

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

Humans, as social creatures, always need help from others. Therefore, the relationship between individuals and the use of language is very important. Language is the primary tool that individuals use to communicate correctly and avoid misunderstandings. As a global language, English dominates the international stage. According to the British Council, approximately 1.75 billion people worldwide choose English as their primary language to communicate. English is a means of communication and instruction in various global sectors, such as education, business, commerce, politics, and among others. English has become a second or foreign language in many countries, including Indonesia. Therefore, English has become an important subject in Indonesian education from primary school to university. At the university level, students focus on improving their writing skills and lexical development to strengthen their English language competence (Kormos, 2011). To master the English language, students must be exposed to all four basic skills (Brown, 2000).

English skills can be divided into two main categories: receptive and productive. Reading and listening are receptive skills, whereas speaking and writing are productive (Masrul, 2015). Writing is a challenging task that requires the ability to express ideas clearly and to use language appropriately (Liu & Braine, 2005). Writing is the ability of students to construct sentences that are structured and

connected in a particular way. The assessment of writing involves linguistic and neural analysis, two common approaches to developing the writing process (Crossley et al., 2011). Writing can be used for various purposes, such as storytelling, narrating past events or activities, sharing experiences, and providing general information about the results of research (Hornberger & Link, 2012).

One of the most important aspects of writing ability to consider is the use of cohesion in each paragraph. A good piece of writing should be coherent. It is easier to understand the meaning of a sentence if the written text is coherent. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976: 2), a text is best viewed as a semantic unit, not as a unit of form but as a unit of meaning. This means that a text should not only be in the form of a sentence but also be meaningful and easy to understand. The students must be able to write the text. A text will be important and meaningful if it can deliver the message to the readers by using cohesive devices.

Text is coherent if it meets two conditions: first, it must be consistent with the context in which it is created, and second, it must have cohesion; cohesive devices must connect all parts of a text. Furthermore, Oshima and Hogue (2006) defined coherence as “holding together.” For writing coherence, the sentences must hold together, the transition from one sentence to the next must be logical, and there must be no abrupt changes. Each sentence should naturally transition into the next. Coherence can be achieved in four ways: (1) use key nouns repeatedly; (2) use consistent pronouns; (3) use transition signals to connect ideas; and (4) arrange the ideas logically. Texts can be made more cohesive in various ways, and these cohesive devices (also known as linking devices) are traditionally classified at the

lexis, grammar, and discourse or rhetoric levels (Thornbury, 2005).

Many types of texts are required for English language learners to master, including report text. The purpose of the report text includes the storage and documentation of factual information about a particular topic and the description and classification of phenomena related to the topic (Novalinda, 2015). Furthermore, in report writing, the use of cohesive devices in this context strengthens the link between the characteristics described and provides clarity in the data presentation. Report writing is a type of text that presents information clearly and concisely (Emilia & Christie, 2013). Therefore, an in-depth understanding of cohesive devices is essential for effective report writing by students in the English department.

In academic writing, coherence and cohesion are crucial elements that contribute to the effectiveness and clarity of a text. According to Salkie (2000), cohesion, in particular, is a key aspect that must be considered when aiming to create an outstanding discourse. Cohesion refers to the connections within a piece of writing manifesting themselves in the discourse (Renkema, 2004). By employing cohesive devices, writers can ensure that their paragraphs and sentences are logically connected, allowing readers to follow the flow of ideas effortlessly. Additionally, Halliday and Hasan (1976) classify cohesive devices into two main categories: lexical and grammatical cohesion. Lexical cohesion involves using words and phrases that establish links between text parts through repetition, synonym, antonymy, hyponymy, meronymy, and collocation. On the other hand, grammatical cohesion relies on references, substitution, conjunction, and ellipsis to

create connections and maintain coherence within the text. Understanding and effectively utilizing these cohesive devices is essential for creating well-structured and coherent written pieces.

Exploring the values represented in writing about cultural issues can shape meaning in people's lives, and writing serves as a means to delve into students' experiences and emotions concerning promoting their local culture (Jayantini et al., 2023). In the era of independent learning, the Independent Campus '*Merdeka Belajar Kampus Merdeka*' (MBKM) in Indonesia encourages students to actively participate in in-depth observations of their daily lives and the diverse culture surrounding them. This active engagement is intended to strengthen the connection between coherent ideas in reporting texts, thereby providing richer learning experiences beyond the confines of the classroom. By immersing themselves in the observation of nature, students acquire cultural values and an awareness of the significant aspects of local wisdom. These profound insights represent the exemplary values that guide people's lives (Adawiah & Putri, 2021; Aglasi & Casta, 2017; Hasyim & Puspita, 2021; Jayantini et al., 2022; Nur, 2013). In line with the purpose of this study, investigating the ability to utilize cohesive devices in reporting texts on environmental and cultural issues can be a model to apply certain topic in the study of writing for university students. The writing activities can be connected to the efforts of empowering the students in enhancing skills of making the writing coherent and cohesive.

1.2 Problems of the Study

Based on the background of the study above, the problems analyzed by the researcher are:

1. What grammatical and lexical cohesive devices are used by the English Department students in their report texts?
2. How are cohesive devices used to help the English department students construct the cultural values reported in their report texts?

1.3 Objectives of the Study

Based on the problems mentioned above, two study objectives were created as the aims of this research, which are as follows:

1. To find out the types of grammatical and lexical cohesive devices used by the English Department students in writing report texts.
2. To explain the cohesive devices used to help English department students construct cultural values reported in writing report texts.

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1.4 Limitation of the Study

Based on the background and problem of the study, this study required the problem limitation to be effectively defined. The study was conducted by categorizing the types of grammatical and lexical cohesive devices and cohesive devices used to help English department students construct cultural values reported in their report texts. The study explained and described the types of grammatical cohesive devices consisting of reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction and

lexical cohesive devices based on the theory proposed by Halliday and Hasan (1976) and Halliday et al. (2014).

1.5 Significance of the Study

This scientific research is expected to be used as feedback in English language learning, especially in the use of grammatical and lexical cohesive devices. This research has both theoretical and practical implications.

1.5.1 Theoretical Significance

Theoretically, the result of this research can provide knowledge about cohesive devices, especially grammatical and lexical cohesion, for students who study discourse in English language and education departments. Then, this research can be used as a source of information for other language learners to improve their knowledge of discourse analysis, and this research will contribute to the study of discourse, especially about the types of cohesive devices.

1.5.2 Practical Significance

Practically, this research is expected to be useful for people, especially students, who want to learn more about cohesive devices, and it can be used as a review to improve readers' ability to interpret the meaning of the text itself. This research also serves as an evaluation to understand more about the use of cohesive devices.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE, CONCEPTS, THEORIES

This chapter consists of a review of related literature, concepts and theoretical frameworks. The review of related literature consists of reviews of previous studies on cohesive devices. Meanwhile, the concept includes some concepts that are relevant to this study. The theoretical framework applied in this study was the discourse analysis theory proposed by Halliday and Hasan (1976) and Halliday et al. (2014). In this study, the researcher used the cohesive device theory of research, which is the grammatical and lexical cohesion found in the report texts written by the English department students. In addition, this study analyzed the cohesive devices used by the English department students to construct the cultural values reported in their report texts.

2.1 Review of Related Literature

The first research review was written by Rahman (2021) entitled “*An Analysis of the Students’ Cohesion and Coherence in Their Descriptive Paragraphs*”. This research focuses on the types of cohesion commonly used by students of the English Department at the University of Muhammadiyah Makassar in their descriptive texts and the students’ ability to make their texts coherent. According to the results of the study, the highest frequency of using references in their descriptive text is 82%, while ellipses and substitutions were used by the students in only 1.21%. The similarity between Rahman’s 2021 study and the present study is that both studies aim to understand how students use cohesive

devices to improve the coherence and clarity of their writing. Both studies take a qualitative research approach. Both studies also emphasize the importance of cohesive devices in writing. However, the difference between Rahman's 2021 study and the present study is that Rahman's 2021 study focuses on students of the English Department at the University of Muhammadiyah Makassar and their use of cohesion in descriptive paragraphs. In contrast, the present study focuses on students at Universitas Mahasaraswati Denpasar and analyzes the use of cohesive devices to convey cultural values in report writing.

Another study on the use of cohesive devices was titled "*An Analysis of Cohesion and Coherence in Writing Analytical Exposition Text of Second Grade Students at SMAN 8 Pekanbaru*" written by Damila (2021). This research aims to analyze the cohesion and coherence in writing analytical expository text. The results of this study were analyzed using Halliday's theories on the types of cohesion and coherence. The results show that the types of coherence used by students in analytical expository writing were transition signals, and the dominant type used by students in constructing cohesion was reference. Damila's 2021 study and the present study show similarities and differences in approaches to investigating cohesive devices in written texts. Both studies use a qualitative research approach to analyze the use of cohesive devices in students' writing. However, the data collection settings are different, with Damila's 2021 study focusing on high school students and the present study focusing on university students. The present study has a more specific focus on cultural values and the use of cohesive devices in constructing them in report writing, whereas Damila's study had a broader focus on

cohesion and coherence in analytical expository writing.

Another study was taken from an article by Amperawaty and Warsono (2019), entitled "*The Use of Cohesive Devices to Achieve Coherence on the Background Section of the Students' Formal Writing*". The researcher used Halliday and Hasan's (1976) theory to investigate the research problems. This study focused on (1) the types of grammatical and lexical cohesive devices used in writing a background section of students' final project and (2) the contribution of cohesive devices in making the background sections coherent and unified. This study used the descriptive-qualitative research method; the data was written text. The result of this study was that the total amount of reference use was 395 occurrences, dominated by demonstrative reference with 237 occurrences. Substitution was used 122 occurrences and was dominated by verbal substitution with 65 occurrences. Ellipsis was used in 174 occurrences and was dominated by nominal ellipsis with 89 occurrences. Conjunction was used in 214 occurrences and was dominated by additive conjunction in 138 occurrences. Repetition was used in 292 occurrences and there were 61 occurrences of general words. In conclusion, cohesive devices are used appropriately in the student's background section. Amperawaty and Warsono's 2019 study and the present study show similarities and differences in approaches to examining cohesive devices in written texts. While Amperawaty and Warsono's 2019 study focused on the background section of the student's final project, the present study focused on students from the English Department at Universitas Mahasarakswati Denpasar and examined the role of cohesive devices in the construction of cultural values in report texts. However, both studies aimed to

highlight the importance of cohesive devices in improving writing skills and coherence. Furthermore, both studies used qualitative research methods and recognized the central role of cohesive devices in making connections between ideas and maintaining logical progression in written communication.

Another article was written by Noprival et al. (2022) entitled “*Analyzing Grammatical and Lexical Cohesion in A Legendary Short Story*”. This study aims to investigate the grammatical and lexical cohesion in a legendary short story entitled “After Twenty Years”. In analyzing the research problems, the researcher used the theory of Halliday and Hasan (1976). In this study, textual analysis was used as an appropriate approach to determine the grammatical and lexical cohesion within the text forms. The findings of the study revealed that reference had the highest frequency of all grammatical cohesive devices and repetition was the most frequently used lexical device, among other aspects of lexical cohesion. The overall findings of the study indicated that the short story was a coherent discourse with proper grammatical and lexical cohesion. The similarity between Noprival et al.’s 2022 study and the present study is that both studies use a qualitative research approach to collect and analyze data. These studies emphasize the role of these devices in establishing connections between ideas, maintaining logical progression, and improving overall text coherence. However, Noprival et al.’s 2022 study collected data from the short story “After Twenty Years”, while the present study collected data from students of the English Department at Universitas Mahasaraswati Denpasar, focusing on report texts. The difference lies in the data source, with Noprival et al.’s 2022 study using a pre-existing narrative text and this

study using student-generated report texts. Also, Noprival et al.'s 2022 study focused on analyzing grammatical and lexical cohesion within a legendary short story. In contrast, the present study examined the cohesive devices used by students to convey cultural values in report texts.

The last study was taken from Siregar et al. (2023) entitled "*An Analysis of Cohesive Devices in EFL Students' Essay Writing*". The objectives of this study were (1) to describe the types of grammatical cohesion; (2) to analyze the types of cohesive devices used in terms of cohesiveness; and (3) to analyze incoherence. The findings of the study revealed: (1) reference (59%) is the most used grammatical cohesive device by EFL students in essay writing compared to other types, and ellipsis (0.3%) is the least, (2) in terms of lexical cohesive devices, EFL students use repetition the most (89%) in their writing, while the percentage of hyponym use is the lowest (0.3%), and (3) students have sufficient knowledge to use grammatical cohesive devices appropriately (990 data). Siregar et al.' 2023 study and the present study show similarities and differences in approaches to examining cohesive devices in written texts. Siregar et al.'s 2023 study aimed to describe the types of grammatical cohesion, analyze cohesive devices in terms of cohesiveness, and examine incohesive writing. The present study focused on raising students' awareness of their environment and cultural values by analyzing cohesive devices. However, both studies aim to identify and analyze the types of cohesive devices, whether grammatical or lexical, that students use in their writing. Both studies use a qualitative research approach to collect and analyze data. Both studies recognize and emphasize the importance of cohesive devices in writing. These

studies acknowledge that cohesive devices are critical to achieving coherence and clarity in written texts.

2.2 Concepts

There are three concepts as a main point in this research: cohesion, cohesive devices and report text. These concepts aimed to make the terms in this research and to equalize the reader's perception.

2.2.1 Cohesion

The semantic concept of cohesion refers to the relationship between meanings in the text and characterizes it as text. Cohesion occurs when one element's interpretation depends on another element's interpretation in the discourse. Cohesion is defined by Halliday and Hasan (1976) as a semantic relationship between elements in the text and another element that is critical to its understanding. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), cohesion is one of the qualities that combine to form text-forming devices in grammar. Text-forming devices are sequences of sentences or utterances that seem to “hang together” (Nunan, 1993). Castro (2004) defines cohesion as the connector that links concepts within a text, ensuring the reader's thought process is coherent and understandable. Janjua (2012) further characterizes cohesion as the relationship between structurally independent components of a text, distinguishing it from a collection of unrelated sentences.

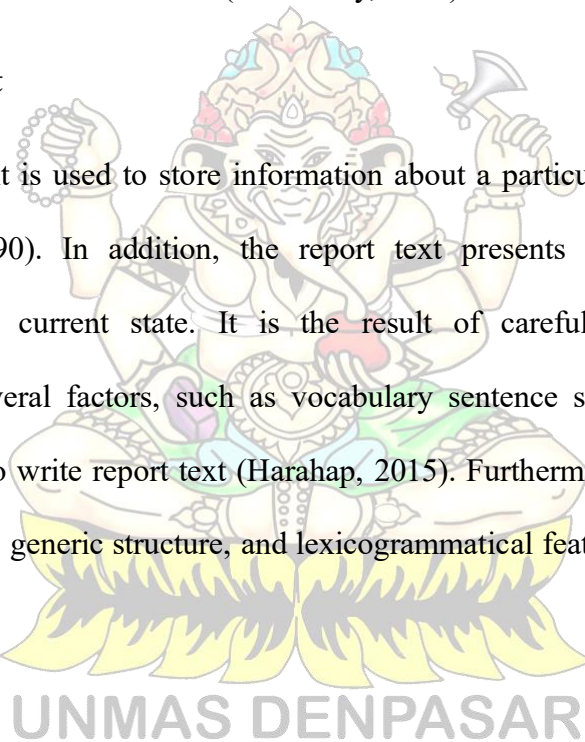
2.2.2 Cohesive Devices

Cohesive device is one of the concepts used in connectedness and texture

and refers to the connections manifested in the discourse itself (Renkema, 2004). According to Cook (1992), cohesive devices are the formal links that connect clauses and sentences. Cohesive devices occur when the interpretation of one element in the discourse depends on the interpretation of another element (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 4). Furthermore, cohesive devices (also known as linking devices) are used to make texts coherent. These devices are typically classified as lexis, grammar, and discourse or rhetoric (Thornbury, 2005).

2.2.3 Report Text

Report text is used to store information about a particular class of things (Derewianka, 1990). In addition, the report text presents information about something in its current state. It is the result of careful observation and investigation. Several factors, such as vocabulary sentence structure, influence students' ability to write report text (Harahap, 2015). Furthermore, elements such as social function, generic structure, and lexicogrammatical features are present in the report text.



2.3 Theories

The theoretical framework is a collection of theories that support the research study. The theory must be related to the problem statement and used was the analysis of cohesive device equivalence, which was found in the report texts written by the students of the English department.

2.3.1 The Types of Cohesive Devices

According to Mulyana (2005), cohesiveness essentially refers to the relationship of form; it means that the discourse pieces (words or sentences) used to construct a discourse have a coherent and complete connection. According to Halliday (1976), coherence is a semantic relationship between one text element and another element critical to its understanding. Coherence can alternatively be characterized as an attachment to the external aspects of a text; the elements depend on each other according to their grammatical structure and rules so that the text becomes coherent (Zaimar & Harahap, 2011). In addition, Gutwinsky (1976) defined *coherence* as the lexical and grammatical relationship between two sentences in a paragraph. A paragraph is considered coherent when the interpretation of some parts of the discourse depends on the interpretation of others (Halliday & Hasan, 1976).

Cohesive devices are needed to create harmony in a text so that they become instruments to create unity between sentences. Halliday and Hasan (1976) classified cohesive devices into two types: grammatical and lexical.

a. Grammatical Cohesive Devices

Grammatical cohesive devices are tools used to connect sentences in grammatical aspects. Halliday and Hasan (1976) divided grammatical cohesive devices as follows:

1. Reference

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), “reference is the specific

nature of the information that is signaled for retrieval.” There are three types of references: personal, demonstrative, and comparative (Halliday & Hasan, 1976).

a) Personal Reference

Halliday and Hasan (1976: 37) characterize personal reference as the utilization of function within the speech context, employing the category of "person" for referencing. Personal references are classified into three types: personal pronouns, possessive pronouns, and possessive determiners. Personal reference in English (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 38):

Table 2.1 Types of Personal Reference

| <i>Semantic category</i> | Existential | Possessive | |
|-----------------------------|-----------------------|-------------------|-------|
| <i>Grammatical function</i> | Head | Modifier | |
| <i>Class</i> | noun (pronoun) | Determiner | |
| <i>Person:</i> | | | |
| speaker (only) | I me | Mine | My |
| addressee(s), with/without | | | |
| other person(s) | You | Yours | Your |
| speaker and other person(s) | We us | Ours | Our |
| other person, male | He him | His | His |
| other person, female | She her | Hers | Her |
| other person, objects | They them | Theirs | Their |
| object; passage of text | It | [its] | Its |
| generalized person | One | | One's |

(Source: Halliday and Hasan 1976: 38)

b) Demonstrative Reference

Demonstrative pronouns are “references based on location, in terms of proximity scale.” Proximity is generally from the speaker/writer's perspective (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004). Demonstrative reference in English (Halliday

and Hasan 1976: 38):

Table 2.2 Types of Demonstrative Reference

| | | | |
|-----------------------------|----------------------|----------------|----------------------|
| <i>Semantic category</i> | Selective | | Non-selective |
| <i>Grammatical function</i> | Modified/Head | Adjunct | Modifier |
| <i>Class</i> | Determiner | Adverb | Determiner |
| Proximity: | | | |
| Near | This these | Here [now] | |
| Far | That those | There then | |
| Neutral | | | The |

(Source: Halliday and Hasan 1976: 38)

c) Comparative Reference

Halliday and Matthiessen (2004: 560) state that “comparative reference involves indirect reference through identity and similarity.” Generally, it is used to compare the quality or quantity of objects. The comparison is expressed by using certain adjectives or adverbs. Comparative reference in English (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 39):

Table 2.3 Types of Comparative Reference

| | | |
|---|---|----------------------------|
| <i>Grammatical function</i> | Modifier: Deictic/Epithet (see below) | Submodifier/Adjunct |
| <i>Class</i> | Adjective | Adverb |
| <i>General comparison:</i> | | |
| identity | same identical equal | identically |
| general similarity | similar additional | similar likewise |
| | | so such |
| difference (i.e., non-identity or similarity) | other different else | differently otherwise |
| <i>Particular comparison:</i> | better, more etc. [comparative adjective and quantifiers | so more less equally |

(Source: Halliday and Hasan 1976: 39)

2. Substitution

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), substitution occurs when one feature in a text replaces a previous word or expression. It involves an association between linguistic elements, such as words or phrases, rather than an association of meaning to distinguish it from reference. Substitution is classified as verbal, nominal, or causal (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 90).

a) Nominal Substitution

Nominal substitution involves replacing a noun or a set of nouns with other nouns that serve a similar function, such as the utilization of terms like “one,” “ones,” or “same.”

[1] *‘If only I could remember where it was that I saw someone putting away the box with those candles in I could finish the decorations now. – You mean the little colored **one**?’* (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 91).

In example [1], the word 'one' serves as a replacement for the noun phrase 'the box with those candles in it.'

b) Verbal Substitution

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976: 112), in English, *do* functions as a verb substitute and acts as the head of the verb group; *do* is placed in the final position of the group, in the place filled by the lexical verb. The pronouns used in this type are “do”, “does”, or “did”.

[2] *‘I don’t know the meaning of half those long words, and, what’s more,*

*I don't believe you **do** either!'*. (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 112).

In example [2], the verb 'do' is used as a substitute for the previous verb group 'know the meaning of half those long word', along with the situation assumed to exist in the same sentence.

c) Causal Substitution

Causal substitution is replacing clauses with “so” or “not”. (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 130).

[3] *'Is there going to be an earthquake? –It says **so**'*. (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 130)

[4] *'Has everyone gone home? –I hope **not**'*. (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 133).

In example [3], the word 'so' replaces the entire clause 'There is going to be an earthquake', while in example [4], the word 'not' functions as a replacement for the clause 'No one has gone home'.

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3. Ellipsis

Ellipsis is a term that reflects the omission of an element but is often used to refer to a concept that is already understood (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 88). In addition, *ellipsis* can be defined as the replacement of an element with an empty element (zero). According to Halliday and Hasan (1976: 146), there are 3 types of ellipsis: nominal, verbal, and causal.

a) Nominal Ellipsis

Nominal ellipsis is an ellipsis within a nominal group in which the omission is served by a common noun, proper noun, or pronoun.

[5] *'Have another chocolate. –No thanks; I've had my three'.* (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 162)

[6] *'The other messenger's called Hatta. I must have two, you know. One to come, and one to go'.* (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 163).

In the given examples [5 and 6], the context allows the listener to understand what is omitted. Nonetheless, as seen in the examples, both 'chocolate' and 'messengers' are omitted and replaced with nothing in the sentence.

b) Verbal Ellipsis

Verbal ellipsis are the removal of verbs or verb phrases in the text.

[7] *'Have you been swimming? –Yes, I have'.* (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 167).

In example [7], the progressive verb form 'been swimming' in the answer 'Yes, I have...' is omitted. In example [7], the progressive verb form 'been swimming' is deleted in the answer 'Yes, I have...!'.
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c) Causal Ellipsis

Causal ellipsis is the removal or deleted clauses.

[8] '*What was the Duke going to do? –Plant a row of poplars in the park*'. (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 197).

[9] '*Who was going to plant a row of poplars in the park? –The Duke was*'. (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 197).

In example [8], the deletion of the modal element is seen, while example [9] shows the deletion of the propositional element. In the first example, the modal element 'the Duke was' is omitted in the answer, while in the second example, the propositional element 'going to plant a row of poplars' is omitted in the answer.

4. Conjunction

Arianto in Wahid (2006) states that conjunction is a word used to connect words with words, phrases with phrases, clauses with clauses, sentence by sentence, or paragraph by paragraph. Lubis (1991) also agrees that conjunction is a tool to connect a sentence with other sentences to become unified. From the explanation of several characters above regarding defining conjunction, the researcher can conclude that conjunction is a word that has a conjunctive function between sentences to become a unified whole. According to Halliday & Hasan (1976: 238), conjunctions are divided into four categories based on their functions: additive, adversative, causal, and temporal.

a) Additive

The additive conjunction creates a common semantic relationship within

the text-forming components of the semantic system based on the logical notion of “and”. The use of additive conjunctions can be recognized through words: in addition, furthermore, moreover, similarity, also, and so forth. Due to the one-to-one order of sentences in the text, they cannot be rearranged in a different order without using different parentheses. Therefore, each new sentence may or may not be connected to the previous sentence. If they are connected, the use of “and” (as an additive conjunction) is one method of connecting them. An example of using the non-temporal additive conjunction ‘and’ can be found in [10].

[10] ‘*He heaved the rock aside with all his strength. **And** there in the recesses of a deep hollow lay a glittering heap of treasure*’. (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 235).

b) Adversative

Relationships called adversative conjunctions are used to express “opposite to expectations,” according to Halliday and Hasan (1976: 250). Since expectations can come from the statement's content or the communication process, cohesion can occur as both external and internal adversative relations. In English, a common adversative conjunction is “however”. For example, in [14], the cohesive conjunction ‘yet’ is used to introduce an additional sentence that contradicts the meaning implied in the previous sentence.

[11] ‘*All the figures were correct; they’d been checked. **Yet** the total came out wrong*’. (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 250).

c) Causal

Causal relationship refers to the connection between cause and effect. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976: 256), special relationships involving results, reasons, and goals fall into the category of causal relationships. Several words characterize the use of causal conjunctions: “because”, “so”, “so that”, “as a result”, “consequently”, and “for that reason”.

[12] ‘...*she felt that there was no time to be lost, as she was shrinking rapidly; so she got to work at once to eat some of the other bit*’. (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 256).

d) Temporal

In simple terms, temporal conjunctions are links between time sequences. The conjunction links two sentences based on time order, where one sentence follows the other. The simplest form of temporal relations is expressed by “then”, “next”, “afterward”, “after”, “after that”, “subsequently”, and “so forth”. For example [13], it is explained how the temporal conjunction ‘then’ connects all the sentences simultaneously as the story develops.

[13] ‘*Alice began by taking the little golden key, and unlocking the door that led into the garden. **Then** she set to work nibbling at the mushroom...till she was about a foot high: **then** she walked down the little passage: and **then** – she found herself at last in the beautiful garden*’. (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 261).

b. Lexical Cohesive Devices

According to Halliday and Hasan (1996: 274), lexical cohesion is the cohesive effect achieved by selecting vocabulary. There are six types of lexical cohesion: repetition, synonymy, antonymy, hyponymy, meronymy, and collocation (Halliday et al., 2014).

a) Repetition

Repetition is a cohesive device to link different parts of the text by using the same word or phrase more than once. It helps reinforce the idea or theme and contributes to the overall coherence of the text. Repetition is the simple repetition of a word in a sentence or line of poetry without specific word placement (Trianasari, 2013; Bloomsbury, 1999).

[14] *'There was a large **mushroom** growing near her, about the same height as herself; and, when she had looked under it, it occurred to her that she might as well look and see what was on the top of it. She stretched herself up on tiptoe, and peered over the edge of the **mushroom**, ...'* (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 278).

In example [17], there is repetition where the word 'mushroom' refers back to 'mushroom'.

b) Synonym

Alarcon (2013) defines synonyms as the link between lexical items that have the same or almost the same meaning.

[15] *'Accordingly ... I took leave, and turned to the **ascent** of the peak. The **climb** is perfectly easy...'* (Halliday and Hasan, 1976, in Suningsih, 2016: 35).

In [15], the word climb refers to the activity of ascent, which has the same meaning.

c) Antonymy

According to Bahaziq (2016), an antonym describes the link between two words with opposite meanings.

[16] *'The old movies just don't do it any more. The new ones are more appealing'*. (Halliday and Hasan, 1976, in Suningsih, 2016: 36).

d) Hyponymy

Halliday et al. (2014) explained that Hyponymy pertains to categorizing items from specific to more general classes.

[17] *'Henry's bought himself a new Jaguar. He practically lives in the car'*. (Halliday and Hasan, 1976, in Suningsih, 2016: 35).

In example [20] the word 'car' is used to denote Jaguar, a specific type of automobile. Here, 'car' functions as a generic term, representing a broader category or, in simpler terms, a general term employed to refer to Jaguar.

e) Meronymy

'Be a part of' is what meronymy means.

[18] ‘*At its six-month check up, the **brakes** had to be repaired. In general, however, the **car** was in good condition*’. (Halliday and Hasan, 1976, in Suningsih, 2016: 35).

In the second sentence, the plural nouns ‘brakes’ are components of the noun ‘car,’ as mentioned in the first sentence.

f) Collocation

Collocations that are a combination of two or more words that fall in the middle between idioms (e.g., *spill the beans*) and free word combinations (e.g., *beautiful girl*) which allow a limited degree of substitution of their lexical components (e.g., *do your best and try your best but not perform your best*).

