

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents introduction concerning background of the study, formulating of research problems, objectives of the research, significance of the research, scope and limitation of the research, and definition of key terms.

A. Background of the Study

Through language people can express their feelings. They can also make a communication and interaction each other. From the communication people can share their ideas, opinions, and even develop their knowledge. Gee (1999: 11) stated,

Language has a magical property: when we speak or write we craft what we have to say to fit the situation or context in which we are communicating. But, at the same time, how we speak or write creates that very situation or context. It seems, then, that we fit our language to a situation or context that our language, in turn, helped to create in the first place.

Many people in the world who have English as their mother tongue are called as “native speakers” and many people who have English as their second or third language are called as “non-native speakers”. Non-native speakers, of course, will use English in their communication after they learn and know how to use it. The way how they learn English can be described as EFL (English as a

Foreign Language) and ESL (English as a Second Language). Furthermore, Harmer (2007: 19) differentiated them as,

For many years, scholars and teachers have made a distinction between EFL (English as a Foreign Language) and ESL (English as a Second Language). EFL described situations where students were learning English in order to use it with any other English speakers in the world- when the students might be tourists or business people. Students often studies EFL in their own country, or sometimes on short courses in Britain, the USA, Australia, Canada, Ireland, New Zealand, etc. ESL students, on the other hand, were described as usually living in a target language community (e.g. Britain, the USA, etc.) and needed the target language (English) in order to survive and prosper in that community, doing such things as renting apartments, accessing the local health service, etc.

In Indonesia itself, English teaching and learning rapidly developed time by time. It is one of foreign language that should be learnt, especially by the students. It can be shown by the presence of English in schools curriculum from Junior High School until University. Moreover, some of Elementary Schools and Kindergartens in Indonesia also teach English to the students. It means that nowadays English become one important part of Indonesian people.

Language teaching and learning, in this case is English, encompasses four skills. Those are listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Of all those skills, speaking and writing are defined as active skills or productive skills where the language users actually have to produce language themselves. Both are forms of communication. While speaking is the spoken utterances and thought that cannot be undone, writing is recorded thought that can be edited and revised. Murray (2009: 3-4) identified writing as a process which entails rehearsing, drafting, and revising. This process involves the exploration of thought, the composition of a written draft, revision, and lastly, the final draft.

There are many things to take into account in writing. Some of them are cohesion and coherence. Halliday and Hasan (1976: 28-30) emphasize the importance of cohesion as well as coherence discourse in order to achieve well-constructed and understandable writing. In addition, Azzouz (2009: 11) emphasizes that discourse devices of writing give great effect. Cohesive discourse will never be constructed without a good command of linguistic ties. Renkema explains that cohesion always deal with connection evident in the discourse (1993:4). It covers grammatical and lexical cohesion. Grammatical is deal with the structural of the text while lexical deals with the connections based on the words used (Murcia and Oslhatain, 2007:7). Hence, in creating coherent writing papers, cohesive devices have significant role because they provide not only surface evidence for the text unity but also express the continuity that exists between one part of the text and another. Furthermore, Halliday and Hasan (1976: 4) explained,

Cohesive relationships within a text are set up 'where the interpretation of some element in the discourse is dependent on that of another. The one presupposes the other in the sense that it cannot be effectively decoded except by recourse to it.

Students, especially in the college, are expected to have a good ability to make good writing in order to produce academic writing. One kind of writing that usually taught to the students is essay writing. In writing an essay, they are expected to be able to demonstrate and express their ideas clearly in a well-structured and understandable writing. Therefore, they should pay much attention in using cohesive devices in their writing in the hope to make a cohesive writing.

From the explanation above, the researcher would like to analyze the kinds of grammatical cohesive devices that students use to write an essay. So, the researcher interested in conducting a research entitled **“Grammatical cohesive devices found in argumentative essays written by the fourth semester students of English Education Department at IAIN Tulungagung”**. The researcher wanted to know the types of grammatical cohesive devices that students use to write their essays and their tendencies in using it.

B. Formulating of Research Problems

Based on the description of the background, the problems of the study can be formulated as follow:

1. What are the types of grammatical cohesive devices found in essays written by the fourth semester students of IAIN Tulungagung?
2. What is the frequency of occurrence of each type of grammatical cohesive devices (reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction) used in essays written by the fourth semester students of IAIN Tulungagung?

C. Objectives of the Research

The main aim of this study is to analyze the grammatical cohesive devices used in essays written by the fourth semester students of IAIN Tulungagung. In accordance with the problems of the research previously, this study intend to:

1. Find and describe the grammatical cohesive devices found in essays written by the fourth semester students of IAIN Tulungagung.
2. Identify the frequency of occurrence of each type of grammatical cohesive devices (reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction) used in essays written by the fourth semester students of IAIN Tulungagung.

D. Significance of the Research

The result of this study will answer the research problems concerning grammatical cohesive devices used in essays written by the fourth semester students of IAIN Tulungagung. It was expected that the result of this study will be useful for:

1. The Lecturers

The lecturers can use the result of this study to know the mostly and rarely used grammatical cohesive devices by the students.

2. The Students

The result of this study can be a consideration in varying the use of grammatical cohesive devices.

3. The Other Researchers

The other researchers who have the same interest in the study of grammatical cohesive devices can use the result of this research as the comparison to their research, in order to cover the weakness of this research.

E. Scope and Limitation of the Research

The scope of study is the language used as communication in the written form reflected from the students' competence in essay writing. Although there are so many important aspects can be analyzed from writing, this study is only focused to analyze grammatical cohesive devices used by the students in writing argumentative their essay. The grammatical cohesive devices that will be analyzed are related to the use of reference, ellipsis, substitution, and conjunction.

F. Definition of Key Terms

To avoid misunderstanding, the researcher would like to give conceptual definition as follows:

1. Cohesion is defined as the set of linguistic means we have available for creating texture (Halliday and Hasan, 1976:2).
2. Cohesive devices are cohesive elements used to create link between utterance and sentence in written discourse.
3. Grammatical cohesive devices are the elements that exist within the text which build the stability of the text and are established through the use of reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction.
4. Essay writing: a group of paragraphs about one topic which has three main parts, the introductory paragraph, the body paragraph, and the concluding paragraph.

5. Argumentative essay is a genre of writing that requires the student to investigate a topic; collect, generate, and evaluate evidence; and establish a position on the topic in a concise manner.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

The writer divides this chapter into two parts which discuss review of related literature. The first part deals with cohesion and coherence and the second part deals with the explanation of the types of cohesion.

A. Cohesion and Coherence

A great number of studies of written texts have tended to focus on the identification of cohesive signals that help readers to perceive a text. An important area of this study is opened up by a focus on grammatical devices that contribute to cohesion. A study of theoretical sources has revealed that cohesion has been one of the most productive areas in the investigation of texts (Halliday and Hasan 1976, Brown and Yule 1983, Gutwinski 1976, Hoey 1983, 1991, Thompson 2004). Halliday and Hasan define the general meaning of cohesion as “the continuity that exists between one part of the text and another” (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 299). Stoddard defines cohesion as a mental construct (1991: 20). This definition implies that cohesion must be interpreted and it requires mental effort on the part of the reader. In other words, cohesion requires to search for certain words or grammatical items that help to impart meaning and purpose to clauses and sentences, so that information is distributed in a logical way.

Cohesion is usually interpreted in contrast to coherence. Scholars pay attention to the fact that both terms can be easily confused. This work has its focus

on cohesion. Thus, it is necessary to differentiate between the two terms. It does not seem to be a simple task to define the unique characteristics of cohesion and coherence. Both refer to text-forming mechanisms, but it does not presuppose that they are synonymous.

Some discourse analysts determine these concepts from contextual or linguistic points of view. Thus, cohesion is defined either as an evaluative measure of texts or as linguistic devices used for putting sentences together (Stoddard 1991: 13). There seems no point in denying that the basic concept of cohesion concentrates on connections made by grammatical or lexical items, whereas coherence is a mental phenomenon that refers to the mind of the writer and reader (Thompson 2004: 179). The first concept is defined as components of the surface text that are mutually connected and the latter one is described as components of the textual world that are mutually accessible and relevant (Hoey 1991: 11). The idea of connectedness is interpreted in other works by the use of cohesive signals supplied by the writer or speaker. These signals or ties, various conjuncts or repeated words, bind a text together and signal to the reader that there is some degree of continuity present. The role of cohesive ties in a text is to prompt the perception of coherence.

B. Cohesion in written discourse

In terms of cohesion, what can be observed across sentences in written discourse are not structures but links that have particular features that are to be interpreted on the part of a reader. What can be observed within sentences are

structures which define the relations among the parts (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 10). The number of grammatical items in a sentence determines its length. However, these grammatical items or the number of sentences in a paragraph or the whole text are only a characteristic feature of discourse structure, but they do not determine whether a text is coherent or not. What helps to interpret cohesion in written discourse is the study of semantic resources used for linking across sentences in order to see how the different parts of a text are connected.

C. Types of Cohesion

There are two broad divisions of cohesion– grammatical and lexical. Reference, substitution, ellipsis and conjunction are the various types of grammatical cohesion. Lexical cohesion is realized through repetition of lexical items, synonyms, superordinates and general words. Table 2.1 (based on Halliday and Hasan 1976) presents the division of the types of cohesion:

Table 2.1. Types of cohesion

Cohesion			
Grammatical		Lexical	
Reference	Exophoric (situational)		Reiteration
	Endophoric (textual)		
	Anaphoric (to preceding text)	Cataphoric (to following text)	
Substitution		Collocation	Repetition
Ellipsis			Synonyms
Conjunction			Superordinate
			General word

1. Lexical Cohesion

Lexical cohesion occurs when two words in a text are related in terms of their meaning. Halliday and Hasan (1976) distinguish between the two major categories of lexical cohesion: reiteration and collocation.

Under the notion of reiteration we understand repetition, synonym, superordinate and general word. Reiteration “involves the repetition of a lexical item, at one end of the 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” (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 278). An important feature of reiteration is that the reiterated lexical item shares a common referent with the original. The following examples show how cohesion is achieved by the selection of vocabulary.

Repetition is realized in instances that embrace the same lexical item used across the sentences:

- (1) *What we lack in a newspaper is what we should get. In a word, a ‘popular’ newspaper may be the winning ticket.*

A reiterated item may be not a pure repetition of a lexical item. It may be a synonym or near-synonym, a superordinate or a general word. Moreover, lexical cohesion can be also achieved by the use of complementaries, or different kinds of pairs of opposites (boy - girl), antonyms (like - hate) and converses (order - obey) (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 285).

- A synonym is a word that has the same or similar meaning as another word
- (2). Synonyms are used to avoid repetition of the exact same word.

A superordinate is a lexical item whose meaning is included within that of another word (3). It is “any item that dominates the earlier one in the lexical taxonomy” (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 280). General words can be characterized by familiarity (4). Many general words carry a connotation of attitude on the part of the speaker (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 280). These can be general nouns, like thing, stuff, person, woman, man, or general verbs, like do and happen. General nouns and verbs do not carry much information. They depend mostly on the context for their meaning, so that hearers or readers can identify what a particular word is referred to. General words are also described as superordinates of a higher level.

(2) *You could try reversing the car up the slope. The incline isn't all that steep.*

(3) *Pneumonia has arrived with the cold and wet conditions. The illness is striking everyone from infants to the elderly.*

(4) *A: Did you try the steamed buns?*

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

Another type of lexical cohesion is collocation. What Halliday and Hasan (1976: 286) understand by the term collocation are pairs or chains of lexical items that tend to share the same lexical environment (5). They can occur freely both within the same sentence and across sentence boundaries. In some cases collocation makes it difficult to decide whether the words are semantically related and form a cohesive relationship, or whether this relationship does not exist. That is why collocation can cause some problems for discourse analysis.

(5) *hair – comb – curl – wave; literature – reader – writer – style*

Brown and Yule (1983: 194) introduce some other notions for lexical relationships. They speak about hyponymy, part-whole, collocability, comparison (6):

(6) *daffodil – flower (hyponyms)*

arm – a man (part-whole)

Monday – Tuesday (collocability)

My thumb is stronger than that hammer. (comparison)

Each individual lexical item carries certain information in a text and creates a lexical environment. This environment includes all the words that form relational patterns in a text in a way that links sentences. Cohesion may be derived from various lexical relationships, but it is “the occurrence of the item in the context of related lexical items that provides cohesion and gives to the passage the quality of text” (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 289). Several ways of creating lexical ties can be used by writers to vary vocabulary and keep referents constant.

2. 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. Table 2.2 (based on Halliday and Hasan 1976) illustrates the types of grammatical cohesion that will be discussed further:

Table 2.2. Types of Grammatical Cohesion

Grammatical Cohesion				
Reference		Substitution	Ellipsis	Conjunction
Personals		Nominal	Nominal	Additive
Extential I, you, we, he, she, it, they, one	Possessive My/mine, your/yours, our/ours, his, her/hers, its, their/theirs, one's	One/ones, the same, so		And, and also, nor, or, or else, furthermore, by the way, in other words, likewise, on the other hand, thus
Demonstratives This/that, these/those, here/there		Verbal Do, be, have, bo the same, likewise, do so, be so, do it/that, be it/that	Verbal	Adversative Yet, though, only, but, however, at least, in fact, rather, on the contrary, I mean, in any case
Definite article The		Clausal So, not	Clausal	Causal So, then, therefore, because, otherwise
Comperatives Same, identical, similar(ly), such, different, other,else				Temporal Then, next, before that, first...then, at once, in conclusion.

2.1 Reference

One of the options that grammar of English offers creating surface links between sentences is 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). 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). 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.

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 writers to make multiple references to things and people within a text.

The first type is personal reference, which is 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.

(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.)

The second type is demonstrative reference, which is expressed through determiners and adverbs (4). “Demonstrative reference is essentially a form of verbal pointing” (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 57). 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” (Nunan 1993: 24). 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 submodifying a quantifier. Particular comparison in terms of quality is expressed by comparative adjectives or adverbs submodifying an adjective. Table 2.3 provides examples for comparative reference:

Table 2.3. Comparative Reference

Comparative reference			
General		Particular	
identity	We have received exactly the same report as was submitted two months ago.	quantity/ numeration	There were twice as many people there as last time
Similarity	The candidates gave three similar answers.	quality/ epithet	We are demanding higher living standards.
Difference	A: Would you like these seats? B: No, I'd like the other seats.		

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 Comparative reference is fully described in Halliday and Hasan (1976: 76-84) 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.

2.2 Substitution

The other two types of grammatical cohesion are substitution and ellipsis. Halliday and Hasan (1976) point out that these two types are essentially the same. Substitution and ellipsis can be treated as the same process providing cohesion to

a discourse, where “ellipsis can be interpreted as that form of substitution in which the item is replaced by nothing” (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 88). I shall describe these two types of cohesive relation as two different means available for providing cohesion.

The term ‘repudiation’ is used by Halliday and Hasan (1976) to provide a key to the understanding of substitution and to distinguish it from reference. The notion of repudiation can be explained in terms of the presupposition relation. In reference, the reference item and the one that it presupposes have a referential identity of definition. In substitution, some new specification, or redefinition, can be added in the presupposition relation when a part of the element in the preceding text is not carried over. Various instances of cohesive forms can lie on the borderline between two types, and their interpretation can be based on both semantic and grammatical criteria (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 88).

Halliday and Hasan (1976) use the term ‘substitutes’ to describe substitution links. “A substitute (1) is a sort of counter which is used in place of the repetition of a particular item” (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 89).

(1) You think Joan already knows? – I think everybody does.

(does substitutes for knows)

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.

The first type of substitution is represented by the following nominal substitutes: one, ones, same, so (2, 3, 4):

(2) *I've read several books by this author. But this one is the best, I think.*

(3) *A: I'll have a glass of apple juice, please. B: I'll have the same.*

(4) *I am a social smoker, and so is my husband.*

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 second type of substitution is verbal and it is represented by the substitute do. It is always found in final position and it substitutes the lexical verb or the predicator (5):

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

In (5), the verbal substitute do and the presupposed item are found in the same sentence but different T-units. However, verbal substitution often occurs in different sentences and serves to link the two sentences anaphorically. In this respect the verbal substitute has the same function as the nominal substitute one(s). Both substitutes function as heads. The difference is that the substitute do operates as head of a verbal group.

The third type of substitution is clausal. It may extend over more than the head of the substituted item, and it involves the presupposing of a whole clause.

The substitutes so (6) and not (7) are used in clausal substitution:

(6) *Are you feeling better? I think so.*

(7) *Did he stand up to be counted in the old days? I think not.*

In the example (6), so stands for I am feeling better; in (7) not substitutes for he didn't stand up to be counted in the old days.

What makes a difference between the three types of substitution is that unlike the first two types, nominal and verbal, clausal substitution cannot be used to substitute a clause that Functions independently. Clausal substitution is used “to display the clause as a repetition in a contrastive context in which it is dependent on a report, a condition or an opinion” (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 136). What unites all the three types is that substitution is a textual relation where the primary meaning is anaphoric.

2.3 Ellipsis

The relation between substitution and ellipsis is very close because it is merely that ellipsis is “substitution” by zero (0). The basic difference between the two types of cohesion is that in ellipsis there is nothing to be inserted into the structural slot of the missing information (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 143):

(1) Whose is this hat? – It’s mine.

In (1), a deictic element mine presupposes an item expressing a thing – hat.

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976: 146) the study of cohesion is important between sentences where there are no structural relations. These scholars define ellipsis “as a form of relation between sentences, where it is an aspect of the essential texture” (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 146). Therefore they see the relevance of ellipsis in its role in grammatical cohesion. As with substitution, there are three types of ellipsis – nominal, verbal and clausal.

Halliday and Hasan (1976) classify nominal ellipsis according to the modifying elements that can function as head in the elliptical nominal group.

Deictic and numerative elements are the most characteristic instances of nominal ellipsis. As shown in the table 2.4 and 2.5:

Table 2.4. Deictic elements in nominal ellipsis

Deictic elements in nominal ellipsis		
Deictic proper		Post-deictics
Specific deictics	Non-specific deictics	Adjectives: Same, other(s), different, identical, usual, regular, certain, odd, famous, well- known, typical, obvious
Possessives: - nominals: Smith's, my father's, etc.; - pro-nominals: my, your, etc.; mine, yours, hers, etc.	All, both, each, any, either, neither, some	
Demonstratives: this, that, these, those, which		

Table 2.5. Numerative elements in nominal ellipsis

Numerative elements in nominal ellipsis		
Ordinals	Cardinals	Indefinite quantifiers
First, next, last, second, third, fourth, etc.	The three, these three, any three, all three; the usual three, the same three, etc.	Much, many, more, most, few, several, a little, lots, a bit, hundreds, etc.
Have some more tea. – No, thanks; that was my third. (third (cup of) tea)	Smith was the first person to leave. I was the second. (the second person)	Can all cats climb trees? – They all can; and most do. (most cats)

The verbal group is generally presented by one lexical element – the lexical verb, and other systemic features: finiteness, polarity, voice and tense. Verbal ellipsis occurs within the verbal group “whose structure does not fully express its systemic features” (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 167). To understand

whether a verbal group is elliptical or not, it is necessary to find any omitted features that can be recovered by presupposition (2):

(2) *What have you been doing? – Swimming.*

In (2), what is omitted is I have been swimming. It is only the lexical verb swim that is found in the elliptical verbal group. The elliptical form swimming has various systemic features that are not found in the verbal structure. Among these features are finite, indicative, non-modal; positive; active; present perfect progressive.

Halliday and Hasan (1976) distinguish two types of verbal ellipsis: lexical and operator ellipsis. They are illustrated in table 2.6:

Table 2.6. Verbal ellipsis

Verbal ellipsis	
Lexical ellipsis	Operator ellipsis (modal and temporal operators)
Is he complaining? – He may be; I don't care. Mary didn't know, did she?	Has she been crying? – No, laughing. What must I do next? – Play your highest card.

Verbal ellipsis can also involve external ellipsis. This is the omission of other elements in the structure of the clause. Halliday and Hasan (1976) introduce four sub-types of clausal ellipsis (table 2.7) according to the structure of the clause in English and various speech functions it can express. These sub-types are propositional, modal, general and zero ellipsis:

Table 2.7. Clausal ellipsis

Clausal ellipsis			
Propositional	Modal	General	Zero
Who was <u>going to plant a row of poplars in the park?</u> - The Duke was.	What was the Duke going to do? - Plant a row of poplars in the park.	Are you coming? – Yes./No.	England won the cup. – Who told you?
omission of the complement and the adjunct +lexical ellipsis	omission of the subject and the finite operator + operator ellipsis	all elements but one omitted	entire clause omitted

2.4 Conjunction

This section presents the discussion of the fourth type of grammatical cohesion – conjunction. Conjunction differs from reference, substitution and ellipsis in that it is not an anaphoric relation. However, Halliday and Hasan (1976), Martin and Rose (2007), Nunan (1993) treat conjunction and conjunctive elements as cohesive devices. These meanings presuppose the presence of other components in the discourse (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 226). Therefore, the relationships signalled by conjunction can be fully understood through reference to other parts of the text (Nunan 1993: 26).

Halliday and Hasan (1976), as well as Martin and Rose (2007), define conjunctive relations as internal and external (1). External conjunctions are used to relate activities, whereas internal conjunctions are used to organize texts (Martin and Rose 2007: 122, 133).

(1) a. *They gave him food and clothing. And they looked after him til he was better.*(external)

b. *They gave me fish to eat. And I don't like fish.* (internal)

Both internal and external conjunction are classified according to four main types. Martin and Rose (2007) define these types according to four logical conjunctive relations: adding, comparing, time and consequence (table 2.8):

Table 2.8. Martin and Rose's classification of conjunction

External conjunction			Internal conjunction		
Addition	Addition	and, besides	Addition	additive	further
	Alternation	or, if not-then		alternative	alternatively
Comparison	Similarity	like, as if	Comparison	similar	For instance
	Contrast	but, whereas		Different	In contrast
Time	successive	then, after	Time	successive	firstly, finally
	Simultaneous	While		simultaneous	at the same time
Consequence	Cause	so, because	Consequence	concluding	therefore, in conclusion, thus
	Means	by, thus			
	Purpose	in order to			
	Condition	if, unless	countering	admittedly, nevertheless	

Halliday and Hasan (1976: 242-243) introduce several subclasses of each type of conjunction to make a clear distinction between these four cohesive relations. Table 2.9 contains the examples of some typical conjunctive words and expressions that enter into cohesion:

Table 2.9. Halliday and Hasan's classification of conjunction

Types of conjunction			
additive	Adversative	causal	Temporal
simple: and, nor, or	proper: yet, but, however	general: so, because of, thus	simple: then, next, afterwards

Continued

Continuation

Types of conjunction			
additive	Adversative	causal	Temporal
complex: moreover, in addition, besides that, additionally	contrastive: but, on the other hand, actually, in fact, at the same time	specific: for this reason, as a result, for this purpose	complex: at once, this time, the last time, meanwhile, at this moment, until then
comparative: likewise, similarly, on the other hand	corrective: instead, on the contrary, at least	conditional: then, under the circumstances	sequential/ conclusive: at first, in the end; finally, at last
appositive: I mean, in other words, for example, thus	dismissive: in any case, anyhow, at any rate	respective: in this respect, with regard to this, otherwise	'here and now'/ summarizing: up to now, up to this point; to sum up, briefly
From a marketing viewpoint, the popular tabloid encourages the reader to read the whole page instead of choosing stories. And isn't that what any publisher wants?	The eldest son work on the farm, the second son worked the blacksmith's shop but the youngest son left home to seek his fortune.	Chinese tea is becoming increasingly popular in restaurants, and even in coffee shops. This is because of the growing belief that it has several health-giving properties.	The weather cleared just as the party approached the summit. Until then they had seen nothing of the panorama around them

To sum up, the term cohesion is used in this investigation for the relations obtaining among the sentences and clauses of a text. Lexical and grammatical items form various links within a text and contribute to the establishment of various relations between clauses and sentences. Termed by Halliday and Hasan (1976) as cohesive ties, these relations keep the text together in its original order. Cohesive ties may operate within the boundaries of the sentence. They may also be anaphoric or cataphoric. Cohesive relations do not constitute cohesion by

themselves. They mark which clauses and sentences are related and in what manner. In this respect, the contribution of the four types of grammatical cohesion to the organization of text is obvious. Reference, as a semantic relation, serves to retrieve the identity of what is being talked about from the immediate context. Conjunction contributes to the semantic organization of text. Substitution and ellipsis serve to establish grammatical relations, when another item (substitution) or a zero element (ellipsis) appears to link to a previous part of the text.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHOD

This chapter is intended to describe the research method used in the study which covers: research design, population, sample and sampling, data collecting method, and data analysis

A. Research Design

Research design was important in the research. It is used to arrange the setting of the research in order to get valid data. Ary (2006:44) stated that “research design is the researcher’s plan of how to proceed to gain an understanding of some phenomenon in its natural setting.”

This research was intended to describe and analyze the tendencies of grammatical cohesive devices used by the students in writing their argumentative essays. The tendencies of each grammatical cohesive devices, then, shown by the percentage of each categories. Therefore, the writer used quantitative approach with descriptive design.

B. Population, Sampling and Sample

1. Population

A population consists of an entire set of object, observation, or scores that have something in common. Lodico (2006:140) explained that population is the

wider group of individuals about which the researcher wants to make statements. In this study, the population was all of the fourth semester students of English Education Department of IAIN Tulungagung, which consisted of four classes. Those four classes consisted of 115 students.

2. Sampling and sample

Sampling was the process of obtaining a sample. “The concept of the sampling is taking a portion of the population, making observation of this smaller group, and then generalizing the findings to the large population” (Ary, 2006:139). In this study, stratified random sampling technique was chosen as the technique of selecting sample because the students of those four classes have different characteristics. According to Ary (2006:153), when the population consists of a number of subgroups that may differ in the characteristics being studied, it is often desirable to use a form of probability sampling called stratified sampling. In this sampling technique, the sample was taken from each class randomly.

To obtain data from a smaller group or subset of the total population as the representative, the writer chose a sample. Lodico (2006: 143) states that a sample is a smaller group selected from a larger population that is representative of the larger population. The sample is selected because population is too large to study in its entry. Ary (1979:135) states that descriptive research typically uses 10 to 20 percent of the accessible population for the sample. Therefore, the writer chose 23 argumentative essays which were gotten randomly from the four classes.

C. Data Collecting Method

Data collecting method was the researcher's way in collecting the data. The aim of data collecting in conducting scientific research was to get materials needed. This research was aimed to analyze students' essay, hence the method that used to collect the data was documentation. The data were the students' writing as their mid-term tests which were gotten from the lecturers.

D. Data Analysis

Data analysis refers to a process to search and arrange the data and other materials that have been collected to enable the researcher to come up with finding. To find the answers of the research problems, the writer used content analysis technique to analyze the data which has been collected. Ary (2006: 457) explains that content or document analysis is a research method applied to written or visual materials for the purpose of identifying specified characteristics of the material. Some procedures which deal with content analysis as in the following:

1. Specifying the phenomenon to be investigated
2. Selecting the media from which the observations are to be made
3. Formulating exhaustive and mutually exclusive coding categories
4. Deciding on the sampling plan to be used in order to obtain a representative sample of the documents
5. Training the coders

6. Analyzing the data, which may involve just the frequencies and percentages in the various categories or may involve more descriptive accounts.

In this study, the writer did some steps in analyzing the data. Those were:

1. Collect the students' works
2. Analyze the students' works by identifying the words of grammatical cohesive devices by giving the code for every types of grammatical cohesive devices. The codes were: R for Reference, S for Substitution, E for Ellipsis, and C for Conjunction (See appendix I)
3. Classify the words of grammatical cohesive devices into four categories- reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction.
4. Counting the frequency of grammatical cohesive devices. To find the percentage of frequency in each types appearance (reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction), the formulation is:

$$P = \frac{Fg}{Tf} \times 100\%$$

Note:

P: percentage of the frequency of each type of grammatical cohesive devices

Fg: frequency of each type of grammatical cohesive devices

Tf: total frequency of grammatical cohesive devices

CHAPTER IV

RESEARCH FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter presents the result of the research. It covers the research findings and the discussion.

E. Research Findings

1. The Types of Grammatical Cohesive Devices Found in the Texts

a. Reference

[Text 1]

The first paragraph contains 8 personal references (*They, Them, Their*) and 2 demonstrative references (*This particular event and This disregard*). *They* in the first, second, and third line refers anaphorically to *The Vieira family*. *They* in the fourth line and *Their* in the sixth line refers anaphorically to *The Vieira Children*. *Them* in the eighth line and *Their* in the eighth and ninth line refers anaphorically to *People who immigrate to new lands*. *This particular event* in the sixth line refers anaphorically to *Children cannot communicate with their relatives*. *This disregard* in the ninth line refers anaphorically to the previous sentence.

The second paragraph contains 6 personal references (*They and Their*) and 1 demonstrative references (*These bilingual people*). *They* in the third line refers anaphorically to *People who can speak more than one language*. *Their* in the fourth and fifth line refers anaphorically to *People who can speak more than one language*. *Their* in the seventh and eighth line refers anaphorically to *People who*

are monolingual. These bilingual people in the fifth line refers to *People who can speak more than one language*.

The third paragraph contains 2 demonstrative references. Those are *these people* in the second line which is refers to *People who speak a second language* and *This expression* in the tenth line which is refers to the expression about John Hancock.

The fourth paragraph contains 1 demonstrative reference. It is *That country* in the sixth line which is refers to a country where anyone can speak more than one language.

The fifth paragraph contains of 3 personal references. *It* in the third line refers back to *The real tragedy* and *It* in the fifth line refers to *speak more than language. Themselves* in the fourth line refers to *People who already have the gift of speaking another tongue*.

[Text 2]

The first paragraph contains of 3 personal references (*It, I, and We*) and 1 demonstrative reference (*This habit*). *It* in the second line refers anaphorically to the previous sentence. *I* in the second line include to writer reference, while *We* in the third line include to writer and reader reference. *This habit* in the second line refers to *Read newspaper*.

The second paragraph contains 2 personal references (*It and We*). *We* include to writer and reader reference, while *It* refers to the change of newspaper.

The third paragraph contains of 3 personal references (*It* and *They*). *It* refers back to *Newspaper*. *They* in the second line refers to *People who want to read newspaper*.

The fourth paragraph contains of 4 personal references (*It* and *I*). *It* in the first line refers anaphorically to *Newspaper*. *It* in the fifth line refers to *Electronic newspaper*. *It* in the sixth line refers to *All people can read it anywhere*. *I* in the eighth line is a writer reference.

[Text 3]

The first paragraph contains 5 personal references (*Me*, *I*, and *My*) and 1 demonstrative reference (*That*). All of the personal references in this paragraph include to writer reference. *That* in the sixth line refers to writer's assignments.

The second paragraph contains of 2 personal references (*It* and *Their*) and 2 demonstrative reference (*This matter* and *That*). *It* in the third paragraph refers back to *The assignment*. *Their* in the fourth line refers to *the students*. *This matter* in the second line refers to the previous sentence. *That* in the fourth line refers to *doing assignment*.

The third paragraph contains of 4 personal references (*They* and *Their*) and 1 demonstrative reference (*This way*). *They* in the second, third, and fifth line refers back to *The students*. *Their* in the sixth line also refers to *The students*. *This way* in the fifth line refers to *give assignment to the student*.

The fourth paragraph contains 1 personal reference (*It*) and 2 demonstrative references (*This matter* and *These routines*). *It* in the third line

refers to the previous clause. *This matter* in the fourth line refers to the previous sentence, while *These routines* in the fifth line refers to *doing assignment*.

The last paragraph contains only 1 personal reference. It is *It* which is found in the last line. It refers to *the assignment*.

[Text 4]

The first paragraph doesn't contain any references.

The second paragraph contains 3 personal references (*My* and *It*) and 1 demonstrative reference (*This problem*). *My* in the first line is a writer reference. *It* in the second and fourth line refers to *National exam online*. *This problem* in the third line refers to the previous sentence.

The third paragraph contains of 1 personal reference. It is *It*, which is found in the second line and refers to the previous sentence.

The fourth paragraph contains of 1 personal reference (*We*) and 1 demonstrative reference (*This research*). *We* include to writer and reader reference, while *This research* refers to *a research for some schools*.

The last paragraph contains of 1 reference. It is definite article, *the government policies*. It refers to *National exam online*.

[Text 5]

The first paragraph contains 3 personal references (*Their*, *We*, and *It*). *Their* in the first line refers to *the elementary school*. *We* in the third line is a writer and reader reference. *It* in the fifth line refers to the previous clause.

The second paragraph contains of 8 personal references (*It*, *They*, and *Their*). *It* in the second line refers to the previous clause. *It* in the seventh line

refers to the previous sentence. *It* in the eight line refers to *Journal of Experimental Education*. *They* in the sixth line refers back to *the students*. *They* in the last line refers to *85% of elementary students in California*. *Their* in the sixth and seventh line refers to *the students*.

The third paragraph contains 6 personal references (*They* and *It*). *They* in the second and third paragraph refers anaphorically to *the students*. *It* in the last line refers to *the impact of much homework*.

The last paragraph contains 3 personal references (*It* and *We*). *It* in the first line refers cataphorically to *homework has some advantages*. *It* in the second line refers to *give homework very much*. *We* in the seventh line include to writer and reader reference.

[Text 6]

The first paragraph contains 2 personal references (*Their* and *It*). *Their* in the fourth line refers to *some parents*. *It* in the fifth paragraph refers to the previous sentence.

The second paragraph contains of 5 personal references (*They* and *Their*). All of the references refers back to *children*.

The third paragraph contains of 3 personal references (*We*, *Our*, and *It*) and 1 demonstrative reference (*This case*). *We* in the first line and *Our* in the second are a writer and reader reference. *It* in the third line refers to the previous sentence.

The fourth paragraph contains 1 personal reference. It is *someone* which is refers to the user of internet.

The fifth paragraph contains 2 personal references (*Someone* and *It*). *Someone* in the first line refers to the user of internet. *It* in the last line refers to the previous sentence.

The last paragraph contains 6 personal references (*I*, *We*, *Our*, *You*, *Yourself*, and *It*). *I* refers to the writer himself. *We* refers to the writer and reader. *You* and *Yourself* refers to the reader. *It* in the last line refers to *the social media*.

[Text 7]

The first paragraph contains of one personal reference. It is *everyone* which is found in the second line. It refers cataphorically to *many people*.

The second paragraph contains of 2 personal references (*They*) and 2 demonstrative references (*This* and *This problem*). *They* in the second line refers to *a lot of people*. *They* in the fourth line refers to *the subject of music industry*. *This* in the third line refers to *illegal downloading*. *This problem* in the last line also refers to *illegal downloading*.

The third paragraph contains of 1 personal reference (*They*) which is refers to *Ministry of communication* and 2 demonstrative references (*This problem* and *This*) which are refers to *illegal downloading*.

The fourth paragraph contains of one reference (*It*) which is refers to *legal basic used to copyright protection cyberspace*.

The last paragraph contains 3 personal references (*They* and *It*) and 1 comparative reference (*as long as*) which is found in the first line. *They* refers to the internet downloader. *It* in the first line refers to illegal downloading. *It* in the last line refers back to *music or video*.

[Text 8]

The first paragraph contains 6 personal references (*They, Their, Our, and I*) and 2 demonstrative references (*This problem* and *Here*). *They* and *Their* in the third line refers back to *The corruptors*. *Our* in the fourth and seventh line and also *We* in the eleventh line are writer and reader reference. *I* in the last line refers to the writer Himself. *This problem* in the eleventh line refers back to *the corruption*. *Here* in the last line refers to the writer's writing.

The second paragraph contains 10 personal references (*It, Their, and They*) and 1 demonstrative reference (*This punishment*). *It* in the first line refers to *death penalty*. *It* in the seventh line refers to the previous sentence. *Their* and *They* in the first until fourth line and also ninth line refers back to *the corruptors*. *They* in the fifth and sixth line refers to *some people who disagree with death penalty*. *This punishment* refers back to *death penalty*.

The third paragraph contains 11 personal references (*It, They, Our, and We*) and 1 demonstrative reference (*This punishment*). *It* in the first, second, and fourth line refers to *death penalty*. *It* in the sixth line refers to the previous sentence. *It* in the seventh line refers to *second chance*. *Our* in the third, ninth, and last line and also *We* in the last line are writer and reader reference. *They* in the fifth line refers to *people who refuse death penalty*. *This punishment* refers back to *death penalty*.

The last paragraph contains of 2 personal references (*They* and *Our*) and 1 demonstrative reference (*This punishment*). *They* in the third and fourth line refers to *the corruptors*. *This punishment* refers to *death penalty*.

[Text 9]

The first paragraph contains 3 personal references (*They* and *I*) and 1 demonstrative reference (*This action*). *They* in the second and fourth line refers back to *students*. *I* in the last line is writer reference. *This action* refers to *working and going to school*.

The second paragraph contains 8 personal references (*My*, *Their*, *We*, and *It*). *My* in the first line refers to the writer Himself. *Their* in the second until last line refers back to *students*. *We* in the second line is a writer and reader reference. *It* in the fourth line refers to *part-time job*.

The third paragraph contains 17 personal references (*They*, *It*, *Their*, *Me*, *I*, and *My*). *They* in the first line refers to *students*. *It* in the second line refers to *money oriented*. *It* in the fourth line refers to *spend money on high-priced*. *Me*, *I*, and *My* in the fourth until last line are writer reference.

The fourth paragraph contains 10 personal references (*It*, *Their*, *I*, *We*, and *They*) and 1 comparative reference (*The same right*). *It* in the first line refers cataphorically to the next sentence. *It* in the third line refers to *part-time job*. *Their* and *They* in the first, second, sixth, and seventh line refers back to *students*. *We* in the third line is a writer and reader reference.

The last paragraph contains 6 personal references (*I*, *Their*, and *We*). *I* refers to the writer. *Their* in the second, third, fifth, and sixth line refers to *students*. *We* include into writer and reader reference.

[Text 10]

The first paragraph contains 2 personal references and 1 demonstrative reference (*This problem*). *They* in the second and fourth line refers to *Many teenagers*. *This problem* refers to *pregnancy*.

The second paragraph contains 1 personal reference (*It*) and 1 demonstrative reference (*That*). *It* refers to abortion. *That* refers *the right of the live*.

The third paragraph contains 3 personal references (*It* and *Woman*) and 1 demonstrative reference (*That life*). *it* in the first and second line refers to *abortion*. *Woman* in the fifth line refers to *baby's mother*. *That life* refers to human creature.

The last paragraph contains 4 personal references (*I*, *We* and *It*). *I* is a writer reference. *We* include to writer and reader reference. *It* in the last line refers cataphorically to *don't do abortion*.

[Text 11]

The first paragraph contains 4 personal references (*Them*, *It*, and *They*). *Them* in the second line refers to *beer*. *It* in the third line refers cataphorically to *the need of beer*. *It* in the last line refers to *the prohibition of beer*. *They* in the fifth line refers to *Minister of Religion*.

The second paragraph contains 10 personal references (*I*, *They*, and *It*) and 2 demonstrative references (*This judgment* and *This illegal beer*). *I* in the first and eighth line are writer reference. *They* in the third line refers to *cigarette, drugs, or other*. *They* in the fifth line refers to *some irresponsible people*. *It* in the fourth line refers to *prohibition of beer*. *It* in the fifth and sixth line refers to *illegal beer*.

It in the seventh line refers to *the condition when beer is prohibited*. *This judgment* in the first line refers to the previous sentence. *This illegal beer* in the seventh line refers to *the beer made by some irresponsible people*.

The third paragraph contains 14 personal references (*I, Our, We, It* and *They*) and 2 demonstrative references (*That* and *There*). *I* in the first and ninth line are writer reference. *Our* in the first line and *We* in the second line are writer and reader reference. *It* in the second and third line refers to *alcohol*. *It* in the sixth line refers to *the use of beer in food*. *It* in the ninth line refers to the problem about beer. *They* and *Their* in the third, fifth, and eighth line refers to *many people in Indonesia*. *That* in the first line refers to the previous sentence. *There* in the seventh line refers to *some province in Indonesia*.

The last paragraph contains 9 personal references (*I, It, and We*) and 1 demonstrative reference (*This impact*). *I* is a writer reference. *It* in the first line refers to *if beer prohibited*. *It* in the second and third line refers to *habit to drink beer*. *It* in the fourth and last line refers to *beer*. *We* include to writer and reader reference. *This impact* in the last line refers to some problems because of beer prohibition.

[Text 12]

The first paragraph contains 10 personal references (*We, It, You, Them,* and *They*) and 3 demonstrative references (*This problem* and *Those*). *We* include to writer and reader reference. *It* in the third and fourth line refers to *sexual activity*. *It* in the sixth line refers to *students gathered in the same room*. *Them* and *They* in the sixth and seventh line refers to *male and female students*. *This*

problem in the seventh line refers to *free sex*. *Those* in the eighth line refers to *students*.

The second paragraph contains 5 personal references (*They It*, and *Themselves*) and 2 demonstrative references (*This own pace* and *This*). *They* in the third, fifth and sixth line refers to *students*. *It* in the last line refers to *learn in single sex school*. *Themselves* in the sixth line refers to *students*. *This own pace* and *This* refers to *students' pace*.

The third paragraph contains 6 personal references (*Their, They* and *It*). *Their* and *They* refer to the students. *It* in the third line refers to *focus in study*.

The fourth paragraph contains 3 personal references (*They* and *Their*) which are refer to *the teacher* and 1 demonstrative reference (*Those*) which refers to *teacher's teaching*.

The fifth paragraph contains 6 personal references (*Their, I, They* and *It*) and 1 comparative reference (*Higher*). *Their* in the second sentence refers to *children*. *Their* in the third sentence refers back to *some people*. *I* is a writer reference. *They* in the sixth line refers to *Australian students*. *It* in the sixth line refers to the previous sentence.

The last paragraph contains 4 personal references (*It, I, and Our*) and 2 demonstrative reference (*This era* and *This system*). *This era* refers to the condition right now. *This system* refers to *single sex school*.

[Text 13]

The first paragraph contains 7 personal references (*We, Us, It, They*, and *Their*) and 1 demonstrative reference (*This modern life*). *We* and *Us* included to

writer and reader reference. *It* in the fourth line refers to *doing homework*. *They* and *Their* in the sixth line refers back to *students*. *This modern life* refers to the condition right now.

The second paragraph contains 10 personal references (*Us, Our, We, It, They, and Their*). *Us, Our, and We* belong to writer and reader reference. *It* in the second line refers to *doing homework*. *They* and *Their* in the third and fourth line refers to *the teacher*.

The third paragraph contains 3 personal references (*It, They, and Their*) and 1 demonstrative reference (*This*). *It* in the first line refers to *doing homework*. *They* and *Their* refers to *the students*. *This* in the first line refers to the previous sentence.

The fourth paragraph contains 5 personal references (*They, It, Them and Their*). *They, Them and Their* refers back to *students*. *It* in the fourth line refers to *the lesson*.

The fifth paragraph contains 7 personal references (*We, Our, Us, and It*). *We, Our, and Us* belong to writer and reader reference. *It* in the fourth and fifth line refers to *doing many homework*.

The last paragraph contains 4 personal references (*It, Their, Them, and My*) and 1 demonstrative reference (*There*). *It* in the second line refers to *daily homework*. *It* in the third line refers to the previous sentence. *Their* and *them* refers back to *students*. *My* in the third line belongs to writer reference.

[Text 14]

The first paragraph contains 7 personal references (*We*, *Our*, and *Them*). *We* and *Our* belongs to writer and reader reference. *Them* in the last line refers back to *Cultural traditions and perspective*.

The second paragraph contains 6 personal references (*Our*, *It*, *Us*, and *Their*) and 1 demonstrative reference (*These*). *Our* and *Us* belongs to writer and reader reference. *It* in the first line refers to *Religious traditions*. *Their* in the second line refers to *the parents*. *These* in the last line refers to *learning religious traditions*.

The third paragraph contains 5 personal references (*Our* and *We*) and 1 demonstrative reference (*These*). *Our* and *We* belongs to writer and reader reference. *These* in the sixth line refers to *culture festivals*.

The fourth paragraph contains 9 personal references (*Our*, *Its*, *They*, *Their* and *We*) and 2 demonstrative reference (*This* and *That*). *Our* and *We* belongs to writer and reader reference. *Its* in the first line refers to *each culture*. *They* and *Their* in the fourth line refers to *other member of culture*. *This* in the fourth line refers to *the overjoyed*. *That* in the fifth line refers to *traditional artwork*.

The fifth paragraph contains 2 personal references (*Our* and *It*). *Our* belongs to writer and reader reference. *It* in the second line refers to *culture*.

The last paragraph contains 4 personal references (*We*, *Us*, and *Our*) which are belong to writer and reader reference.

[Text 15]

The first paragraph contains 7 personal references (*We*, *Us*, and *It*) and 2 demonstrative reference (*This modern era* and *That*). *We* and *Us* belongs to writer and reader reference. *It* in the sixth line refers back to *fast food*. *It* in the seventh line refers back to *factors*. *This modern era* refers to the condition right now. *That* in the fifth line refers to the previous clause.

The second paragraph contains 5 personal references (*We*, *Our*, and *It*) and 1 demonstrative reference (*That*). *We* and *Our* belong to writer and reader reference. *It* in the third line refers to *the health risks*. *That* in the last line refers to the previous three sentences.

The third paragraph contains 5 personal references (*They* and *Their*) and 1 demonstrative reference (*This modern era*). *They* in the second line refers back to *Mc. Donald's*. *They* and *Their* in the third until fifth line refers back to *the kids*. *This modern era* refers to the condition right now.

The fourth paragraph contains 2 personal references (*We*) and it is belongs to writer and reader reference.

The last paragraph contains 6 personal references (*Their*, *We*, *It*, and *Our*). *Their* in the second and last line refers back to *people*. *We* and *Our* belong to writer and reader reference. *It* in the third line refers to the previous sentence.

[Text 16]

The first paragraph contains 3 personal references (*Their*, *They* and *It*) and 1 demonstrative reference (*These*). *Their* and *They* in the third and fourth line

refers back to *children*. *It* in the sixth line refers back to *child performers*. *These* in the second line refers to *young singers, actors, dancer, gymnasts, etc.*

The second paragraph contains 2 personal references (*They* and *Their*) and 3 demonstrative references (*These laws*, *These child performers*, and *These children*). *They* and *Their* refers back to *the child*. *These laws* in the fifth line refers back to *various laws*. *These child performers* refers to *singers, actors, dancer, gymnasts, etc.* *These children* refers to *young singers, actors, dancer, gymnasts, etc.*

The third paragraph doesn't contain any reference.

The last paragraph contains 2 personal references (*Their* and *I*). *their* in the second line refers to *the child*, while *I* here belongs to writer reference.

[Text 17]

The first paragraph contains 9 personal references (*They*, *It*, *You*, *Us*, *We*, *Our*, and *I*) and 2 demonstrative references (*That* and *Here*). *They* in the third line refers to *people*. *It* in the fourth line refers to *the use of public transportation*. *Us*, *We*, and *Our* belong to writer and reader reference. *You* belong to reader reference. *I* belong to writer reference. *That* in the fifth line refers back to *individual transportation*. *Here* in the eighth line refers to writer's writing.

The second paragraph contains 6 personal references (*You*, *Our*, *Their* and *It*). *You* belong to reader reference. *Our* belong to writer and reader reference. *Their* in the third line refers to *all of people*. *It* in the third line refers to *the use of individual transportation*.

The third paragraph contains 11 personal references (*Them, It, We* and *Our*). *Them* in the third line refers to *many people*. *It* in the third until sixth line refers to *the use of individual transportation in big scale*. *We* and *Our* belong to writer and reader reference.

The fourth paragraph contains 7 personal references (*Their, We, and Our*) and 1 demonstrative reference (*This*). *Their* in the first line refers back to *people*. *We* and *Our* belong to writer and reader reference. *This* in the third line refers to *energy*.

The fifth paragraph contains 1 personal references (*My, It, We* and *Our*) and 1 demonstrative reference (*Those*). *My* in the first line belongs to writer reference. *It* in the second line refers to *using individual transportation*. *We* and *Our* belong to writer and reader reference. *Those* refers to the previous four paragraph.

[Text 18]

The first paragraph contains 2 personal references (*Her* and *You*) and 4 demonstrative references (*This contest, Those, and That*). *Her* in the sixteenth line refers back to *the contestant*. *You* in the last line belong to reader reference. *This contest* in the fifth and eighth line refers back to *Miss Universe*. *Those* in the ninth line refers to *four categories*. *That* in the thirteenth line refers to the previous four sentences.

The second paragraph contains 4 personal references (*They, Her* and *It*). *They* in the second line refers back to *children*. *Her* in the third line refers back to *Miss Universe*. *It* in the third and fourth line refers to *Miss Universe*.

The third paragraph contains 2 personal references (*They*) which are refers back to *man*.

The last paragraph contains 2 personal references (*It* and *we*). *It* refers back to *Miss Universe*. *We* belong to writer and reader reference.

[Text 19]

The first paragraph contains 3 personal references (*Their*, *Them*, and *Everyone*). *Their* in the second line and *Them* in the fourth line refers back to *students*. *Everyone* in the seventh line refers to *students*.

The third paragraph contains 7 personal references (*It*, *They*, and *Their*). *It* in the second line refers to *doing homework*. *They* in the third line refers back to *some people*. *They* and *Their* in the fifth and seventh line refers back to *students*.

The fourth paragraph contains 6 personal references (*It*, *They*, *Their*, and *Them*). *It* in the second line refers back to *homework*. *They*, *Their*, and *Them* refers back to *students*.

The last paragraph contains 4 personal references (*It*, *We*, *I* and *They*). *It* in the first line refers back to *homework*. *We* belongs to writer and reader reference. *I* belongs to writer reference. *They* in the fifth line refers back to *students*.

[Text 20]

The first paragraph contains 4 personal references (*It*, *They*, and *I*). *It* in the first line refers back to *pregnancy*. *It* in the fourth line refers back to *abortion*. *They* in the third line refers anaphorically to *people*. *I* is a writer reference.

The second paragraph contains 7 personal references (*Their*, *They*, and *It*). *Their* in the second line refers back to *people*. *Their* in the fifth line and *They* in

the fourth line refers to *baby's parents*. *They* in the fourth line refers back to *the baby*. *It* in the last line refers to *abortion*.

The third paragraph contains 7 personal references (*I*, *It*, *Their*, *They*, and *Her*). *I* belong to writer reference. *It* in the first and second line refers to *abortion*. *Their* in the first line refers to *everyone who do an abortion*. *Their*, *They*, and *Her* in the fourth line refers to *the baby's mother*.

The last paragraph contains 3 personal references (*Them*, *It*, and *Their*). *Them* in the second line and *Their* in the third line refers to *people who do abortion*. *It* in the second line refers back to *abortion*.

[Text 21]

The first paragraph contains 7 personal references (*It*, *Their*, *My*, *I*, *Me*, and *They*) and 1 definite article (*The following*). *It* in the first line refers back to *assignment*. *Their* in the eighth line and *They* in the twelfth line refer to *students*. *My*, *I*, and *Me* belong to writer reference.

The second paragraph contains 3 personal references (*It*, *They*, and *Their*). *It* in the fifth line refers to *doing assignment*. *They* and *Their* in the sixth line refers back to *students*.

The third paragraph contains 4 personal references (*They*) which are refers back to *students* and 1 demonstrative reference (*This way*) which is refers to *doing assignment*.

The fourth paragraph contains 4 personal references (*It* and *They*). *It* in the third line refers to the previous sentence. *They* in the fourth, seventh, and eighth line refers back to *students*.

The last paragraph contains 1 personal reference (*I*) and it belongs to writer reference.

[Text 22]

The first paragraph contains 4 personal references (*We*, *Our*, *It*, and *They*) and 1 demonstrative reference (*This period*). *We* and *Our* belong to writer and reader reference. *It* in the third line refers to *sex education*. *They* in the fifth line refers to *kids*. *This period* refers to *primary school and secondary school*.

The second paragraph contains 2 personal references (*Our* and *I*). *Our* belong to writer and reader reference, while *I* belong to writer reference.

The third paragraph contains 4 personal references (*Their* and *It*). *Their* in the second line refers back to *some kids*, while *Their* in the third line refers to *some parents*. *It* in the third line refers back to *the dangers of being sexually active*.

The fourth paragraph contains 2 personal references (*Their*) which are refers to *the students*.

The fifth paragraph contains 4 personal references (*Them*, *They* and *It*) and 1 demonstrative reference (*These things*). *Them* in the second line refers back to *kids*. *They* in the fourth and fifth line refers back to *students*. *It* in the fifth line refers to *sexual intercourse*. *These things* refers back to *sexual diseases and teenager pregnancy*.

The last paragraph contains 2 personal references (*I* and *They*). *I* belong to writer reference. *They* refers back to *students*.

[Text 23]

The first paragraph contains 1 personal reference (*They*) which refers back to *Indonesian people*.

The second paragraph contains 9 personal references (*Them, Their, They* and *It*) and 1 demonstrative reference (*This method*). *Them, Their,* and *They* in the whole paragraph refers back to *children*. *It* in the second line refers to *English language*. *This method* in the fourth line refers back to *bilingual method*.

The third paragraph doesn't contain any references.

The fourth paragraph contains 4 personal references (*Their, They,* and *Themselves*) and 2 demonstrative references (*This problem* and *This way*). All of the personal references refer to children. *This problem* in the second line refers to the previous sentence. *This way* in the fifth line refers to the previous sentence.

The last paragraph contains 2 personal references (*Their* and *Your*). *Their* refers back to *children*. *Your* belong to reader reference

b. Substitution

Not all of the text contains substitution. The texts that contain substitution are:

- 1) **Text 1.** Contains 1 substitution. It is in the second paragraph, in the first sentence. The word *One* substitute *Advantage*.
- 2) **Text 7.** Contains 1 substitution. It is in the last paragraph, in the last sentence. The word *One* substitute *People who like music or video*.

- 3) **Text 10.** Contains 1 substitution. It is in the second paragraph, in the third sentence. The word *Others* substitute *Some people who disagree with abortion.*
- 4) **Text 13.** Contains 1 substitution. It is in the fourth paragraph, in the second sentence. The word *One* substitute *A student.*
- 5) **Text 16.** Contains 2 substitutions. Those are: in the first paragraph, in the second sentence and in the second paragraph, in the second sentence. The word *Some* substitute *people who disagree with child performer.*
- 6) **Text 19.** Contains 1 substitution. It is in the first paragraph, in the third sentence. The word *Others* substitute *Many people who disagree with homework for students.*

c. Ellipsis

There are no ellipsis found in all of the text.

d. Conjunction

- 1) **[Text 1].** Text 1 contains 36 conjunctions. Those are: 3 temporal conjunctions (*at that time, from time to time, and finally*); 21 additive conjunctions (*and, in addition, for example, or, not only...but also*); 9 adversative conjunctions (*in fact, however, in contrast, conversely, even if, if*); 3 causal conjunctions (*because, in order to, thus*).
- 2) **[Text 2].** Text 2 contains 26 conjunctions. Those are: 12 additive conjunctions (*and, or, not only...but also*); 4 temporal conjunctions (*first,*

second, next, in summary); 5 adversative conjunctions (*however, but, if*); 5 causal conjunctions (*because*).

- 3) **[Text 3]**. Text 3 contains 28 conjunctions. Those are: 9 additive conjunctions (*and, beside, etc, i.e.*); 4 temporal conjunctions (*firstly, secondly, third, in conclusion*); 3 adversative conjunctions (*the fact that, if*); 12 causal conjunctions (*thus, so*).
- 4) **[Text 4]**. Text 4 contains 20 conjunctions. Those are: 13 additive conjunctions (*and, or, besides*); 1 temporal conjunction (*in conclusion*); 4 adversative conjunctions (*if, in fact, however*); 2 causal conjunctions (*because*).
- 5) **[Text 5]**. Text 5 contains 22 conjunctions. Those are: 9 additive conjunctions (*and, for example, like, beside stress, in addition to*); 2 temporal conjunctions (*time to time, then*); 8 adversative conjunctions (*if, but*); 3 causal conjunctions (*because*).
- 6) **[Text 6]**. Text 6 contains 20 conjunctions. Those are: 14 additive conjunctions (*and, etc, or, beside that, like*); 4 temporal conjunctions (*the first, the second, the third, in conclusion*); 1 adversative conjunction (*however*); 1 causal conjunction (*because*).
- 7) **[Text 7]**. Text 7 contains 20 conjunctions. Those are: 13 additive conjunctions (*and, or*); 1 temporal conjunction (*in a nutshell*); 3 adversative conjunctions (*however, but*); 3 causal conjunctions (*because*).
- 8) **[Text 8]**. Text 8 contains 37 conjunctions. Those are: 15 additive conjunctions (*and, or, not just it*); 7 temporal conjunctions (*then, the first, the*

next, the last, after, in conclusion); 9 adversative conjunctions (*if, however, but*); 6 causal conjunctions (*because, so*).

- 9) **[Text 9]**. Text 9 contains 17 conjunctions. Those are: 8 additive conjunctions (*and, in addition*); 3 temporal conjunctions (*before, in conclusion*); 3 adversative conjunctions (*in fact, but, if*); 3 causal conjunctions (*because*).
- 10) **[Text 10]**. Text 10 contains 26 conjunctions. Those are: 12 additive conjunctions (*or, and, another reason*); 3 temporal conjunctions (*before, first, then, in the end*); 6 adversative conjunctions (*however, in fact, if*); 5 causal conjunctions (*because, so*).
- 11) **[Text 11]**. Text 11 contains 40 conjunctions. Those are: 16 additive conjunctions (*and, or, example, such as, not only...but also*); 13 adversative conjunctions (*but, in the fact, if, however, whereas*); 11 causal conjunctions (*because*).
- 12) **[Text 12]**. Text 12 contains 16 conjunctions. Those are: 8 additive conjunctions (*and, like*); 2 adversative conjunctions (*on the other hand, however*); 4 temporal conjunctions (*first of all, next, then, in conclusion*); 2 causal conjunctions (*because, so that*).
- 13) **[Text 13]**. Text 13 contains 30 conjunctions. Those are: 12 additive conjunctions (*and, moreover, or, such as, beside that, not only...but also*); 6 adversative conjunctions (*in some other cases, although, if*); 4 temporal conjunctions (*firstly, secondly, thirdly, in conclusion*); 8 causal conjunctions (*therefore, so, in order to, as a result*).

- 14) **[Text 14]**. Text 14 contains 28 conjunctions. Those are: 17 additive conjunctions (*and, or*); 5 adversative conjunctions (*although, but, even though*); 4 temporal conjunctions (*first, second, then, the last*); 2 causal conjunctions (*hence, so*).
- 15) **[Text 15]**. Text 15 contains 29 conjunctions. Those are: 20 additive conjunctions (*and, or, like, for example, not only....but also*); 2 adversative conjunctions (*but*); 3 temporal conjunctions (*the first, second, then, the last, then, finally*); 4 causal conjunctions (*because, so*).
- 16) **[Text 16]**. Text 16 contains 19 conjunctions. Those are: 16 additive conjunctions (*etc, and, or, for example, e.g, additionally, either....or*); 2 adversative conjunctions (*however, yet*); 1 causal conjunction (*so that*).
- 17) **[Text 17]**. Text 17 contains 27 conjunctions. Those are: 15 additive conjunctions (*etc, and, like, in other effect*); 4 adversative conjunctions (*but, even though, if*); 3 temporal conjunctions (*first, second*); 5 causal conjunctions (*because, so*).
- 18) **[Text 18]**. Text 18 contains 20 conjunctions. Those are: 16 additive conjunctions (*or, like, and, etc, not only....but also*); 2 adversative conjunctions (*but, if*); 2 temporal conjunctions (*first, second*).
- 19) **[Text 19]**. Text 19 contains 17 conjunctions. Those are: 8 additive conjunctions (*and*); 4 adversative conjunctions (*although, but, if*); 2 temporal conjunctions (*then, in the conclusion*); 3 causal conjunctions (*so*).
- 20) **[Text 20]**. Text 20 contains 26 conjunctions. Those are: 5 additive conjunctions (*like, and*); 9 adversative conjunctions (*however, if, although,*

but); 3 temporal conjunctions (*then, first of all, after, in conclusion*); 9 causal conjunctions (*so that, because, so*).

- 21) [Text 21]. Text 21 contains 38 conjunctions. Those are: 17 additive conjunctions (*and, or, in addition, not only....but also*); 4 adversative conjunctions (*but, even though*); 5 temporal conjunctions (*sometimes, first, second, third, at the first*); 12 causal conjunctions (*so, because*).
- 22) [Text 22]. Text 22 contains 20 conjunctions. Those are: 11 additive conjunctions (*and*); 4 adversative conjunctions (*but, in fact, if*); 2 temporal conjunctions (*after, in conclusion*); 3 causal conjunctions (*because, so*).
- 23) [Text 23]. Text 23 contains 27 conjunctions. Those are: 19 additive conjunctions (*like, and, or*); 1 adversative conjunction (*but*); 3 temporal conjunctions (*first, next, in conclusion*); 4 causal conjunctions (*so, because*).

2. The Frequency of Occurrence of Each Type of Grammatical Cohesive Devices

From all of the texts, many kinds of reference that used by the students are presented in the table 4.1 below. Those are personal reference, demonstrative reference, comparative reference, and definite article.

Table 4.1. Kind of Reference Used by the Students

Text	Kinds of Reference				Total for each Text
	Personal	Demonstrative	Comparative	Definite article	
1	17	6	-	-	23
2	12	1	-	-	13

Continued

Continuation

Text	Kinds of Reference				Total for each Text
	Personal	Demonstrative	Comparative	Definite article	
3	13	6	-	-	19
4	6	1	-	1	8
5	20	-	-	-	20
6	19	1	-	-	20
7	8	4	1	-	13
8	29	5	-	-	34
9	45	1	1	-	47
10	10	3	-	-	13
11	37	5	-	-	42
12	34	9	-	-	43
13	36	3	-	-	39
14	33	4	-	-	37
15	25	4	-	-	29
16	7	4	-	-	11
17	34	4	-	-	38
18	10	4	-	-	14
19	20	-	-	-	20
20	21	-	-	-	21
21	19	-	-	1	20
22	18	2	-	-	20
23	16	3	-	-	19
Total	489	70	2	2	563

From the table above we can see the personal reference used 489 times, demonstrative reference used 70 times, comparative reference used 2 times, and definite article used 2 times. Then, the percentage of each kinds of reference is presented in the table 4.2 below.

Table 4.2. The Percentage of Each Kinds of Reference

Kinds of References	Frequency	Percentage
Personal	489	86, 86 %
Demonstrative	70	12,43 %
Comparative	2	0,35 %
Definite article	2	0,35 %
Total	563	100%

Meanwhile, substitution that used by students is presented in the table 4.3.

The students used substitution 9 times.

Table 4.3. Substitution Used by the Students

Text	Frequency of Substitution
1	1
7	1
10	1
13	1
16	2
19	1
Total	7

Then, the types of conjunction that used by the students is presented in the table 4.4 below. Those are additive conjunction, adversative conjunction, temporal conjunction, causal conjunction, and coordinating conjunction.

Table 4.4. Types of Conjunction Used by the Students

Text	Types of Conjunction				Total
	Additive	Adversative	Temporal	Causal	
1	21	9	3	3	36
2	12	5	4	5	26
3	9	3	4	12	28
4	13	4	1	2	20
5	9	8	2	3	22
6	14	1	4	1	20
7	13	3	1	3	20
8	15	9	7	6	37
9	8	3	3	3	17
10	12	6	3	5	26
11	16	13	-	11	40
12	8	2	4	2	16

Continued

Continued

Text	Types of Conjunction				Total
	Additive	Adversative	Temporal	Causal	
13	12	6	4	8	30
14	17	5	4	2	28
15	20	2	3	4	29
16	16	2	-	1	19
17	15	4	3	5	27
18	16	2	2	-	20
19	8	4	2	3	17
20	5	9	3	9	26
21	17	4	5	12	38
22	11	4	2	3	20
23	19	1	3	4	27
Total	306	109	67	107	589

The table above present the types of conjunction that used by the students in writing their essays. Additive conjunction used 306 times, adversative conjunction used 109 times, temporal conjunction 67 times, and causal conjunction used 107 times. After that, the percentage of the types of conjunction can be drawn in the table 4.5 below.

Table 4.5. The Percentage of Kinds of Conjunction Used by the Students

Kinds of Conjunction	Frequency	Percentage
Additive	306	51,95 %
Adversative	109	18,51 %
Temporal	67	11,37 %
Causal	107	18,17 %
Total	589	100%

Then, the frequency of all kinds of grammatical cohesive devices that used by the students is presented in the table 4.6 below.

Table 4.6. The Frequency of All Kinds of Grammatical Cohesive Devices

Kinds of Grammatical Cohesive Devices	The Frequency
Reference	563
Substitution	7
Ellipsis	0
Conjunction	589
Total	1159

From the table above, reference used 563 times, substitution used 7 times, ellipsis is not used, and conjunction used 589 times. Then, by the formula that presented earlier, the percentage of each kinds of grammatical cohesive devices found as in the table 4.7 below.

Table 4.7. The Percentage of Each Kinds of Grammatical Cohesive Devices

Kinds of Grammatical Cohesive Devices	Frequency	Percentage
Reference	563	48,58 %
Substitution	7	0,6 %
Ellipsis	0	0 %
Conjunction	589	50,81 %
Total	1159	100%

From the table above, grammatical cohesive devices that most used by the students is conjunction, the second is reference, the third is substitution, and the last is ellipsis.

F. Discussion

Halliday and Hasan (1976: 28) had distributed grammatical cohesive devices into reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction. Begun with this basis, researcher had discovered various kinds of distributed grammatical cohesive devices used by the fourth semester students of English education Department at IAIN Tulungagung, academic year 2014/2015 which then distributed into those four types of grammatical cohesive devices.

The findings of the grammatical cohesive devices then described or exposed orderly, from those which most frequently occurred to the most rarely occurred.

1. Conjunction (50,81 %)

Conjunction is the mostly used in the essay with 589 times of use (see table 4.4). Students' previous knowledge and experience may help them to use various kinds of conjunctive devices. The use of additive conjunction *and*, adversative conjunction *but*, causal conjunction *because*, and temporal conjunction *in conclusion*" are the most common.

Thus, even if the various devices are used to express addition, students always prefer using *and* in order to link an additive condition. However, some

additive devices as: *or* and *such as*, are used in some ways because students might know and use these devices from their earlier writing, also students may not know some additive conjunction to be used as: *Likewise, else, alternatively, similarly, in the same way ...etc.* Azzouz (2009:44) stated that it was because they might not be used in their previous writing; i.e., they have little experience in using them.

Then, the use of *but* to express the contrastive is also predominant. Azzouz (2009:44) argued that students might use *but* because it seems easy for them to write it without searching for another devices which have the same function. For this reason, students' use of other contrastive devices seems to be little, as the use of: *in fact, although, and however.*

Next, the use of "*because*" to express causality is also common. Yet the other causal cohesive devices are used in conversion way although they are just a little, such as: *thus, so, hence...etc.*

After that, the students' use of temporal cohesive devices to express conclusion is quite common, such as the use of conclusive devices *in conclusion.* Furthermore, the use of temporal device *at first, second, and third* might be a signal of a linked paragraph. These devices are generally used by students to move from one paragraph to another.

The use of conjunctive devices became familiar because it is usually used in many kinds of text and the students may often use those devices in writing their text, such as narrative text or descriptive and expository text which have been taught before.

2. Reference (48,58 %)

Reference is ranked number two with 563 times of occurrence (see table 4.1). The reference that mostly used is personal reference, such as *they, them, their, we, our, us, I, and it*. Azzouz (2009:50) argues that such phenomena can be caused by the students' mastery of the grammatical cohesive devices and their knowledge regarding such devices. The results reveal that students use references adequately. References are known and taught from their previous study. The use of such subject, object, and possessive pronoun is familiar to the students. Those kinds of reference is usually used in their textbook or their writing since the beginner level they learned English.

3. Substitution (0,6 %)

Occurred 7 times, substitution became the third grammatical cohesive devices that most used by the students, for example, the word *One* used to substitute *a student*. One point that can be assumed from the use of substitution is that students are not familiar with the use of substitution. It can be seen by the very small percentage of those grammatical cohesive devices. Substitution may be less because students do not have enough experience to use it compared to the use of reference; therefore, they naturally use reference instead of substitution to refer to the previous entities. They seem to have difficulties in determining the clause to be substituted or the clause to be omitted. Moreover, Azzouz (2009:51) argued that students' awareness regarding items to be substituted or omitted may affect the use of it.

4. Ellipsis (0 %)

Ellipsis is the rarely most occurred grammatical cohesive devices, and even it doesn't occur in all of students' writing. Similar with the substitution case, the absence of ellipsis is due to their little experience in using them before. According to the results, students are not familiar with the use of Ellipsis and Substitution concerning the use of other grammatical cohesive devices. This might refer to the learners' avoidance in using such types. Thus, students usually avoid using ellipsis and substitution because they might fear about their appropriateness. The use of ellipsis and substitution are due to the learners' awareness about nouns which could be omitted or substituted. Hence, the students may rarely or never use any ellipsis in their text writing, such as narrative text or descriptive and expository text which has been taught before.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION

This chapter presents the conclusion of the research findings and suggestion based on the research

G. Conclusion

1. The Types of Grammatical Cohesive Devices found in the Texts

The research showed that the fourth semester students of English Education Department at IAIN Tulungagung academic year 2014-2015 used various kinds of grammatical cohesive devices in writing their argumentative essay. Those are: reference, substitution, and conjunction.

- a. The references that they used are: personal reference (*They, Them, Their, Her, I, Me, You, Yourself, We, Our, Us, It,*); demonstrative reference (*That, This, These, Those, Here, There*); and comparative reference (*higher, as long as*).
- b. The substitutions that they used are: *One, Others, and Some*.
- c. The conjunction that they used are: temporal conjunction (*at that time, from time to time, first, second, next, in summary, finally, then, , in a nutshell, in summary*); additive conjunction (*and, in addition, for example, or, like, in addition, besides, etc, i.e., not only....but also, either.....or*); adversative conjunction (*in fact, however, in contrast,*

conversely, even if, if, although, even though); causal conjunction (*because, in order to, thus, so, so that*).

2. The Frequency of Occurrence of Each Type of Grammatical Cohesive Devices

The frequency of occurrence of each type of grammatical cohesive devices used by the students are exposed orderly from the mostly used to the rarely used.

- a. The most grammatical cohesive devices used by the students is conjunction, with the percentage 50,81%.
- b. The second grammatical cohesive devices most used by the students is reference, with the percentage 48,58 %.
- c. The third grammatical cohesive devices most used by the students are substitution, with the percentage 0, 6 %.
- d. The students didn't use any ellipsis in their argumentative essay. Hence, the percentage of occurrence of ellipsis is 0%.

From all the findings and discussions above, it can be concluded that conjunction stands on top with an enormous amount of occurrences compared with others. Reference stays on the second position, and is followed by substitution and the last is ellipsis. In conclusion, it can be assumed that students are more familiar with the use of conjunction than the other type of grammatical cohesive devices.

A. Suggestion

Based on the discussion of the result and the conclusion, it was found several points could be recommended.

Firstly, for the lecturers can use the result of this study to know the mostly and rarely used grammatical cohesive devices by the students as the indication to know the students ability in varying grammatical cohesive devices in their writing tasks.

Secondly, for the students should vary the use of grammatical cohesive devices in their writing tasks to make their writing better.

Thirdly, for the other researchers who have the same interest in the study of grammatical cohesive devices to make a more deep research about the correctness and incorrectness use of grammatical cohesive devices in order to cover the weakness of this research.

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