

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED THEORIES

2.1 The Concept of Discourse Analysis

2.1.1 Discourse

Discourse is the study about using language based on the context in the spoken and written language in communication. Discourse analysis is concerned with the study of the relationship between language and the contexts in which it is used. In understanding the definition of discourse, it is important to know about text and context because these are related to discourse. However, context is all kinds of social situations, conditions, and culture of the text such as the character and background of the participant in the text. The discourse is defined as text and context together.

According to Crystal (cited by Olufunke, 2016) and Matthews (200:100) define discourse as spoken or written language more than the sentence which consists of coherent unit. It means that discourse is not just around the sentence boundaries, it should be paragraph or passage which consist of senses such as coherent, cohesion and unity. While Bahaziq (2016) said that discourse is essential in communicating thoughts and ideas. People around the world communicate their ideas through stretches of language. Besides that, in the book entitled discourse, Cook (1989:6) states that discourse is about language use. He defines discourse as language that used by people for communication to the other.

Based on the statements above, it can be concluded that discourse is the use of language that is beyond the text like elements of language and context with a high sense such as coherence and cohesion which refers to the interpretation both spoken and written. Discourse expresses a way to investigate how to representing the aspects, the relation of speech, and how to correlate each sentence become a unite structure. In short, it means that discourse is the product of language used.

2.1.2 Analysis

According Kurland (2010) defines that analysis is a particular form of investigation. In general usage, analysis refers to any close, careful, or systematic examination. 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.

While *Oxford English Dictionary* state that analysis is detailed examination of elements or structure of something. It is the process of separating something into its constituent elements. In other words, analysis is study of something by examining its parts.

In conclusion, analysis is the way of thinking. It is a solution in solving the problem with elaborates the problems into pieces to reach a smallest detail to obtain more in-depth explanations and information. Analysis provides a detailed explanation to the core, to get a deeper knowledge. It provides a detail explanation

and digging the discussion of the subject to reach into the smallest and important parts.

2.1.3 Discourse Analysis

Discourse analysis is a branch of macro linguistic which is used in analyzing literary and nonliterary texts McCarthy (2000:5) state that discourse analysis is concerned with the study of the relationship between language and the contexts in which it is used. It means that discourse analysis focuses on the study of language and context relationship. In addition, Seno (2006:16) stated that discourse analysis is the science that we study about the discourse, organization above the sentence or clause and the units of largest grammar either in spoken or written forms, including social context interaction between speaker and listener.

Meanwhile, according to Rahimi and Riasati (2011) discourse analysis is the analytical framework which was created for studying actual text and talk is the communicative context. Meanwhile, McCarthy (2000:10) states that discourse analysis thus fundamentally concerned with the relationship between language and the contexts of its use. In other word, Renkema (2004:1) say that discourse analysis is the discipline or analysis of the relationship between form and function of language in verbal communication.

In addition, Brown G Yule (1983:1) who defines discourse analysis of language in use. Furthermore, Adjei (2013) stated that discourse analysis is paramount in the negotiation and construction of meaning of the social world. Discourse analysis is study about discourse that provides the details explanations

about the function of language and the relation between a text and context. Additionally, discourse analysis as a solution to analyze the system and structural context that appear in the language and a text and then it deals with the component of language in arrange and construct the meaning of spoken or written communication.

In summary, it can be concluded that discourse analysis is concerns with the study of the relationship between form of language, and function or context of language in used whether it is written and spoken forms. Indeed, this research is discourse analysis in written form of textbook. It is about discourse analysis of English cohesion in written form of students' English textbook.

2.2 The Concept of Cohesion

Semantic is one of the branches of linguistic. Seno (2006:15) stated that semantic is the science that we study about the meaning of language, including words, phrases, sentences, symbols, and signals. While Halliday and Hasan (1976:8) 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. Cohesion is a very important tool for good writing. Halliday and Hasan (2013:4) say that the concept of cohesion is semantic one, it refers to relations of meaning that exist within the text, and it define it as a text. A text is cohesive when the elements are tied together and considered meaningful to the reader. Cohesion occurs when the interpretation of some element of discourse is depend on that of another.

While Hameed (2008) explains that cohesion is the most important principle and criterion of textuality, is the connection of the connected manifested when the interpretation of one textual element (a word located in one sentence) is dependent on another element in the text (a word usually but not necessarily in another sentence). Texture is available in cohesion, it is created within text when there are properties of coherence and cohesion, outside of the apparent grammatical structure of the text. 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 exist within the text. So, when this happens, a relation of cohesion is set up, and the two elements, the presupposing and the presupposed, are thereby integrated into a text.

In summary, cohesion manage the consistency of semantic relationship between elements of discourse has function as a system to express a connection text and the context. Further, it can be inferenced that cohesion is an 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 connection text and the discourse has function as a system to express a connection text and the context. cohesion as part of the language system has interdepartmental relationship in text that characterizes the use of language elements and basically refers to the relationship form, meaning discourse elements that are used to construct a coherent discourse has linkages and intact. It consists of several functions that not only the basic

functions but have a function to the primary system of sentences that are used to interconnect the existing lines to create valuable meaning.

2.3 English Cohesion

English cohesion equipment of cohesion to create unity of meaning within a text. It holds different parts of a thing together. English cohesion is used in communication-written or spoken as single words or phrases which hang different parts of the text.

On the other hand, English cohesion in general are called as linking words, linkers, connectors, discourse markers or transitional words. It means that English cohesion link or connect unrelated elements into dependence one to another at once. English cohesion can be words and phrases which are used to listing the ideas, giving examples, summarizing and others. In short, English cohesion' function is forming the text.

Furthermore, Halliday and Hasan (1976:6) state that there are two board divisions of cohesion: grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion. Grammatical cohesion refers to the connection of terms sentences through the form of grammatical aspect. Grammatical cohesion is realized by grammatical items of the closed class – *pronouns, prepositions, demonstratives and auxiliaries*. The sub-categories under grammatical cohesion include: *reference, substitution, ellipsis and conjunctions*. On the other hand, lexical cohesion is realized by the members of the open-class items – *nouns, adjectives, adverbs and (main) verbs*. The categories here include: *Reiteration and Collocation*.

In conclusion, cohesion is the set of elements of language for making relation in discourse that connect one part of a text- a sequence of sentence- to another. It can be words or phrases which are can connected text well and meaningful. In other words, cohesion is connectivity of the text elements.

2.3.1 Grammatical Cohesion

Grammatical cohesion refers to the connection of terms sentences through the form of grammatical aspect. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), there are four types of grammatical cohesion; reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction.

Grammatical Cohesion				
Reference		Substitution	Ellipsis	Conjunction
Personals		Nominal	Nominal	Additive
Existential	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 (Halliday and Hasan, 2013)

2.3.1.1 Reference

According to Halliday & Matthiessen (2004:536) reference is a relationship between things, or facts (phenomena, or meta phenomena); it may be established at varying distances, and although it usually serves to relate single elements that have a function within the clause (processes, participants, circumstances). Then, According to Halliday & Matthiessen (2014:605) stated that reference creates cohesion by creating links between elements to create meaning in term of semantic level.

Besides, M. Bloor & T. Bloor, 2013 in Bahaziq state that reference can be identified as the situation in which one element cannot be semantically interpreted

unless it is referred to another element in the text. Pronouns, articles, demonstratives, and comparatives are used as referring devices to refer to items in linguistic or situational texts. Reference indicates how the writer introduces participants and keeps track of them through the text.

Meanwhile, Halliday and Hasan (1976:51) distinguish endophoric into two kinds: anaphoric and cataphoric. Therefore, reference items may be exophoric or endophoric; and if endophoric, they may be anaphoric or cataphoric. Exophoric items signal that reference must be made to the context or situation. Both exophoric and endophoric reference embody an instruction to be interpreted from elsewhere that the required information is for interpreting the passage in question. What is essential to every instance of reference whether endophoric (textual) or exophoric (situational), there is a presupposition that must be considered. In addition, Halliday and Hasan (1976:18) stated that an exophoric relationship plays no part in textual cohesion. This type of reference directs hearers or readers to look outside the text and to interpret the information from the context of situation.

As shown, the use of endophoric is divided into two parts, and if endophoric is in a sentence it can be anaphoric or cataphoric. Anaphoric is conducted reference in preceding a text, while cataphoric is represented reference in following a text. It is different with exophoric, if it is use in a sentence, exophoric will be exophoric. Look at the example below:

- (1) There is an *Orange* on the table. So eat *it*.
- (2) *Tina* prepared the dinner. *She* used a lot of seasoning.

Example (1), *it* refers back to *Orange*. In the (2), sentence *She* refers back to *Tina*. This sentence shows the kind of anaphoric.

The other kind of reference, where the pronoun is given first and then kept in suspense as to its identity, which is revealed later, is known as cataphoric. (i.e. looking forward).

(3) As soon as *he* arrived, *Mike* visited his parents.

The word *he* is cataphoric, reference that look forward to *Mike*.

(4) *He* made tremendous impact. *The provost*. (Akindele, 2011).

He in the first sentence refers to forward to *the provost*.

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 demonstrative. Various types of referential cohesion enable speakers and writers to make multiple reference to things and people within a text.

2.3.1.1.1 Personal Reference

Personal reference is reference by means of function in the speech, through the category of person. Personal reference items are those items which refer to their referents by specifying their function in the speech situation, recognizing speaker 'first person', addressee 'second person' and others participant 'third person' (Hameed, 2008).

Hence, personal reference is represented personal pronouns, possessive determiners, possessive pronouns. They have functions in the speech situation. Take a look the example:

(5) *Amanda* was happy with her birthday party, *she* got so many presents.

The example of personal pronoun is expressed by using of third person singular pronoun. The word *She* refers back to *Amanda*.

2.3.1.1.2 Demonstrative Reference

Demonstrative reference is essentially a form of verbal pointing (Halliday and Hasan 2013:57). Demonstratives, unlike the personal reference items that refer to their referents by specifying their function in the speech situation, are those items that refer to their referents by specifying their location on a scale of proximity (Hameed, 2008). Proximity means nearness in place, time, occurrence or relation.

Additionally, Halliday and Hasan recognize two types of demonstratives: the first is the adverbial demonstratives express the location of a process in space or time, they are 'here', 'there', 'now', and 'then'. Therefore, demonstrative expresses the proximity, it means location, it means location, time, and relation. This refers to something near, and that is far, it also usually has a function as adjuncts in the clause. The second is the selective nominal demonstratives 'this', 'these', 'that', and 'those' along with definite article 'the', on the other hand, refer to the location of a person or an object participating in the process.

(6) I put the sugar *there*.

This example (6) shows to the reader word *there* refers to something far and indicate adverbial demonstrative.

2.3.1.1.3 Comparative Reference

Comparative reference is cohesion that can be anaphoric or cataphoric and also exophoric in a text that appearance to compare between one thing and another.

Halliday and Hasan (2004:560) state that comparative reference items function in nominal and adverbial groups; and the comparison is made with reference either to general features of identity, similarity and difference or to particular features of quality and quantity. Any expression such as *the same, another, similar, different, as big, bigger, less big*, and related adverbs such as *likewise, differently, equally*, presumes some standard of reference in the preceding text. For example, *such, other, more*.

General comparative reference is comparison in terms that express of likeness' and unlikeness' between two things, which may be the same or different. This type of comparison in terms is expressed by a certain class of adjectives and adverbs. The adjectives function to express general comparison include identity (same, equal, identical), similarity (similar, such similar) and difference (other, difference, else). The adverbs function to express general comparison include identity (identical), similarity (so, similarly, likewise), and difference (differently).

While particular reference means comparison that is in respect of quantity or quality. It is also expressed by means of adjectives or adverbs (Halliday and Hasan 2004:77). Table 2 provides examples for comparative reference. In this table *identity, similarity, and difference* is part of general from comparative reference and

quantity/numerative, quality/epithet is part of particular from comparative reference.

Comparative Reference			
General		Particular	
Identity	It is the <u>same</u> cat as the one we saw yesterday	Quantity / Numerative	There were twice <u>as many</u> people there last time
similarity	A <u>similar</u> view is not acceptable	Quality / epithet	We are demanding higher living standards
Difference	It is <u>different</u> shoes that we saw yesterday		

Table. 2 Comparative Reference

2.3.1.2 Substitution

Substitution is a replacement of one element by another within a text. It is a relation between linguistic items, such as words or phrases. Cutting (2012:11) states that substitution holds the text together and avoids a repetition. On the other hand, it is a relation within a text that sort of counter which is used in place of the repetition of a particular item. Furthermore, 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. For example:

(7) My *axe* is too blunt, I must get a sharper *one*.

One substitutes for *axe*. The examples show that *one* as a replacement in the sentence, *one* is replaced *axe*, so that there is no repetition of the word *axe* (Halliday and Hasan 2013: 89). 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.

2.3.1.2.1 Nominal substitution

Nominal substitution is the first types of substitution, it is represented one/ones, same/so.

(8) This *car* is old. I will buy a new *one*.

The use of *one* as substitution that replace word *car*. The substitution one/ones has functions as head of a nominal group, and it can substitute only for an item that itself head of nominal group.

2.3.1.2.2 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.

(9) I challenge you to win the competition 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.

2.3.1.2.3 Clausal substitution

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

(10) 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 *teacher is going to be absent*, and the contrastive environment is provided by the *say* which is outside.

2.3.1.3 Ellipsis

Ellipsis can be claimed as something left unsaid. Unsaid means something understood, where it means "going without saying". Ellipsis indicates as the removal of an item in order to avoid repetition. Ellipsis and substitution are very similar each other, then ellipsis is called substitution by zero. Cutting (2012:12) says that, ellipsis is typical feature of both spoken and written text, although it occurs more often in conversation because conversation tends to be less explicit. According to Halliday and Hasan (2013:143), ellipsis is divided into three kinds, namely nominal ellipsis, verbal ellipsis, and clausal ellipsis.

2.3.1.3.1 Nominal Ellipsis

According to Halliday and Hasan (2013:147) nominal ellipsis means ellipsis within the nominal group or the common noun that may be omitted and the function of head taken by one of other elements (deictic, numerative, epithet or classifier). The deictic is normally a determiner, the numerative is a number or other quantifier, the epithet is an adjective and the classifier is noun, 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.

(11) My brother like sports, both love football.

In the second sentence “My brothers” is omitted.

1) Deictic as a head

a. Specific Deictic

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

(12) Here *the* other guinea-pig cheered, and was suppressed.

The example explains that word *the* in this sentence interpret as specific deictic.

b. Non- Specific Deictic

The non-specific deictic are *each, every, any, either, no, a, neither, and some*.

(13) The flat has a *sitting-room, a dining room, and one-bedroom. Each* has a window overlooking the park.

In this sentence the word *sitting-room*, *a dining room*, and *one-bedroom* are omitted and replaced by *each*. The full form of the sentence should be “*The flat has a sitting room, and one-bedroom has a window overlooking the park*”.

c. Post Deictic

The words function as post deictic element is adjectives, they are *other*, *some*, *different*, *identical*, *usual*, *regular*, *certain*, *odd*, *famous*, *well-know*, *typical*, *obvious*. They combine with *the*, *a* or *other determiner*. And they are followed by a numerative.

2) Numerative as Head

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

(14) “Have another *chocolate*. – No thanks; that was my *third*”.

In example (14) the word “third” in the sentence indicate the ordinals.

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

(15) “Have another *chocolate*. – No thanks; I’ve had my *three*”.

From this example (15), numeral deictic is word *three*.

c. Indefinite quantifier

The items of indefinite quantifier such as much, many, more, most, few, several, a little, lots, a bit, etc.

(16) Can all cats *climb* the trees? – They all can, and *most* do.

The indefinite quantifier is *most*, and cats as presupposes.

3) Epithets

The function of epithet is typically fulfilled by an adjective. This reflects the fact that superlative and comparative in that way. The superlative adjective precedes epithet, it is usually accompanied by *the* or a possessive deictic.

The function of epithet is typically fulfilled by an adjective. This reflects the fact that superlative and comparative in that way. The superlative adjective precedes epithet, it is usually accompanied by *the* or a possessive deictic.

(17) “They are fine *actors*. That clown is *the finest* I’ve ever seen”.

In example (17), the *finest* presupposes actor from the preceding sentence.

Comparative adjectives are inherently presupposing by reference. The example of comparative adjectives is “*I’ll buy you some prettier*”.

2.3.1.3.2 Verbal Ellipsis

Verbal ellipsis means ellipsis within the verbal group. Kind of this ellipsis 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 systemic features.

(18) 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 group, there is only one lexical element, it is the verb itself.

2.3.1.3.3 Clausal Ellipsis

Clausal ellipsis has model 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 any complement or adjunct (Halliday and Hasan 2013: 196).

(19) A: *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.

2.3.1.4 Conjunction

According to Schiffrin, Hamilton and Tannen cited by Sharif (2015), “Conjunction is concerned with resources for connecting messages, via addition, comparison, temporality, and causality. This system subsumes earlier work on linking between clauses in a framework which considers, in addition, the ways in which connections can be realized inside a clause through verbs, prepositions, and nouns.

Besides, Osisanwo in Aknipar (2012:259) identifies types of conjunctions as coordinating, subordinating, compound adverb, and continuatives. Further, Halliday and Hasan (1976:241), as well as Martin and Rose (2007:117) 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. External conjunction is the system for linking events in activities sequenced.

Additionally, Halliday and Hasan (2004:227) argue that conjunction deal with different types of semantic relation, one which is no longer any kind of a search instruction, but a specification of the way in which what is to flow systematically connected to what has gone before, and they classified conjunction into four types (additive, adversative, clausal, and temporal).

2.3.1.4.1 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 relations 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.

(20) 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.

2.3.1.4.2 Adversative

Halliday and Hasan (2004:250) explain that, adversative relation is contrary to expectation. The expectation may be derived from the content of what is being said. 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.

(21) She failed. *However*, she'd tried her best.

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

2.3.1.4.3 Clausal

According to Halliday and Hasan (2004:256), the simple form of clausal relation is expressed by the words 'so', 'thus', 'hence', 'therefore', 'consequently', and a number of expressions like 'as a result (of that)', 'because of that', 'in consequence (of that)'. All these words and expressions regularly combine with initial 'and'.

Additionally, Halliday and Hasan (2004:257) say under the heading of clausal relations, it is included the specific ones of result, reason and purpose. These are not distinguished in the simplest form of expression; 'so', 'for example', means 'as a result of this', 'for this reason', and 'for this purpose'. When expressed as prepositional phrases, on the other hand, they tend to be distinct and believe that the distinction between the external and internal types of cohesion tend to be a little less clear-cut in the context of clausal relations than it is in the other contexts, because the notion of cause already involves some degree of interpretation by the speaker.

(22) She left that there was no time to be lost, as she was thinking rapidly, *so* she got to work at one to eat some of the other bit.

This is the simple example of clausal, in this sentence, *so* become a reason to get the purpose. She does not want to be lost, that's why, she works.

2.3.1.4.4 Temporal

Temporal is the relation between two successive sentences, this may be made more specific by the presence of an additional component in the meaning. This temporal relation is expressed in its simple form by then.

(23) He stayed there for three years, *then* he went on to New Zealand.

The temporal relations are then, next, before the, at the same time, at once, after a time, next day/moment, on his occasion, meanwhile, finally, at last, in the end, first, at first, up to now, at this point, henceforward, to sum up, in short, anyway, to resume, etc.

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

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. In addition, 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.

Meanwhile, Chambliss & Calfee in Mahmood (2011) state that textbooks are considered a the heart of reductional activities, as they provide students “a rich array of a new and potentially interesting facts and open the door to aworld of fantastic experience”.

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

Finally, the textbook that used in this research is created based on curriculum 2013. The textbook is English textbook entitled Forward an English Course For Vocational School Students Grade XI. It contains some pictures, reading texts, tests, and materials that helps the students and teachers to achieve effective teaching and learning activity. The reading texts in the textbook have variation in terms of types, genre, theme, and others.

2.5 Relevance Research

The writer 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 writer is able to complete the review of related literature of this research. Not only literary books which are used by the writer, but

also some of relevant research from Cherly Widya Novitson, Tahniah Dwi Sari, Ria Novita, Ida Ika Syafitri, and Indah Virginia Sari.

First, Cherly Widya Novitson (2014) entitled “An analysis of Cohesive Devices of Headline News in the Jakarta Post” the objective of this research was to find out the types of grammatical and lexical cohesive devices and the highest occurrence in the newspaper of Jakarta Post. She found the types of cohesive devices in that newspaper and there were 350 data. They are reference (102 or 29,14%), substitution (1 or 0,29%), ellipsis (10 or 2,86%), conjunction (149 or 42,57%), repetition (71 or 20,28%), synonym (4 or 1,14%), super ordinate (4 or 1,14%), general word (3 or 0,86%) and then collocation (6 or 1,71%).

Second, Tahniah Dwi Sari (2015) entitled “An Analysis of English Cohesion of Editorial Board in The New York Times”. The purposes of this research was 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. The writer got the grammatical cohesion in the all the text, there are: reference 32,46%, substitution 3,07%, ellipsis 8,11%, conjunction 41,23%, and lexical cohesion are: reiteration 9,21%, collocation 5,92%. From the types of cohesion the most prominent type is conjunction (41,23%) especially additive conjunction, it contrasts with others, that substitution (3,07%).

Third, Ida Ika Syafitri (2017) entitled “An Analysis of Cohesive Devices in Reading Texts”. The objective of this research was to find out the types and

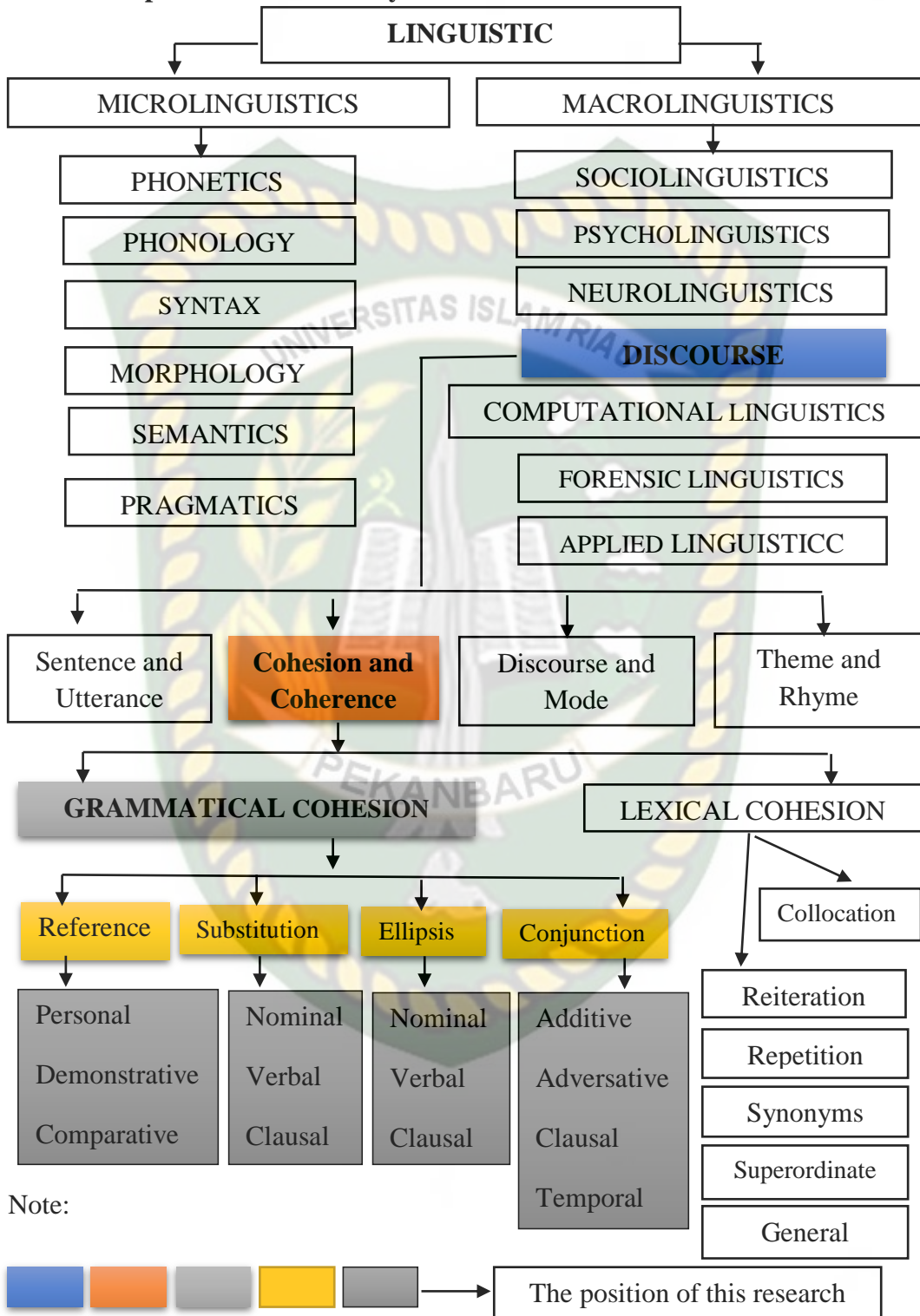
functions of cohesive devices are used in reading texts. This research described there were two kinds of cohesive devices that used in the reading texts such as grammatical and lexical cohesion. They were 137 reference items and 109 conjunction items as grammatical cohesion and 132 reiteration items as lexical cohesion.

Last, Indah Virginia Sari (2017) entitled “An Analysis of Cohesive Devices in Students’ Textbook “Be Smart in English for Grade XII of Senior High School Physical Sciences and Social Sciences Majors” The objective of this research was to analyze cohesive devices and finding the data in the student’s textbook. The finding by this research presents the analysis data that the dominant types of cohesive devices is reference which are discovered in the fifteen texts, and then conjunction which also appears in all texts, but the total number of reference is fewer than conjunction. The lowest frequent of the type are ellipsis and substitution, for ellipsis is only exist in eight of fifteen texts, while substitution is identified only in seven of fifteen texts.

It is known that some writers conducted their research on the same topic. In fact, they have different data because they conducted on different object data. Some of them conducted the research on written data of newspaper.

In this research, the writer chooses to analyze the same topic, that is English cohesion. But the writer chooses different object, it is students’ English textbook “Forward An English Course for Vocational School Students Grade XI which is published By Erlangga.

2.6 The Scope of Discourse Analysis



Note: The coloring tables are the point of this research. The writer takes cohesive devices as the focus of this research. It is an aspect of discourse analysis.