CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 The Concept Of Discourse Analysis

1.1.1 Discourse

Discourse is the study about using language based on the context in the spoken and written language in communication. Each human in this whole world has the abilities in producing communication. Communication is become a bridge that facilitate people to connect their relation, to deliver the ideas, to express the emotions. So it is important to know about discourse first before discuss about discourse analysis in order to get better understanding about the concept of discourse analysis.

Some researchers define discourse in different ideas. According to Renkema (2004:2) says that discourse is the discipline devoted to the investigation of the relationship between form and function in verbal communication. Besides that , in the book entitled discourse, Cook (1989:6) states that discourse is about language use. He defines discourse as language that use by people for communication to the other. Moreover , Prayudha (2016) states that the concept of discourse involves three dimensions that are as language use, communication of beliefs (human cognition) and interaction in social situation.

While *Oxford English Dictionary* (2010) states that, discourse is the use of language in speech and writing in order to produce meaning; language that is studied, usually in order to see how the different parts of a text are connected.

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Based on the statements above, it can be concluded that discourse is the substantial study between human communications to the function of the context, while context is all kinds of social situations, condition and culture of the text such as the character and background of the participant in the text; when and where the situation of the text, beside that discourse also usespoken forms are all verbal and non verbal language in communication such as verbal and expression of communication, speech, music, and sound effectt, and to get the best of produce meaning discourse express as a way to investigate how to representing the aspects, the relation of each speech and how to correlate each sentences become unite structure. The description tells that discourse is the complex study, it is divided into coherence and cohesion. Coherence is the way a text makes sense through the concept and cohesion is about the grammatical and lexical between different elements of a text.

1.1.2   Analysis

David and Jill (2003:2) state that analysis is the kind of thinking that most often be asked to do in your work life. It is not the rarefield and exclusive province of scholar and intellectuals. It is, in fact one of the most common of mental activities.

On the other hand Kurland (2000) defines that analysis is a particular form of investigation in general usage, analysis refers to any close, careful, or systematic examination and more technical meaning. Analysis is a process of investigating

something by breaking it into parts for closer examination. Complex topics are broken down into less complicated elements. A problem is simplified by limiting the amount that must be examined at any one time.

In conclusion, analysis is a systematic examination and evaluation of data or information, by breaking it into it's component parts to uncover their interrelationship, thus providing basis for problem and the way of thinking . It is a solution in solving the problems with elaborates the problems into pieces to reach a smallest detail to obtain more in-depth explanations amd information.

1.1.3 Discourse Analysis

McCharty (2000:5) describes discourse analysis is about the study of the relationship between language and context in used. It means that discourse analysis focuses on the study of language amd context relationship. Furthermore, Adjei (2013) Discourse Analysis is paramount in the negotiation and construction of meaning of the social world. Meanwhile Brown G Yule (1983:1) who defins discourse analysis of language in use.

On the whole descriptions, it can be concluded that discourse analysis is study about discourse is much related to context. However, the distinction between structural and functional approaches is their view of text in relation to context. Context sis more than a matter of reference and of understanding what things are about. It gives our utterance their deeper meaning.

1.2 The Concept of Cohesion

Semantics is one of the branches of Linguistics, it has much important role in every language in the world whether spoken, written, or verbal and nor verbal skills. Semantics, moreover, is also a science that someone studies about not only the meanings of words, specifically, but also in sentences and clauses generally (Seno,

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2000-2004) . Halliday and Hasan (1976) claim that relation between two cohesive elements found in a text is not determined by the grammatical structure " determines the way in which cohesion is expressed " (Halliday and Hasan 1976:8). In this respect the sentences, as the highest structural unit in the grammar, serves to be a significant unit for cohesion.

Additionally, Prayudha (2016) adds that cohesion concludes that the one element presupposes the other. The element cannot be effectively decoded except by recourse to it. Moreover, the basic concept of it is a semantic one. It refers to relations of meaning that exists within the text. So, when this happens, relation of cohesion is set up, and two elements, the presupposing and presupposed, are there by integrated into a text.

In other word, Sharif (2015) states that the term of cohesion is used for the ralations obtaining among sentences and clauses of text. These relations, which occur on the grammatical stratum, are signaled by certain grammatical and lexical features reflecting discourse structure on a higher. These features such as anaphora, subordination, and coordination are called cohesive. They account for what may also be reffered to as the textual connectivity of sentences and clauses. On the other hand Halliday and Hasan 1976: 5. Cohesion is a semantic concept, defined as relations of meaning that exist within the text, and that define it as a text.

Based on the authors' explanation above, it can be inference that cohesion is e element of language for making relations in discourse that connect one part of a text to other sentences and it is known that cohesive manage the consistency of semantic relationship between elements of discourse has function as a system to express a connection text and the context.

1.3   **Grammatical Cohesion**

Grammatical cohesion refers to the linguistic structure. The highest structural unit in the grammar is the sentence (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 28). The structure determines the order in which grammatical elements occur and the way they are related within a sentence. Cohesive relationships with other sentences create a certain linguistic environment, and the meaning of each sentence depends on it. Various linguistic means help to identify whether a text can function as a single meaningful unit or not.

Grammatical Cohesion				
Reference		Substitution	Ellipsis	Conjunction
Personals		Nominal	Nominal	Additive
Exitential	Possessive	One/ones, The same, So		And, but also, nor, or, or else, moreover, in addition, besides that, additionally, likewise, similarly, on the other hand
I, you, we, he, she, it, they, one	My/mine, your/yours, our/ours, his, her/hers, its, their/theirs, one's			
Demonstrative		Verbal	Verbal	Adversative

This/that, these/those, here/there	Do, be, have, do the same, likewise, do so, be so, do it/that, be it/that		Yet, though, but, on the other hand, actually, in fact, at the same time, instead,on the contrary, however, at least, rather
Definite article	Clausal	Clausal	Clausal
The	So, not		So, hence, therefore, because of, otherwise, thus, for this reason, as a result, for this purpose, then, under the circumstances
Comparatives			Temporal
Same, identical, similar(ly), such, different, other, else			Then, next, before that, afterwards, meanwhile, until then, first ... then, at first, final, at once, soon, so sum up, in conclusion, at last.

Table 1. Types of Grammatical Cohesion (based on Halliday and Hasan 1976).

2.3.1 Reference

The principle of reference is based on the exploration of the lexico-grammatical environment of a text to look elsewhere to get a fuller picture and to make complete sense of a word or structure (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 31). reference creates cohesion by creating links between elements to create meaning in term of semantic level Halliday and Matthiessen (2014:605).

The study of grammatical cohesion in students' essays requires the retrieval of the information necessary for interpretation from the given context. This refers to endophoric reference. An exophoric relationship plays no part in textual cohesion (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 18). This type of reference directs hearers or readers to look outside the text and to interpret the information from the context of situation. So grammatical cohesion refers to the logical and structural rules that goven the composition of clauses, phrases, and words in any given natural language. The terms refers also to the study of such rules, context, and situation, and this field includes morphology, and syntax, often complemented by phonetics, phonology, semantics, and pragmatics.

(Joan Cutting, 2002)

Halliday and Hasan (1976) distinguish between the two kinds of endophoric relations: anaphoric and cataphoric. Anaphoric reference points listeners or readers backwards to what is previously mentioned (1) On the contrary, cataphoric reference looks forward in the text in order to identify the elements the reference items refer to (2)

(1)*Look at the sun. It's going down quickly.* (*It* refers back to *the sun*.)

(2) *It's going down quickly, the sun.* (*It* refers forwards to *the sun*.)

Halliday and Hasan (1976: 37) identify three sub-types of referential cohesion – personal, demonstrative and comparative. The definite article is included into the sub-type of demonstratives. Various types of referential cohesion enable speakers and researcher to make multiple references to things and people within a text.

2.3.1.1 Personal Reference

Personal reference items are expressed through the three classes of personal pronouns, possessive determiners and possessive pronouns, through the category of person (3). Personal reference is used to identify individuals and things or objects that are named at some other point in the text. So, personal references need are those items which refer to their referents by specifying thir function in the speech situation, recognizing speaker 'first person', addressee 'second person' and other participant 'third person'.

3. *Alice wondered a little at this, but she was too much in awe of the Queen to disbelieve it.* (The third person singular pronoun *She* refers back to *Alice*.)

2.3.1.2 . Demonstrative Reference

"Demonstrative reference is essentially a form of verbal pointing," (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 57). It is expressed through determiners and adverbs (4) This type of reference is achieved by means of location, on a scale of proximity. What is understood by proximity is nearness in place, time, occurrence or relation. Demonstrative reference items can represent a single word or phrase, and they can range across several paragraphs.

4. *We went to the opera last night. That was our first outing for months.* (*That* refers anaphorically to *last night*.)

The third type of referential cohesion is comparative. "Comparative reference is expressed through adjectives and adverbs and serves to compare items within a text in terms of identity or similarity. Halliday and Hasan (1976: 76) distinguish between the two sub-types of comparative reference: general and particular. General comparative reference expresses likeness between things, in the form of identity, similarity and unlikeness or difference. Particular reference expresses comparability between things. This is comparison

in respect of quantity or quality. Particular comparison in terms of quantity is expressed by a comparative quantifier or an adverb of comparison sub modifying a quantifier.

2.3.1.3 Comparative Reference

Particular comparison in terms of quality is expressed by comparative adjectives or adverbs sub modifying an adjective. Table 3 provides examples for comparative reference, in this table *identity, similarity*, and *difference* is part of general from comparartive reference and *quantity/ numerative, quality/epithet* is

Comparative Reference			
General		Particular	
Identity	*We have received exactly the <u>same</u> report as was submitted two months ago*	Quantity/numerative	*There were twice <u>as many</u> people there <u>as</u> last time*
Similarity	*The candidates gave three <u>similar</u> answers*	Quality/epithet	*We are demaining <u>higher</u> living standards*
Difference	A : *Would you like <u>these seats ?</u>* B : *No, I'd like <u>the other seats.</u>*		

Table 2. Comparative Reference

Comparative reference represents cohesive resources that can make it difficult for an analyst to differentiate between grammatical reference and lexical repetition. However, reference is always described grammatically since it includes the categories of person, number, proximity and degree of comparison. Halliday and Hasan (1976: 314) use the term co-interpretation for the meaning of reference. The role of reference is to link semantically an

item of language to its environment. Personals, demonstratives and comparatives are text-forming devices that enable readers to define the identity between language instances.

Hence, the circumstancial (adverbial) demonstrative such as *here, there, now*, and *then*, refer to the location of a process in space or time. And the remaining (nominal) demonstratives *this, these, that, those*, and *the* refer to the location of something such as person or object. They therefore occur as elements within the nominal group. These demonstrartives is clasified into three systematic distinctions. They are between near, and not near, between plural and singular and between modifier and head.

1.3.2 Substitution

Jabeen, et al (2013) state that substitution is the replacement of one item by another. It is a relation in the wording rather than in the meaning. Additionally, Halliday and Hasan (1976) define different types of substitution as a grammatical relation in the wording. They introduce three types of substitution: nominal, verbal and clausal.

1.3.2.1 Nominal Substitution

The first type of substitution is represented by the following nominal substitutes: one, ones, same, so

(5) This *motorcycle* is old. I will buy a new *one*.

The use "one" as substitution that replace word " motorcycle". The substitution one/ones has function as head of nominal group, and it can substitute only for an item that it itself head of nominal group.

2.3.2.2 Verbal Substitution

The verbal substitution is represented by "do" that operates as head of a verbal group , in the place that is occupied by the lexical verb and the position is always final in the group. In the verbal group it is do, with the usual morphological scatter do, does, did, doing, done

(6) I challenge you to win the competiton before I do ! John.

The clause is substitution, because the complete sentence actually you win the competition. The word do is presupposed by certain verb win. It belongs to verbal substitution.

2.3.2.3 Clausal Substitution

Causal substitution presupposed is not an element within the clause but an entire clause. **So** and **not** are the clausal substitute.

(7) A : Do you think the *teacher is going to be absent* tomorrow ?

B : No, I don't think *so*

Here the **so** presupposes the whole of the clause *the teacher is going to be absent tomorrow,* and the contrastive environment is provided by the *says* which is outside.

1.3.3 Ellipsis

According to Cutting (2002:12) says that, ellipsis is typical feature of both spoken and written text, although it occurs more often in conversation because conversation tends to bless explicit. Meanwhile according to Halliday and Hasan (1976: 143), ellipsis can be regarded as substitution by zero. It is divided into three kinds, namely nominal ellipsis, verbal ellipsis, and clausal ellipsis.

1.3.3.1 Nominal Ellipsis

Nominal ellipsis means the ellipsis within the nominal group or the common noun that may be omitted and the function of head taken on by one of other elements (deictic, numerative, epithet or classifier). The deictic is normally a determiner, the numerative is a numeral or other quantifier, the epithet is an adjective and the classifier is a noun. According to Hassan and Halliday, this is more frequently a deictic or a numeral than epithet or classifier. The most characteristic instances of ellipsis, therefore are those with deictic or numerative as head.

(8) My sisters like sports, both love volleyball

In the second sentence " My sisters" is omitted

2.3.3.1.1 Deitic as a head

 a. **Specific Deitic**

The words function as deitic are mostly of the class determiner, they are possessive, demonstrative, and *the* articles. Look the example below :

(9) The father and the mother were so busy making money that two children were left to their own devices. Naturally both were resentful.

The example explain that word " the " in this sentence interpret as specific deitic.

b. **Non – Specific Deitic**

The non-specific deictics are *each, every, any, either, no, neither, a* and *some* as well as *both*. For example:

(10) Smith and Jones are on Holiday. I wonder if <u>either</u> has left an address.

(11) These <u>apples</u> are delicious. Let's by <u>some.</u>

 (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 158) In the second sentence of example (10), the word Smith and Jones are omitted and replaced by either. Hence in the second sentence of example (11), the phrase these apples is ommited and replaced by the word some. Hence, the full forms of those sentence are (10)Smith and Jones are on holiday. I wonder if either <u>Smith or Jones</u> has left an address. (11) These apples are delicious. Let's buy some <u>apples</u>.

 c. **Post deitic**

The word functioning as post-deitic elements in the nominal group are adjectives. There are thirty or forty adjectives used commonly in deitic function and a number of others used occasionally in this way; the frequent ones include *other, same, different, identical, usual, regular, certain, odd, famous, well-known, typical, obvious.* They combine with *the, a* or other determiner (the combination of *a + other* written and pronounced as one

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word *another*); and they may be followed by a numeral, unlike adjectives in their normal function as epithet which must follow any numerative element.

(12) I've used up <u>these three yellow</u> folders you gave me. Can I use the other?

Example (12) the word "other" is the post deitic, and combine with "the"

2.3.3.1.2 Numerative as Head

    a.   **Ordinals** are first, next, last, second,third,fourt,etc.

(13) Have another chocolate. – No, thanks; that was my third <u>chocolate.</u>

In example (13) the word "third" in the sentence indicate the ordinals

    b.   **Cardinal** are the three,those three, the same three,etc

(14) Have another chocolate. – No, thanks; I've had my three <u>chocolate</u>.

From this example (14) , numeral ditic is word " three".

    C. Indefinite Quantifier

The indefinite quantifiers are items such as *much, many, most, few, several, a little, lots, a bit, hundreds,* etc.

(15) Can all cats climb trees?– they all can; and <u>most </u>do.

The indefinite quantifier is "most" and cats as presupposes.

2.3.3.1.3 Epithets as Head

The function of epithet is typically fulfilled by an adjective that is superlative and comparative form.

    (1) Superlative Adjectives

The superlative adjective precedes other epithet and is usually accompanied by *the* or a possessive deictic. For example:

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(16) Apple are the cheapest in autumn.

(17) Apple are cheapest in autumn. (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 164).

In example (16) <u>the cheapest</u> is an elliptical group presupposing *fruit*. Example (17)is not elliptical. Fruit ellipted is as head and replaced by *the cheapest.*

(2) Comparative Adjective

Comparative adjective are inherently presupposing by reference,

(18) Mary is the cleverer

(19) Mary is cleverer

(Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 165). Example (18) is comparative ellipsis since it is presupposing by reference whereas (19) is not elliptical comparative.

2.3.3.2 Verbal Ellipsis

An elliptical verbal group presupposes one or more words from a previous verbal group. Technically, it is defined as a verbal group whose structure does not fully express its systematic features.

(20) Have you been swimming? – Yes, I have.

The verbal ellipsis is the answer. Have (in yes I have) stand for have been swimming , and there is no possibility to expand with any other items. In the verbal grou, there is only one lexical element, it is the verb it self.

1.5.1.1 Causal Ellipsis

Clausal ellipsis has modal element and propositional element. The modal element. The modal element has the subject plus the finite element in the verbal group, while propositional has the residue: the reminder of verbal group any complement or adjunct. (Halliday and Hasan 2013:196)

(21) Who is writing on the board ? B: Alice is.

From the answer, the modal element is omitted: the subject and the finite operator "is". The omitted of subject and finite is belong to clausal ellipsis

1.5.2 Conjunction

According to Osisanwo (cited by Aknipar, 2012:259) identifies types of conjunctions as coordinating, subordinating, compound adverb, and continuatives. Later, Halliday and Hasan (1976:241), as well as Martin and Rose (117), state that conjunction can be grouped into four categories that may occur both as internal and external conjunction. Internal conjunction is the system for organize discourse or text. And external conjunction is the system for linking events in activities sequenced.

These four categories of conjunction will be based on Halliday and Hasan (1976) who recognizes four types of conjunction. They are additive, Adversitve, Causal and Temporal. Additive is presented as involving new information, adversative is defined as contrary to expectations, causal involves both true causes and logical inferences, temporal concerns either real-time relationships or sequential relationship in a text.

Conjunctions	
Additive	*and, also, and… too, and… as well, nor, neither, not…, either, or, or else, nor, further, furthermore, in addition, besides, additionally, moreover, and another thing, add to this, alternatively, in other words, incidentally, by the way, that is to say, that is, I means, for example, thus, for instance, likewise, similarly, in the same way, on the other hand, by/in contrast, conversely.*
Adversative	*yet, though, only, but, nevertheless, however, despite this, all the same, in any case/event, in either case/event, any/either way, whichever, anyhow, at any rate, in any case, that may be, and, on the other hand, at the same time, as against that, in fact, as a*

	matter of fact, actually, to tell the truth, in point of fact, instead, rather, on the contrary, at least, rather, I mean.
Causal	*So, then, thus, therefore, hence, consequently, because of this, then, in that case, in such an event, under those circumstances, otherwise, under other circumstances, it follows, for this reason, arising out of this, to this end, for, because, in this respect, for, because, in regard to this, in other respects, apart from this.*
Temporal	*Then, next, afterwards, just then, at that moment, previously, before then, first, second, at first, in the end, finally, at last, eventually, at once, there upon, soon, presently, this time, next time, next day, 2 minutes later, meanwhile, all this time, by this time, up until then, next moment, secondly, next, in conclusion, up until now, hitherto, at this point, here, from now on, henceforth, to sum up, to resume.*
Continuatives	*now, of course, anyway, surely, after all.*

Table 3 : Types of Conjunction

2.3.4.1 Additive

Cohesion is established in a text when the words and, or, nor link one sentence to another and thus operate conjunctively. They are used as additive conjunctions to connect a succession of two sentences and add more information to what has been said. The conjunction relation are *and, nor,or, furthermore, moreover, by the way, alternatively, in addition, beside that, like, wise, similarly, on the other hand, by contrast, that is, in other word, for instance,thus,etc.*

(23) My little brother opens the refrigerator, and drinks a glass of milk.

"and" is the additive conjunction. This conjunction connects first and second sentences. In the first sentence my little brother opens the refrigerator, after opening it, he found a glass of milk, and then he drank it.

2.3.4.2 Adversative

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Contrary to expectation is the basic meaning of the adversative relation. The expectation may be drived from the content of what being said,or from the communication process, the speaker-hearer situation. The adeversative relation *are yet, but, however, nevertheless, at the same time, in fact, as a matter of the fact, instead, rather, at least, anyhow, in any case, which ever, etc*

(24) she failed however, she' tired her best.

However, in this sentence explains the first sentence, she failed. On the fact she'd tried her best, she still faled.

2.3.4.3 Causal

So, thus, consequently, accordingly, therefore, and a number of expression like *as a result (of that)*, because of that , in consequence (of that) are the causal relation. There are three specific relations ander the heading of causal relatins. They are 'result, reason, and purpose'. The simple form of expression such as means *as result, for this reason*, for this urpose. The example of causal conjunction as follow.

(25) You are not leaving, are you? <u>Because</u> I've got something to say to you.

2.3.4.4 Temporal

26. He stayed there for three years. Then he went on to New Zealand.

In (26), the temporal conjunctive link is established by means of the simplest form of the temporal conjunction then. It serves to create a sequence in time showing that one event happens after another. Other forms used in the same sequential sense can mean that two events happen simultaneously (at the same time, simultaneously) or that one of the events precedes another (earlier, before that, previously).

(27) The weather cleared just as the party approached the summit. Until then they had seen nothing of the panorama around them.

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Temporal expressions may have some additional components in their meanings to specify the relation of succession in time. For example, they may be used in the repetitive (next time, on this occasion) or durative (meanwhile, all this time) sense. Such forms belong to the complex temporal conjunction.

It is not only the sequence in time that can be established between two sentences to mark a temporal cohesive link. A number of conclusive expressions are used to mark the end of a process (finally, at last, as a final point, in conclusion)

(28) All this time the Guard was looking at her, first through a telescope, then through a microscope, and then through an opera glass. At last he said 'You're travelling the wrong way', and shut up the window and went away.

In (28), it is well illustrated that conclusive temporal relations occur with the sequential ones (first ... then, first ... second). These are labelled as correlative forms with first having acataphoric time expression and the other forms (next, then, second, finally) referring anaphorically to the presupposed sentence.

Halliday and Hasan (1976) define two more subclasses of temporal conjunction, here and now (up to now, at this point, here) and summary (to sum up, to resume, briefly) relations. The former kind of temporal relation refers to the present time in the content of communication, and thus it creates a cohesive effect. The latter one serves to indicate the end or culmination of what has been said.

2.4 Textbook

2.4.1 The Definition of Textbook

Textbook is a source of teaching and learning process at school. According to Graves(2000:175), the textbook is a course book which used by school as standard work for formal study of particular subject and a tool for teaching and learning. In addition, textbook is

a printed and bound artifact for each year or course of study, it contains facts and ideas around a certain subject which written by some authors.

Chambliss & Calfee citied by Mahmood (2011) state that textbooks are considered a the heart of rducational activities, as they provide students " a rich array of a new and potentially interesting facts and open the door to a world of fantastic experience".

In conclusion, textbook is important role in education system, it contains some pictures, reading texts, tests, and materials that helps the students and teachers to achieve effective teching and learning activity. And consist of various components, such as the material, primarily for exams. The textbook also contain information, thus inspiring the student to explore the subject to add more knowledge.

2.5 The Roles of Textbook

There are some role of textbook that influence the education system. According to Seguin (1989:18), textbook has the three roles.

1. An information role, implying:

(1) Presentation of a selection of items of knowledge about a specific subject and on a specific theme, taking into account that the acquisitionof knowledge should be progressive and sequenced according to succeeding years of scholarity and bearing in mind thatcurricula must not be overloaded; (2)Filtering of items of information in order to synthesize them, sometimes simplify them and render them accessible and clear for pupilsat the level concerned.

The textbook offers information and knowledge, but often within a certain ideological perspective: the relative importance of science and technology; aconception of history; established linguistic norms. The way it is conceived can determine what information is contained in a textbook and make it seem unsuitablein certain historical situations or for certain socio-economic or cultural objectives defined by development policy.

2. A role of structuring and organizing learning

The textbook suggests a progression in the learning process organized insuccessive blocks of teaching units. It offers several possibilities for the organization of learning:

(1) from practical experience to theory; (2)from theory to practical exercises with assessment of what has been learned; (3) from practical exercises to theoretical elaboration; (4)from statements to examples and illustration; (5)from examples and illustrations to observation and analysis.

3. A role of guiding learning

To guide the pupil in his perception and comprehension of the outside world, in putting together knowledge acquired from sources other than the curriculum, inmastering what he has learned. There are two alternatives, either of which can be used to guide the learning process:

(1)repetition, memorisation, copying models; (2) more open and creative activities where the pupil can make use of his own experiences and observations.

According to the subject, progress can be:: (a)more constraining for subjects like mathematics, science, reading,foreign languages: (b) less constraining for literary texts, geography, history (chronologicalorder). According to its pedagogical conception, and depending upon the learning objectives, the textbook can comply with:

(a) a more "interventionist" instruction for the transmission of knowledge;this highlights the constraining influence of the textbook on teaching and learning;(b)a more open instruction, facilitating the pupil's development of aptitudes for observation, reflection and a certain autonomy in his learning activities. For this type of instruction the teacher will need good professional training. The textbook often expresses a specific perception of communication and child-adult and pupil-teacher relationships.

2.6 Relevance research

The researcher gets the idea in writing this research based on the literary books which are relevant to the topic in order to understand the topic and get the information. Because of that, the researcher is able to complete the review of related literature of this research. Not only literary books which are used by the researcher, but also some of relevant research from Cherly Widya Novitson, Tahnia Dwi Sari, and Ida Ika Syafitri.

1. Cherly Widya Novitson (2014) entitled "An Analysis of Cohesve Devices of Headline News in the Jakarta Post" the objective of this research was to find out the types of grammaticaland lexical cohesive devices and the highest occurrence in the newspaper of Jakarta post.

2. Tahnia Dwi Sari (2015) entitled "An Analysis of English Cohesion of Editorial Board in The New York Times". The purpose of this her research is to find out these types of cohesive devices of each indicators and the semantic concepts of each types in the New York Times, every Monday on May, June, and July 2015. The result was found there were 456 signals of cohesive devices. And the most prominent type is conjunction 41,23 %.

3. Ida Ika Syafitri (2017) entitled "An Analysis of Cohesive Devices in Reading Texts ". The objective of her research there were two kinds of cohesive devices in the reading texts such as grammatical and lexical cohesion. They were 137 reference items and 109 conjunctions items as grammatical cohesion and 132 reiteration items as lexical cohesion that used in seven discussion reading texts page 78-122 of Look ahead English textbook.

It is known that some researher onducted their researches on the same topic. In fact, they have different data because they conducted on different object of data. But most of them conducted the research on written data of newspaper.
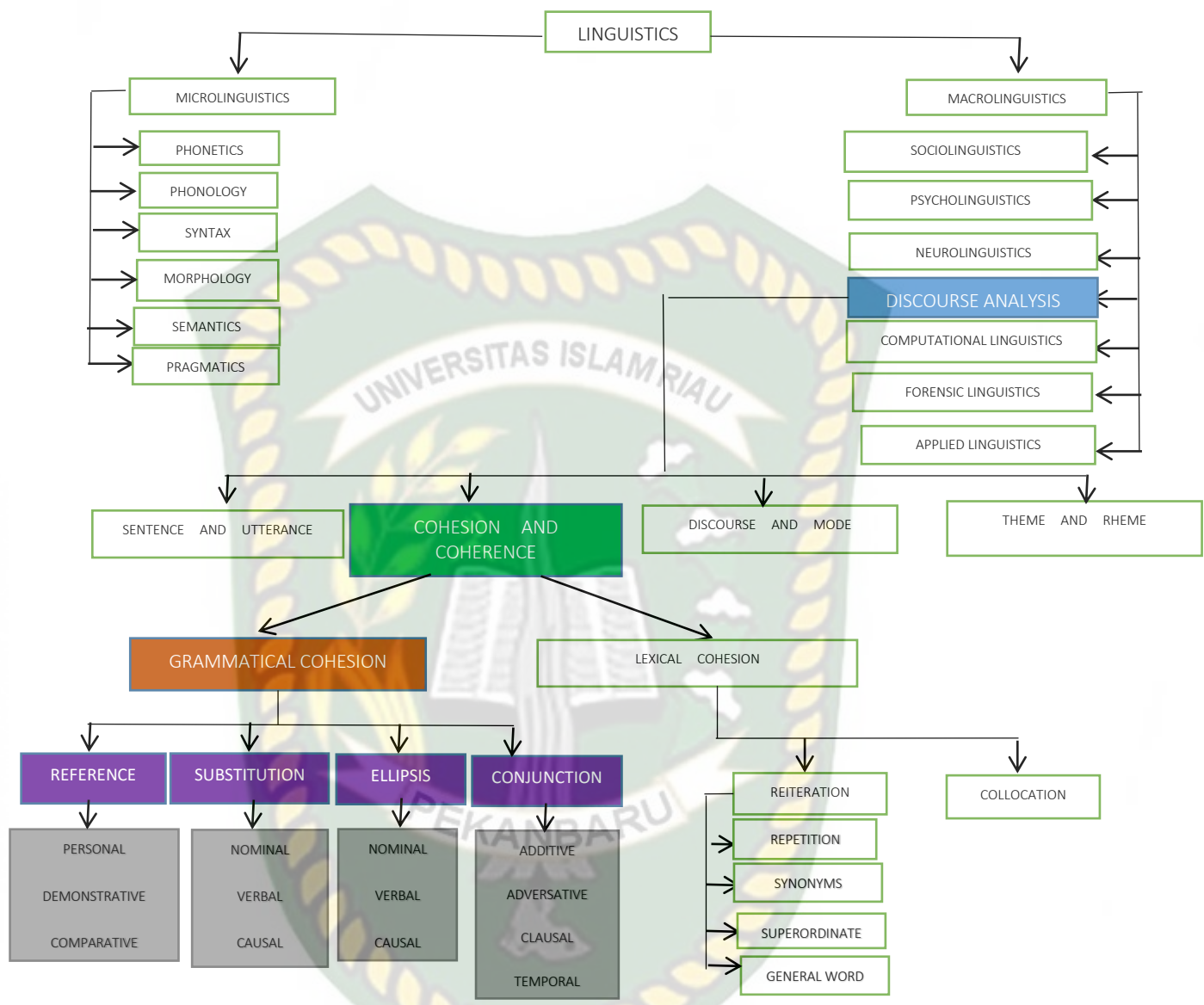
In this research, the researcher chooses to analyze the same topic, that is, cohesive devices. But the researcher chooses different object, it is Reading Texts of Look Ahead of English Textbook .

2.7 The Scope of Discourse Analysis

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