# CHAPTER II

# REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter presents the theory related to the analysis of the thesis.

## A. Discourse

Language in used for communication is called discourse. According to Cook, discourse may be composed of one or more well-formed grammatical sentences and indeed it often but it does not have to be (1989:6-7). Discourse is an instance of spoken or written language that has described internal relationship of form and meaning (e.g. word, structure, and cohesion) that relate coherently to an external communicative function or purpose and a given audience/interlocutor. Furthermore the external function or purpose can only be properly determined if one take into account the content and participants in which a piece of discourse (Murcia, 2000:4).

In written discourse we expect them to be coherence, meaningful communication in which the word or sentence are linked or another in a fashion that correspond to conventional formulate, just are we do with speech (McCarthy.1991:12). As stated by Halliday and Hasan that text is used in linguistics to refer to any passages, spoken or written, of whatever length, that does form a unified whole. Text is unit of language in used. It is best regarded as semantic unit: a unit not of form but of meaning (1976:1-2).

From the definition above it can be conclude that text or discourse are language in use for communication, not always grammatical because both spoken and written give priority to the meaning not its form.

## B. Discourse Analysis

According to Brown and Yule (1983:1), says that discourse analysis is the analysis of language in used. It means that discourse is analysis of language that is used by people both spoken and written. Boey (1975:117) states that discourse is analysis is a recent development of language in Britain. It studies the use of language in discourse, the manner which organizes the content of any subject and linguistic expression. It is part of the growing interest that linguistic are showing in the communicative properties of language and the functioning of language in social context. Discourse analysis focuses on natural structure which is found in spoken language, as many find in discourse like conversation, interview, comment and utterance (Cristal, 1987).

Stubbs (1983:30) states that whereas linguistics studies language, discourse analysis can study the actual mechanism by which communication, understanding and interaction are maintained. Expressed more generally, this means that discourse analysis must be concerned with ways in which information is selected to be known and shared as knowledge, taken for granted and not selected at all. It is therefore concerned, not just with whether statements are true or false but with states of information and differential access to information. From explanation above, the writer concludes that a discourse analysis is study about

the use of language that is used by people both spoken and written texts in a social context. Therefore, they will understand what massage that is transfered well.
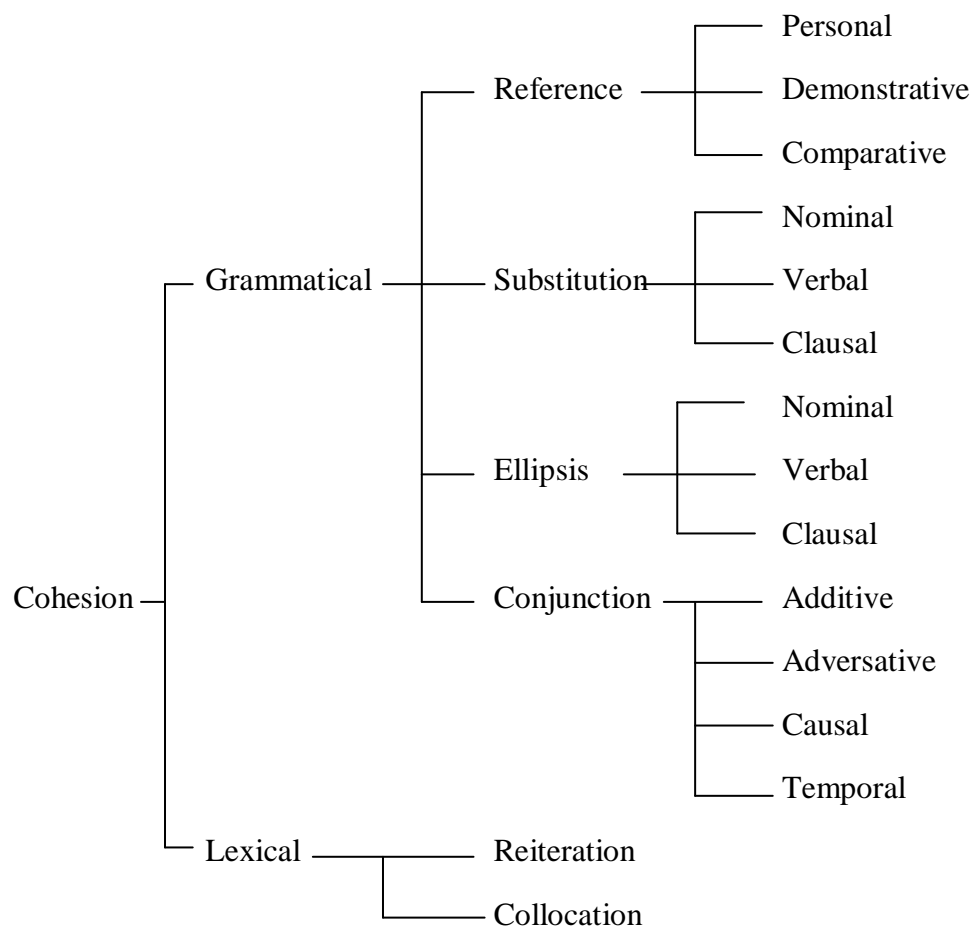
## C. Concept of Cohesion

"The concept of cohesion is semantic one, it refers to relation of meaning that exist within a text, and to define it as a text. Cohesion occurs where the interpretation of some elements in the discourse depends on that of another, the one prepsupposes the other, in the sense that it can not be effectively decoded axcept by resource to it. When this happens a relation of cohesion is set up, and the presupposed are there by at least potentially into a text", Halliday and Hasan (1976:3).

Cohesion is a semantic relation between sentence elements which presupposes an element in another sentence. Thus it is difficult to interpret a sentence when it is isolated from the context in which it occurs, as the sentence the hardly interpretable, (Artawa, 2004:18). Cohesion is the relationship among propositions that is stated explicitly by the semantic elements inside the utterances, which forms a discourse. Cohesive relationships within a text are set up where the interpretation of some element in the interpretation of some element in the discourse is dependent on that of another, (Brown & Yule, 1983:19). Also, Renkema (1993:35) explained "Cohesion is the connection which results when the interpretation of a textual element in dependent on another element in the text". In textual cohesion as state in Halliday and Hasan's (1989:2), divided into two: non-structural and structural cohesion. Non-structural cohesion is in around of

meaning relation, whereas structural cohesion is concerning on the grammar level. Non-structural cohesion consist of grammatical and lexical cohesion, whereas structural cohesion consist of parallelism, theme-rheme development, and given-new organization..

This study focus on non-structural cohesion only, so structural cohesion will not be analyzed here. The writer used Halliday and Hasan (1976) as the main theory, while other author is also used as the complement of the theory used.

Halliday and Hasan divided the cohesion / cohesive devices into two types can be seen as follows:

- Cohesion
  - Grammatical
    - Reference
      - Personal
      - Demonstrative
      - Comparative
    - Substitution
      - Nominal
      - Verbal
      - Clausal
    - Ellipsis
      - Nominal
      - Verbal
      - Clausal
    - Conjunction
      - Additive
      - Adversative
      - Causal
      - Temporal
  - Lexical
    - Reiteration
    - Collocation

## D. Types of Cohesion

There two types of cohesive devices: they are grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion.

### 1. Grammatical Cohesion

Grammatical cohesion is divided into four types: reference, substitution, ellipsis and conjunction.

#### a. Reference

Reference is the specific nature of the information that is signaled for retrieval. In case of reference, the information to be retrieved is the referential meaning, the identity of the particular thing or class of things that is being referred to; the cohesion lies in the continuity of reference, whereby the something enters into the discourse a second time, (Halliday and Hasan, 1976:31).

According to Lyons (1968:44), the relationship that holds between word and things is relationship of reference: word refer to thing.

In discourse analysis, reference is treated as an action on the pert of the speaker or writer, (Brown & Yule,1983:28)

Finnegan (1999:203), states that reference concern the ability of linguistic expressions to refer to real entities.

Reference may be endophora and exophora is reference that lies in the inside of the text. Endophora is devided into anaphora and cataphora. Endophora is reference, which refers to preceding text;

cataphora is reference, which refers to following text. In addition, exophora is reference which lies outside the text in the context of situation.

In this study, the thesis will only focus to analyze reference in endophora side.

**Type of Reference**

Reference is divided into three parts: personal, demonstrative, and comparative reference.

**1) Personal reference**

Personal reference is reference by means of function in the speech situation, thought the category of person (Halliday & Hasan, 1976:37).

**Table 2.1. The categories of personal reference**

The category of personals includes the three classes:

| Person | Personal pronoun | | Possessive determiners | Possessive pronoun |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Subject | Object | | |
| First | I | Me | My | Mine |
| | We | Us | Our | Ours |
| Second | You | You | Your | Yours |
| Third | He | Him | His | His |
| | She | Her | Her | Hers |
| | They | Them | Their | Theirs |
| | It | It | Its | Its |

Example:

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

(Halliday and Hasan, 1976:50)

From example above, there are two kinds of personal reference which is *my* as the posessive determiners that refer to the speaker. *I* and *we* shows personal pronoun. *I* refer to the speaker and *we* refer to my (speaker's) husband and the speaker (1).

2) **Demonstrative reference**

Demonstrative reference is reference by means of location on scale of proximity. It is essentially a form of verbal pointing, as said before the speaker identifies the referent by locating it on scale of proximity, (Halliday and Hasan, 1976:37).

**Table 2.2. The categories of demonstrative reference**

The proximity of demonstrative reference is:

| Proximity | Singular | Plural | Adverb |
|---|---|---|---|
| **Near** | That | These | Here (now) |
| **Far** | This | Those | There, then |
| **Neutral** | The | | |

(Halliday and Hasan, (1976:38)

Example:
(2). Last year we went to *Devon* for a holliday. The holliday we had, *there* was the best we've ever had.

(Halliday & Hasan, 1976:73)

The demonstrative reference in example above is *there* which has the function of far proximity. It refer to *Devon* that is

located far from the speaker now. In addition it is the indirect speech.

## 3) Comparative reference

Comparative reference is indirect reference by means of identity or similarity. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976:37)

There are two kinds of comparative reference: General and Particular comparison.

### a) General comparison

General comparison expresses likeness between things. The likeness may take the form of identity, where 'twi things' are, in fact, the same thing; or of similarity where two things like each other. (Halliday & Hasan, 1076:77)

The kinds of general comparison:

- ✓ Identity: same, equal, identical, identically
- ✓ Similarity: such, similar, so, similarly, likewise
- ✓ Deference: other, different, else, differently, otherwise.

Example:

(3).  a. we have received exactly the *same* reportas was submitted     two months ago.

b. there are *other* qualities than conviviality needed for his job.

c. find a number *equal* to the square of the sum an of digits.

(Halliday and Hasan, 1976:78)

All the examples in (3) consist of general comparison reference. In (a) *same* means, the report is like the report that was submitted two months ago. *Same* is identity general comparison. In (b) *other* is the comparative reference in a form of difference. It means there are additional qualities needed for this job. In (c) *equal* is identity general comparison, which means the number that, same to the square of square of the sum of its digits.

b)  **Particular comparison**

Particular comparison expresses comparability between things in respect of a particular property. The property in question may be a matter of quantity or of quality. (Haliday & Hasan, 1976:80)

Example:

(4). a. there were twice as many people *there* as last time

b. he's a *better* man than I am

c. there are more things in heaven and earth, Horatio, than are dream of in your philosophy

( Halliday & Hasan, 1976:82)

As in (a) is the enumerative comparative reference. It refers to the people who were there last time. In (b), better is particular comparison which *better* is an epithet. (c) is numerative comparison reference which *more* refers to (the things) that are dreamt of in your philosophy.

**b. Substitution**

Substitution is as the replacement of one item by another. It is a relation in wording rather than in the meaning. It is also a relation within the text. A substitute is a sort of counter, which is used in place of the repetition of a particular item. (Halliday & Hasan. 1976:88-89)

Chojimah (2014:10), states that substitution, which corresponds to the verb to substitute, is the replacement of a word or a group of words with a word which is apparently not related to the replaced words. It mean that one word stand for an entire structure.

**Types of substitution**

Substitution is divided into three types; there are nominal, verbal, clausal substitution.

**1) Nominal substitution**

Nominal substitution is expressed by the using of word one, ones, and same.

Example:
(5) Mummy will you buy me a *bus*? I want the red *one*.

(Halliday & Hasan, 1976:99)

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

**2) Verbal substitution**

The substitution form in the verbal group is do, with the usual morphological scatter do, does, did, doing, done. This operates as head of a verbal group, in the place that is occupied by

lexical verb, and its position is always final in the group.

(Halliday & Hasan, 1976:112)

Example:

(6).a. Does Granny *look after* you everyday? She cant  *do*
at weekends, because she has to go to her own house.
b. Have they *removed* their furniture? They have *done*
the desks, but that's all so far.

(Halliday & Hasan, 1976:114)

In (a) *do* subsitutes *look after* the adressee (you), and *done*

in (b) substitutes *removed*.

**3) Clausal substitution**

Clausal substitution is a type of substitution in which what is

presupposed is not an element within the clause but an entire

clause. The clausal substitution is *so* and *not*. (Halliday &

Hasan,1976:130)

Example:

(7). Is the mango ripe? – It seems *so*.
(Halliday & Hasan, 1976:134)

In (7), the *so* presupposes the whole of the clause *this*

*is mango ripe*.

(8). *Ought* we to declare our winnings? – It ssays *not*.
(Halliday & Hasan, 1976:133)

In (8), *not* substitutes for *we ough not to declare our*

*winnings*.

**c. Ellipsis**

Ellipsis is simply substitution by zero. The starting point of the discussion of ellipsis can be the familiar notion that it is 'something left unsaid'. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976:142)

Ellipsis is also the omission of an item. It can be interpreted as that form of substitution in which the item is replaced by nothing. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976:88)

**Types of Ellipsis**

Ellipsis is divided into three types; there are nominal, verbal, and clausal ellipsis.

**1) Nominal ellipsis**

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

Example:

(9). Would you like to hear another verse? – I know *twelve more*.
(Halliday & Hasan, 1976:143)

The nominal ellipsis is *twelve more*. It presupposes the preceding sentence. It can be interpreted as *I know twelve more another verse*.

**2) Verbal ellipsis**

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

Example:

(10). A. What are you doing?
      B. *Thinking*.

(Halliday & Hasan, 1976:178)

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

3) **Clausal ellipsis**

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

Example:

(11). Who taught you to spell? – Grandfather *did*.

(Halliday & Hasan,1976:199)

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

d. **Conjunction**

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

**Types of conjunction**

**1) Additive**

The additive relation is somewhat different from coordination proper, although it is no doubt derivable from it. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976:244)

Additive relation is expressed by using of the word *and, or, furthermore, similarly, in addition.* It can be seen in the table below.

**Table 2.3. The clasifications of additive conjuction**

| | External/ Internal | Internal (unless otherwise specified) | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Additive** | **Additive, simple:** **Additive:** and, and also. **Negative:** nor, and...not. **Alternative:** or, or else. | **Complex, emphatic:** **Additive:** furthermore, in addition, besides **Alternative:** alternatively **Complex, de emphatic:** **Afterthought:** incidentally, by the way | **Apposition:** **Expository:** this is, I mean, in other word **Exemplificatoty:** for instance, thus. | **Comparison:** **Similar:** likewise, similarity, in the same way **Dissimilar:** on the other hand, by contrast |

(Halliday & Hasan, 1976:243)

Example:

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

(Halliday & Hasan, 1976:248)

From text above, the additive conjunction is *for example* which is included as exemplification and *this means* which is included as expository.

**2) Adversative**

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

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

**Table 2.4. The classifications of adversative conjunction**

| | External/ internal | Internal (unless otherwise specified) | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Adversative** | **Adversative 'proper':** **Simple:** yet, though, only. **Containing 'and':** but **Emphatic:** however, nevertheless, despite this. | **Contrastive: Avowal:** in fact, actually, as a mater of fact **Contrastive (external): Simple:** but, and **Emphatic:** however, on the other hand, at the same time | **Correction** **Of meaning:** instead, rather, on the contrary **Of wording**: at least, rather, I mean | **Dismissal: Closed:** in any case, in either case, which ever way it is **Open-ended:** in any case. anyhow, at any rate, however it is. |

(Halliday & Hasan, 1976:243)

Example:

(13). a. He showed no pleasure at hearing the mews. *Instead* he looked oven gloomier.

b. I don't think she minds the cold. It's the damp she objects to, *rather*.

(halliday & Hasan,1976:254)

*Instead* in (a) is relation of adversative type in a form of correction meaning. *Rather* in (b) is the adversative relation in a form of correction of wording.

### 3) Causal relation

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

The word expression of Causal relation can be seen in the table below:

**Table 2.5. The classifications of causal conjunction**

|  | External/ internal | Internal (unless otherwise specified) | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Causal | **Causal, general:** **Simple:** So, then, hence therefore **Emphatic:** Consequently, because of this **Causal, specific:** **Reason:** For this reason, on account of this **Result:** | **Reversed causal:** **Simple:** For, because **Causal, specific:** **Reason:** It follows, on this basis **Result:** Raising out of this | **Conditional (also external)** **Simple:** Then **Emphatic:** In that case, in such an event, that being so **Generalized:** Under the | **Respective :** **Direct:** In this respect, in this regard, with reference to this **Reversed polarity:** Otherwise, in other |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | As a result, in consequence **Purpose:** For this purpose with this mind | **Purpose**: To this end | circumstance **Reversed polarity:** Otherwise, under other circumstances | respects, aside from this. |

(Halliday & Hasan, 1976:243)

Example:

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

(Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 256)

The causal conjunction of that example is *so*.

### 4) Temporal

Temporal relation is expressed in its simplest form by *then, next, afterwards, after that, subsequently, etc*. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 261)

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

**Table 2.6. The classifications of temporal conjunction**

| | External/ internal | Internal (unless otherwise specified) | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Temporal | **Temporal, simple (external only): Sequential:** Then, next, after that **Simultaneous**: Just then, at the same time **Preceding:** | **Complex (external only: Immediate:** At once, thereupon **Interrupted:** soon, after a time **Repetitive:** Next time, | **Internal temporal: Sequential:** Then, next, secondly **Conclusive:** Finally, in conclusion **Correlative forms: Sequential:** | **'Here and now': Past:** Up to know, hitherto **Present:** At this point, here **Future:** From now on, hence |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| previously, before that **Conclusive forms:** **Sequential:** first....then **Conclusive:** At the first.....in the end | on another occasion **Specific:** Next day, an hour later **Durative:** Meanwhile **Terminal:** Until then **Punctiliar:** At this moment. | First.....next conclusive.... finally | forward, **Summary: Summarizing:** To sum up, in short briefly **Resumptive:** to resume, to return to the point |

(Halliday & Hasan, 1976:243)

Example:

(15) Alice began by taking the litle golden key, and unlocking the door that led into the garden. *Then*, she set to work nibbling at the mushroom.

(Halliday & Hasan, 1976:251)

*Then* in (15) is used to mention and also relate to

continuity of event in the first sentence and second sentence.

## 2. Lexical Cohesion

Lexical cohesion is the cohesive effect achieved by the selection of vocabulary. The build up of a discourse is not merely due to grammatical factors, but rather lexical choice significantly contributes as well. It means that the connection among sentences could be built through the word/lexical choices. (Chojimah, 2014:12)

**Types of Lexical cohesion**

There are two types of lexical cohesion: reiteration and collocation.

a.  **Reiteration**

Reiteration is a form of lexical cohesion which 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 – the use of a synonym, near synonym, or super ordinate. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976:278). Choyimah (2014:12) states that reiteration covers repetition, synonymy, hyponymy, metonymy and antonymy.

Reiteration is form of lexical cohesion which involves the repetition of a lexical item, the use of general word to refer back to a lexical item, and a number of things between the uses of synonym, near synonym, or super ordinate. Reiteration can also occur through the use of word that is systematically linked to a previous one. The items of reiteration may be a repetition (other involving reference), a synonym or near synonym, a hyponym (related to the variation or kinds of thing) or superordinate and a general word. In addition, Rankema (1993) assert that reiteration also involves a metonym (part and whole) and antonym (related to a contradictory position/situation/codition of thing or people). Here are in the detail:

**1) Repetition**

Repetition is the act of repeating exactly the same word as has been mentioned before and it often involves reference in second occurrence by matching definite articles. Repetition is just the simple repetition of a word, within a sentence or a poetical line, with no particular placement of the words (in Trianasari, 2013; Bloomsbury, 1999:1592) states that repetition is repeating of something an act or doing something again. Something the same as before an event or situation that is the same as one that happened previously. Examples of Repetition in Poem:

> *I looked* upon the rotting sea,
> And drew my eyes away,
> *I looked* upon the rotting deck,
> And there the dead men lay.

> *from "Rime of the Ancient Mariner" by Coleridge*

**2) Synonymy**

Synonymy is two or more words with very closely related meaning or same meanings which are often intersubstitutable in sentences. Crystal (1995:164) states that synonymy is lexeme which has the same meaning-a definition which sounds straight forward enough.

Synonymy is expression with same meaning. Two points is should be paid attention about this definition. First, it does not limit the relation of synonymy. Second, to lexeme; it allows for the

possibility that lexically simple expressions may have the same meaning as lexically complex expressions. In make identity, not only similarity of meaning the criterion synonymy (in Trianasari, 2013; Lyon, 1995).

Furthermore, Vehaar in Oka (1994) have defined synonymy is utterance (words, phrase, sentence) which have less much samemeaning. But there are two words in any language that constitute absolute synonymy that are words which meant exactly the same thing in all contexts. For example; largeand bigare (near) synonymy but in the phrase "my big sister" and "my large sister" certainly not have the same meaning. We should understand the possibility that there are different degrees of synonymy; depend on the degrees of meaning overlap between words.

From the definitions above it can said that synonymis the word meaning same with another, a word that means the same or almost same as another word in the same language, either in all of its uses or in a particular context. And it is possible to define the different word as the intended meaning. For example: *environment* and *surrounding* are the same meaning, so it is called synonym.

**3) Hyponymy**

Hyponymy is a word whose meaning contains the entire meaning of another word. Furthermore, hyponymy is refers to

something that is well known from the class membership with the close relationship between the words.

Hyponymy refers to the hierarchical relationship between the meanings of lexemes, in which the meaning of one lexeme is included in (under) the meaning of another lexeme (in Trianasari, 2013; Jackson, 1988:65). Furthermore, Finegar (2004:189) said that hyponymy is subordinate, a specific term whose referent is included in the referent of a superordinate term. Hyponymy also well known as subordinate.

Hyponymy    ⟶    meaning of fear

Subordinate    ⟶    meaning of emotion.

For example: *swan* and *duc*k are hyponymy of the subordinate a "*bird*". *Banana*

and *apples* are the entire word of "*fruit*".

**4) Metonymy**

Metonymy is relationship of part and whole. (in Trianasari, 2013; Bloomsbury, 1999:1190) defines metonymy is a figure of speech in which an attribute of something is used to stand for the thing itself. Fromklin, dkk (1999:161) defined "a metonymy is a word used in place of another word or expression to convey the same meaning".

Metonymy can involve the use of the same word, in which case it is a kind of polysemy, in which a single word has multiple related meanings (sememes), i.e. a large semantic field. Metonymy may be instructively contrasted with metaphor. Both figures involve the substitution of one term for another. In metaphor, this substitution is based on similarity,while in metonymy; the substitution is based on contiguity. Metaphor's example: *That man is a pig (using pig instead of unhygienic person)*. An unhygienic person is like a pig, but there is no contiguity between the two). Metonymy example: *The White House supports the bill (using The White House instead of the President)*. The President is not like The White House, but there is contiguity between them, in that the White House is where the President lives and works). In cognitive linguistics, metonymy refers to the use of a single characteristic to identify a more complex entity and is one of the basic characteristics of cognition. It is common for people to take one well-understood or easy-to-perceive aspect of something and use that aspect to stand either for the thing as a whole or for some other aspect or part of it ( http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Metonymy ).

In other word metonymy is relation between word which has a part and whole meaning. For examples:

o At its six-month check up, *the brakes* had to be repaired. In general, however, the *car* was in good condition. The first

sentence the plural nouns "brakes" is a part of the noun "car" which exists in the second sentence.

o After a hard storm two days ago, the leaking roofs need to be repaired. However, the house is in good condition.

**5) Antonym**

Antonym is word which in sense opposite in meaning. For examples: cold and hot; old and young; and soft and hard. (in Trianasari, 2013; Jackson, 1988:64) antonym deals with the oppositeness of meaning, word with opposite meaning of various kinds. Furthermore, antonym is word that means the opposite another word, (in Trianasari, 2013Bloomsbury, 1999:77). Antonym is word which is in the some sense opposite in meaning. For example: old and young are having opposite meaning.

Here the examples of reiteration (in Halliday and Hasan, 1976; Rankema, 1993):

"There is a boy climbing the tree".

o *The boy is going to fall if he is not careful.* (Repetition)
*The lad is going to fall if he is not careful.* (Synonym)
*The child is going to fall if he is not careful*. (Hyponymy / subordinate)

o *After a hard storm yesterday, the leaking roofs need to be repaired. In general, however, the house is in good condition.* (Metonymy)
The relation between roof and house is between part and whole.

o *In that terrible situation, the old people did not want to take a risk. But young were braver*. (Antonym) The old is contrasted with the young.

**b. Collocation**

Collocation is cohesion on text is subtle and difficult to estimate, it is a systematic relationship between a pair of words. This would include not only synonyms and near synonym and super ordinate, but also pairs of opposites of various kinds, complementary. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976:285)

Example:

(17). Why does this little boy wriggle all the time? Girls don't wriggle.

(Halliday & Hasan,1976:285)

Example above, the collocation is *boy* and *girl.* They are related by a particular type of oppositeness, called complementary.

**E. Text**

Text is the word in written work. There are many kind of texts, such as; descriptive, narrative, recount, expository, argumentative, report, etc.

**1. Recount Text**

Recount text is one of the kind of genre which have purpose is to report an accident or an activity which is done by someone or someone's experience. This text have generic structures:

a) <u>Orientation</u> : It is about the introduction of figure, time and place.

b) <u>Event</u> : Stretch of accident or what happened in it.

c) <u>reorientation</u> : The closing that show the story has ended or personal comment.

Example:

**My Adolence**

I had my adolence when I was thirteen. It started with acne that showed up on my face.

It was very annoying. It lowered my self-esteem and I was embrrassed to come out of my house and play with my friends.

Fortunately my mum gave me a good medicine. In three weeks, the acne started to vanish although those showed some black spots in my face.

That was my bad experience with adolescence though there were still lost of good experience too.

## F. Review Previous Study

**Abdul Rozzaq (2010)** entiteled " a study on cohesive devices used in social science textbook" that purpose is find out the types of cohesive devices that used in social science textbook and the occurrance of it. And the result of his study are grammatical cohesion (reference, subtitution, ellipsis, conjunction), and lexical cohesion (reiteration and collocation). While the frequency of occurrance as follow reference (50%), subtitution (2%), ellipsis (1%), conjunction (37%), reiteration (43%), collocation (1%).

**Yulvi Trianasari (2013)** entiteled " an analysis on cohesion in edgar allan poe's short story the fall of the house of usher", that purpose is to find out the type

of cohesive devices that used in edgar allan poe's short story the fall of the house of usher and occurrance of it. The result of study are grammatical cohesion (reference, subtitution, ellipsis, conjunction), and lexical cohesion (reiteration and collocation). While the frequency of occurrance as follow the grammatical cohesion is reference within sentences with 74,7%, followed by reference between paragraphs with 73,2%, conjunction within sentences with 63,0%, reference within sentences with 26,2%, conjunction between sentences 7,7% and conjunction between paragraphs with 4,3%. The percentages of substitution and ellipsis are the lowest. The next types of lexical cohesion applied is synonymy within sentences with 12,0% as the highest one, followed by synonym between sentences with 9,2%, repetition within sentences with 7,5%, antonym between paragraphs with 6,2%, antonym between sentences with 4,0%, repetition between paragraphs with 2,7%, metonymy between sentences with 1,8%, collocation within sentences with 1,6%, repetition between sentences with 1,5%, metonymy between paragraphs with 1,1%, synonym and metonymy within sentences with 0,6%, hyponym between sentences 0,6%, hyponym between paragraphs 0,5%, collocation between sentences with 0,3%, hyponym and antonym within sentences with 0,2%, and collocation with 0%.