

CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Definition of Discourse

There are three things in terms of discourse, namely the text, context, and discourse (Schiffrin, et al, 2001). Text is all forms of language not just the words printed on sheets of paper but also all kinds of expressions of communication, speech, music, pictures, sound effects, images, and so on. Context includes all situations and things that are beyond the text and influence the use of language, such as participants in the language, situations where the text is produced. The discourse here, then interpreted as text and context together. Based on the Schiffrin explanation, it concluded that the term of discourse close related with text which produce words that print on paper or may be kind of expression like music, picture also formal or informal speech. Then it is influent by the context includes situation where the words produce or what is the purpose of the words produce.

According to the James (1999), 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. Tarigan (2009: 20) states that discourse is a unit of language that the highest or most comprehensive and largest on the sentence or clause with a high coherence and cohesion and sustainable, has a real beginning and end, delivered orally or in writing. However, the use and understanding of discourse in communication require different tools and it is quite a lot. Therefore, the study of discourse becomes mandatory in the process of language learning.

Based on the James theory, discourse is a text in language that can be used in speech and writing, because speech and writing is a skill that need a productivity by a person individually. In writing like articles, textbook, poem, journal, magazine, newspaper, advertisement, and procedure, novel and so on. In speech, it can be in states formal speech, speech for religion, informal speech, speech in seminar and others. Then, discourse usually used to see the part of language which is connected each other in sentences. While based on the Tarigan's theory above, discourse is a text that highest quality of sentences, it based on standardization of writing. It complete all aspects although informal situation. Then in the sentences usually have clauses to make a text more difficult to understand, a word connect each word to give an understanding meaning and it is collect into a text. The purpose is to complete the language to understand and use the language properly and correctly. In the point discourse is a text can use formal or informal situation which is have pattern, structure and reality context.

Discourse analysis is a rapidly growing and evolving field (Schiffrin, et al, 2001). Current research in this field now is flows from numerous academic disciplines that are very different from one another. Included, of course, are the disciplines in which models for understanding, and methods for analyzing, discourse first developed, such as linguistics, anthropology, and philosophy. But also included are disciplines that have applied – and thus often extended – such models and methods to problems within their own academic domains, such as communication, cognitive psychology, social psychology, and artificial intelligence.

Based on the theory above, it is clear that discourse is very developed in this field and having own method for understanding and for analyzing. The developed can be seen in linguistic that are very close in so many discipline fields. For example in writing journal or formal letter importance for nation, it is needed to be perfect and formal using formal pattern and structure. There are so many researches that using discourse analysis, furthermore in communication field, social, and psychology. It is very connected with this discipline field because related with language.

According to McCarthy (2000: 5) discourse analysis is concerned with study of relationship between language and the context in which it is used including linguistics, semiotics, psychology, anthropology and sociology. Then Baker (2012) discourse analysis study language in use: written text of all kinds, and spoken data, from conversation to highly institutionalized forms of talk. Schifrin, et. al (2001) discourse analysis is thus fundamentally concerned with the relationship between language and the contexts of its use. And concerned with our all verbal encounters we daily consume hundreds of written and printed words: newspaper, articles, letters, stories, recipes, instruction and so on.

Followed cutting theory, McCarthy also explains about the relation between language and its context. Discourse and linguistic is a unit which is very closes each other, like in psychology field discourse analysis included a way to analyze the real term like cognitive psychology or social psychology. While Baker and Schifrin explain that discourse analysis link to spoken or written data that having rules when its produce like formal context. Also it's related with what

happened in the reality like reading newspaper, watching news and listening a speech.

According to Cutting discourse is a general term for examples of language use, language which has been produced as the result of an act of communication. Whereas grammar refers to the rules a language uses to form grammatical unit such as clause, phrase, and sentence, discourse refers to larger units of language such as paragraph, conversations, and interviews. Sometimes the study of both written and spoken discourse is known as discourse analysis. Discourse analysis is the study of how sentence in spoken and written language form larger meaningful units such as paragraphs, conversations, interviews. For example, discourse analysis deals with: How the choice of articles, pronouns, and tenses affects the structure of discourse, the relationship between utterances in a discourse, the moves made by speakers to introduce a new topic, change the topic, or assert a higher role relationship to the other participants.

From the explanation above, the point is about how the discourse produces. It produces by a word to words so phrases to sentence and to a text. Then it should notice to the grammatical unit which is making the text larger than what it expected. It is not only for a written, it is either too spoken, for example in a formal seminar, need to notice the move of the word to word by speaker and the response by the participants. The point is how to make the language suitable with the social environment context.

Based on M. Stubbs (1983:1) cited by Cherly, in which discourse analysis is defined as concerned with language use beyond the boundaries of a

sentence/utterance, concerned with the interrelationships between language and society and as concerned with the interactive or dialogic properties of everyday communication. According to Crystal (2003) Discourse is characterized by continuity of information. The meaning of sustainability is defined as unity of meaning. Important elements in the discourse is like a language unit, complete, address the sentence or clause, regular or compact, sustainable, cohesion, oral or written, the beginning and end of the real. We can conclude from the definition above that discourse analysis deals with everything that has something to do with a set of language or communication activities, either spoken or written that build a set of certain meaning based on its.

From the explanations above discourse related with form and meaning, so cohesion and coherence is a crucial factors for the comprehensively in the discourse. To comprehend the discourse, necessary knowledge and mastery of good cohesion as well, which is not only dependent on our knowledge thus only the rules of the language, but also to the reasoning. It can say that discourse is cohesive if there is suitability as a form of language on context (the situation in the language; as opposed to the context or situation beyond language). In other words, non-conformity with the forms of language context will produce a text that does not cohesion. It can be concluded that discourse lies higher than the level of sentence grammar on a scale of grammar and logical mind has regularity (coherence) and also a link (cohesion) in its structure.

2.2 Definition of Cohesion

The term cohesive has been defined in various ways. Some researchers apply the term cohesion to the surface structure of the text. Cohesion has been described as the linguistic means by which a text functions as a single unit. Cohesion in text or discourse has to do with how actual texts are held together lexically and grammatically (Halliday and Hasan). Cohesion defined as the way certain words or grammatical features of a sentence can connect that sentence to its predecessors (and successors) in a text (Hoey 1991).

In other words, cohesion concerns how words in a text are related or relations of meaning that exist within a text. Cohesion sometimes applied to smaller units of language in the text. Other researchers have defined cohesion as continuity in words and sentence structure. Then created a text by sentences and paragraph, it needs a connector between sentence that's why cohesion as a connector to connected sentence to sentence or paragraph to paragraph. Cohesion is formal aspect in discourse or text. Accordingly, it is clear that cohesion is a syntactic organization, composition of organization that arranged unity and solid to show the spoken or written words.

Halliday and Hasan (1976) state that the concept of cohesion is the semantic one; it refers to relations of meaning that exist within the text, and that define it as a text. Like other semantic relation, cohesion is expressed through the strata organization of language. Language can be explained as a multiple coding system comprising three levels of coding, or 'strata': the semantic (meanings), the lexicogrammatical (forms) and the phonological and orthographic (expressions).

It means that cohesion defined as a links that hold a text together and give it meaning. The general meaning of cohesion is embodied in the concept of text.

Cohesive relations fit into the same overall pattern. Cohesion is expressed partly the grammar and partly through the vocabulary. We can refer therefore to grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion. Renkema (1993: 40) give more explanation about cohesion with states that cohesion is the connections which result when the interpretation of textual element is dependent on another element in the text. This means that no part of text which does not have relationship with other parts and it occurs because of help of cohesive devices.

The point is cohesion includes to formal aspect of language in discourse. This means that cohesion is a 'syntactic organization'. Syntactic organization is an organization that arranged in coherent sentences and too dense or intimate. With this arrangement, the organization is to produce speech. This means that cohesion is the relationship between sentences in a discourse, both in terms of level of grammatical and lexical levels of certain terms. With the mastery of knowledge and a good cohesion a writer will be able to produce a good discourse.

Halliday and Hassan (1976) consider that the meaning of cohesion of the two angles, namely grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion. Both types of cohesion are contained in a unified text. It also shows the fabric of cohesion speech in the form of sentences to form a text or a context by connecting the meaning contained within the element. Besides, Halliday and Hasan note that

cohesion occurs where the interpretation of some elements in the discourse is dependent on that of another. Certain linguistic devices that are used in relating different parts of a text to one another are called *cohesive devices*. Every language in the world possesses so many of these devices that help to link different parts of a text together to form a unified whole.

Brown (1983) points out that “cohesion can be seen as present in the semantic and grammatical resources of the language. Likewise, Halliday and Hasan (1976) have argued that “texts achieve their status as communicative events through the use of cohesive devices.” They point out further that a text may be defined as a unit, which is bound together by various types of cohesive devices. A text, according to them, is realized by or encoded in sentences. Spoken and written discourse display grammatical connections between individual clauses and utterances. For our purposes, these grammatical links can be classified under three broad types: reference, ellipsis/substitutional and conjunction (Brown and Yule 1983).

From the information above, cohesion serves to relate individual statement to be understood logically and chronologically as a discourse or text. The elements in the discourse or text are related one another. Furthermore it can also state that cohesion expresses the relation and the continuity that exist between one part of the text and another. Cohesion also has a function as a tie to link one sentence to another. This relationship has function to convey meaning from the speaker’s mind, idea, or thought arranged to make readers easier to understand it.

The concept from Baker stated “cohesion as a network of lexical, grammatical and other relations which Provides links between various parts of text. From this statement, it can make a conclusion that cohesion helps to create a text and thus it is the text forming component of linguistic system; its resources for text construction, the range of meanings that are specifically associated with relating what is being spoken or written to its semantic environment. Thus, cohesion doesn’t concern about what a text means, it concerns how the text is constructed as a semantic building.

2.3 Grammatical Cohesion

Grammatical cohesion is expressed through grammar. According to Halliday and Hassan, there are four types of grammatical cohesion; reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction.

2.3.1 Reference

Reference concerns the relation between a discourse or text element and preceding or following element. Reference deals with a semantic relationship. There are certain items in every language which have property of refernce. Halliday and Hassan have special term for situational reference. They refer to as expohora, or exphoric reference, and they contrast it with endhoporic as general term of reference within the text.

As general rule, reference items may be exophoric or endophoric, and if endophoric, they may be anaphoric or cataphoric. Exophora signal that reference must be made to the context or situation. This exophora (situational) therefore

does not contribute to the cohesion within a text because it is contextual reference.

While endhopora is textual reference, it is an internal cohesion within a text.

Referential cohesion plays a special role in creating cohesive ties between the elements that can be difficult or even impossible to interpret if a single sentence is taken out of context (Nunan 1993: 21).

We can summarise reference with a diagram to make it easier to grasp:

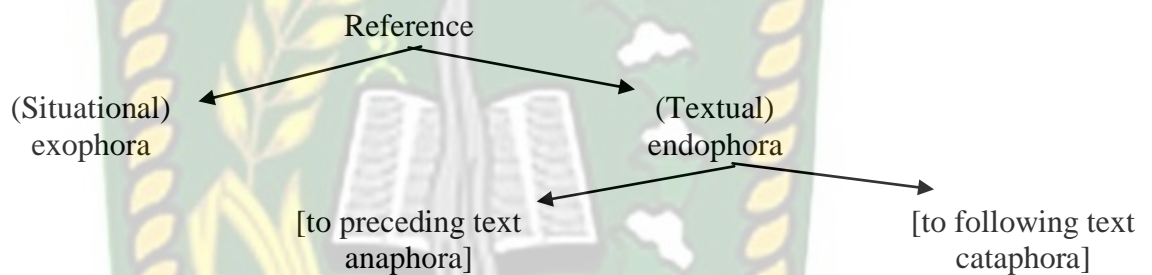


Figure 1. Kinds of Reference (Halliday and Hassan, 1976: 33)

The type of cohesion which we are calling reference is specific nature of information that is signalled 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 thing that is being referred to: and the cohesion lies in the continuity of reference. What is essential to every instance of reference whether endophoric (textual) or exophoric (situational) is that there is a presupposition that must be satisfied; the thing referred to has to be identifiable somehow. A high degree of exophoric reference is one characteristic of the language of the children's peer

group. When children interact with each other, especially young children, they do so through constant reference to things: and since the things which serve as reference points are present in the immediate environment they are typically referred to exophorically. Exophoric reference is one form of context-dependence, since without the context we cannot interpret what is said.

1) Endophoric Reference

Endophora is a reference where their interpretation lies within a text. Endophoric reference consists of Anaphora and Cataphora reference.

(a). Anaphora

Anaphora reference is a reference, which refers back to the preceding text for its interpretation. The example of anaphora shows in this sentence.

Wash and core six cooking apples. Put them into a fireproof dish.

The word “them” defines the word “six cooking apples” that has been mentioned in the preceding sentence. The word “them” refers back to the word “six cooking apples”.

(1) <i>Look at the sun. It's going down quickly. (It refers back to the sun.)</i>

(2) <i>It's going down quickly, the sun. (It refers forwards to the sun.)</i>

(b). Cataphora

Cataphora reference is a reference, which looks forward in the text for its interpretation. The example of cataphora is show below:

He gives beautiful flower to Mary, John....

The word “he” which lies forward after refers to the word “John”. The word “he” refers to a personal reference.

2). Personal Reference

Personal reference is reference by means of function in the speech situation, through the category of person. Other word, personal pronouns are words that can be substituted for nouns. Reference by means of function in the speech situation, through the category of person. If the pronoun refers back to something, it is called anaphoric; if the pronoun refers to something coming later, it is called cataphoric. The category personal includes the three classes of personal pronouns, possessive adjectives, and possessive pronouns. An example of personal reference is show as follows:

The prime minister has resigned. *He* announced *his* decision this morning.

The word “he” and “his” are included in possessive objective refers to the word “The prime minister”. The word “he” and “his” are personal reference.

a) Cathy is the new student from Australia.

b) She sits next to me.

In the second sentence, she refers Cathy to in the preceding sentence. The word she is personal reference. It is called pronoun of the third person singular which is grammatically function as a head.

Table 1. Personal Reference (Halliday and Hassan, 1976: 38)

Person	Personal Pronouns	Possesive Adjective	Possesive Pronouns
Speaker (only)	I, Me	My	Mine
Addressee(s),with/without,	You	Your	Yours
Speaker and other person	We, us	Our	Ours
Other person, male	He, him	His	His
Other person, female	She, her	Her	Hers
Other person, object	They, them	Their	Theirs
Object, passage of text	It	Its	Its

3). Demonstrative Reference

Demonstrative reference is reference by means of location, on a scale of proximity. The example of demonstrative show in this sentence. In the case of demonstrative, the words this, these, that, those, here, now, there, the, and then are used. Halliday and Hasan add this, these, and here imply proximity to the speaker; that, those, and there imply distance from the speaker. The use of demonstrative reference is shown in the example below:

I always drink a lot of beer when I am in England. There are many lovely pubs *there*.

The word “there” refers back to the word “in England”. The word “in England” belongs to the demonstrative reference.

a) There seems to have been a great deal of sheer carelessness. This is what I can't understand.

b) There seems to have been a great deal of sheer carelessness.

Yes, that what I can't understand.

The basic sense of this is one of proximity; this refers to something as being near that refers to something as being not near. The 'that' term tends to be more inclusive, though the two are more evenly balanced in English than their equivalents in some other languages. Proximity is typically from the point of view of the speaker, so this means 'near me'.

Table 2. Demonstrative Reference (Halliday and Hassan, 1976: 38)

Grammatical classes	Determiner	Adverb
Near	This, these	Here (now)
Far	That, those	There, then

4). Comparative Reference

Comparative reference is indirect reference by means of identity or similarity. Comparative reference is divided into general comparison and particular comparison. It tells the reader not just to look elsewhere for information, but to look elsewhere with a particular aim in mind; to compare the items that are being linked.

General comparison express likeness and unlikeness between two things which may be the same or different while particular comparison express comparability between thing in respect of quantity or quality. The example of comparative reference is as follow.

- a) A similar view is not acceptable.
- b) We did the same.
- c) So they said.

The word “similar”, “the same” and “so” are general comparison of the grammatical classes of adjective. The word “similar”, “the same” and “so” are belongs to the comparative reference.

Table 3. Comparative Reference (Halliday and Hassan, 976:39)

Grammatical Classes	Adjective	Adverb
General;	Some, equal, identical ,Similar,	Identically
Identity Similarity	additional Other, different, else	Similarly, likewise
Difference		Differently, otherwise
Particular	Between, more, etc	So, more, less,

There are two types of comparison;

a) General Comparison

It expresses likeness between things. The likeness takes the forms of identity, where two things are, in fact, the same thing or of similarity where two things are like each other. For example:

(1) It's the same cat as the one we saw yesterday.

(the word "same" shows the cat that they saw in the previous day)

(2) Its different cat from the one we saw yesterday.

(the word "different" shows that the cat is not the one they saw in the previous day)

b) Particular Comparison

Here comparison is made on the scale of quantity or quality it is a matter of degree compare things on this scale.

(1) In terms of quantity, it is expressed in the numerative element in the structure of the nominal group, either by:

(a) Comparative quantifier

e.g. more mistakes in: Your paper still has more mistakes than ours.

(b) Adverb comparison submodifying a quantifier

e.g. as in: as many mistakes.

(2) In terms of quality, it is expressed in:

(a) The Epithet element in the nominal group, either by:

1.1. Comparative adjective

e.g. easier in: Tony comes easier than usual.

1.2. Adverb of comparison submodifying an adjective

e.g. difficult in: This exercise is so difficult.

(b) Adjunct in the clause, either by:

1.1. Comparative adverb eg: faster in: He runs faster.

1.2. Adverb of comparison submodifying an adverb

e.g. as sweetly in: She sang as sweetly

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.

2.3.2 Substitution

Sometimes, a writer mentions the same world in his/her writing. It can make the result of his/her writing not is accurate. The distinction between substitution and reference is that substitution is a relation in the wording rather than in the meaning. Substitution is the replacement of one item by another. Substitution tends to be endophoric: the noun phrase being substituted is usually in the text. Moreover, Renkema (2004) explains that substitution is the

replacement of a word (group) or sentence segment by a “dummy” word. Dummy word here is another word that still has the same meaning. This means there is no omitted within the text but the writer changes it with another word which has relation to previously. A substitution is relation between linguistic items like words or phrases. In other word, substitution is relation in the word rather than meaning. In English, substitution may function as a noun, as a verb, or as clause.

1). Nominal Substitutions

(a). Nominal Substitution “one/ones”.

The substitution “one/ones” always function as a head of a nominal group and can be substitute only for an item, which is it, head of nominal group. In other word, the substitutions one/ones presupposed some nouns that are to function as head nominal group. The example of nominal substitution show in the sentence below:

Let's go and see the bears. The polar ones are over on that rock.

The use of “ones” as substitute especially exclude the defining modifier “the polar”, “ones” replace “the bears”. The word “ones” is belongs to the nominal substitution.

There are some new tennis balls in the bag. These ones have lost their bounce.

The underlined word in the second sentence above, that is one, is the substitution of tennis ball in the preceding sentence. And so, the word one in the second sentence illustrates cohesion based on substitution.

(b) Nominal Substitution “Same”

Same typically accompanied by “the” presuppose an entire nominal group. For example: A: “I’ll have two poached eggs on toast, please.” B: “I’ll have the same.” (“same” substitutes two poached eggs on toast) Note: “the same” can have following expressions as:

- (1) Say the same
- (2) Do the same
- (3) Be the same

2). Verbal Substitutions

The verbal substitution is “do” which operate as a head of verbal group. In the verbal group, it is “do”, with the morphological scatter “do”, “does”, “did”, “doing”, “done”. The substitution “do” may substitute either for a verb or for a verb plus certain other elements in the clause. The example of verbal substitution is as follow.

Did Mary take that letter? She might have done.

If the question “did Mary take that letter?” is changed into a sentence, it will become “Mary take that letter?”. So the word “did” substitute really means it.

3). Clausal Substitutions

In clausal substitution, what is presupposed is not an element within the clause but an entire clause. The sentences below show the use of clausal substitution.

The children work very hard in the garden. They must do so.

The word “so” substitute the preceding clause “work very hard in the garden”. The word “so” is belongs to the clausal substitution.

Table 5. Types of Substitution

Nominal substitution	Verbal substitution	Clausal substitution
<i>There are some new tennis balls in the bag. These <u>ones</u> have lost their bounce.</i>	<i>A: Annie says you <u>drink too much</u>. B: So <u>do</u> you</i>	<i>A: Is it <u>going to train</u>? B: I think <u>so</u>.</i>

According to the three types of substitution, the substitutes may function as a noun, as a verb, or as a clause. The substitute ”ones”, do and so in Table 5 replace expressions of the preceding text and can be interpreted in relation to what has been said before (anaphorically). The nominal substitutes one and ones function as head in the nominal group. They can substitute only for an item that is itself head of a nominal group. The nominal substitute ones is plural and thus differs from the singular substituted item in number. It is worth noting that mass nouns cannot be substituted by one or ones. Halliday and Hasan (1976: 92) define this form of substitution as substitution by zero (ellipsis)

2.3.3 Ellipsis

Ellipsis is the omission of an item in order to avoid repetition. Ellipsis is simply substitution by zero. It means that it is something left unsaid, or there is nothing to be insert into the slot. But is still can be understood by the reader because already stated or expressed. It shows that the words in a text have relation. Moreover, another researcher also gives the explanation about ellipsis. James (1999) state that ellipsis is used to replace words omitted from the middle of a quoted sentence. It means that the word which omitted is replaced by the words that still have relation with the topic before. The ellipsis also used to avoid the repetition. Ellipsis divided into nominal, verbal, and clausal.

1). Nominal Clausal

Nominal ellipsis means ellipsis with the nominal group. The structure of the nominal groups is that of optional modification.

(a). Dietic is a determiner which consist of:

(1). Specific dietic: possessive, demonstrative, and *the*

(2). Non-Specific dietic: *each, every, any, either, no, a, neither, and some.*

(3). Post dietic: *other, some, different, identical, usual, regular, certain, odd, famous, well-know, typical, obvious.*

(b). Numerative is expressed by numeral which consists of:

(1). Ordinal: *first, next, last, second, third, fourth, etc.*

(2). Cardinal: *the three, those three, the same three, etc*

(3). indefinite quantifier: *much, many, more, most, few, several, a little, lots, a bit etc.*

2). Verbal Clausal

Verbal ellipsis means ellipsis within the verbal group. It presupposed one or more words from the preceding verbal group. The example of the use of verbal is as a follow.

Who will put down five pounds? –I will. (Halliday and Hassan, 1976: 180)

The answer “I will” can be interpret “I will put down five pounds”. The word “I will” is belongs to the verbal clausal.

3). Clausal Ellipsis

Clausal ellipsis has modal element and propositional 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 and any complement or adjunct. The example of clausal is show in the dialogue below.

A: “what was the Duck going to do?”

B: “plan a row of popular in the park”.

From the answer, the modal element is omitted: the subject and the finite operator “was”. The omitted of subject and finite is belongs to the clausal ellipsis.

Both substitution and ellipsis can only be used when there is no ambiguity as to what is being substituted or ellipted. If there is more than one possibility, the result can be confusion.

2.3.4 Conjunctions

Conjunction expresses certain meaning which presupposed the presence of other component in the discourse. Conjunction is the marker that used in order to describe the relation between clauses and demonstrate a meaningful relationship between them .Conjunction deal with different types of semantic relation, one which is no longer any kind of search instruction, but a specification of the way in which to flow is systematically connected to what has gone before. Conjunction classified into four categories:

1). Additive

Additive means a sentence equal a clausal complex, that is any set of clauses that are related, with the simple clause as a limiting case. 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.*

2). Adversative

Adversative means a relation is contrary to expectation. The adversative relations 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.

3). Causal

Causal relation includes the specific relation of result, reason, or purpose. The causal relation are *so, therefore, because, for this reason, as a result, then, otherwise, in that case, here, in such an event, etc.*

4). Temporal

Temporal is the relation between two successive sentence and it may be made more specific by the presence of an additional component in the meaning. The temporal relation are *then, next, before the, at the same time, at once, after a time, next day/moment, on this occasion, meanwhile, finally, at last, in the end, first...Then/next, at first...finally, up to now, at this point, henceforward, to sum up, in short, anyway, to resume etc.*

Finally, it should be noted that the use of grammatical cohesion varies from genre to genre. It is much less likely to occur in texts which strive to be completely unambiguous, such as legal texts, or some kind instruction texts.

2.4 Lexical Cohesion

Halliday and Hassan (1976: 274) state that: "This (lexical cohesion) is the cohesive effect achieved by the selection of vocabulary ". Thus, lexical cohesion is the bond of cohesion which emerges in the discourse because of word choice. Ties of lexical cohesion is more difficult to identify with immediately because of the lexical system of language is open.

Meanwhile, the grammatical system is closed, so the bond cohesion grammatical elements visible more real and consistent.

Therefore, the most important things that must be considered in the analysis of lexical cohesion ties are with what Halliday and Hassan's called common sense and level of mastery of vocabulary. Lexical cohesion is achieved by the selection of vocabulary. Renkema (1993) gives more explanation that lexical cohesion does not deal with grammatical and semantic connections but with connections based on the words used. It means that lexical cohesion refers to relation the words in a text.

Lexical elements that form the bonds of cohesion discourse usually expressed through the relationship itself. In this case, Halliday and Hassan call relatedness of the lexical items. Level is a stronger claim that the lexical elements in question form a bond of cohesion. Lexical cohesion does not deal with grammatical and semantic connections but with connections based on the words used in the text. lexical cohesion occurs when two words in a text are semantically related in some way in other words; they are related in terms of their meaning. Halliday and Hassan (1976:275) propose two kinds of lexical cohesion: reiteration and collocation.

The examples of the using of repetition, synonym, super ordinate, and general word are presents below.

There is a boy climbing the tree.

- a. The boy going to fall if he doesn't take care.

- b. The lad going to fall if he doesn't take care.
- c. The child going to fall if he doesn't take care.
- d. The idiot going to fall if he doesn't take care.

From the sample above, the word boy in (a) is repeated, the word "lad" in (b) is synonym of "boy", the word "child" is super ordinate, the word "idiot" is general word.

2.4.1 Reiteration

Reiteration is a form of lexical cohesion which involves the repetition of a lexical item, at one end of scale; the use of a general word to refer back to a lexical item, at the other end of the scale; and a number of things in between the use of a synonym, near-synonym, or super ordinate (Halliday and Hassan, 1976:278). So, repetition includes synonym too. It can also occur through the use of a word that is systematically linked to previous one, for example, *near* and *far*. Based on the definition above, reiteration can be divided into four types: (1) repetition, (2) synonym, (3) super ordinate, and (4) general word. A reiterated item may be a repetition, a synonym, a super ordinate, or a general word; and in most cases it is accompanied by a reference item, typically *the*.

This is the discussion about each type of reiteration and each type will be accompanied by an example taken from Nunan (1993), McCarthy (1991), Halliday and Hasan (1976).

1) Repetition

Repetition is an act of stating and rewriting an item in the preceding element in an exactly the same form and meaning in the following element. The sentences below show the use of repetition.

”What we lack in a *newspaper* is what we should get. In a word, a popular *newspaper* may be the winning ticket.”

In this example, the word “newspaper” is repeated exactly in the second sentence. *Newspaper* refers back to *newspaper*.

2) Synonym

This part of reiteration synonyms are two or more forms; with very closely relate meanings, which are often but not always intersubstitutable in sentence. The sentences below are the example of synonym.

You could try reversing the car up the *slope*. The *incline* isn’t all that steep.

From the example above, the word “slope” is changed into the word “incline”. It is important to be noted that the idea of “sameness of meaning” used in discussing synonyms is not necessarily “total sameness”. This sentence shows “total sameness”.

Karen had only one correct *answer* on the test.

The word “answer” in the sentence above will be sound odd if it is substituted by the word “reply” although *reply* is the synonym of *answer*.

3) Super ordinate

Super ordinate is a name for a more general class. It is almost the same as general word; the difference is just in the sense of generality. The example of super ordinate is presented below.

The candle-light glittered on the luster-glasses, on the two vases that held some of the pink chrusanthemums, and on the dark mahogany. There was a cold, deathly smell of chrysanthemums in the room. Elizabeth stood looking at flowers.

There is repetition of ‘chrysanthemums’, but then they are referred to with the words ‘the flowers’. This not a synonym of ‘chrysanthemums’; it is a more general term is known as a superordinate., an umbrella includes ‘pansies’, ‘tulips’, ‘roses’, etc. (Cutting 2002)

4) General Word

General word is a general class of words. The dialogue below shows the example of general word.

A: Did you try the steamed buns?

B: Yes, I didn’t like the things much.

According to the dialogue above, the word “things” is a general class word of the word “steamed buns”.

2.4.2 Collocation

Collocation is another kind of lexical cohesion. Collocation is the way words combine in language to produce natural-sounding speech and writing. For

example, in English you say *strong wind* but *heavy rain*. It would not be normal to say **heavy wind* or **strong rain*. It is achieved through the association of lexical items that regularly co-occur. In other word, it deals with the relationship between words on the basis of the fact that these often occur in the same surrounding. These following items are examples of lexical collocation because they are all belong to scientific field of biology:

*plants...synthesize...organic...inorganic...green,plants...energy...
sunlight...green,pigment...chlorophyll...photosynthesis...light...synthesis...self
feeding...autotrophic.* (Nunan, 1993:29).

Combination of words in a language can be ranged on a cline from the totally free *-see a man/car/book-* to the totally fixed and idiomatic *-not see the wood for the trees*. This idiom is not only fixed in form, it also has nothing whatever to do with wood or trees. Between this two extremes, there is a whole range of noun that take the verb *see* in a way that neither totally predictable nor totally opaque as to meaning. These run from the fairly ‘weak’ collocation *see a film* through the medium strength ‘*see a doctor*’ to the ‘stronger’ collocations of *see danger/reason/the point*. All these combinations, apart from those at the very extremes of the cline, can be called collocation.

Kennedy (cited by Cherly 2014) states that collocation tendency of some words to co-occur together. Collocates can be words used in the same context or it can be words that contribute to the same area meaning. Collocation runs through the whole of the English language. No piece of natural spoken or written English

is totally free of collocation. For the student, choosing the right collocation will make his speech or writing sound much more natural, more native speaker like. The precise meaning in any context is determined by that context: by the words that surround and combine with the core word by collocation. A student who chooses the best collocation will express himself much more clearly and be able to convey not just a general meaning, but something quite precise.

The full of range of collocation', as well as implying collocations of different strengths, also covers all the following types of combination:

1. Adjective + noun : *bright/harsh/intense/strong light*
2. Quantifier + noun : *a beam/ray of light*
3. Verb + noun : *cast/emit/give/provide/shed light*
4. Noun + verb : *light gleams/glows/shines*
5. Noun + noun : *a light source*
6. Preposition + noun : *by the light of the moon*
7. Noun + preposition : *the light from the window*
8. Adverb + verb : *choose carefully*
9. Verb + verb : *be free to choose*
10. Verb + preposition : *choose between two things*
11. Verb + adjective : *make/keep/declare safe*
12. Adverb + adjective : *perfectly/not entirely/environmentally safe*
13. Adjective + preposition : *safe from attack*

Collocation includes not only synonym or near-synonym and super ordinate, but also complementary, antonyms, converses, words drawn from

the same ordered series, relations between part and whole, and also hyponym (Halliday and Hassan, 1976:285). Collocation divides into several types:

1. Hyponym

Words, phrases, or sentences which meaning contains the entire meaning of another word.

2. Synonym

Words, phrases, or sentences which have same meaning and sense

3. Antonym

Words, phrases, or sentences which have some sense opposite in meaning.

4. Meronym

It is relationship of part versus whole

5. Mutually exclusive categories

A lexical part that has no similarity but has the specific meaning which is considered same, e.g. boy-girl, that words have different reference but have similar meaning, children.

6. Particular type of opposite

A pair of words which have syntax relation and completely each other, e.g. husband-wife.

7. Converses

Words that have opposite meaning, but they are not antonym, e.g. ask-answer

8. Same-ordered series

Words that include as a series, e.g. west-east.

9. Unordered lexical sets

Words that have no regular in meaning series, but it is clear enough there are meaning relation in it, e.g. basement-roof, road-rail.

10. Part of part

Words that become a part from a unity, e.g. chin-mouth, verse-chorus.

11. A relation among words that have similar hyponym, e.g. chair-table (furniture).

From the explanation above, there are several types have included in reiteration; synonym, meronym, hyponym, and antonym, Halliday and Hasan say that the collocation types are apart from the types which is included in reiteration. The point is cohesion itself the phrases which two or more words that sound naturally or sound right in English spoken or written. Here some example of collocation in English:

Natural	Unnatural
Fast food	Quick food
Completely satisfied	Downright satisfied
Lion roar	Lion shout
Whispered softly	Whispered smoothly

2.5 The Function of Cohesion

In the occasion if languages consist of form and meaning, the relation among part of language can be divided into two kinds, in form-relation called cohesion and relation of meaning or semantic relation called coherence. Hence, a discourse is stated compact when it has cohesive characteristic looked from

relation of form or physic structure side, and has coherent characteristic if looked from the relation of meaning. The linguistic analysis of discourse is not an interpretation of what the text means, but it is an explanation of why and how it means what it does.

The analysis of cohesion, together with other aspects of texture, will not add anything new to the interpretation of a text. What it will do is to show why the text is interpreted in a certain way, including why it is ambiguous in interpretation wherever it is so. It will explain the nature of inferences, the meanings that the readers get out of the text-presuppositions from the culture, the experience of the participants, and the situation and surrounding text (Halliday and Hasan, 1994: 328). The analysis of cohesion will not tell about good or bad, effective or ineffective in the context a text is. However, it will tell something of „why people think“ it is a good or bad text, or whatever they think about it.

According to Halliday and Hasan, the major function of cohesion is text formation which text is a unified whole of linguistic items, this unity of text as a semantic whole is source for the concept of cohesion. Naturally cohesion helps to create text and thus the text forming component of linguistic system. Then cohesion concerned connecting or linking the sentences with has gone before or what the next sequence. This can make a writer easy to organize their idea in writing so it can be a unity and receive by readers. to guide readers and show how the parts of a paragraph relate to one other.

Following this, cohesive devices it self divide into two namely grammatical and lexical cohesion.

2.5.1 Grammatical Cohesion

1. Reference

This implies the use of language to point to something. Reference therefore has the ability to point to something within or outside a text. In the textual sense, reference occurs when the reader has to retrieve the identity of what is being like talked about by referring to another expression in the same context. Other word, reference uses to identity the readers through the text. Then, reference can define the relationship between a word and what it points to the real world. Reference divide into three kinds, they are:

- a. Personal reference which keeps track of function through the speech situation using noun, pronouns and possessive.
- b. Demonstrative reference keeps track of information through location using proximity references.
- c. Comparative reference keeps track of identity and similarity through indirect references.

1. Conjunction

Conjunction refers to a specification of the way in which what is to follow is systematically connected to what has gone before. Conjunction is usually structure a text/discourse in a precise way and brings the presented elements into a logical order. It connects the ideas within the text to make readers understand text. Conjunction consist of types, here the following types and it function generally:

- a. Additive conjunction act to structurally coordinate or link by adding to presupposed item and also to negat the presupposed item.
- b. Adversative conjunction act to indicate contrary to expectation (contrast).
- c. Causal conjunction act to express result, reason and purpose.
- d. Temporal conjunction acts the sequence or time.

2. Substitution

Substitution and ellipsis is quite similar. Substitution is the replacement of one item by another. Everyone has some experience with text substitution. The basic idea is to replace a small bit of text with a larger bit of text. It is a relation in the wording rather than in the meaning. This implies that as a general rule, the substitute item has some structural function as that for which it substitutes. In English, substitution may function as noun, as verb and as clause. It shows where something has been omitted and what it grammatical function would be, so to holds the text together and avoid the repetition of a lexical item by replace it. There are three types of substitution:

- a. Nominal substitution function as a head of nominal group can be substitute only for an item
- b. Verbal substitution operates a head of verbal group or substitute either for a verb or for a verb plus other elements in the clause.
- c. Clausal substitution to cohere with an adjectival phrase.

3. Ellipsis

Ellipsis is the process in which one item within a text or discourse is omitted or replaced by nothing. Ellipsis occurs when something that is structurally necessary is left unsaid, as it has been understood already.

“Where there is ellipsis, there is a presupposition, in the structure that something is to be supplied or ‘understood’. Ellipsis has been described as ‘substitution by zero’ because when a linguistic item is ellipped, nothing is inserted into the slot. There are three types of ellipsis that will be presented below: nominal, verbal and clausal.

- a. Nominal ellipsis serves a common noun, proper noun or pronoun.
- b. Verbal ellipsis serves a verb in the text.
- c. Clausal ellipsis serves deletion of the clause structure from the existing syntactic structure.

2.5.2 Lexical Cohesion

Lexical cohesion refers to the role played by the selection of vocabulary in organizing relations within a text. According Halliday and Hasan (1994: 275), it is created for the choice of a given vocabulary and the role played by certain basic semantic relations between words in creating textuality. Lexical examines relationships among word meaning. For example, it asks what the relationship is between the words *man* and *woman* on the one hand and *human being* on the other hand.

Lexical investigates such statement. It is the study of how the lexicon is organized and how the meanings of lexical items are interrelated, and its principal goal is to bulid a model for the structure of the lexicon by categorizing the types of relationship between words. Lexical focuses on linguistic meaning.

2.6 The Editorial Board

Newspaper is the one of publishing media but in this time we can find online newspaper. Online newspaper makes us easy to read the newspaper everywhere, for example we can read in our laptop, computer, smartphone, tablet and so on. It just needs to conneted our gadget to internet provider as we now today we can find averywhere. Newspaper gives us information as globally, that can be international or national. There are some contents available in a newspaper; headlines news, local and international, lifestyle, sport, business, politic, education, technology, healthy, science, travel, editorial or opinion.

Content of every newspaper almost same, there will be news and editorial or opinion. An editorial is the official stand of the paper on relevant development or issue. It is personal commentary written by the editor who comments or gives the newspaper's or the staff's opinion about various aspects on an issue which is interest and importance to the public. It is a critical interpretation of significant, usually contemporary events so that the readers will be informed, influenced, or entertained. It is the stand of the paper, not of an individual editor. Editorial also called a leading article is a piece of writing intended to promote an opinion or perspective. Editorial is usually written by the senior editor staff or publisher of publication.

Hoffman cited in Andrew (2008) defines editorial as a “statement of opinion from an editor or publisher about you and your business. Media coverage generated by news staff”. He defined an editorial as “a journalistic essay which attempts to:

- a. informs or explains;
- b. persuades or convince;
- c. stimulate insight in an entertaining or humorous manner.”

From the statement above, editorial reflects the integrity of the institution. The editorial column represents how the institution takes their position toward the issue which is discussed by them. The editorial column discusses the actual issue and the people’s interest. The editorial itself is an article in newspaper, magazine, etc which gives an opinion toward an actual issue. The editorial is usually written by the editor of its newspaper. Every editorial writer must know the general hints guiding the concept of editorial writing. Some of these hints are:

1) An editorial must carry an institutional flavour. The media establishment should be heard “speaking” in an editorial and not an individual business.

2) The language of the editorial should be plain and unambiguous. Whether the purpose of an editorial is to influence the audience, educate or entertain them, the language must be understood by the target audience. If not, the mission of an editorial will not be accomplished.

3) An editorial must be rich in human interest. This is because people are interested in the affairs of their fellow human beings

4) An editorial or leader must be catchy and attention arresting. Persuasive techniques and other appeals can be used for this purpose.

5) Every editorial must be original in tone and substance. A newspaper house should not go and dub another paper's editorial in the name of being trendy.

7) An editorial must be well researched. Newspapers should factor timeliness or recency into qualitative and quantitative research if an editorial master piece is to be produced.

8) Editorials must be based on concrete facts, not speculations. An editorial writer who knows his/her onions must endeavour to cross check his/her facts so as to ensure high credibility of the editorial.

An editorial is conclude into an essay writing, so the criteria of a good essay writing are words choice, short forms and sentence structure. Here blue print of the criteria.

Blue print of criteria good editorial

Variable	Indicators
words choice	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Standard English words • Prhases • Avoid informal (slang, offensive, etc) • Use suitable synonyms or antonyms
short forms	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Avoid contracted form (e.g. haven't, I'm) • Avoid abbreviations (e.g. ad-advertisement)
sentence structure	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pronoun • Conjunction • Linking words and phrases (firstly, moreover, in additon) • Unity (all sentences in a paragraph should state on the one thing in the topic sentence or stick together)

(oxford dictionary)

2.7 Relevant Research

The idea on writing this thesis based on some linguistics books that supply relevant information to the topic. The writer refers to some related analysis based on the cohesion in discourse. Nur Ingsira (2014) has analyzed cohesion and coherence of students' essay writing of fourth semester of English study program of Fkip Universitas Islam Riau. She found the result for cohesion analysis was 2478 for the total of cohesive devices they were i.e reference (642 or 25,9 %), substitution (2 or 0,08 %), ellipsis (12 or 0,48 %), conjunction (622 or 24,1 %) and lexical cohesion (1201 or 48,4 %). Meanwhile, the result of coherence analysis there were parallel progression (61,96 %) and sequential progression (22,78 %)

Vany (2005) has analyzed cohesion in headlines news of the Jakarta post. She found existence of grammatical and lexical cohesion in that newspaper. She analyzed seven articles of headlines and found that conjunction is mostly used. Grammatical cohesion consists of four kinds; reference substitution, ellipsis and conjunction. The reference consists of 162 sentences (27.69%), substitution consists of 4 sentences (0.68%), ellipsis consists of 34 sentences (5.81%), and conjunction consists of 349 sentences (59.65%). The lexical cohesion consists of 36 sentences (6.15%).

Other researcher Cherly found conjunction (additive, adversative, causal and temporal) was the most prominence. From the analysis of six texts of The Headline news of The Jakarta Post shows that there were 350 data of ties i.e. reference (102 or 29, 14%), substitution (1 or 0, 29 %) and ellipsis (10 or 2, 86

%), conjunction (149 or 42, 57 %) and from lexical such as: repetition (71 or 20, 28 %), synonym (4 or 1, 14%, super ordinate (4 or 1, 14%), general word (3 or 0, 86 %) and collocation (6 or 1, 71 %).

This research has different with three researchers. The first researcher analyze the students' essay writing of fourth semester of English study program of Fkip Universitas Islam Riau, the second and the third one try to analyze the headlines news of daily edition from The Jakarta Post while I try to analyze the Editorial board on Monday edition in Jakarta Post.

