GRAMMATICAL COHESION
IN STUDENTS’ RECOUNT TEXT
(A Case of the Tenth Grade Students of SMK Negeri 1 Slawi
In the Academic Year of 2017/2018)

A Final Project
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in English

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Declare that this final project entitled Grammatical Cohesion in Students’ Recount Text (A Case of the Tenth-Grade Students of SMK Negeri 1 Slawi in the Academic Year 2017/2018) is my own work and has not been submitted in any form for another degree or diploma at any university or other institute of tertiary education. Information derived from the published and unpublished work of others has been acknowledged in the text and a list of references is given in the references.

Semarang, January 9th 2019

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APPROVAL

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MOTTO AND DEDICATION

“So verily with the hardship, there is a relief, verily with the hardship, there is a relief”

- Quran 94:5-6 -

To

My beloved mother
My beloved father
My beloved grandmother
My lovely brothers
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First of all, I praise to Allah Subhanahu wa ta‘ala for the mercy and blessing given to me during my study and in completing this final project. Secondly, peace and blessing may always be given to us from the Messenger of Allah, Muhammad Shallalahu ‘alaihi wassalam. I would be grateful to many people who have contributed their support, time, and their ideas in completing my final project.

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ABSTRACT

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Keywords: grammatical cohesion, cohesive devices, students’ writing, recount text.

This study aims to identify the types of grammatical cohesion used in the recount texts written by the tenth-grade students of SMK Negeri 1 Slawi in the Academic Year 2017/2018, as well as to investigate the cohesiveness of the writings based on the use of grammatical cohesive devices.

The data of this study were collected from the tenth-grade students at SMK 1 Slawi, in which a total of 28 recount texts were gotten from a sample class. The data were analyzed qualitatively using the theory of cohesion by Halliday and Hasan (1976).

The results show that the students used three types of grammatical cohesion, with the total number of 1422 cases. They are reference, ellipsis, and conjunction. Reference has the highest frequency of occurrence with 1046 cases (74%). Then, it is followed by conjunction with 373 cases (26%), and ellipsis with 3 cases (0.2%).

Based on the findings, it can be seen that reference, ellipsis, and conjunction are the types of grammatical cohesive devices that were used by the students in their writing with reference as the device that is most dominantly used. Furthermore, it can be concluded that all texts collected are cohesive enough because they all employ grammatical cohesion even though some of the cohesive ties are used incorrectly.

Suggestions given from this study are firstly, the English students are expected to be more aware of the importance of cohesion, especially grammatical cohesion, which exists both in spoken and written forms of language. Secondly, for the English teachers, it is suggested to give their students understanding about cohesion, especially grammatical cohesion.
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CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

This chapter consists of seven subchapters. They are background of the study, reasons for choosing the topic, research questions, objectives of the study, significance of the study, limitation of the study and outline of the report.

1.1 Background of the Study

In learning English, students are taught four skills of language. They are listening, speaking, reading, and writing. As foreign learners, Indonesian students often encounter some difficulties, especially in writing. Writing needs a long process that needs advanced skills which include critical thinking and logical development of ideas. In relation to this, Burnaby in Anom, Seken, & Sunarjaya, (2012) states that writing is extremely a cognitive activity which needs control of a number of variables simultaneously. When we write, we work intensively with new language at the whole text level, the paragraph level, the sentence level, and the word level. At each level, they need tools. Students need good vocabularies for precise word choices which are critical to make writing explicit. Additionally, they need knowledge of grammatical structure and punctuation to make their writings intelligible to readers.

In addition, a good writing requires unity, coherence, and adequate development, with coherence as the most important factor (Almaden in Ayub and Sunarjaya 2013). In order to make a text coherent, it is important for students to
have a clear understanding of cohesion and coherence. This is because cohesion and coherence are related to each other.

The importance of studying cohesion, especially cohesive devices is to create a good and systematic text and to make readers easily understand what information is delivered in it. Cohesive devices link sentences and paragraphs together so that there is no leap or break between ideas. Therefore, cohesive devices also help the reader accurately understand and follow the writer's thought.

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976:3), there are two cohesive devices namely grammatical and lexical cohesive devices. Grammatical cohesive devices deal with cohesion between or among sentences because of grammatical factor. Lexical cohesion deals with cohesion between or among sentence because of lexical choice. However, this study only focuses on grammatical cohesion because this study was conducted in the level of senior high school, and the students of senior high school have not been taught about cohesion. Therefore, I only focus to analyze one cohesive device. Grammatical cohesion was chosen because it deals with grammatical factor that students of senior high school have learned some materials of grammatical rules. Whereas, lexical cohesion was not chosen because students of senior high school may only have limited vocabularies that affect to their lexical choices in writing sentences.

There are some researches that have conducted about cohesion in student’s writing. Swastami (2014) and Megaruni (2014) analyzed grammatical and lexical cohesions in students’ recount text. Both studies were conducted in the level of undergraduate study. The first study only investigated the types of cohesive
devices that used by the students. Whereas, the second study analyzed the cohesiveness of the students’ writings. In other types of text there are some researches regarding to cohesion. Alarcaron & Morales (2011) investigated the frequency of grammatical cohesive devices in argumentative essays written by undergraduate students from University of Santo Tomas, Manila, the Philippines in 2011. Moreover, Saud (2015) analyzed qualitatively descriptive essays written by the third year female English undergraduate students in Saudi Arabia using the same theory as the previous studies mentioned above. The study divided the students into weak and good students’ group categories to find the difference of the cohesiveness of the descriptive writings between the two group categories.

In the present study, I tried to combine the problems of those previous studies and conducted the research in the level of senior high school. I also only focused on the use of grammatical cohesion. Hence, in the present study I investigated the types of grammatical cohesive devices in students’ recount text as well as the grammatical cohesiveness of the text based on the use of the grammatical cohesive devices.

1.2 Reasons for Choosing the Topic

In relation to the study that focuses to analyze grammatical cohesion in recount text, the data collection of the study was done at SMK N 1 Slawi. The data were taken from recount texts written by the tenth-grade students of the class of X TKJ 1. In the following paragraphs, I will explain some reason for choosing the topic.

Firstly, recently the awareness of the importance of writing increases because of the necessities and complexities of the writing itself. This fact makes
writing get more attention to English language teaching in Indonesia. Furthermore, the main focus of teaching writing is to develop competency in constructing a good writing. A good writing according to Corbett in Sutama (1997) requires three important components that should be fulfilled, namely, unity, coherence and adequate development with coherence as the most important component. It means a paragraph could be unified but it may still be not coherent yet. Hence I chose writing as the object of the research.

Secondly, cohesive devices are often misused and overused by students. Based on the research conducted by Swastami (2014), there is a large number of the misuse of cohesion in all types of cohesive devices found in the students’ recount text writing. In the research, conjunction has the highest percentage of the incorrectly use than other cohesive devices. The main error used by the students is confusion in using the appropriate conjunction to fit its function might refer to the predominant of one cohesive device in each type of conjunction. Moreover, based on the research conducted by Alcaron & Morales (2011) conjunction misuse reveals that students tend to be redundant and wordy even in their use of conjunction. It also reveals prepositional and collocational confusion which is common among second language learners while unclear reference of pronoun leads to vague development of ideas in their essays. In addition, in a research conducted by Saud (2015) the results indicated that there is the overuse conjunctions. Students used conjunctions to connect their sentences as a result of their weak vocabulary. They tend to use more connectives to maintain surface logicality. Therefore, concerning the students' problem in using cohesive devices,
recent scholarship demonstrates that many linguists and composition theorists have reached a conclusion that it is useful to analyze cohesion in writing as it contributes to coherence. Cohesion analysis can help distinguish stages of writing development and might provide methods of explaining concretely some of the differences between good and poor student writings (Andayani, Seken, & Marjohan, 2014).

Thirdly, recount text is chosen because it is one of the genres that must be mastered by the tenth-grade students of Senior High School as stated in the curriculum. I wanted to investigate how good students' skill in building sentences in their recount text writing through the use of grammatical cohesion.

Finally, I chose SMK N 1 since SMK N 1 Slawi is considered as one of the schools that has a very good quality in Central Java (Kemendikbud, 2018). SMK N 1 Slawi has rated by IIUN (Indeks Integritas Ujian Nasional) for the past 6 years, resulting average IIUN score of 96.46.

1.3 Research Questions

Based on the background of the study, the problem of this study is formulated as follows:

(1) What are the types of grammatical cohesion used by the tenth-grade students of SMK Negeri 1 Slawi in their recount text writing?

(2) How is the cohesiveness of the students’ recount text writing based on the use of cohesive devices?
1.4 Objectives of the Study

In line with the problems stated above, I formulate the objectives of the study as follows:

(1) To identify the grammatical cohesion types used by the tenth-grade students of SMK Negeri 1 Slawi.

(2) To investigate the grammatical cohesiveness of the students’ recount text writings based on the use of grammatical cohesive devices.

1.5 Limitation of the Study

This study is limited to investigate the use of grammatical cohesive devices, using the theory of cohesion by Halliday and Hasan (1976), such as reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction in recount text written by the tenth-grade students of SMK N 1 Slawi in the Academic Year 2017/2018.

1.6 Significance of the Study

The significance of the research is divided into three main parts, theoretically, practically, and pedagogically.

(1) Theoretically

This study presents an overview of cohesion and cohesive devices especially in grammatical cohesion used in recount text made by the tenth-grade students of SMK N 1 Slawi in the Academic Year 2017/2018. Thus it can be as an additional reference for further researchers, especially in the same field.
Practically
The result of the study will give the readers an understanding of the use of cohesive devices. Moreover, it is expected for the students to be able to deliver their ideas with the proper use of cohesive devices in their writing. Besides, it can be used for the teachers to measure how good the students' understanding of cohesive devices used in their writing.

Pedagogically
This study can help the teacher to find out the problem encountered by their students in using grammatical cohesive devices. It can also be used to help students to strengthen their awareness about cohesive devices, especially in recount text. Furthermore, this research may be able to provide references if they want to conduct the research related to this study.

1.7 Outline of the Report
This study consists of five chapters. Chapter I include background of the study, reasons for choosing the topic, research questions, objectives of the study, significance of the study, limitation of the study, and outline of the report.

Chapter II presents the review of related literature which contains review of previous studies, review of theoretical studies, and theoretical framework of the study. Meanwhile, chapter III explains the method of investigation which includes the research approach, subject, and object of the study, role of the researcher, type of data, instrument for collecting data, procedures of collecting the data, procedures of analyzing the data, and techniques of reporting data.
Finally, chapter IV presents with the findings and discussions of the findings of the research supported by the analysis, and chapter V presents the conclusions of the study as well as some suggestions for some parties in relations to the results of the study.
CHAPTER II
REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter consists of three parts. The first part contains the previous studies related to the topic of study. The second part presents the review of the theoretical study. Then, the last part is about the theoretical framework.

2.1 Review of the Previous Studies

There are some studies regarding cohesion that are conducted at different levels of study, starting from junior high school, senior high school, and undergraduate study. In line with the present study, there are some studies about cohesion in recount text. They are Swastami (2014) and Megaruni (2015). Both studies used Halliday and Hasan's (1976) concept of cohesion in order to analyze the data. Swastami analyzed types of cohesive devices that were correctly and incorrectly used in recount texts written by second semester students at State Islamic Institute Tulungagung. Furthermore, Swastami also calculated the frequency of each of the types of cohesive devices that were correctly and incorrectly used by the students in their recount text. The result showed that Lexical cohesive devices were used more dominantly than grammatical cohesive device in the correct usage. In incorrectly used of cohesion, grammatical cohesive devices were found occurred more often. On the other hand, Megaruni (2014) analyzed the cohesiveness of recount text written by the seventh-semester students of English Department of Sultan Agung Islamic University. The result of the study showed that the texts written by the participants were grammatically and
lexically cohesive with the highest percentage of cohesiveness of 51% and the lowest percentage of cohesiveness of 25%.

There are also some similar studies that analyzed cohesion devices in other types of text. Firstly, there are two studies that investigated grammatical cohesive devices in students' argumentative essay writing. Rahmawati (2015) analyzed the variety of grammatical cohesive devices used by undergraduate students from IAIN Tulungagung, East Java, Indonesia. Alarcon, et. al., (2011) investigated the frequency of grammatical cohesive devices in argumentative essays written by undergraduate students from University of Santo Tomas, Manila, the Philippines in 2011. The result of the first studies showed that the students used various kinds of grammatical cohesive devices in writing their argumentative essay. Those are reference, substitution, and conjunction. The first study showed that grammatical cohesive device was most dominantly used by the students is conjunction. Meanwhile, the second study showed that reference had the highest frequency.

Meanwhile, Andayani & Marjohan (2014), and Mawardi (2014) investigated cohesion devices in student's narrative writing. Andayani, Seken & Marjohan (2014) analyzed cohesion devices in the ninth-grade students' narrative essays at SMP Negeri 2 Banjar, while Mawardi (2014) analyzed narrative essays of the third semester at the faculty of teacher training and education of Universitas Nahdlatul Wathan Mataram. The studies were qualitatively analyzed using the theory of cohesion by Halliday and Hasan (1978). Both studies showed that the students' used both grammatical and lexical cohesive devices in their narrative
writings, and resulted reference as the most dominant cohesive devices to be used in the findings.

Next, there is also a study that analyzed cohesive devices used in descriptive text type. Saud (2015) analyzed qualitatively descriptive essays written by third year female English undergraduate student in Saudi Arabia using the same theory as the studies previously. The study divided the students into weak and good students' group categories to find the difference of the cohesiveness of the descriptive writings between the two group categories. The result showed that both categories used grammatical and lexical cohesive devices, and reference was a cohesive device that was mostly used in the essays. It also showed that the good students' category used more grammatical cohesive devices than the weak students' category with 278 difference number of occurrences. While in lexical cohesive devices, the good students' group had 19 numbers of occurrences more than the weak students' category. Thus, it was concluded that the essays written by the good students' category were more cohesive than the weak one.

Finally, Zaenudin (2012) analyzed the grammatical and lexical cohesive devices in hortatory exposition posted in the blogs of the eleventh-grade students of SMA Negeri 1 Temanggung. The study also aimed to investigate the cohesiveness of the writings. Still using the same approach and theory, this study also resulted that both grammatical and lexical cohesive devices used in students' hortatory exposition blog writings with references as the most dominant grammatical cohesive device and reiteration as the lexical cohesive device's to be
used. The study also showed that the students’ writings were grammatically and lexically cohesive.

In conclusion, there are many similar studies in different types of text that have been conducted that aimed to investigate cohesive devices. Thus, I used the studies mentioned above as the references to the present study. The present study is conducted with similar objective to investigate cohesion devices with the same approach and theory in the investigation. The different is the present study focused only on grammatical cohesion devices in the tenth-grade students’ recount text writing, as well as investigating the cohesiveness of the text.

2.2 Theoretical Background

This subchapter comprises some theories supporting the current study. Those theories are the theory of writing, text, and cohesion.

2.2.1. General Concept of Writing

Writing is one of the four language skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Writing and speaking are a productive skill. That means they involve producing language rather than receiving it (Spratt, Alan, & Williams, 2005:26). According to Sokolik in Khansir (2012:16), writing is a combination of process and product. The process refers to the act of gathering ideas and working with them until they are presented in a manner that is polished and comprehensible to readers.

Writing is a process of creating, organizing, writing and polishing. In the first step of the process, you create ideas. In the second step, you organize the
ideas, in the third step, you write a rough draft, in the final step; you polish your rough draft by editing it and making revisions (Oshima & Hogue, 2006:265).

Today, the ability to write has become an indispensable skill in our global literacy community (Brown, 2004:218). Brown stated that learning to write well is difficult, even in our own native language. Thus, students are taught writing since the lowest level of language learning.

2.2.1.1. **Components of writing**

According to Brown and Bailey (1984:21), there are five components of writing. Those are organization, content, grammar, punctuation, and style.

1. **Organization**

   Appropriate title, effective introductory paragraph, topic is started, leads to body, transitional expressions used; arrangement of material shows plan (could be outlined by the reader; supporting evidence given for generalization; conclusion logical and complete.

2. **Content**

   Essay addresses the assigned topic; the ideas are concrete and thoroughly developed; no extraneous material; essay reflects thought.

3. **Grammar**

   Native-like fluency in English grammar; correct use of relative clauses, prepositions, modals, articles, verb forms, and tenses sequencing; no fragments or run-on sentences.
(4) Punctuation

Correct use of English writing conversations: left and right margins, all needed capitals, paragraphs indented, punctuation and spelling; very neat of parallel structures; concise; register well.

(5) Style

This is an additional component in writing. Style is how the writers express their idea using a specific way of using vocabulary.

2.2.1.2. Genres of Writing

According to Brown (2004:219), there are three genres of written languages:

(1) Academic writing

Academic writing is a genre of writing that purposed to write academically. Examples of academic writing are papers and general subject reports, essays, academically focused journals, technical reports, theses, dissertation, etc.

(2) Job-related writing

This genre of writing is produced by writers mainly for a requirement of their job. Examples of job-related writing are letters, emails, memos, reports, advertisements, announcements, manuals, etc.

(3) Personal Writing

This genre of writing is the most commonly written by everyone. Examples of personal writing are letters, greeting cards, invitations, diaries, reminders, fiction, etc.
2.2.1.3. Types of Writing Performance

According to Brown (2014:220), there are four categories of written performance that capture the range of written production. Each category resembles the categories defined for other three skills:

1. **Imitative**
   
   To produce written language, the learner must attain skills in the fundamental, basic task of writing letters, word, punctuation, and very brief sentences. At this stage, the form is the primary if not exclusive focus, while context and meaning are the secondary concern.

2. **Intensive (controlled)**
   
   Beyond the fundamentals of imitative writing is the skill in producing appropriate vocabulary within a context, collocations and idioms, and correct grammatical features up to the length of a sentence.

3. **Responsive**
   
   At this stage, learners are asked to perform at a limited discourse level, connecting sentences to a paragraph and creating a logically connected sequence of two or three paragraphs.

4. **Extensive**
   
   Extensive writing implies successful management of all the processes and strategies of writing for all purposes, up to the length of an essay, a term paper, a major research project report, or even theses.
2.2.2. Text

We live in a world of words. When these words are put together to communicate a meaning, a piece of text is created. When you speak or write to communicate a message, you are constructing a text. When you read, listen to or view a piece of text, you are interpreting its meaning (Anderson & Anderson, 1977:1)

It is noteworthy that text exists in both written and spoken language. In the former, the writer who produces it whereas in the latter it becomes the language in use only if it is recorded, it will create discourse. Thus, text is a linguistic product of discourse that can be studied without reference to its contextual elements as evidence of linguistic rules «..."text" is the linguistic content; the stable semantic meaning of words, expressions, and sentences, but not the inferences available to hearers depending upon the context in which words, expressions, and sentences are used (Schiffrin, 1994: 363-364).

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976:2), a text, as a semantic unit, is a unity of meaning in context, a texture that expresses the fact that it relates as a whole to the environment in which it takes place. A set of related sentences is the embodiment or realization of a text. Typically, in any text, every sentence except the first shows some form of cohesion with a preceding sentence, usually with the one immediately preceding. Therefore, the expression of the semantic unit of the text lies in the cohesion among the sentences of which it is composed.

Halliday and Hasan (1976) state that structure is a unifying relation. The parts of a sentence or a clause obviously “cohere” with each other because of the
existence of the structure. The elements of any structure have an internal unity which ensures that they all express part of a text.

In general, any unit which is structured hangs together in such a manner to form text. Structure is one means of expressing texture. From the explanation above, we can say that something which is spoken or written can be said as a text if it has texture, cohesive ties, and structures.

2.2.2.1. Text Types

According to Derewianka (1990: 29), there are two types of text. They are oral and written texts. Oral text is a text used in face to face situations, where the speakers jointly construct the meanings. Because they are in a shared context, there is often no need to conclude specific information in the conversation. On the other hand, written text is a text used in written communication such as a letter or document. In the written text, all the information has to be in the text itself because the readers are usually distant in time and space and cannot ask for clarification or extra details from the writer.

Furthermore, Anderson & Anderson (1977:2) state that there are two main categories of texts, they are literary and factual. Literary texts include aboriginal dreaming stories, movie script, limericks fairy tales, plays, novels, song lyrics, mimes, and soap operas. Literary texts can make us laugh or cry, think about our own life or consider our beliefs. There are three main text types in this category: narrative, poetic, and dramatic. It means that literary texts entertain or elicit an emotional response by using language to create mental images. Meanwhile, factual texts include advertisements, announcements, internet web sites, current
affairs shows, debate, reports, and instruction. Factual texts present information or ideas and aimed to show, tell, or persuade.

Based on curriculum in 2013, students of senior high school are expected to be able to comprehend several texts in the form of descriptive text (describing someone or something), narrative text (entertainment story/text), procedure (how to make or do something), report (presents information about something), and the last is recount text (retell the past event). The following is the definition of text types that should be comprehended by students of senior high school based on the curriculum:

(1) Descriptive Text

This text is aimed to describe and reveal a particular person, place, or thing. They focus our attention on the characteristic features of a particular thing. Features of descriptions include: 1) an introduction to the subject of the description, 2) characteristic features of the subject - physical appearance, qualities, habitual, behavior, significant attributes.

(2) Narrative Text

A narrative text is written to tell a story. Its purpose is to create, stimulate emotions, motivate and teach. Some examples of narratives are picture books, short stories, novels, ballads, films, television programs. Steps in the formation of a narrative are orientation, complication, sequences of events, resolution, comment or coda (sometimes).

(3) Recount Text
The recount reconstructs events and tells the reader or listener what has happened and in the order of what has happened. The literary recount usually has expressions of attitude and feeling usually made by the narrator about the events. Its purpose is to entertain by dealing with a sequence of events. Some examples are picture books, short stories, novels, ballads, films, television programs. Steps in the formation of a literary recount are (1) an orientation providing information about who; where; and when, (2) a record of events usually recounted in logical order, (3) personal and/or evaluative remarks that are interspersed throughout the record of events. (4) a reorientation that “rounds off” the sequence of event.

(4) Procedure Text

Procedures provide instructions or directions on how to do something. (This is written in present tense). It focuses on how to do something. Steps in the formation of a procedure are; 1) Aim or purpose (goal), 2) List of materials to achieve the goal, 3) Steps to accomplish the goal. These are a series of steps or actions in order. Photographs or diagrams can be used to make the instructions clearer.

(5) Report Text

Information reports present factual information about a class of things. Reports tend to use general classifications and are usually concerned with descriptions, qualities, parts, functions, habits, and behaviors. Features of the information report are; 1) a general opening statement identifying the subject matter of the information report, perhaps defining and classifying it,
2) description and clusters some facts organized in paragraphs around topic sentences. This information can contain features, behaviors or types. 3) Concluding statement summing up the report.

2.2.2.2. General Concept of Recount Text

Recount text as stated by Anderson & Anderson (1977:48) is a text type that retells past events, usually in the order in which they happened. The purpose of recount text is to give the reader a description of what occurred and when it occurred. It might be about exciting things that happened when you on holidays last year.

2.2.2.3. Structure of Recount Text

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

(1) A first paragraph that gives background information or introduction about who, what, where, and when (called an orientation)

(2) A series of paragraphs that retell the events in the order in which they happened.

(3) Re-orientation: A personal comment about the event or what happened in the end.

2.2.2.4. Language Features of Recount Text

The language features that usually found in the recount are:

(1) Using the simple past tense, past continuous tense, past perfect tense, and past perfect continuous tense.

(2) Using temporal sequence, e.g. On Saturday. On Monday, On Sunday
Focus on a specific participant, e.g. I (the writer)

Using the conjunctions, such as: then, before, after, etc.

Using action verb, e.g. went, stayed

2.2.3. Cohesion

Cohesion is a semantic relation between sentence elements which presupposes an element in another sentence (Artawa, 2004:18). Cohesion is the relationship among propositions that is stated explicitly by the semantic elements inside the utterances, which forms a discourse. Cohesive relationships within a text are set up where the interpretation of some element in the discourse is dependent on that of another (Brown & Yule, 1983:19). Rakema (1993:35) explains: "Cohesion is the connection which results when the interpretation of a textual element independent on another element in the text".

Text is a unit of language in use. Cohesion is the semantic relation between one element and another in a text. It is not only a grammatical unit but also a semantic one. Cohesion is a semantic concept; "it refers to relations of meaning that exist within the text, and that defines it as a text" (Halliday and Hasan 1976:4). It is expressed through grammar and vocabulary. A text is cohesive when the elements are tied together and considered meaningful to the reader. Cohesion occurs when the interpretation of one item depends on the other, i.e. one item presupposes the other. For instance in the following text:

*My Husband* and *I* are leaving. *We* have seen quite enough of this unpleasant.

(Halliday and Hasan, 1976:50)
The interpretations of the item *We* depend on the lexical item *My husband* and *I*. Therefore, the text is considered cohesive because we cannot understand the meaning of them unless *My husband* and *I* exist in the text. It is linked to all kinds of term relationship.

In textual cohesion as stated in Halliday and Hasan’s book (1976:2), it is divided into two: non-structural and structural cohesion. Non-structural cohesion is in around of meaning relation, whereas structural cohesion is concerning on the grammar level. Non-structural cohesion consists of grammatical and lexical cohesion, whereas structural cohesion consists of parallelism, theme-rheme development, and given-new organization. This study focuses on non-structural cohesion only, so structural cohesion will not be analyzed here.

I use Halliday and Hasan (1976) as the main theory in this study. Halliday and Hasan divided the cohesion / cohesive devices into two types. They are grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion. This study only focuses on the grammatical one. However, I will also give a brief overview of the lexical one to help the readers differ the two types of cohesion.

2.2.3.1. Grammatical Cohesion

Halliday and Hasan classify the categories of grammatical cohesion into four types: *reference, substitution, ellipsis*, and conjunction.

2.2.3.1.1. Reference

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; the
cohesion lies in the continuity of reference, whereby the something enters into the discourse a second time, (Halliday and Hasan, 1976:32).

Halliday and Hasan (1976:33) classified reference into two kinds, namely: ‘exophoric’ and ‘endophoric’. Exophoric reference directs the readers out of the text. In this case, the reference items are outside of a text. Endophoric reference can function in an “anaphoric and ‘cataphoric ‘way. Anaphoric reference points the reader ‘backward' to a previously mentioned entity. On the other hand, cataphoric reference points the readers ‘forward’. It draws the readers further into the text in order to identify the elements to which the reference item refers to.

There are three main types of references: personal reference, demonstrative reference, and comparative reference. The category of personals includes the three classes namely; personal pronouns, possessive determiners (usually called ‘possessive adjective'), and possessive pronouns. The personal references refer to something by specifying its function or role in the speech of the situation. Demonstrative reference is a reference by means of location, on a scale of proximity (Halliday and Hasan,1976:37). The categories of this reference include three classes namely: nominative demonstrative (this, that, these, those), circumstantial demonstrative (here, there, now, then), and definite article (the). Comparative reference is cohesion in the form of reference that shows the comparison between one thing and another. This reference is classified into two kinds, namely: ‘general' and ‘particular' comparison. General comparison deals with the comparison which is simply in terms of likeness and unlikeness. Particular comparison means comparison that is respect of quantity and quality.
2.2.3.1.2. Substitution

Substitution occurs when an item is replaced by another item in the text to avoid repetition. The difference between substitution and reference is that substitution lies in the relation between words, whereas reference between meanings. There are three types of substitution: nominal, verbal, and causal.

(1) Nominal substitution

Nominal substitution is substituting a noun or a nominal group with another noun. Elements of this type are *one*, *ones*, and *same*.

Example:

Mummy will you buy me a *bus*? I want the red *one*.

(Halliday & Hasan, 1976:99)

From example above, the nominal substitution is *one*. It substitutes *bus*.

(2) Verbal substitution

Verbal substitution involves substituting a verb or a verbal group with another verb. The verb element used to replace items in this type is *do*.

Example:

Have they *removed* their furniture? They have *done* the desks, but that’s all so far.

(Halliday & Hasan, 1976:114)

Here, *done* substitutes *removed*.

(3) Clausal substitution

Clausal substitution is substituting clauses by *so* or *not*. This is illustrated by the following:
Is the mango ripe? – It seems so.

(Halliday & Hasan, 1976:134)

In this example, so substitutes the mango is ripe.

2.2.3.1.3. Ellipsis

Ellipsis is simply substitution by zero. The starting point of the discussion of ellipsis can be the familiar notion that it is „something left unsaid” (Halliday & Hasan, 1976:142). Ellipsis is also the omission of an item. It can be interpreted as that form of substitution in which the item is replaced by nothing (Halliday & Hasan, 1976:143). Ellipsis is divided into three types; there are nominal, verbal, and clausal ellipses.

(1) Nominal ellipsis

Nominal ellipsis is ellipsis within the nominal group. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976:147).

Example:

Would you like to hear another verse? – I know twelve more.

(Halliday & Hasan, 1976:143)

The nominal ellipsis is twelve more. It presupposes the preceding sentence.

It can be interpreted as I know twelve more another verse.

(2) Verbal ellipsis

Verbal ellipsis is the omission of an item within the verbal group (Halliday & Hasan, 1976:167).

Example:

A. What are you doing?
B. Thinking.

(Halliday & Hasan, 1976:178)

The verbal ellipsis in the conversation above is verb thinking. An omission here is I am doing thinking. Thinking in B can only be interpreted as I am thinking.

(3) Clausal ellipsis

Clausal ellipsis is the omission of an item within the clausal.

Example:

Who taught you to spell? – Grandfather did.

(Halliday & Hasan, 1976:199)

The clausal ellipsis is did. Here is an omission of the verb and the complement the clause that is omitted is taught you to spell.

2.2.3.1.4. Conjunction

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

(1) Additive

The additive relation is somewhat different from coordination proper, although it is no doubt derivable from it (Halliday & Hasan, 1976:244). Additive relation is expressed by using the word and, or, furthermore, similarly, in addition. It can be seen in the table below.
Table 2.1 The Classifications of Additive

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>External/Internal</th>
<th>Internal (unless otherwise specified)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Additive, simple:</td>
<td>Complex, emphatic:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Additive:</td>
<td>Additive:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and, and also</td>
<td>Furthermore, addition, besides</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Negative:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nor, and...not</td>
<td>Alternative:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Complex, deemphatic:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alternative:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>or, or else</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

(Halliday & Hasan, 1976:243)

In the next railroad stations the names of many railroads are followed by small numerals. These are time-table numbers indicating the table in which a given station is shown in the rail road’s representation; For example, under Danbury, Ct., is shown “N. Y. New Harvard H., 12.” This means Danbury, is found on the time-table no. 12 of that railroad.

The additive conjunction is *for example*:

(2) Adversative

Adversative relation is contrary to expectation that may be derived from the content of what is being said, or from communication process, the speaker-hearer situation (Halliday & Hasan, 1976:250).

Adversative relation is expressed by using of word *but, however, on the other hand, nevertheless*. It can be seen on the table below:
Table 2.2 The Classification of Adversative Conjunction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>External/Internal</th>
<th>Internal (unless otherwise specified)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adversative ‘proper’: Simple: yet, though, only</td>
<td>Contrastive: Avowal: in fact, actually, as a matter of fact</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Containing ‘and’: but</td>
<td>Contrastive (external): Simple: but, and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emphatic: however, nevertheless, despite this</td>
<td>Emphatic: however, on the other hand, at the same time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Correction Of meaning: instead, rather, on the contrary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Of wording: at least, rather, I mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dismissal:</td>
<td>Open-ended: in any case. anyhow, at any rate, however it is</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Halliday & Hasan, 1976:243)

Example:

a. He showed no pleasure at hearing the news. *Instead*, he looked even gloomier.

*Instead*, it (a) is a relation of an adversative type in a form of correction meaning.

(3) Causal Relation

The simple of causal relation is expressed by so, thus, hence, therefore, consequently, accordingly, and a number of expressions like as result (of that), in consequence (of that), because of that. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976:256)

The word expression of Causal relation can be seen in the table below:
## Table 2.3 The Classification of Causal Conjunction

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

(Halliday & Hasan, 1976:243)

Example:

She left that there was no time to be lost, as she was shrinking rapidly; so she got to work at once to sat some of the other bit.

(Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 256)

The causal conjunction of that example is so.
Temporal relation is expressed in its simplest form by then, next, afterward, 
after that, subsequently, etc. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 261).

The word expressed of temporal relation can be seen in the table below:

Table 2.4 The Classification of Temporal Conjunction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>External/Internal</th>
<th>Internal (unless otherwise specified)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Temporal, simple (external only): Sequential: Then, next, after that</td>
<td>Complex (external only): Immediate: At once, thereupon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simultaneous: Just then, at the same time</td>
<td>Interrupted: soon, after a time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preceding: previously, before that</td>
<td>Repetitive: Next time, on another occasion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conclusive forms: Sequential: first...then</td>
<td>Specific: Next day, an hour later</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conclusive: At the first.....in the end</td>
<td>Durative: Meanwhile</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Terminal: Until then</td>
<td>Punctiliar: At this moment</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Halliday & Hasan, 1976:243)

Example:

Alice began by taking the little golden key and unlocking the door that led 
into the garden. *Then*, she set to work nibbling at the mushroom.
Then in the sentence above is used to mention and also relate to continuity of event in the first sentence and second sentence.

2.2.3.2. Lexical Cohesion

Lexical cohesion refers to the relationship between and among words in a text (Gerot and Wignell 1994: 177). In addition, Baker (1992: 202) adds that lexical cohesion refers to the role played by the selection of vocabulary in organizing relations within a text. Lexical cohesion refers to the links between the content words (noun, verbs, adjective, adverbs) which are used in subsequent segments of discourse (Rakema, 2004:105). Halliday and Hasan (1976: 274) also give the same perception of lexical cohesion that lexical cohesion is the cohesive effect achieved by the selection of vocabulary. From these perceptions, we can see that lexical cohesion has a tight relation with the vocabulary used in a text. Lexical cohesion is primarily related to the field (nature of social activity and subject matter) of a text that can be found through its content words. Fields tend to have specialized vocabularies and tend to engage in specialized activities. Therefore, they are not only related to the words but also to the kinds of activities they engage in. In text types in which writer’s opinion or judgment is offered, lexical cohesion is also revealing interpersonal meanings, which express a speaker’s attitudes and judgment (Gerot and Wignell 1994: 13), through use of attitudinal lexis and qualitative attributes. Halliday and Hasan (1976, 277-292) divide lexical cohesion into two main categories, reiteration and collocation.
2.2.3.2.1. Reiteration

Halliday and Hasan (1976) define reiteration as two items that share the same referent and could either be repeated or have similar meanings in a text. The forms of reiteration are repetition, synonymy, antonymy, and super ordination (hyponymy and meronymy).

(1) Repetition

Repetition is the restatement of the same lexical item. This is illustrated by the following:

Anna ate the apple. The apple was fresh.

(2) Synonymy

Synonymy is used to refer to items of similar meaning just as, attractive and beautiful.

(3) Antonymy

Antonymy is the relation between items of opposite meanings such as, hot and cold.

(4) Hyponymy

Hyponymy refers to items of ‘general-specific’ or ‘an example of’ relationship (Paltridge, 2012: 119). For example, vehicle is the co-hyponym of car.

(5) Meronymy

Meronymy is a ‘whole-part’ relationship between items. For instance, cover and page are co-meronyms of the item book. In other words, books are the superordinate item of cover and page.
2.2.3.2.2. *Collocation*

Collocation is a combination of vocabulary items that co-occur together. It includes combinations of adjectives and nouns such as, ‘fast food’, verbs and nouns such as, ‘run out of money’, and other items such as, ‘men’ and ‘women’ (Plat ridge, 2012:129).

Bloor and Bloor (2004:100) said that collocation covers two or more words which can be said to ‘go together’. Therefore, collocation relates the text through words which often occurs in the same condition or co-occurred each other. Collocation could also be seen from the series of different words which are referred to each other in terms of meaning, for instance: *tourism, the superior sector, the order system, the language choices, the proportional duration.* These words are correlated in terms of meaning even though they have different forms in the same register. The correlation is not limited to noun relation, but, it can also be related in correlated nouns, verbs, adverbs, etc. In conclusion, every writer can use different patterns of collocation, as long as it is correlated to functionally construct the text.

2.3 *Theoretical Framework*

In this research, I investigate (1) the grammatical cohesive devices used by the tenth-grade students of SMK Negeri 1 Slawi in their recount text writing; (2) the cohesiveness of their recount text writing. The theory used in order to analyze the data is cohesion theory offered by M.A.K. Halliday and Ruqaiya Hasan in Cohesion in English (1976).
Halliday and Hasan stated that there are two types of cohesion namely: grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion. In grammatical cohesion, the relationship between and within a text is signaled by means of grammatical elements. This includes reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction. While lexical cohesion is signaled by means of lexical elements or vocabularies. It consists of reiteration and collocation. However, in this research I only focus on the analysis only on grammatical cohesive devices, as it figured in the following framework:
Figure 2.1 Theoretical Framework
CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

This chapter presents the important points of the whole discussion in this study. Furthermore, it also suggests some recommendations for academic teaching and for further research.

5.1. Conclusions

Based on the statement of the research problems, the results show that that the students used three types of grammatical cohesion with total cases of 1448. Those are reference, ellipsis, and conjunction. Reference has the highest frequency of occurrence with 1065 cases (74.5%). Then, it is followed by conjunction with 380 cases (26.3%), and ellipsis with 3 cases (0.2%).

In relation to the results mentioned above, it can be concluded that the texts collected are grammatically cohesive enough with the use of three types of grammatical cohesion. The results of the analysis also show that the types and amount of occurrences of grammatical cohesion vary between one text to another. However, all the texts employ grammatical cohesive devices even though some of them are used incorrectly.

5.2. Suggestions

After conducting this research, I have some suggestions intended for some parties. For English students, it is suggested to be more aware of the importance of cohesion, especially grammatical cohesion, which exists both in spoken and
written forms of language. Moreover, cohesion contributes to the connection and unity within the elements to create meaningful language in which is one of the most prominent uses of language itself to be able to percept and interpret in a proper way. Therefore, English learners cannot only create an understandable text but also interpret it in understanding complex text.

For English teachers, it is suggested to give students understanding about cohesion, especially grammatical cohesion. Some training could be given to learners on cohesion devices. Teachers should allocate some marks to the correct use of cohesive devices to the students, so they know what to emphasize when writing in English. Students can be asked to write a paragraph using the variety of cohesive devices as they contribute to the quality of writing. In addition, teachers should help students develop their vocabulary by engaging them in some vocabulary activities.

For further researchers, it is suggested to also analyze lexical cohesion in the text to know the use lexical devices, so students’ understanding of lexical cohesion can also be seen. It is also expected that further researchers can conduct their researches in other levels of study and in other types of text with larger number of sample texts.
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