical cohesion in research articles abstracts. The lexical ties in the abstracts such as repetition (54%) was the most dominant used, collocation (14%), and hyponymy (11%). The lexical cohesion contributes in the proporsional development of the research article abstract.

Others article journals used some theories that different from the previous ones. For instance, Feliks (2017) besides analyzed the cohesive device in EFL essay of a graduate student, he also analyzed coherence that used Thylor's theory. He found that there are some problems related to his word choice and sentence structure. Bonala and Swamy (2016) used Swan's classification of connectives (2002) analyzed the discourse connectives in descriptive paragraph of professional students. He only analyzed conjunction and found that the students used various types of conjunction to express different relationship between sentences to sentence. Cahyani (2010) analyzed formal links approach to grammar and lexicon used in Barack Obama speech "Pulang kampung nih" using Cook's theory namely verb form, reference, and conjunction. The verb forms dominantly used are simple present, simple past and simple future. The conjunction *and* also dominant used in most paragraphs.



The previous writers focused their research in the thesis proposal, h, newspaper, resolution, explanatory writing, research paper, short journal article, legal text and magazine. Although one of the previous

studies choose a magazine which is Korea English magazine, he did not take specific text. He just determined one article about global warming. It is different with the writer that takes different magazine which is Colours Garuda magazine (flight magazine) and chooses specific text type that is descriptive text about many places which is important to analyze because it is a source of information for those who want to know the information about vocational places. Also, it consists of many sentences that contain cohesive devices.

## **B. Definition of Discourse and Discourse Analysis**

Cook (1989:6) stated that “discourse is later kinds of language used for communication that perceived to be meaningful, unified, and purposive.” This similar with Crystal (1991:106) in his dictionary of linguistic and phonetics explained that “a discourse is a behavioral unit which has re-theoretical status in linguistic, it is a set of utterances which constitute any recognizable speech event.” A good discourse concerns sentences which that are created structurally and comprehensively. A type of discourse is also depicted as a category of either written or spoken text. Chaer (2007: 267) also defined discourse as a complete unit of language consisting of concepts and ideas that can be able understood by the reader (in written discourse) and hearers (in spoken discourse) without any doubt. As he says:



“...wacana adalah satuan bahasa yang lengkap, sehingga dalam hierarki grammatikal merupa kan satuan grammatical tertinggi atau terbesar. Sebagai satuan bahasa yang lengkap, maka dalam wacana itu berarti terdapat konsep, gagasan, pikiran atau ide yang utuh, yang bisa

dipahami oleh pembaca (dalam wacana tulis) atau pendengar (dalam wacana lisan), tanpa keraguan apapun.”

This definition shows that discourse is what we use for communicating with others, either in written or spoken interaction.

Then, Mc. Charty (1991:5) defined that “discourse analysis is concerned with the study of relationship between language and context in which is used.” Discourse analysis studies language in use: written text of all kinds, and spoken data, from conversation to highly institutionalize form of talk.

### C. The Concept of Cohesion

Before going to understand about the definition of cohesion, we should know firstly some concepts related to the cohesion. Those mentioned concepts are; text, texture, ties and cohesion.

#### 1. Text

Halliday and Hasan (1996:2) mentioned in their book ‘Cohesion in English’:

*A text is a unit of language in use. It is not grammatical unit, like a clause or sentence; and it is not defined by its size... A text is best regarded as a semantic unit: a unit not of form but of meaning. Thus it is related to a clause or sentence not by size but by realization, the coding of one symbolic system in another. A text does not consist of a sentence; it is realized by, or encoded in sentences.*

The upshot of the argument is that a text does not have grammatical structure (like sentences and smaller units) and sentence cannot be assessed



with regard to grammaticality. Instead, text is regarded as a unit of meaning based on the context.

Furthermore, Halliday and Hasan (1976:1) said that ‘a text may be spoken or written, prose or verse, dialogue or monologue’. Written text is different from spoken interaction. When a writer arranges written text, she/he should compose a well-formed text so that his or her readers understand it easily. It can be considered to be well-formed if the clauses and sentences within text link one to another.

## 2. Texture

Halliday and Hasan (1976:2) defined that “the concept of texture is entirely appropriate to express the property of ‘being text’”. “A text has a texture and this is what distinguishes it from something that is not a text. It derives this texture from the fact that it functions as unity with respect to its environment. Further, Halliday and Hasan (1976:2) gave an example as follows:

A. *Wash and core six cooking apples.*

B. *Put **them** in a fireproof dish.*

It is clear that *them* in the second sentence refers back to the six cooking apples in the first sentence. This anaphoric function of them gives cohesion to the two sentences, so that we interpret them as a whole; the two sentences

may or may not constitute a text. They form part of the same text; there may be more sentences to follow.



Halliday and Hasan (1976: 2) stated that the texture is provided by the cohesive relation that exists between *them* and *six cooking apples*. It is important to make this point. Because we shall be constantly focusing attention on the items, such as *them*, which typically refer back to something that has gone before; but *them* is effectively not by the presence of the referring item alone but by the presence of both the referring item and the item that it refers to.

### 3. Ties

Halliday and Hasan (1976: 3-4) needed a term to refer to a single instance of cohesion, a term of one occurrence of a pair of cohesively related items. This shall be called as a tie which can be seen in the following example (Halliday and Hasan (1976:2):

A. *Wash and core six cooking apples.*

B. *Put **them** in a fireproof dish.*

The relation between *them* and *six cooking apples* in the examples given constitutes a tie. It can be characterized that any segment of a text in terms of the number and kinds of ties which is displayed. In the example given there is just one tie, of the particular kind which it shall be called a reference.

### 4. Cohesion

Halliday and Hassan (1976:4) stated that “the concept of cohesion is a semantic one; it refers to relation of meaning that exist within the text, and we shall define it as a text. Cohesion occurs where the interpretation of some



element in the discourse is dependent on that of another”. One presupposes another, which means that it cannot be effectively translated except by refer 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. It means that the relation of meaning grammatically or lexically should be formed in unity that forms a text.

#### **D. Kinds of Cohesion**

Halliday and Hasan (1976:303) divided cohesion into two types which are grammatical and lexical cohesion.

##### **1. Grammatical Cohesion**

Grammatical cohesion is the way that grammatical features are attached together across sentences boundaries (Halliday and Hasan,1976:5). It can be classified into four types, such as: Reference (exophora and endhopora), Substitution (nominal, verbal and clausal), Ellipsis (nominal, verbal and clausal), and Conjunction (additive, adversative and temporal).

###### **a. Referring Expression**

Reference is the use of words which do not have meaning of their own such as pronoun and article. To infer their meaning, the reader has to refer them to something else that appears in the text. Halliday and Hasan (1976:31) defined that:

“reference is the specific nature of the information that is signaled for retrieval. In the case of reference the information to be retrieved is the referential meaning, the identity of the particular thing or class of things that is being referred to,”



This shows that reference is the relationship between an element of the text and some else by reference to which it is interpreted in the given instance.

Reference usually divided into two items: Endhophoric and Exophoric Reference.

#### 1) Endhophoric Reference

Endophoric reference consists of two types: anaphoric and cataphoric reference.

##### (1) Anaphoric reference

Anaphoric refers to any reference that point backward to information previously mentioned in text. For the clear explanation about anaphoric reference, the example that taken from Halliday and Hasan (1976: 55) is presented below:

A. **John** has moved to a new house.

B. **He** had it built last year.

Here the word *he* presupposes *John* in the preceding sentence. It is called anaphoric reference.

##### (2) Cataphoric Reference

Cataphoric refers to any reference that point forward to information that will be presented later in text. The following is the example that mentioned in Halliay and Hasan (1976:56).

A. **She** got sick since yesterday.

B. **Cindy** goes to the doctor.



Here, the word *she* presupposes *Cindy* in the following sentence. It is called cataphoric reference.

## 2) Exophoric Reference

Exophoric is not simply a synonym for referential meaning. An exophoric item is one which does not name anything, since it signals that reference be made to the context of situation.

### 1) Types of Reference

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976:31), reference is classified into three kinds. Those are personal, demonstrative, and comparative.

#### a) Personal Reference

Personal reference defined as reference by means of function in the speech situation through the category of person. More description about personal reference is shown in the table below:

**Table 2.1  
Personal Reference (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 38)**

|  |                |            |          |
|--|----------------|------------|----------|
| Semantic category                              | Existential    | Possessive |          |
| Grammatical function                           | Head           |            | Modifier |
| Class  | Noun (pronoun) | Determiner |          |
| Person: Speaker (only)                         | I, Me          | Mine       | My       |
| Addressee (s), with / without other person (s) | You            | Yours      | Your     |
| Speaker and other person (s)                   | We, Us         | Ours       | Our      |
| Other person; male                             | He, Him        | His        | His      |
| Other person; female                           | She, Her       | Hers       | Her      |
| Other person; objects                          | They, them     | Theirs     | Their    |
| Other person; passage of text                  | It             | [its]      | Its      |
| Other person; realized person                  | One            |            | One's    |



These items are all reference items; they allude to something by determining its function or role in the speech situation. This framework about reference will be known as person, where ‘person’ is used in the special sense of ‘role’; the traditionally recognized categories are first person, second person, and third person, interesting with the number categories of singular and plural (Halliday & Hasan 1976:43).

b) Demonstrative reference

Demonstrative reference is identification of the distance as the scale of where the referred item located. The following table elaborates the demonstrative reference:

**Table 2.2**  
**Demonstrative Reference (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 38)**

|                      |                |         |               |
|----------------------|----------------|---------|---------------|
| Semantic category    | Selective      |         | Non-selective |
| Grammatical function | Modifier/ Head | Adjunct | Modifier      |
| Class                | Determiner     | Adverb  | Determiner    |
| Proximity:           |                |         |               |
| Near                 | This These     | Here    |               |
| Far                  | That Those     | There   |               |
| Neutral              |                |         | The           |

The circumstance (adverbial) demonstratives *here, there, now* and *then* refer to the location of a process in space or time. They typically function as an adjunct in the clause, not as elements within the nominal group. They have secondary function as qualifier. The remaining (nominal) demonstratives *this, that, those,* and *the* refer to the location of something, typically some



entity, person or object, that is participating in the process; they therefore occurs as elements within the nominal group (Halliday & Hasan 1976:57).

c) Comparative reference

Comparative reference is cohesion in the form of reference that shows comparison between one thing and another. The table of comparative reference is as follow;

**Table 2.3  
Comparative Reference (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 38)**

|  |  |   |
|--|--|---|
| Grammatical function   | Modifier:<br>Deictic/Epithet   | Submodifier/ Adjunct  |
| Class  | Adjective  | Adverb  |
| General comparison:<br>Identity<br>General similarity<br>Difference<br>(Non-identity or<br>similarity) | Same identical equal<br>Similar additional<br><br>Other different else | Identically<br>Similarly Likewise<br>So such<br>Differently otherwise |
| Particular comparison:   | Better, more etc<br>[comparative adjective<br>and qualifiers]          | So more less equally  |

General comparison as stated in table 2.3 is meant comparison between two things may be the same, similar or different while particular comparison means comparison that is in regard to quantity or quality. It is also expresses by means of adjectives or adverbs, not of a special class, but ordinary adjectives and adverbs in some comparative form (Halliday & Hasan 1976:77).



## b. Substitution

Substitution is the replacement of one item by another. Halliday and Hasan (1976:89) explained that substitution holds a text together through preventing repetition and creating cohesive grammatical cohesion, not in the meaning, but in the wording, between words, clauses, and phrases. In addition, substitution is a relation on the lexico grammatical level, the level of grammar and vocabulary or linguistics form. A substitute is a sort of counter which is used in the place of repetition of particular item. The following examples are taken from Halliday and Hasan (1976: 83):

*A. My axe is too blunt. I must get the sharper **one**.*

*B. You think Joan already knows? – I think everybody **does**.*

*one* and *does* are substitutes; *one* substitute for *axe* and *does* substitute for *knows*, and it would be entirely possible to replace *one* by *axe* and *does* by *knows*. Since substitution is a grammatical relation, a relation in the wording rather than in the meaning, the different types of substitution are defined grammatically rather than semantically. In English, substitute has function as a noun, as a verb, as a clause. There are three types of substitution; Nominal, Verbal, and Clausal.

### a) Nominal Substitution

Halliday and Hasan (1976:91) said that nominal substitution is the substitution with an item that appropriate with the nominal group. It is only expressed with the substitute *one/ones* (singular and plural) and The substitute *one/ones* always function as Head of nominal group and



only for substitute an item which is Head of nominal group. *One* is not only as substitution, but also as the personal person and cardinal number. The item *same* occurs as cohesive element of the comparative types. In such instance, *same* is reference, not substitute. However, there is another use of *same*. Unlike *one*, which is presupposed only the noun Head, *the same* presuppose an entire nominal group including any modifying elements, such as explicitly repudiated. The following is the example taken from Halliday and Hasan (1976: 105);

A. *I'll have two poached eggs on toast, please.*

B. *I'll have **the same***

*the same* is reference, not substitute, modifying element may occur with the same; but possible to add reservation, and this takes the form of Qualifier, which is normally introduced by *but* or *with*.

#### b) Verbal Substitution

In English, the verbal substitute is *do*. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976: 112), *do* operates as a Head of a verbal group. That is occupied by lexical verb; and its position is always final in the group. The following example mentioned in Halliday and Hasan (1976: 112);

A. .... *the words did not come the same as they used to **do**.*

B. *I don't know the meaning of half those long words, and, what's more, I don't believe you **do** either!*



The first *do* in sentence A is substitutes for *come* and the second *do* in sentence B is substitutes for *know the meaning of half those long words*.

c) Clausal Substitution

Halliday and Hasan (1976: 130) stated that there is one further type of substitution in which is not presupposed by an element within the clauses but an entire clause. The word used as the substitutes are *so* and *not*. The following example is mentioned in Halliday and Hasan (1976:130);

*A. Is there going to be an earthquake? – It says so.*

*so* presupposed the whole of the clause there going to be an earthquake and the contrastive environment is the provided by the *says* which is outside it. The example below is taken from Halliday and Hasan (1976:134);

*A. We should recognize the place when we come to it.-*

*B. Yes, supposing not; then what do we do.*

*not* substitutes for *we do not recognize the place when we come to it*. There are three environments in which clausal substitution takes place; report, condition, and modality. In each of these environments, it may take either of two form, positive or negative, the positive is expressed by *so*, the negative is expressed by *not*.

c. Ellipsis

According to Renkema (1993:38) "ellipsis is the omission of word or part of sentence". It is exactly same as presupposition by substitution, except in substitution an explicit 'counter' is used, eg: *one* or *do* as a place- holder for what is presupposed, whereas ellipsis is nothing inserted into the



slot. That is why Halliday and Hasan (1976:143) said that ellipsis can be regarded as substitution by zero.

There are three types of ellipsis; Nominal ellipsis, Verbal ellipsis, and Clausal ellipsis.

a) Nominal Ellipsis

Nominal ellipsis means the omission of the nominal group or ellipsis within the nominal group. The following is the example of nominal ellipsis;

A. My **kids** play an awful lot of sport.

B. Both **↓** are incredibly energetic.

(ellipsis)

If the elliptical group is filling out, the sentence is should be;

A. Both those **kids** are incredibly energetic.

b) Verbal Ellipsis

Verbal ellipsis means verbal ellipsis within the verbal group. For example;

A. Have you **been** swimming? –Yes, I have.

The verbal group in the answer have (yes I have) instances of verbal ellipsis. It can be said that *Yes I have been swimming*. And there is no possibility of feeling out with any others items.

c) Clausal Ellipsis

Clausal ellipsis means ellipsis within the clause. Clause in English expressed by various speech functions, such as statement, question,



response, who has two part of structure, consists of Modal Element and Proportional Element. For example;

A. *The Duke was ----- going to plant a row of poplars in the park*  
(modal element) (proportional element)

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

In the answer, the modal element is omitted; the subject and verbal group, the finite operator was. Therefore, there is operator ellipsis in the verbal group. If the clause is not omitted, it should be;

A. *What was the Duke going to do?*

B. *The Duke was going to plant a row of poplars in the park.*

#### d. Conjunction

Halliday and Hasan (1976:226) stated that “conjunction is rather different in nature from the other cohesive relation, from both reference, on the one hand, and substitutions and ellipsis in the other.”The characteristic is related to the usage of the connector.

Further, Halliday and Hasan (1976:227) defined that;

Hence, in describing conjunction as a cohesive devise, we are focusing attention not on the semantic relations as such, as realized throughout the grammar of the language, but on one particular aspect of them, namely the function they have of relating to each other linguistic elements that occur in succession but are not related by other, structural means.

This can be elaborated that basically conjunction serves to connect the word by word, phrase by phrase, clause by clause, or sentence by sentence.

Conjunctions are words that are used to connect the elements of syntactic (word, phrase, clause, sentences) in a larger unit. Based on Halliday and Hasan (1976:238-251), there are four types of conjunction those are additive



conjunction, adversative conjunction, causal conjunction, and temporal conjunction.

### 1) Additive Conjunction

Additive conjunction shows cohesion of two independent elements the second of which happens to be tied on to the first. The following example is taken from (Halliday and Hasan 1976:24):

*A. To be able to see no body!*

*B. And at the distance too!*

The word the *and* is used to make an additive conjunction between the first sentence and the next sentence.

Here is the summary of the conjunctive relation of additive type with each example that taken from (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 249-250):

- a) Simple additive relation (external and internal)*  
*Additive : and, and also*  
*Negative : nor, and ... not*  
*Alternative: or, or else*
- b) Complex additive relative (internal) : emphatic*  
*Additive : furthermore, in addition, besides*  
*Alternative: alternatively*
- c) Complex additive relation (internal) : de-emphatic*  
*Afterthought : incidentally, by the way*
- d) Comparative relation (internal)*  
*Similar : likewise, similarly, in the same way*  
*Dissimilar : on the other hand, by contrast*
- e) Appositive relation (internal)*  
*Expository : that is, I mean, in other words*  
*Exemplificatory : for instance, thus*

### 2) Adversative Conjunction

The basic meaning of adversative relation is contrary to expectation. It draws a contrast between the new sentences and the



previous one. The following example is taken from (Halliday and Hasan 1976:252);

A. *He's not exactly good looking.*

B. **But** *he's got brains.*

The word *but* shows a contrasting relation between sentence number A and sentence number B.

Here is the summary of adversative conjunction types which are taken from (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 249-250);

- a) *Adversative relation 'proper' (in spite of) (external and internal)*
  - Simple* :yet, though, only
  - Containing 'and':but*
  - Emphatic* :however, nevertheless, despite this
- b) *Contrastive relation (as against) (external)*
  - Simple* :but, and
  - Emphatic* :however, on the other hand, at the same time
- c) *Contrastive relation (as against) (internal)*
  - Avowal* : in fact, as matter of fact, to tell the truth. Actually, in the point of the fact
- d) *Correlative relation ("not...but") (internal)*
  - Of meaning* :instead, rather, on the contrary
  - Of wording* :at least, rather, I mean
- e) *Dismissive (general adversative) relation (no matter...still) (external and internal):*
  - Dismissal closed* :in any case, in either case, whichever way it is
  - Dismissal open-ended* :in any case, anyhow, at any rate, however it is.

### 3) Causal Conjunction

Causal conjunction makes a causal link between two sentences.

The following example is taken from (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 258);

A. *You aren't leaving, are you?*



B. *Because I've got something to say to you.*

The word **because** is used to make a causal conjunction between sentence A and sentence B.

Here is the summary of causal conjunction types which are taken from (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 249-250):

- a) Causal relation, general (external/internal)
  - Simple :so, then, hence, therefore
  - Containing 'and' :consequently, because of this
- b) Causal relation, specific:
  - Reason :for this reason, on account of this
  - Result :as a result, in consequence
  - Purpose :for this purpose, with this in mind
- c) Reversed clausal relation, general:
  - Simple :for, because
- d) Reversed clausal relation, specific:
  - Reason :it follows, on this basis
  - Result :arising out of this
  - Purpose :to this end
- e) Conditional relation (internal and external):
  - Simple :then
  - Emphatic :in that case, in such an event, that being so
  - Generalized :under the circumstances
  - Reversed polarity :otherwise, under other circumstances
- f) Respective relation (internal):
  - Direct :in this respect, in this regard, with reference to this
  - Reversed polarity :otherwise, in other respects, aside from this

#### 4) Temporal

Temporal conjunction is conjunction relation that makes a time link between clauses or sentences. The following example is taken from (Halliday and Hasan 1976:321);

A. *He stayed there for three years.*

B. **Then** *he went to New Zealand.*

The word *then* makes a link between sentence A and B.



Here are the examples of temporal conjunction type that are mentioned in (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 249-250):

- a) Simple temporal relation (external):
  - Sequential :then, next, after that
  - Simultaneous :just then, at the same time
  - Preceding :previously, before that
- b) Conclusive relation (external):
  - Simple :finally, at last
- c) Correlative form:
  - Sequential :first..... then
  - Conclusive :at first.... In the end
- d) Complex temporal relation (external)
  - Immediate :at once, thereupon
  - Interrupted :soon, after a time
  - Repetitive :next time, on another occasion
  - Specific :next day, an hour later
  - Durative :meanwhile,
  - Terminal :until then
  - Punctiliar :at this moment
- e) Temporal relation (internal):
  - Sequential :then, next, secondly
  - Conclusive :finally, in conclusion
- f) Temporal relation (internal): correlative forms:
  - Sequential :first... then
  - Conclusive :...finally
- g) 'Here and now' (internal)
  - Past :up to now, hitherto
  - Present :at this point, here
  - Future :from now on, henceforward
- h) Summary relation (internal):
  - Summarizing :to sum up, in short, briefly
  - Resumptive :to resume, to return, to the point

## b. Lexical Cohesion

Lexical cohesion is the second type of the cohesive relations in English. It is the cohesive effect achieved by the selection of vocabulary.

Halliday (1976:310) stated that “lexical cohesion comes about through the selection of items that are related in some way to those that have gone



before. “There are ways to achieve these cohesion lexical aspects based on Halliday and Hasan (1976: 278), namely reiteration and collocation.

a. Reiteration

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976:278) reiteration is a form of lexical cohesion which involving the repetition of a lexical item, at one end of the scale, using of general word to refer back to lexical item, at the other end of the scale, and a number of the things between of synonym, near-synonym, or super ordinate. Generally, reiteration divided into four types; Repetition, Synonym, Near-Synonym, General Word. For example;

1) Repetition

Repetition is repeating the same word. Repetition occurs when a word form repeated again in a later section of the text. The following example is taken from Halliday and Hasan (1976: 278);

*A. There is a large **tower** near my school, almost all of my friends like to visit the **tower** because we can see many things from the top.*

The example shows that a word *tower* refers back to *tower*.

2) Synonym/Near Synonym

Instead of repetition of the same word, the speaker or the author uses the similar words which have similar means. This is a synonym. In

the following is the example that is adapted from Halliday and Hasan (1976; 278):



A. *Accordingly, I took the cave, and turned to the **ascent** of the peak.*

B. *The **climb** is perfectly easy.*

*ascen't* refers to back to the *climb*, which is a synonym. Synonym is the words that have meant almost similar to each other.

Near-synonym is the connection between two words that haven't exactly same words. However, the words have close or similar meaning. In the following is the example that is adapted from (Halliday and Hasan, 1976; 278);

A. *Then quickly rose Sir Bedivere, and ran, and leaping down the ridges lightly, among the bulrush bed, and clutch the **sword**. And lightly wheel and threw it.*

B. *The great **brand** made light'nings in the splendor of the moon.*

It shows that the word *brand* refers back to *sword*.

### 3) Superordinate

Superordinate or hyponymy is the relation of the meaning between more general term and more specific term. In the following is the example that is mentioned in (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 278);

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

*car* refers back to *Jaguar* and *car* is superordinate of *Jaguar*.

### 4) General word

General word can be general nouns, as in 'thing', 'stuff', 'place', 'person', 'woman', and 'men' or general verbs, such as 'do' and happen.



In a way, general word is higher level than superordinate. In the following is the example that is mentioned from (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 279);

A. *I turned to the **ascent** of the peak. The **thing** is perfectly easy.*

B. *There's a boy climbing the old elm. That old thing isn't very safe.*

*Thing* and *old thing* are the general noun for *ascent* and *old elm* in the example above.

#### b. Collocation

Lexical items is also tied together simply by collocation. That is when people think of a house; they also think about the floor, bedrooms and kitchen. When people think of school, they thinks of books, classrooms, teachers, etc. For example:

*I could bot correct anything. My red pencil was dull.*

Pencil is collocated to correct because there is a correlation between *pencils* and *correct* where pencil is used to correct something.

### E. Descriptive Text

#### 1. Definition of Descriptive Text

Gerot and Wignell (1994: 208) stated “Descriptive text is a text that has social function to describe a particular person, place or thing”.

Similarly, Ploeger (2000: 241) also defined descriptive text or description as the method used in text whose aim is to describe physical items or objects of which features are concrete or touchable, and it may be



attained through using the sensory language or five senses consisting of sight, hearing, smell, taste, and touch.

In line with Ploeger's explanation above, Oshima and Hogue (2007: 61) explained, "Descriptive writing appeals to the senses, so it tells how something, looks, feels, smells, tastes, or sounds. A good description is a word picture; the reader can imagine the object, place, or person in his or her mind."

## 2. Kinds of Descriptive Text

Heffernan and Lincoln (1986:83-84) in Muslikh (2014:20) divided descriptive text into three forms. For the first place is informative description that is used to make the readers easily identifying an object. The second is analytical or technical description which has functions to make the readers understand the structure of an object. The last is evocative description which is a text to recreate the impression made by an object.

Moreover, Dietsch (2003:139-140) said in Muslikh (2014:21) that a descriptive text or description may take the form of subjective or objective. A subjective description associates to a personal view covering attitude, opinion, and fact. Its aim is to share what the writers are thinking and feeling to their readers. Meanwhile, an objective description refers to the literal, factual, and fair description of the writing which is impartial

and impersonal. The purpose of the objective description is to provide the



readers with the observation that the writers have conducted with the absence of reference to the writers' feeling about the subject of the text.

### 3. Grammatical Features of Descriptive Text

According to Knapp and Watkins (2005:98-100) in Muslikh (2014:21) there are some grammatical features of descriptive text as follows:

- a. The descriptive text uses the present tense in terms of describing things from a technical or factual point of view. For instance:
  - eats, drinks, swim, and so on;
- b. In terms of literary description, the past tense may be used. For instance:
  - had, enjoyed, seemed, sparkled, and so on;
- c. To classify or describe the appearance/qualities and parts/functions of phenomena, relational verbs (to be: is, are, has, have) are used. For instance:
  - My favorite drink is *Cendol* ice because it is tasty and good for my health.
  - Leeches do not have teeth, but they have a sucker at each end of their body.
- d. Descriptive text uses action verbs in terms of describing behaviors/uses. For instance:
  - A swan glides by the river.
- e. The descriptive text uses the action verbs metaphorically to create effect, particularly in literary and commonsense descriptions. For instance:
  - Dawn broke over Jakarta city.
- f. The descriptive text uses mental verbs in terms of describing feelings in literary description. For instance:
  - She felt sad as she heard the news.
- g. To modify or give extra information to nouns and technical, everyday or literary, depending on the text, adjectives are used. For instance:
  - *Technical*: Most bats are nocturnal animals.
  - *Everyday*: It is blue and red.
  - *Literary*: The panorama of *Dieng* Mountain is majestic.
- h. To modify or add information to verbs to give more detailed description, adverbs are used. For instance:
  - She dances beautifully.



- i. Adverbial phrases are used in descriptive text which intends to modify or give more information about manner, place or time. For instance:
  - *Place*: My brother lives in the old farmhouse.
  - *Time*: The students only study hard just before exams.
- j. Sentences and paragraphs are thematically related to the topic of description. For instance:
  - The sea is the salty water covering a large part of the surface of the earth.
- k. Personal and literary descriptions commonly cope with and associate with individual things. For instance:
  - my big bag, my favorite doll.
- l. Technical descriptions commonly cope with and associate with classes of things, instead of individual things. For instance:
  - snails, turtles, volcanoes.

#### 4. Structure of Descriptive Text

Djuharie (2007:24) mentioned that the significance of generic structure of descriptive writing is identification and description. The generic structure of descriptive writing includes:

##### 1. Identification / Opening

This part introduces the subject of the description to the audience. It gives the audience brief details about the when, where, who or what of the subject. On the other words this part is stating classification of general aspect of thing, animal, public place, plant etc which will be discussed in specifically.

##### 2. Description / Content

This part consists of several paragraphs. Each paragraph usually begins with a topic sentence. Each paragraph in this part should describe the feature of the subject. All the paragraphs in this part build the detailed



description of subject. It may describe physical appearance, qualities, general personalities or idea, and the characteristics.

### 3. Conclusion / Closing (Optional)

The concluding paragraph contains the conclusion of the topic, and signs the end of the text. There are two important part of the generic structure when writing descriptive text, the first is identification, and the second one is description. The concluding paragraph can be added but it is not a must.

The following is the example of structure of descriptive writing which taken from Wardiman et al (2008: 100):

*Identification / opening:*

I have a pet. It is a cat. Its name is Sweety.

*Description / content:*

She is a German breed. She is small, fluffy, and cute. She has got thick white fur. When I cuddle her, the fur feels soft. She likes bones. Every morning, I give her milk and bread. When I am at school, she plays with other cats. They get along well and never fight, maybe it is because she is not wild. She is really a sweet and friendly animal.

The example shows two parts which are opening and content. There is no closing part since it is optional. The opening part just contains introduction of general aspect about the subject. The content part describes the detail information about the cat therefore a reader has an image of that animal in her/his mind.



## F. Summary

Discourse is the most comprehensive and largest unit of language in the sentence or clause that given orally or written while discourse analysis is related to the study of language and context which is used. Cohesion as part of the discourse analysis aims to look the semantic relation between part of the text that shows the element in the text are dependent on another. Then, there are two kinds of cohesion. The first is grammatical cohesion which is the way of grammatical features is used to related parts in text. The second is lexical cohesion that achieved by the selection of vocabulary. These cohesions are elaborated to analyze the descriptive text whose aim to describe particular person, place and thing.

