

**COHESION IN NARRATIVE TEXTS PRESENTED IN THE
ELECTRONIC TEXTBOOK OF SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL GRADE X
ENTITLED “DEVELOPING ENGLISH COMPETENCE”**

A THESIS

Presented as Partial Fulfillment for the Attainment of a *Sarjana Pendidikan*

Degree in English Education Department



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STUDY PROGRAM OF ENGLISH EDUCATION

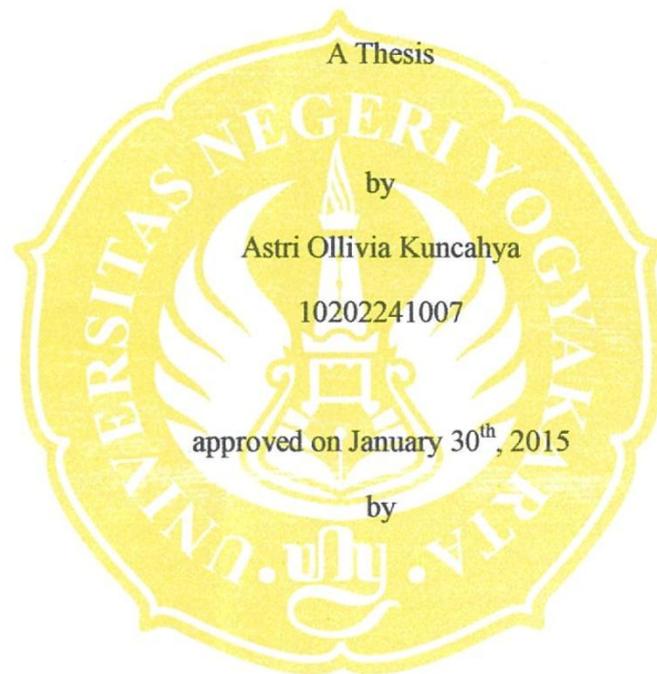
FACULTY OF LANGUAGES AND ARTS

STATE UNIVERSITY OF YOGYAKARTA

2015

APPROVAL

**COHESION IN NARRATIVE TEXTS PRESENTED IN THE
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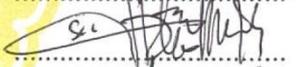
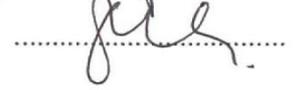
RATIFICATION

**COHESION IN NARRATIVE TEXTS PRESENTED IN THE
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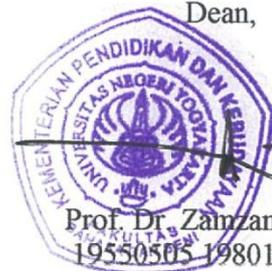
**A THESIS
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**Accepted by the board of examiners, Faculty of Languages and Arts, State
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PERNYATAAN

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“Developing English Competence”

menyatakan bahwa karya ilmiah ini adalah hasil pekerjaan saya sendiri. Sepanjang pengetahuan saya, karya ilmiah ini tidak berisi materi yang ditulis oleh orang lain, kecuali bagian-bagian tertentu yang saya ambil sebagai acuan dengan mengikuti tata cara dan etika penulisan karya ilmiah yang lazim.

Apabila ternyata terbukti bahwa pernyataan ini tidak benar, maka sepenuhnya menjadi tanggung jawab saya.

Yogyakarta, 30 Januari 2015

Penulis,



Astri Ollivia Kuncahya

MOTTOS

*The only true wisdom is in
knowing you know nothing.
(Socrates)*

*You have got to do your own
growing no matter how tall your
father was. (Tenaj)*

*Good deeds bring nothing except
advantages. (Suprapti)*

DEDICATIONS

I dedicate this thesis to those who
feel young, ambitious and passionate,
are always grateful for what happen in their life,
think that making mistakes is normal but never give up on them,
believe that learning is a long-life process,
have faith in Allah SWT, that He will not leave his worshipper alone.

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All praise is due to Allah, the Almighty and the Merciful who blesses me with pleasure that I could not deny. *Shalawat* and *salam* are proposed to the Prophet Muhammad SAW who brings enlightenment to all moslems.

I would like to express my sincere gratitude to my beloved parents, Kuntjoro Hadi and Suprapti. Your love, trust and hard work always provide me the inspiration on how to be a better version of myself. I am grateful because you build me a family in which I can share my joy and sorrow.

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Finally, I expect that this thesis will be useful though I realize that this thesis is far from being perfect. Therefore, any criticisms and suggestions are welcomed and appreciated for the sake of the improvement of this thesis.

Yogyakarta, 30 Januari 2015

Astri Ollivia Kuncahya

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ABSTRACT

The objectives of this research are to identify the types of cohesion and to interpret the occurring types of cohesion in terms of compatibility as language inputs in 16 narrative texts presented in the electronic textbook of senior high school grade X entitled “Developing English Competence” issued by the government of the Republic of Indonesia.

This study applied qualitative method. The data were in the form of sentences and were collected by note taking. The instrument was the researcher herself. The data were analyzed using the categorization of cohesion, namely grammatical and lexical cohesion proposed by Halliday and Hasan (1976) and Bloor and Bloor (1995). Trustworthiness was achieved by employing investigator triangulation.

The findings showed that reiteration appeared to be the most frequent types of all subcategories of cohesion. There were 404 instances of reiteration, or 40,64 % of the total occurrences. Based on the findings, it could be concluded that the narrative texts analyzed in this research contain dense lexical cohesion and thus are compatible as language inputs. In the context of language teaching, the findings suggested that teachers should be able to make use of their knowledge about cohesion in selecting the texts as teaching materials. Teachers are also suggested to be able to adapt texts with low cohesion to facilitate comprehension.

Keywords: Cohesion, Narrative Texts, Language Inputs, Reading Comprehension

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

A. Background of the Research

As language inputs, narrative texts have two special functions that distinguish them from other types of texts. First, reading narratives can be an initial step for students to learn how to construct meanings from a text because the tendency of human mind inherently prefers to analyze meanings in the narrative form rather than facts in logical relationship (Pearson in Zahoor and Janjua, 2013: 606). This advantage may be a result of typical instructional practices that place narrative texts in the primary grade and do not introduce the expository forms until later (Duke and Papas in Goldman and Wiley, 2011: 5). Moreover, the use of narrative texts enables students to develop desired behaviors. They can adjust themselves with social and cultural environment because narrative texts provide students with various personalities and value judgments in society (Sallabas, 2013: 362).

These advantages of narrative texts are beneficial and in accordance with the implementation of using character education. The government classifies narrative texts as prominent materials not only for teaching language, but also for transferring values. As for instance, in Turkey, narrative texts which are presented in the textbooks issued by the Ministry of National Education are claimed to contain the values of unity, freedom, cooperation, sensitiveness, honesty, tolerance, hospitality, and the like (Sallabas, 2013: 361). Thus, it is expected that,

while learning Turkish, the students can associate themselves with those values. The character education is also implemented in Indonesia. The government of the Republic of Indonesia insists on the teaching of moral values in the classroom and puts moral aspects as one of assessment criteria.

In fact, the presence of narrative texts in higher level of education brings a consequence. It demands students to be able to synthesize moral values behind stories which, according to Bloom's Hierarchy of Thinking Skill, is classified as one of High Order Thinking (HOT) skills (Bender et al., 2006: 44). This skill includes comprehending the ideas of each sequence, integrating them into flows of thought and meanings, and drawing the conclusions about moral values that the writer wants to convey. In this sense, the conclusion should be related to various attitudes, values, belief, and custom that existed in the society (Sallabas, 2013: 362).

To reach that particular demand, as language inputs, narrative texts presented in textbooks should also be appropriate in terms of difficulty level in order to build students' reading competence. A text which is too difficult and employs too complex grammatical constructions and lexical items, is likely to cause frustration. Meanwhile, a text which is too easy does not extend the students' competence. Texts must be properly graded and sequenced so that they can meet the abilities and develop the reading comprehension of the students (Broughton, et al., 2003: 102).

According to Westwood (2008: 31-41), reading comprehension refers to the thinking process to construct meaning for a deeper understanding of things

presented in a text. The weakness of this thinking process may result in disengaging the students from the task of interpreting the texts, decreasing the students' confidence, and dodging from books. The reading comprehension problem can be minimized by providing students with texts which are appropriate to the students' level.

The issue of comprehension makes it important to investigate the narrative texts presented in the electronic textbook of senior high school grade X entitled "Developing English Competence" issued by the government of the Republic of Indonesia. The narrative texts in that textbook are used as language inputs used in all around Indonesia. The investigation is expected to be able to classify whether narrative texts found in that textbook are compatible as language inputs. Moreover, the investigation can be one of the ways to facilitate character education by providing precise materials for the students. Finally, it is expected that this research can contribute to the world of English language teaching especially reading skill by giving insight to teachers in selecting and adapting teaching material especially narrative texts.

B. Identification of the Problem

Based on the background of the research mentioned above, the problems are identified as follows.

First, the stories are not appropriate and interested for students. The themes and content of the stories are not appropriate for the students in certain age. In this sense, a certain maturity level is required to understand the themes.

This factor makes students not interested to read the stories and reluctant to comprehend the stories.

Second, the ideas in the narrative texts are too complex. The stories may have abstract ideas that require students to infer the implicit information. It can cause ambiguity when the stories are not supported with illustrations, diagrams, graphs, and so on. Thus, the stories which are not well described can lead to the confusion.

Next, the text structure is difficult to follow. The author may have different styles that affect the way he or she writes the stories. For example, the story that is written in a flashback requires the authors to have strong connections across the ideas in order to make the students understand. However, the students somehow cannot see the connections because the connections are too implicit. The author may use grammar instead of vocabulary to express the ideas and establish the links in the text. The implicit connections make students difficult to follow because they require the students to fill the gaps between ideas. This may cause problems in comprehension.

Lastly, the students have difficulties in decoding the vocabulary. The author may use the words that are not familiar for the students to express a very vivid imagination. For example, the author may use figurative language, technical terms or non-English words. Finally, the students cannot understand the meaning of the words and the messages that the author wants to convey. In this sense, the comprehension process may fail.

C. Limitation of the Problem

In reference to the background of the research and the identification of the problem, this study deals with the text structure. The surface structure includes the property of texts, including the patterns of lexical and grammatical relationships, the precise meanings of the lexical and grammatical items, and architecture of the passage (Broughton et al., 2003: 94-98). Thus, the investigation upon the structure of the texts can be done by analyzing cohesion.

D. Formulation of the Problem

The problems are formulated as follows.

1. What are the types of cohesion in the narrative texts presented in the electronic textbook of senior high school grade X entitled “Developing English Competence”?
2. How do the occurring types of cohesion reflect the semantic links in narrative texts presented in the electronic textbook of senior high school grade X entitled “Developing English Competence” in relation to their compatibility as language inputs for reading materials?

E. Objectives of the Research

The objectives of the research are:

1. To identify the types of cohesion in narrative texts presented in the electronic textbook of senior high school grade X entitled “Developing English Competence”.

2. To interpret of the occurring types of cohesion in narrative texts presented in the electronic textbook of senior high school grade X entitled “Developing English Competence” in relation to their compatibility as language inputs for reading materials.

F. Significance of the Research

It is expected that this study will be beneficial for any domain in English education. Theoretically, it enriches the field of discourse analysis. Practically, it is hoped that it:

1. may provide valuable information about the cohesion of narrative texts in the electronic textbook of senior high school grade X issued by the government of Indonesia entitled “Developing English Competence” and may contribute to the evaluation of other narrative texts as language inputs in other textbooks in the same or different level of education.
2. will alert the teachers and material developers to reflect on the compatibility of materials especially narrative texts and encourage them to provide better language inputs for language learning especially for reading comprehension.
3. will enhance the researcher’s knowledge about the field of discourse analysis and trigger her motivation to get involved in the world of linguistic study.
4. might spark interest and enthusiasm of other researchers in how this issue could be approached from a different point of view.

5. will add the existing literature for other researchers especially students of English language and education department.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

A. Literature Review

In this chapter, literature review consists of explanations on Discourse, Cohesion, Text and Previous Study.

1. Discourse

There are several researchers using the terms discourse and text as two different notions. According to Nunan (1993: 6), some people argue that discourse represents language in action, while a text is the written record of interaction. These definitions imply that discourse and text are different in terms of form, namely discourse is spoken and a text is written. However, it is known that discourse and a text are products of interaction or communication. This idea is supported by Cook (1989: 6) by saying that discourse is language in use for communication.

On the other hand, Rocci (2009: 15) used the term discourse and a text interchangeably. Rocci believes that the notion of discourse has pragmatic and semantic dimensions. Pragmatically, discourse is a text or speech representing a complex action which is realized by the participation of the addressee. Semantically, discourse is a text that establishes the representation of states of affairs in some possible words. From these definitions, it is known that discourse

can be the same as or part of a text as a result of the states of participation in communication.

Moreover, Harris as cited in Blakemore (2001: 100) agreed that the terms of discourse and a text are interchangeable by stating that discourse can be studied by analogy with sentences. As previously known, a sentence is seen as the highest unit of grammatical structure that tends to determine the way in which cohesion is expressed (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 8). Sentences generally appear in both spoken and written form. It means that discourse can be studied in spoken form as previous definitions mentioned and one can see that the concept of discourse is also manifested in texts (Fairclough & Sunderland, as cited in Tanskanen, 2006: 3).

Later, the discussion of discourse has reached further than its interchangeable notion. It comes to what discourse actually represents. For example, discourse is related to the way how interlocutors communicate (Renkema, 2009:2). Discourse represents the manner of using language among society to exchange information in daily life. By looking at the patterns of language in discourse, one can identify the invisible convention existing in society about how to communicate properly. Thus, discourse is frequently defined as anything “beyond the sentence” (Schiffrin, et al. 2001: 1).

The form of discourse can be anything, from simple words, conversations, announcements and texts. What matter is whether discourse communicates something and is recognized by its receivers as coherence (Cook, 1989: 7). Coherence refers to the feeling that a text hangs together (McCarthy 1991: 26).

Coherence can be known by looking at discourse features. The language features of discourse include the grammar and vocabulary, and the context embedded in the language.

In English language teaching, discourse is divided into two major categories, namely the spoken and the written. Spoken discourse is considered to be less planned and orderly, and more open to intervention by the receivers. There are some kinds of spoken discourse, such as lessons, lectures, and interviews, which have significant features in common with typical written discourse. Meanwhile, written discourse is considered to be well-organized, more formal and closed. Later, discourse is divided into the four skills of speaking, listening, writing and reading (Cook, 1989: 50).

a. Discourse Analysis

As previously mentioned, discourse represents how people use the language in communication process and looking at its pattern can reveal the society's convention and manner in exchanging information. However, to know the pattern of various discourse and what makes them coherence is not easy as it seems. There are many factors to be considered in the investigation. The investigation process itself is called discourse analysis.

Discourse analysis studies the language use (Schiffrin, et al., 2001: 1). It identifies regularities and pattern in language. The ultimate aims of this analytical work are to show and interpret the relationship between regularities, meanings and purposes expressed through discourse (Nunan, 1993; 7; Baxter, 2010: 124).

Certainly, the interpretation can not be derived solely from the text. The particular domain of context that the language users engage is worth to be taken into account (Nunan, 1993: 6-7; Jorgensen and Phillips, 2002: 1). It can help the language users to recognize how referring expressions are interpreted (Yule, 1996: 21).

According to Djik (2009: 2), the term context is defined as the social situation of language use in general, or the specific situation of a given text or talk. It involves non-verbal, situational and social aspect of communicative events which are relevant to discourse.

There are many renowned researchers explaining the concept of context. The very well-known work is “Model of interaction of language and social setting” proposed by Hymes (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 22). Hymes categorizes the context or speech situation into eight components, namely form and content of text, setting, participants, ends (intent and effect), key, medium, genre, and interactional norms.

Meanwhile, Nunan (1993: 3) offers the different concept of context. According to him, there are two different types of context which are worth considering. They are linguistic context and non-linguistic context. The linguistic context deals with language material enfolded the discourse. It includes the choice of vocabulary and grammatical rules, and so on. Meanwhile, non-linguistic or experiential context comprises the type of communicative event, the topic, the purpose, the participant, and the background knowledge underlying the communicative events.

Both linguistic and non-linguistic context are different in the way they contribute to the process of making sense of the message and understanding the meaning of discourse as well. According to Murcia & Olshtain (2000: 11), the linguistic context (co-text) entails the linguistic and cognitive choices which are relevant to interaction. Because of co-text only involves the language material in particular piece of discourse, co-text is often called as discourse context. Meanwhile, non-linguistic context (context) involves elements outside the language that may have some bearing on the exchange.

However, the presence of context is harmful for discourse analysis at some point. Particularly, it causes difficulty in distinguishing the field of discourse analysis with pragmatics since pragmatics is often defined as the study of meaning in context (Brinton, 2001: 138-139). This problem is proven by finding textbooks account of pragmatics covers many of the same issues as do accounts of discourse analysis and pragmatics is sometimes said to encompass discourse analysis and vice versa.

Responding to this, Cutting (2002: 2-3) draws the distinction between discourse analysis and pragmatics. Discourse analysis stresses on the structure of the text. It studies how large chunks of language beyond sentence level are organized. Moreover, it also emphasizes how social transaction imposes a framework on discourse. It covers the topic of exchange structure that deals with how certain situations have fixed pattern and conversation analysis and interactional sociolinguistics that study patterns of conversation. While discourse analysis gives insight about the patterns of the text and certain social interaction,

pragmatics gives a socio-cultural perspective on the use of language by examining the way of social behaviors principles. It is determined by the social distance between speakers. This idea is supported by Brinton (2001: 138-139) by saying that discourse analysis is more text-centered, more static, more interested in product, while pragmatics is more user-centered, more dynamic, more interested in the process of text production. Looking at these classifications, co-text is more suitable to be involved in the discourse analysis.

Furthermore, discourse analysis can be defined by means of looking at the requirement of good discourse. One of which is having coherence. This is because discourse is acceptable to the extent that it exhibits coherence relations between its segments (Blakemore, 2001: 101). Thus, discourse analysis is also regarded as the search for what makes discourse coherence (Cook, 1989: 6). The guide to coherence can be seen through the cohesion of the text (McCarthy, 1991: 26).

The data for discourse analysis are varied. They can be recording of informal interview, subtitles of movies, language in the advertisement on TV, and the like. By analyzing them, one can see how people produce spoken discourse in a certain context of communicative events. However, discourse analysis is concerned with not only the description and the analysis of spoken discourse, but also those of written discourse (McCarthy, 1991: 12). People communicate meaningfully through written discourse whose sentences are linked coherently in particular ways. People read articles, manuals, comics, billboard and so on. Both spoken and written discourse take different ways of analysis.

Table 1: **Diversity in Data and Traditions of Discourse Analysis by Wetherell as cited in Phillips and Hardy (2002: 9)**

Examples of Data in Discourse Analysis	Examples of Traditions in Discourse Analysis
Interviews	Conversation analysis
Focus groups	Foucauldian research
Naturally occurring conversations	Critical linguistics
Political speeches	Discursive psychology
Newspaper articles	Bakhtinian research
Cartoons	Interactional linguistics
Novels	Ethnography of speaking

b. Analyzing Written Discourse

Discourse analysis of written texts is a means in describing ideas and their relation that are represented in the text. This can be done by analyzing the structure and the content of the text. It is because both of structure and content can influence the way readers read, comprehend, remember and learn from written texts. By having this analysis, one can construct a systematic description that provides information for comparing written texts with one another (Goldman & Wiley, 2011: 1-6).

According to Van Dijk and Kintsch in Wilawan (2011: 71), discourse analysis concerns local and global processes. The local processes, or microstructures, include creating connections between the parts of the text so as to make readers understand the semantic relations within and between the sentences. The presence of these processes can be followed by investigating the cohesion of the text. The global processes determine the whole meaning of the elements, or macrostructure, of the discourse. The meaning can be gained by creating the interpretation which derives from readers' prior knowledge and messages

encountered in the texts. These processes can be analyzed through the coherence of the text. Both of cohesion and coherence should be united to create a sound discourse. Otherwise, a text or discourse cannot be differed from the sequences of unrelated sentences (Paziraie, 2013: 72).

c. Comprehending Written Discourse

Comprehending written discourse, or reading comprehension, involves the process of decoding the meaning from a text, interpreting the message and understanding the author's intentions (Murcia & Olshtain, 2000: 119). To perform these simultaneous tasks, the readers should have discourse processing.

According to Cook (1989: 79), generally, there are two approaches in discourse processing, namely bottom-up and top-down approach. Bottom-up approach proceeds from the most detailed of discourse towards the most general. This approach is an important way to understand what language is and how it works. Meanwhile, top-down approach starts from the most general to the most detailed. The most detailed thing is about the relationship of grammar to discourse and the most general thing is the social relationship of the discourse.

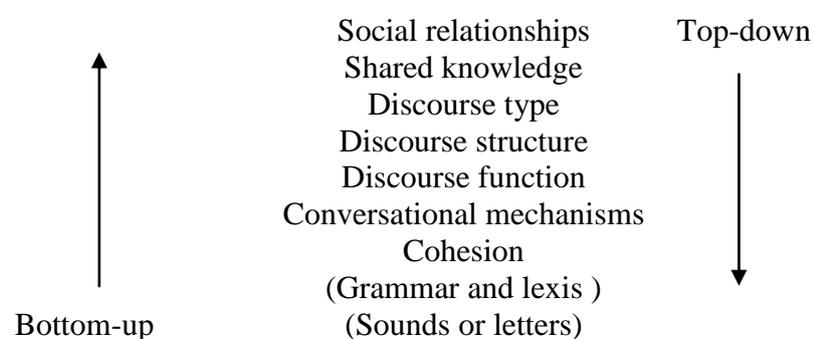


Figure 1. **Approaches in discourse processing (Cook, 1989: 79)**

Adding to this, according to Murcia & Olshtain (2000: 13-14), top-down processing is also called as knowledge-driven because the reader may collect and consider information outside the difficult article he or she reads, namely where the article appeared and who wrote it, to facilitate the interpretation. The top-down processing recruits readers' background knowledge about the content and genre, and their expectations and experiences while reading to interpret the text. This type of processing will be easier when the readers know the topic of the passage. Bottom-up processing, on the other hand, is called as data-driven interpretation. It relies on the linguistic features such as spelling patterns and word choices and reading strategies to facilitate the comprehension.

However, effective readers should be able to combine both top-down and bottom-up processing to meet the interpretation that the writer intends to convey. The approach that combines top-down and bottom-up processing to describe reading process is called interactive processing. Interactive processing can be done by bringing together the prior knowledge, discourse knowledge, and purposes of reading, and using linguistic knowledge and individual strategies to the reading process at the same time (Murcia & Olshtain, 2000: 121-123).

2. Cohesion

Cohesion is all about the relation of meaning in a text. It defines something as a text because a text is unit of meaning, not a form. It is the source of the text that has a range of meanings related to what is being spoken and written to its semantic environment (Jabeen, et al., 2013: 139). It is manifested

through ties in which every one of them refers to a single instance of cohesion and expressed partly through grammar and partly through vocabulary. That is why there are grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion.

Cohesion is analyzed in the form of sentence. It is because a sentence is the highest grammatical structure and tends to determine how cohesion is expressed. For example, when the same entity is being referred twice, there are rules governing whether the second entity will be named again or referred by pronoun. These rules are determined by the sentence structure.

The sentence structure can also reveal the way how cohesion is expressed in the whole text. It is because a text generally consists of multiple sentences. Thus, by showing how semantic relation is established in a single sentence, it can show how structure of each independent sentence (or elements in a single sentence) can reflect the structure of higher level (text). This makes cohesion similar to discourse structure.

In fact, reference is the only type of cohesion that depends on the structure of the text. It is because reference uses other items for retrieving the information that can only be gained by looking at the structure of the text. Meanwhile, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction and lexical cohesion do not depend on the structure.

Also, in the case of texts consisting of a single sentence such as public notices, proverb, and the like, the internal cohesiveness can be explained through the function of its structure. It is the function of its structure that contributes to the meaningful and coherent sentence so that it can be regarded as a text. Here,

cohesion functions as a non-structural text-forming relation that makes a single sentence as a text. In conclusion, cohesion does not only depend solely on the structural relation, but also non-structural relation.

As a result, cohesion can be found within and between sentences. Cohesion has nothing to do with sentence boundaries. It is because cohesion establishes a semantic relation among elements in a text that are crucial to the process of interpretation by means of presupposed and presupposing. Something presupposed one before, in the sense that one cannot be interpreted except by looking backward to it. Also, one will be presupposing others next, in the sense that one can be interpreted by looking forward to other. It is in a dependent way. This notion is supported by Kafes (2012: 85) by saying that cohesion is a matter of the semantic relation that establishes cohesive device and enables a passage of speaking or writing to function as a text. It can be found within and between sentences since it is a semantic relation.

Again, cohesion connects any passage or speech to function as a text form its explicit semantic relation. If it cannot be seen, it is not a text, instead the sequences of unrelated sentences. As cited in Janjua (2012: 149-151), the function of cohesion is to differentiate a text from the collection of unrelated sentence. Also, it knits the semantic pattern of a text that shapes the meanings.

The place of cohesion in linguistic system is in the textual component. The textual component is concerned with text-forming component in linguistic system. It is associated with particular rank in grammar, information unit being expressed,

and meaning relation in a text (cohesion). It is also called as text forming component in linguistic system.

Table 2: **The Place of Cohesion in the Description of English (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 29)**

Ideational		Interpersonal	Textual		
Experiential	Logical		Structural		Non-structural
By rank:	All ranks:	By rank:	By rank:	Cross rank:	Cohesion: reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction, lexical cohesion
Clause: transitivity	Paratactic and hypotactic relation (condition, addition, report)	Clause: mood, modality	Clause: theme	Information unit:	
Verbal group: tense		Verbal group: person	Verbal group: voice	Information distribution, information focus	
Nominal group: epithesis		Nominal group: attitude	Nominal group: deixis		
Adverbial group: circumstance		Adverbial group: comment	Adverbial group: conjunction		

a. Types of Cohesion

Halliday and Hasan (1976) classify cohesion into grammatical and lexical cohesion. The grammatical cohesion includes reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction. Meanwhile, lexical cohesion includes repetition and collocation (Halliday & Hasan, 1976; Janjua, 2012; Kafes, 2012; Li, 2013; Paziraie 2013). This is because both of them are established by two different elements. They are grammar and words. In the lexico-grammatical level, the distinction can absolutely be drawn.

1) Grammatical Cohesion

The grammatical cohesion is established by use of the grammatical elements of the text that expresses the semantic links within and between the sentences. It includes reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction.

a) Reference

Reference uses other signaling items (words or parts) in making meaning instead of semantic meaning of that reference. It requires referential meaning to interpret what signaling items represent. That is why reference is defined as a particular type of cohesion which has specific meaning of information that is referred to.

Reference has similar characteristics as definite articles. It carries specific meaning that can be achieved through context of situation which is found in reference. Also, the item that is being referred to should have the same or similar semantic properties, e.g. similar part of speech. Unlike reference, substitution tends to have grammatical relation. Thus, the item that is substituted should have the same grammatical class.

For example:

(1:1) For he is a jolly good fellow. And so say all of us. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 32)

Although *he* is implicit, his identity is clear to those who are present.

There are three continual analyses in the reference. They are naming, situational reference, and textual reference. Naming is defined as referring to a thing independently of the context of situation. Situational reference is referring to

a thing as identified in the context of situation. Textual reference is referring to a thing as identified in the surrounding text.

For example:

(1:2) Shepperd is near the end of the **Cape Fear** shoot, in front of a grocer's stand just outside Fort Lauderdale, Florida. **He** used to have **Armani** make his jeans, but **he** felt guilty wearing them. (Adapted from Nunan, 1993: 21)

From the example above, anyone who reads the text can easily understand that *he* refers to *Shepperd* without analyzing the context surrounding or outside the text. It is because of *he* is pronoun for a man. *He* perfectly exemplifies naming. However, those who do not know *Armani* before reading the text should find the information provided in the text. They may infer *Armani* as jeans instead of clothes, because the context surrounding the text clearly limits the range of possible interpretations. The word *Armani* is considered as textual reference. Meanwhile, to understand what *Cape Fear* is, the reader should find the context of situation where the text is published. It can be information about the writer, the picture along with the text, the medium of the text, and so forth. *Cape Fear* represents situational reference.

These continual analyses can be used to draw distinction of the class of reference items based on different set and phoric tendencies. Phoric tendencies refer to the ways of referring in reference. They refer to endophora (anaphora and cataphora) and exophora.

Endophora refers to the ways of making interpretation through the elements of the text. It is textual analysis. Endophora consists of two types which are anaphora and cataphora. Anaphora or pointing backward is the simplest way

of referring. It will make cohesive chain referring back to the preceding sentence. In other words, it presupposes elements in the text. It can be verbally explicit and implicit. Meanwhile, cataphora or pointing forward is the way of referring by presupposing other elements next.

For examples:

	A	←	B
Explicit anaphoric:	John		John
Implicit anaphoric:	John		he
(explicitly) cataphoric:	he		John

(Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 19)

On the other hand, exophora is useful in making interpretation through context of situation that the readers or hearers supply by themselves. Context of situation is defined as all those extra linguistic factors which have some bearing within the text. It possibly comes from type of audience, medium, purpose of communication, and individual characteristics. In other words, it involves the external texture. It is the external elements that are used to distinguish whether it is a text or a sequence of unrelated sentences.

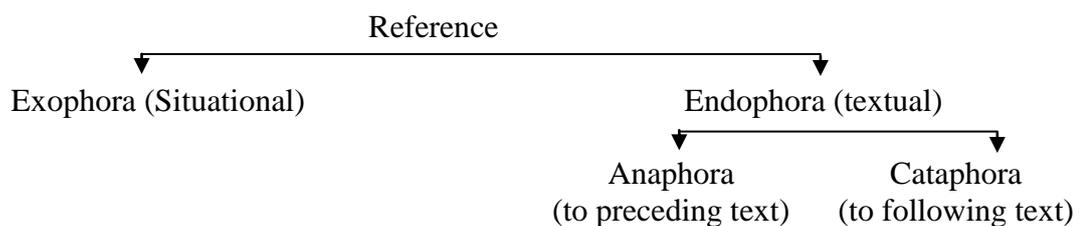


Figure 2. **The ways of referring (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 33)**

However, the only phoric tendency which is cohesive is endophora. It is because reference relation should be easily seen elsewhere and neutral instead of divergent as context of situation is. It relies on what is written in the text. Thus, textual reference is very important for cohesion analysis. On the other hand,

situational reference only contributes to the creation of the text instead of the integration of two passages which form a text. It is also difficult to make sure the degree of background knowledge that the readers have to build the situation in comprehending the text.

Types of reference and reference items can only be identified based on potential reference regardless whether it is endophora or exophora. A reference item is an item that has potential reference and a systemic account on the different types of reference and their place has to be based on generalized concept of reference (not particular form). In addition, there are three types of reference. They consist of personal reference, demonstrative reference, and comparative reference.

(1) Personal Reference

Personal reference represents person by specifying its role in the speech situation. The term person includes impersonal meaning (human but not individualized) and non-personal (object) which are relevant to the speech situation. In general, personal reference involves personal pronouns, possessive determiners, and possessive pronouns.

Table 3: Personal Reference (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 38)

Semantic category	Existential	Possessive	
Grammatical function	Head		Modifier
Class	Noun (pronoun)		Determiner
Person: Speaker (only) Addressee(s), with/without other person(s)	I me you we us	mine yours ours	my your our

Speaker and other person(s)	he him	his	his
Other person, male	she her	hers	her
Other person, female	they them	theirs	their
Other persons; objects	it	(its)	its
Object; passage of text	one		one's
Generalized person			

For examples:

(1:3) Mikhail Gorbachev didn't have to change the world. **He** could have chosen the rule much as his predecessors did. (The Bulletin as cited in Nunan, 1993)

He in the second sentence refers to *Mikhail Gorbachev*. This kind of personal reference is expressed through pronoun.

(2) Demonstrative Reference

Demonstrative reference is a type of reference that is identified through the scale of proximity. It can be functioned as head, modifier, and adjunct. "this" and "that" refer to singular participant, while "these" and "those" refer to plural participant. On the other hand, "here" and "there" are related to the place, and "now" and "then" are related to time.

Table 4: **Demonstrative Reference (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 38)**

Semantic category	Selective		Non-selective
Grammatical function	Modifier/ head	Adjunct	Modifier
Class	Determiner	Adverb	Determiner
Proximity:			
Near	this these	here now	
Far	that those	there then	
Neutral			the

For example:

- (1:4) Recognizing that his country had to change, Gorbachev could have become cautious modernizer in the Chinese fashion, promoting economic reform and sponsoring new technology while holding firm against political change. **This** did not happen. (The Bulletin as cited in Nunan, 1993)

This in the last sentence refers to *Gorbachev could have become cautious modernizer in the Chinese fashion, promoting economic reform and sponsoring new technology while holding firm against political change.* This type of demonstrative reference is used near and singular participant.

(3) Comparative Reference

Comparative reference is a type of reference based on the consideration that a thing is similar or different (in terms of likeness and unlikeness). The elements that are compared are the quantity and the quality of the thing. The comparison is expressed by certain class of adjectives and adverbs. There are called adjectives of comparison (deictic and epithet) and adverbs of comparison (adjunct).

Table 5: Comparative Reference (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 39)

Grammatical function	Modifier (deictic and epithet)	Sub modifier/ adjunct
Class	Adjective	Adverb
General comparison: Identity General similarity Difference (i.e., non-identity or similarity)	Same identical equal Similar additional Other different else	Identically Similarly likewise so such Differently otherwise
Particular comparison	Better, more, etc. (comparative adjectives and quantifiers)	So more less equally

For example:

(1:5) As a matter of fact, Upin and Ipin are **identical children** but have different personality. (The researcher's documentation)

Identical children refer to Upin and Ipin's physical appearance. They compare the similarity of their characteristics, although at the end it is said that they have different personality.

b) **Substitution**

Substitution is defined as a replacement of an item with another item. Both items should have the same grammatical class. It is different from reference in which the item that is referred to should have the same semantic property. Substitution is mainly textual. It connects a links between parts of a text anaphorically and encloses them to the text. Exophoric substitution is very rare.

Table 6: **The Differences between Reference and Substitution (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 89)**

Types of cohesive relations	Linguistic level
Reference	Semantic
Substitution (including ellipsis)	Grammatical

The types of substitution might be defined grammatically instead of semantically and should be based on the grammatical function of the substitute item. It can be as a noun, verb or clause. These correspond with the three types of substitution which are nominal, verbal, and clausal substitution.

(1) Nominal Substitution

Nominal substitution is defined as a noun-substituting process which uses “one”, “ones”, and “same”. It means that the item that is substituted with one or ones should be the head of nominal group, since one or ones always function as the head of nominal group. The items that are substituted should be in the same position and function. They can be different in number, but they are in the same category which is a count noun. It is because the only possible form of substitution for mass noun (uncountable noun) is substitution by zero (ellipsis).

For examples:

(2:1) These biscuits are stale. Get some fresh **ones**.

(2:2) This bread's stale. Get some fresh.

(Haliday & Hasan, 1976: 92)

Ones substitutes *biscuits*. Meanwhile, *bread* is substituted by zero.

“One” or “ones” is a substitution that is put to fill the head slot. The meaning is the noun to fill this slot will be found in the preceding text (occasionally elsewhere). “One” or “ones” is always accompanied by some modifying elements which function as defining it in the particular context. It is because “one” or “ones” are presented to change the head of nominal group and differentiate “one” or “ones” here from previously mentioned. Meanwhile, “the same” represents the whole sentence. It is classified into nominal substitution.

For example:

(2:3) They will face the consequences of writing a thesis which is to defend the thesis in front of the examiners. I'll have **the same**. (The researcher's documentation)

The same refers to *face the consequences of writing a thesis which is to defend the thesis in front of the examiner*.

(2) Verbal Substitution

Verbal substitution operates as head of verb group and its position is always final in the group. The item that supplies the substitution area is “do”. While one always substitutes for a noun which expresses typically a person, creature, object, institution, or abstraction of some kind, “do” may substitute either a verb or a verb plus certain other element in the clause which represents an action, event, or relation. It can be expressed by “do”, “do so”, “can do”, “can”, “does”, “did”, and “done”.

For examples:

(2:4) the words did not come the same as they used to **do**.

(2:5) I don't know the meaning of half those long words, and what's more, I don't believe you **do** either!

(2:6) He never really succeeded in his ambitions. He might have **done**, one felt, had it not been for the restlessness of his nature.

(Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 112-113)

In the 2:4, *do* substitutes *come*. In the 2:5, *do* substitutes *know the meaning of half those long words*. In the 2:6, *done* substitutes *succeeded in his ambition*.

The verbal substitution is always anaphoric. It may presuppose an element within the same sentence as itself, so that there is already a structural relation in linking the items. However, it frequently substitutes for an element in a preceding sentence, and therefore it is the primary source of cohesion in a text.

(3) Clausal Substitution

Clausal substitution substitutes an entire clause instead of within the clause. The clausal substitution is expressed by the word “so” and “not”. Three environments that clausal substitution takes place are report, condition, and

modality. It may take either positive or negative form. The positive form is expressed by “so”, and the negative form is expressed by “not”.

However, there is limitation for the existence of clausal substitution. The clausal substitution exists in the declarative sentence. There is no substitution in the interrogative or imperative sentence. It also doesn't occur in the verb such as “wonder”, “order”, or “ask”.

For example:

(2:7) My religion teaches me that to eat too much food is bad and the research said **so**. (The researcher's documentation)

In the example above, *so* substitute *to eat too much food is bad*. It resembles the substitution for the whole clause within the sentence and sits as object.

c) **Ellipsis**

Ellipsis is a means of establishing semantic relation by using grammatical elements. Although it is the same with substitution, it has different structure and pattern. In ellipsis, something is understood without saying. In other words, it is substitution by zero.

Ellipsis is a matter of structural relation. It is established within the sentence. There is no structural relation between the sentences. Thus, there is no need to add additional idea of cohesion to make sentences hang together. Even, by explaining the structure within the sentence, it shows the relation between the sentence and it is important aspect of texture. That is why ellipsis is really important for grammatical cohesion and written discourse analysis.

There are three types of ellipsis. They are nominal, verbal and clausal ellipsis. Again, the names of the types suggest the items that are omitted.

(1) Nominal Ellipsis

Nominal ellipsis is a type of ellipsis in the nominal group. The nominal ellipsis lifts a word positioning as pre modifier (deictic, numerative, epithet, or classifiers) to Head.

For example:

(3:1) My kids play an awful lot of sport. Both (0) are incredibly energetic.
(Nunan, 1993: 26)

The ellipsis is marked by (0). The (0) is omitting the position of *my kids*.

(2) Verbal Ellipsis

Verbal ellipsis refers to ellipsis within the verbal group. The verbal group before presupposes the next verbal group which is not fully expressed in its systemic features. The interpretation is made within the verbal group system.

For example:

(3:2) Have you been swimming? Yes I **have**.

(3:3) What have you been doing? **Swimming**.

(Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 167)

Have and *swimming* can be interpreted as stands for I have been swimming.

(3) Clausal Ellipsis

The clause in English consists of two elements which are modal and propositional elements. Modal element consists of subject and the finite element in the verbal group. The propositional element includes the remainder of the

verbal group and any complement or adjunct that may be occurred. The different of complement and adjunct is the complement can become a subject if the clause was turned around in some way, whereas the adjunct could not. The clausal ellipsis includes the omission in the modal and prepositional elements.

For examples:

The whole sentence is “*The duke was going to plant a row of poplars in the park*”.

(3:4) What was duke going to do? Plant a row of poplars in the park.

(3:5) Who was going to plant a row of poplars in the park? The duke was.

(Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 197-198)

In the example 3:4, the modal element is omitted in the answer. Meanwhile, in the example 3:5, the prepositional element is omitted.

Again, ellipsis is primarily grammatical relation. They hold the words and structures rather than relating them through their meanings. They are purely textual.

d) Conjunction

Conjunctive elements are primarily devices to create cohesion by the virtue of their specific meanings. It means that they by themselves express certain meanings and their meanings enable them to presuppose the presence of the other elements. They can relate to the preceding or following text. By specifying the way that is the next is semantically connected to what has gone before, conjunction can establish the semantic relation.

In the point of view of cohesion, conjunction is seen from their actual sequence in the text. It is because in connecting the sentences, sentences of a text can only follow one after the other. Hence, the focus is not semantic relation, but

it is their function in relating linguistic elements that occur in succession (sequence). Again, conjunction is not only a matter of connecting two sentences, but also relating two events semantically.

There are four types of conjunction. They are additive, adversative, causal, and temporal. They have different signal words and they relate sentences in different ways based on their actual meanings.

(1) Additive

Additive refers to a type of cohesion that structurally appears and coordinates each other. It means that it depends on the structure of the sentence. It functions to add the existing information by the virtue of coordination. They are tied to structural coordination and express the succession of two independent elements. Under this heading, the source of cohesion can be derived from the comparison of the semantic similarity between what is being said and what has gone before.

Table 7: **The Summary of Conjunctive Relations of the Additive Type (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 249)**

Classification	Type	Example
Simple additive relation (external and internal)	Additive	<i>and; and also, and...too</i>
	Negative	<i>nor; and...no, not either, neither</i>
	Alternative	<i>or; or else</i>
Complex additive relations (internal): emphatic	Additive	<i>further(more), moreover, additionally, besides that, add to this, in addition, and another thing</i>
	Alternative	<i>Alternatively</i>
Complex additive relations (internal): de-emphatic	Afterthought	<i>incidentally, by the way</i>
Comparative relations (internal)	Similar	<i>likewise, similarly, in the same way, in (just) this way</i>

	Dissimilar	<i>on the other hand, by contrast, conversely</i>
Appositive relations (internal)	Expository	<i>that is, I mean, in other words, to put it another way</i>
	Exemplificatory	<i>for instance, for example, thus</i>

For example:

(4:1) Our garden didn't do very well this year. **By contrast**, the orchard is looking very healthy. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 247)

The word *by contrast* expresses that there is a contradiction between the previous sentence and the next sentence. The contradiction represents the dissimilarity between them and reflects how coordination is gained in this particular additive relation.

(2) Adversative

Adversative refers to the contrary expectation. The connection in the adversative relation is gained by contrasting expectation which is derived from what is mentioned before. The expectation can come from the text or speaker-hearer configuration.

Table 8: **The Summary of Conjunctive Relations of the Adversative Type (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 255)**

Classification	Type	Example
Adversative relations 'proper' (in spite of) (external and internal)	Simple	<i>yet; though; only</i>
	Containing "and"	<i>But</i>
	Emphatic	<i>however, nevertheless, despite this, all the same</i>
Contrastive relations ('as against') (external)	Simple	<i>but, and</i>
	Emphatic	<i>however, on the other hand, at the same time, as against that</i>
Contrastive relations ('as against') (internal)	Avowal	<i>in fact, as a matter of fact, to tell the truth, actually, in point of fact</i>
Corrective relations	Correction of	<i>instead, rather, on the contrary</i>

('not...but') (internal)	meaning	
	Correction of wording	<i>at least, rather, I mean</i>
Dismissive (generalized adversative) relations ('no matter...', 'still') (external and internal)	Dismissal, closed	<i>in any/either case/event, any/other way, whichever...</i>
	Dismissal, open-ended	<i>anyhow, at any rate, in any case, however that may be</i>

For example:

(4:2) He showed no pleasure at hearing the news. **Instead** he looked even gloomier. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 254)

The word *instead* connects the information mentioned before by means of correcting the meaning. At first, the expectation that is derived from the first sentence is that he would like to be sad because he expressed no pleasure. Then, the correction comes that he is not sad, even his face looked gloomier. The word *instead* clearly shows that there is a contradiction in terms of expectation and it connects the sentences by means of correcting the meaning.

(3) Causal

Causal relation represents one of cause and consequence (Nunan, 1993: 27). It means that one clause becomes the cause and the rest is the consequence. It involves the interpretation from the readers of the text to distinct them. That is why the clear-cut is difficult to be presented. In fact, causal relation includes result, reason, and purpose to form a cohesive chain.

Table 9: The Summary of Conjunctive Relation of the Causal Type (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 260-261)

Classification	Type	Example
Causal relations, general ('because...,so') (external and internal)	Simple	<i>so, thus, hence, therefore</i>
	Emphatic	<i>consequently, accordingly, because of this</i>
Causal relations, specific	Reason	(mainly external) <i>for this reason, on account of this</i> (internal) <i>it follows (from this), on this basis</i>
	Result	(mainly external) <i>as a result (of this), in consequences (of this)</i> (internal) <i>arising out of this</i>
	Purpose	(mainly external) <i>for this purpose, with this mind/view, with this intention</i> (internal) <i>to this end</i>
Reversed causal relations	Simple	<i>for; because</i>
Conditional relations ('if..., then') (external and internal)	Simple	<i>then</i>
	Emphatic	<i>in that case, that being the case, in such an event, under those circumstances</i>
	Generalized	<i>under the circumstances</i>
	Reversed polarity	<i>otherwise, under the circumstances</i>
Respective relations ('with respect to') (internal)	Direct	<i>in this respect/connection, with regard to this; here</i>
	Reversed polarity	<i>otherwise, in other respects; aside/apart from this</i>

For example:

(4:3) Chinese tea is becoming increasingly popular in the restaurants, and even in coffee shops. This is **because** of the growing belief that it has several health-giving properties. (Nunan, 1993: 27)

The word *because* connects the two sentences by means of showing their causal relation. The first sentence is the consequence that occurs because of the effect of the belief. The belief that Chinese tea has several health-giving properties becomes the cause of its popularity.

(4) Temporal

Temporal relation represents the sequence of time. It exists when the events in the text are related in terms of timing of their occurrence (Nunan, 1993: 27). The relation can be determined by the particular stage that communication process has reached. What makes temporal relation different from all types of conjunction is it occurs in correlative form. It means that it can occur with cataphoric expression in one sentence. As previously mention, cataphoric tendencies refers to the way of referring by means of pointing forward. It best represents by the words such as “first”, “first of all”, “to begin with”, and so forth.

Table 10: **The Summary of Conjunctive Relation of the Temporal Type (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 266-267)**

Classification	Type	Example
Simple temporal relations (external)	Sequential	<i>(and) then, next, afterwards, after that, subsequently</i>
	Simultaneous	<i>(just) then, at the same time, simultaneously</i>
	Preceding	<i>earlier, before then/that, previously</i>
Complex temporal relations (external)	Immediate	<i>at once, thereupon, on which; just before</i>
	Interrupted	<i>soon, presently, later, after a time; some time earlier, formerly</i>
	Repetitive	<i>next time, on another occasion; this time, on this occasion; the last time, on a previous occasion</i>
	Specific	<i>next day, five minutes later, five minutes earlier</i>
	Durative	<i>meanwhile, all this time</i>
	Terminal	<i>by this time; up till that time, until then</i>
	Punctiliar	<i>next moment; at this point/ moment; the previous moment</i>
Conclusive relations (external)	Simple	<i>finally, at last, in the end, eventually</i>
Sequential and conclusive relations (external): correlative forms	Sequential	<i>first...then, first...next, first...second...</i>
	conclusive	<i>at first... finally, at first... in the end</i>

Temporal relations (internal)	Sequential	<i>then, next, secondly...</i>
	Conclusive	<i>finally, as a final point, in conclusion</i>
Temporal relations (internal): correlative forms	Sequential	<i>first..next, first...then, first...secondly, in the first place...; to begin with...</i>
	Conclusive	<i>..finally; ...to conclude with</i>
'Here and now' relations (internal)	Past	<i>up to now, up to this point, hitherto, heretofore</i>
	Present	<i>at this point, here</i>
	Future	<i>from now on, henceforward</i>
Summary relations (internal)	Culminative	<i>to sum up, in short, briefly</i>
	Resumptive	<i>to resume, to get back to the point, anyway</i>

For example:

(4:4) Brick tea is a blend that has been compressed into a cake. It is taken mainly by the minority groups in China. **First**, it is ground to a dust. **Then**, it is usually cooked in milk. (Nunan, 1993: 27)

The words *first* and *then* correlate the second and third sentences to the first sentence by means of sequential ways. It explains how to make brick tea and the steps are forward. It is impossible to do it randomly or backward.

2) Lexical cohesion

As previously mentioned, the lexical cohesion is constructed from the vocabulary. Halliday and Hasan as cited in Janjua (2012: 150-151) mention that the lexical cohesion refers to the cohesive effect by non-grammatical elements or the selections of vocabulary. The lexical cohesion appears in discourse by means of reproducibility and co-occurrence. Reproducibility relationship (reiteration) includes the original words (repetition), synonyms, superordinate and general words. Meanwhile co-occurrence relationship (collocation) refers to the tendency of common occurrence (Li, 2013: 1393).

a) Reiteration (reproducibility)

As previously mentioned, reiteration is a type of lexical cohesion that establishes the semantic links by means of using repetition, synonym, superordinate, and general word. Repetition refers to re-writing the same word in another place as the item being referred. Synonym includes the words that have similar meaning to the word that is being referred. Superordinate is a means of establishing semantic relation by mentioning the word that has more general classification than the word that is previously mentioned. General word refers to the most general category of the word being referred. All shares the same purpose to establish the link semantically based on the presence of lexical items.

Reiteration often refers back to the previously mentioned item. It connects the words anaphorically. It functions as cohesive reference. Reiteration solely depends on the words that are mentioned in the text. It is mainly textual cohesion.

For examples:

(5:1) What we lack in a newspaper is what we should get. In a word, a “popular” **newspaper** may be the winning ticket.

(5:2) You could try reversing the car up the slope. **The incline** isn’t all that steep.

(5:3) Pneumonia has arrived with the cold and wet conditions. **The illness** is striking everyone from infants to the elderly.

(5:4) A: did you try the steamed buns?

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

(Nunan, 1993: 29)

From the example 5:1, the word *newspaper* is repeated in the second sentence. It is the example of repetition. In 5:2, *the slope* in the first sentence is reiterated using its synonym which is *the incline*. It perfectly exemplifies synonym. In the 5:3, the first sentence is linked to the second sentence by using the word

Pneumonia and *illness*. It expresses superordinate. General word is best described in the example 5:4 by mentioning *things* as exchange to *steamed buns*.

b) Collocation (co-occurrence)

As previously mention, collocation refers to tendencies of common occurrence. It does not depend on any semantic relationships. The tendency is derived from the same lexical environment. In other words, it should have similar context since similar context will generate a cohesive force if they occur in adjacent sentences. With this regard, some researchers might recognize this kind of lexical item as one of the potential element to cause a problem in written discourse analysis. Even, several researchers refuse to deal with this. It is because it is difficult to determine for sure whether cohesive relationship exists or not (Nunan, 1993: 29). Despite of this characteristic, collocation is mainly textual, for the context is mainly found in the text.

For example:

(5:5) My neighbor has just let one of his trees fall into my garden. And **the scoundrel** refuses to pay for the damage he has caused. (Nunan, 1993: 29)

In this example, the words *my neighbor* and *the scoundrel* refer to the same context which is the person who treats others badly. Out of this context, it is widely known that *neighbor* and *scoundrel* are not related at all.

3. Text

In linguistics, the word text refers to any spoken or written passage that form a unified whole. It is not defined by its size. It is best regarded as unit of meaning, not a form since a text can be a single sentence or the integration of sentences. The meaning is encoded in sentences (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 1-2).

A text has texture that distinguishes it from the sequences of unrelated sentences. Texture is a property of being a text that reflects the unity of a text. Texture is provided by cohesive relation that exists within and between sentences (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 2-3).

According to Anderson & Anderson (1997), a text is created by putting words together to communicate meaning. The choice of words will depend on the purpose and context in creating a text. There are two categories of texts, namely factual and literary. Factual texts present information on ideas that aims to show, tell or persuade the audience. There are seven main text types in this category, namely recount, explanation, discussion, information report, exposition, procedure, and response. Meanwhile, literary texts are created to appeal imagination and emotion of their readers. It includes fairy tales, song lyrics, mimes, soap operas, and so on. There are three main types of this category, namely narrative, poetic and dramatic.

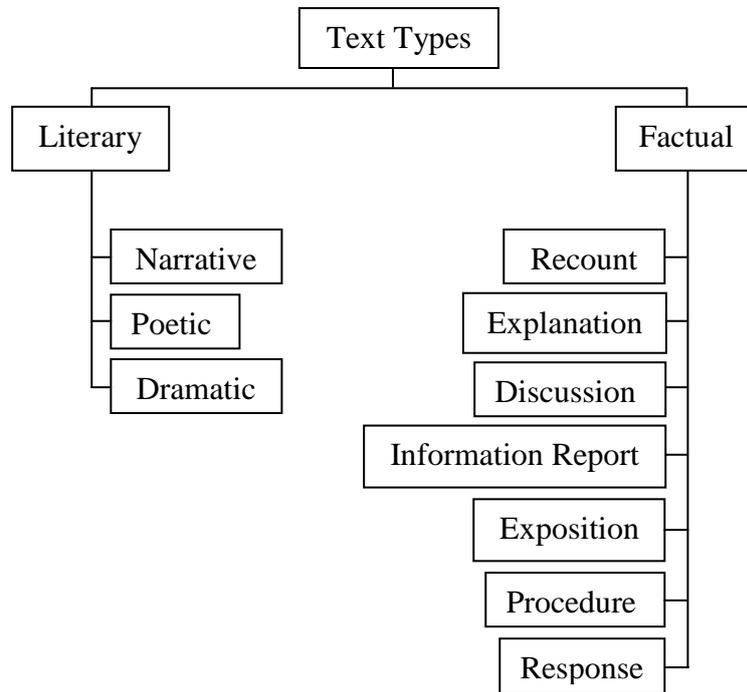


Figure 3. **Text Types (Anderson & Anderson, 1997: 3)**

a. Narrative texts

Narrative texts are defined as fictional texts that consist of sequential events and are written in certain perspective (Bruner, Westbay, & Gündüz in Sallabas, 2013). Narrative texts tell a story using spoken and written language. The purposes of narrative texts are to present a view of the world in order to inform and entertain the reader. To be specific, narrative texts aim to make the audience think about the issues, teach them a lesson, and excite their emotions (Anderson & Anderson, 1998: 3).

People are close to this form of texts rather than other forms since the topics are related to daily life such as love, friendship, family, and the like

(McNamara, 2011: 231-232). According to Anderson & Anderson (1997: 8), there are steps for constructing narrative texts, namely:

- (1) an orientation (can be a paragraph, a picture or opening chapter) in which the narrator mentions about the setting of the story including characters, time and actions
- (2) a complication that sets off events that influence the plot of the story
- (3) a sequences of events where characters react to complications
- (4) a resolution in which characters finally solve the complications, and
- (5) a coda (an optional step) that provides a comment or moral value based on the story.

According to Anderson & Anderson (1997: 8-17), language features in narrative texts include specific characters, time signal, action verb, and descriptive words. A good narrative text employs descriptive words that can portray the appearance of characters (what they look like), the action (how things happen), and the setting (where the action takes place). Descriptive words include:

1. adjectives (words to describe nouns) e.g. He said that he was bitten by two *fierce* dogs.,
2. adverbs (words to describe verb) e.g. He walked *carefully*.,
3. similes (phrases to compare a thing with other things) e.g. Her heart pounded *like a drum*.

The reason why narrative texts are important is that they allow interactive processing to happen. As previously mentioned, interactive processing refers to the combination between bottom up and top down processing (Murcia & Olshtain,

2000: 119). Bottom up processing refers to the combination between language knowledge and reading strategies. Meanwhile, top down processing involves readers' prior knowledge, discourse knowledge of writing conventions, and the purpose of reading. The combination of both processing will lead to the interactive nature of interpretation process.

In the narrative texts, the stories are easy to understand. They are written in the simple structure in which the events happen after one to another. Thus, the stories can be read at once and the readers with minimum level of competence are able to follow (William et al., in McNamara et al., 2011: 231-232, Bruner, Westbay, & Gündüz in Sallabas 2013). In contrast, expository texts involve complex structure and specific information that the readers in certain grades only are able to follow (Kamberelis & Bonivo in McNamara, 2011: 231-232).

Also, the topics are closely related to daily life. It enables the readers to relate their prior knowledge with the new information from the stories. The stories may provide the explanation about socio-cultural background where the events take place. Thus, they can imagine the setting of the stories properly. It is important in facilitating reader's comprehension.

Finally, narrative texts are written in various genres, namely humor, romance, crime, real-life fiction, historical fiction, mystery, fantasy, science fiction, diary-novels, and adventure. By choosing one of them, readers can get what they expect to know and extend their purpose of reading. Thus, it may cover various purposes of reading.

Adding to this, reading narrative texts can help the readers to build their personal development. According to Sallabas (2013: 362-363), the readers can learn about various personalities from the characters and relate themselves to what they have learned. For example, they know about the characteristics of good people from the story and imitate them to their daily life with or without necessary changes. This can help the readers to develop desired behaviors.

Their social competence will be developed as well by examining moral values from the story. Moral values gained by the readers enable them to adjust themselves toward their social and cultural environments (Sallabas, 2013: 362-363). The readers can learn about what the society's habits and rules are and how to be a good part of the society in which they belong. This is supported by Renkema (2004:198) by saying that narrative texts can tell people how they relate to each other and how they use it to position themselves as a part of certain group in the society.

Certainly, advantages of having narrative texts will not be achieved if texts are not properly graded to the level of readers they are given. The fact is the same text may be processed differently by different readers, depending on their prior knowledge and their knowledge about target language (Murcia & Olshtain, 2000: 121). Several researchers usually use readability as a means of measuring the difficulty of a text. By measuring readability, it is expected that texts will match to the students' level of competence.

b. Text Readability

According to Gilliland as cited in Wray & Janan (2013: 72), readability refers to a study of matching a reader and a text. The matching process is done by corresponding the difficulty of texts to the certain group of people. The goal is to make sure that certain texts are compelling and comprehensible for a given class of people. Thus, texts which are not compatible for their readers can be avoided unless readers will fail to understand or even ignore the text (Zamanian & Heydari, 2012: 43).

In relation to pedagogic environment, teachers can ensure that students are supplied with appropriate reading materials by looking at text readability. It is important to extend the students' level of competence. Students are not challenged when they are given reading materials that are too easy. Meanwhile, the materials which are too difficult will fail students to make progress (Wray & Janan, 2013: 72).

Traditionally, readability formulas utilized variables such as word frequency, word length and sentence length. For example, texts with shorter but more frequent words and shorter sentences are considered to be more readable or less difficult. In contrast, texts with longer but rare words and longer sentences will be considered as less readable or more difficult. However, this technique is weak in terms of judging a text with short but jumbled words in brief sentences as quite readable (Benjamin, 2011: 65-66).

Therefore, several researchers start to develop theories based on cognitive science. They claim that text readability is more related to coherence and the

relationships between elements in a text rather than just the sum of words and sentences (Britton and Gülgöz, Kintsch, McNamara and Kintsch in Benjamin, 2011: 69-70). For example, Latent Semantic Analysis (LSA) is used to report the cohesion to measure the difficulty of a text by comparing the semantic relatedness of adjoining sentences. By measuring cohesion, LSA can determine that certain texts are suitable for certain level of readers. A highly cohesive text tends to be easier for novice readers than a text with low cohesion that requires more connections and inferences made by readers to form mental representation of the content (McNamara et al., in Benjamin, 2011: 70-71).

Besides, as previously mentioned, it is also important to take into account readers' characteristics in assessing readability. Selecting appropriate texts for readers involves some understanding of both the reader and the text (Benjamin, 2011: 64). It includes readers' physical capabilities, reading abilities, engagement/motivation, prior knowledge and gender (Wray & Janan, 2013: 79).

4. Previous Study

This research is not the first study analyzing cohesion in narrative texts. There has been a study investigating cohesion in narrative texts entitled "Cohesion and Semantic Understanding". The study was conducted by Iqra Jabeen, Rabia Faiz, Asad Mehmood, and Naveed Yousaf from department of English, University of Sargodha, Pakistan. The paper was published on November 2013.

There are three similarities between this research and the research conducted by Jabeen et al. First, both studies investigate the cohesive devices consisting of grammatical and lexical cohesion. Second, the object of the research is narrative texts. Third, both studies have implications for English language teaching.

Therefore, the method of the previous study can be applied to this study. The principles of grammatical cohesion, namely reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction, and lexical cohesion, namely reiteration and collocation presented by Halliday and Hasan (1976) and Bloor and Bloor (1995) applied in the previous study are also used in this research. The aim is to highlight the significance of cohesive ties in the text which from its semantic base. All devices are first identified from narrative texts. After that, number of ties, types of cohesive ties and presupposed items are written. Then, ties placed under the relevant categories. Finally, the conclusions and the implications can be drawn.

B. Conceptual framework

This research aims to investigate the cohesion in narrative texts presented in the electronic textbook for senior high school grade X entitled “Developing English Competence” using the theory of cohesion proposed by Halliday and Hasan (1976) and Bloor and Bloor (1995). The investigation was done by looking at the surface structure of the narrative texts. As previously mentioned, by investigating the surface structure of a text, the researcher would know how the meaning is constructed and decide whether the text is understandable and compatible as language input or not. The surface structure of the text includes the

choice of vocabulary and grammatical items. This research excluded the analysis of the context of situation in the text. Thus, it depended solely on the text.

The research was carried out through several steps. The initial steps were collecting narrative texts from the textbook and dividing them into sentences. After that, the raw data were transferred into a table and analyzed carefully using the categorization of cohesive devices proposed by Halliday and Hasan (1976) and Bloor and Bloor (1995). The researcher identified the use of grammatical cohesion which consists of reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction, and lexical cohesion which includes reiteration and collocation. Then, the researcher wrote the number of ties, the cohesive items and their types, and the presupposed items in the data sheets. The researcher counted the frequencies of occurring types of cohesion. The result was shown in the form of percentage in order to provide the details. Finally, the researcher identified what is meant by the result.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHOD

A. Type of Research

This research employed a qualitative method. According to Moleong (1998: 6), qualitative research is a type of research aimed to holistically understand a phenomenon that is undergone by the subject of the research in the certain natural context by describing it using words and employing scientific methods. Adding to this, Lodico, et al., (2010: 143) mention that qualitative research is a means of giving voice to the participants' feelings and perceptions. This is based on the idea that knowledge is derived from the social setting and understanding it is considered as a legitimate scientific process.

B. Data and Source of Data

The data of this research were narrative texts presented in the textbook. They were broken into sentences and there are 325 sentences. There are 16 narrative texts. The details can be seen in the table as follow.

Table 11: The Details of Narrative texts presented in the Electronic Textbook of Senior High School Grade X entitled "Developing English Competence"

No.	Title	Semester	Page	Number of sentences
1	The Little Girl and The Wolf	1	30	8
2	The Father and His Son	1	30	7
3	Blind Listening	1	35	15

4	Three Foolish Sons	1	39	24
5	The Fortune Teller	1	40-41	36
6	The Story About Red	1	42-43	62
7	Shadow Puppet Show: Durna's Trap	1	46	17
8	No Title	2	83	17
9	No Title	2	84	7
10	The Tiger Would Be King	2	89	26
11	The Legend of Beowulf	2	92	21
12	The Fox and The Crow	2	93	19
13	The Wolf and The Dog	2	97	36
14	The Miser	2	100	6
15	The Wolf in the Sheep's Clothing	2	100	5
16	Elephants, Dogs, Mice	2	154-155	19
Total				325

The source of data was electronic textbook for senior high school grade X entitled “Developing English Competence”. The textbook is issued by *Pusat Perbukuan*, The Department of National Education in Indonesia. The authors are Achmad Doddy, Ahmad Sugeng, and Efendi. The textbook was published in 2008. The amount of pages is 194 pages. It uses School-based curriculum.

C. Instrument of the Research

Hatch (2002: 53) says that “the design of qualitative projects must include a description of what the data of the study will be and how they will be collected.” To be able to gather the data accurately, the researcher employed the appropriate and suitable instruments. The most appropriate and suitable instruments in this research was the researcher. The researcher employed herself as the prominent tool in collecting and analyzing the data in the natural setting, and planning and

reporting the research. It is in accordance with the spirit of qualitative research to get the data in their natural setting.

Moreover, the researcher also used related documents, computer, and data sheets. Related documents and computer were used to ease the organization of the data. Meanwhile, the use of data sheets aimed to enable the classification of the data and to note the number of occurrences and percentages of the classification. Data sheets were adapted from Halliday and Hasan (1976: 340) and one of them can be seen bellow.

Table 12: The Data Sheet of Cohesion Analysis in Narrative Texts (Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 340)

No.	Sentence	Number of ties	Cohesive item	Type	Presupposed item
1					
2					
3					

The classification of the data based on the types of cohesion followed the coding scheme below. This scheme was aimed to ease the classification. It was adapted from the coding scheme of cohesion proposed by Halliday & Hasan (1976: 333-339). This coding scheme was also used by Jabeen, et al. (2013).

Table 13: Coding Scheme of the Types of Cohesion (adapted from Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 333-339)

Type of Cohesion		Coding Scheme			
Grammatical cohesion					
I	Reference		R		
	A. Personal			I	
	1. Singular, masculine	he, him, his			A
	2. Singular, feminine	she, her, hers			B
	3. Singular, neuter	it, its			C
	4. Plural	they, them, their, theirs			D
	B. Demonstratives			II	

	1. Demonstrative, near	this/ these, here			A	
	2. Demonstrative, far	that/those, there, then			B	
	3. Definite article	the			C	
	C. Comparatives			III		
	1. Identity	same, identical			A	
	2. Similarity	similar(ly), such			B	
	3. Difference	different, other, else, additional			C	
	4. Comparison, quantity	more, less, as many; ordinals			D	
	5. Comparison, quality	as+ adjective; comparatives and superlatives			E	
II	Substitution		S			
	A. Nominal			I		
	1. for noun Head	one/ones			A	
	2. for nominal Complement	the same			B	
	3. for Attribute	So			C	
	B. Verbal			II		
	1. for verb	do, be, have			A	
	2. for process	do the same/likewise			B	
	3. for proposition	do so, be so			C	
	4. verbal reference	do it/that, be it/that			D	
	C. Clausal			III		
	1. positive	So			A	
	2. negative	Not			B	
III	Ellipsis		E			
	A. Nominal			I		
	1. Deictic as Head				A	
	a) Specific Deictic	possessive, demonstrative, the				1
	b) Non-specific Deictic	each, every, both, all, some				2
	c) Post-deictic	other, some, different				3
	2. Numerative as Head				B	
	a) Ordinal	first, second, third				1
	b) Cardinal	one, two three				2
	c) Indefinite	much, many, most				3
	3. Epithet as Head				C	
	a) Superlative					1
	b) Comparative					2
	c) Others					3
	B. Verbal			II		
	1. Lexical ellipsis (from right)				A	
	a) Total (all items omitted except first operator)					1
	b) Partial (lexical verb)					2

	only omitted)				
	2. Operator ellipsis (from left)			B	
	a) Total (all items omitted except lexical verb)				1
	b) Partial (first operator only omitted)				2
	C. Clausal		III		
	1. Propositional ellipsis			A	
	a) Total (all prepositional element omitted)				1
	b) Partial (some complement or Adjunct present)				2
	2. Modal ellipsis			B	
	a) Total (all modal element omitted)				1
	b) Partial (subject present) (rare)				2
	3. General ellipsis			C	
	a) WH- (only WH-element present)				1
	b) Yes/no (only item expressing polarity present)				2
	c) other (other single clause element present)				3
IV	Conjunction		C		
	A. Additive		I		
	1. Simple			A	
	a) Additive	and, and also			1
	b) Negative	nor, and...not			2
	c) Alternative	or, or else			3
	2. Complex, emphatic			B	
	a) Additive	furthermore, add to that			1
	b) Alternative	alternatively			2
	3. Complex, de-emphatic	by the way, incidentally		C	
	4. Apposition			D	
	a) Expository	that is, in other words			1
	b) Exemplificatory	e.g., thus			2
	5. Comparison			E	

	a) Similar	likewise, in the same way				1
	b) Dissimilar	on the other hand, by contrast				2
	B. Adversative			II		
	1. Adversative 'proper'				A	
	a) Simple	yet, through, only				1
	b) + 'and'	But				2
	c) Emphatic	however, even so, all the same				3
	2. Contrastive (avowal)	in (point of) fact, actually			B	
	3. Contrastive				C	
	a) Simple	but, and				1
	b) Emphatic	however, conversely, on the other hand				2
	4. Correction				D	
	a) Of meaning	instead, on the contrary, rather				1
	b) Of wording	at least, i mean, or rather				2
	5. Dismissal				E	
	a) Closed	if any/ either case				1
	b) Open-ended	in any case, anyhow				2
	C. Causal			III		
	1. General				A	
	a) Simple	so, then, therefore				1
	b) Emphatic	consequently				2
	2. Specific				B	
	a) Reason	on account of this				1
	b) Result	in consequence				2
	c) Purpose	with this mind				3
	3. Reversed clausal	far, because			C	
	4. Clausal, specific				D	
	a) Reason	it follows				1
	b) Result	arising out of this				2
	c) Purpose	to this end				3
	5. Conditional				E	
	a) Simple	Then				1
	b) Emphatic	in that case, in such an event				2
	c) Generalized	under the circumstances				3
	d) Reversed polarity	otherwise, under other circumstances				4
	6. Respective				F	
	a) Direct	in this respect, here				1
	b) Reversed polarity	otherwise, apart from this, in other respects				2
	D. Temporal			IV		
	1. Simple				A	
	a) Sequential	then, next				1
	b) Simultaneous	just then				2

	c) Preceding	before that, hitherto				3
	2. Conclusive	in the end			B	
	3. Correlatives				C	
	a) Sequential	first...then				1
	b) Conclusive	at first/originally/formerly...finally /now				2
	4. Complex				D	
	a) Immediate	at once				1
	b) Interrupted	Soon				2
	c) Repetitive	next time				3
	d) Specific	next day				4
	e) Durative	meanwhile				5
	f) Terminal	until then				6
	g) Punctiliar	at this moment				7
	5. Internal temporal				E	
	a) Sequential	then, next				1
	b) Conclusive	finally, in conclusion				2
	6. Correlatives				F	
	a) Sequential	first..next				1
	b) Conclusive	in the first place..to conclude with				2
	7. Here and now				G	
	a) Past	up to now				1
	b) Present	at this point				2
	c) Future	from now on				3
	8. Summary				H	
	a) Summarizing	now, of course, will				1
	b) Resumptive	anyway, surely, after all				2
	Lexical Cohesion					
I	Reiteration		Rt			
	A. Same item or repetition			I		
	B. Synonym or near synonym			II		
	C. Superordinate			III		
	D. General item or general words			IV		
II	Collocation		Co			

D. Technique of Data Collection

The technique of data collection in this study was note taking by following several procedures. The steps in collecting the data were as follows.

1. Retrieving the electronic textbook from *Pusat Perbukuan* website
2. Reading the English electronic textbook especially the narrative texts
3. Collecting all the narrative texts from the electronic textbook
4. Dividing the texts into sentences, and
5. Transferring the data into a table.

E. Data Analysis Technique

According to Cohen (2007: 461), qualitative data analysis involves organizing and explaining the data in order to understand the data in terms of participants' definitions of the situation, noting patterns, themes, categories and regularities. It must be heavy on interpretation and fits to the purpose of the analysis. In this research, the data were analyzed using the theory of cohesion proposed by Halliday and Hasan (1976) and Bloor and Bloor (1995). Both of theories will be used to analyze the relevance of the cohesive elements that are present in texts which contribute to the overall meaning of the text. The steps of data analysis technique were as follows.

1. Deriving and collecting the narrative texts from the electronic textbook
2. Reading the texts comprehensively
3. Dividing the texts into sentences
4. Putting the raw data into table

5. Classifying the data based on the types of cohesion
6. Counting the frequencies of the occurring cohesion types
7. Doing in-depth analysis to investigate what the data reflects, and
8. Drawing the conclusions after making the written report of the analysis.

F. Trustworthiness

Trustworthiness in this study was done by having triangulation. As cited in Angouri (2010: 34), Cohen & Manion mention that triangulation is one of the key features of good research design. There are four types of triangulation based on the early work of Denzin in Angouri (2010: 34), namely data, methodological, investigator and theoretical triangulation. In this research, triangulation was done using investigator triangulation.

1. Investigator Triangulation

According to Denzin as cited in Angouri (2010: 34), investigator triangulation refers to the association of more than one researcher (multiple investigators) in collecting, analyzing and interpreting the data. It assures the objectivity of the research by avoiding the researcher's bias. In this research, the researcher invited one novice researcher and one expert researcher to accomplish this type of triangulation. One novice researcher was represented by the researcher's peer who has the same interest in linguistic studies and had done research in the field of linguistics. Meanwhile, the expert researcher was represented by the researcher's consultant that has enough experiences in doing

research. The novice and expert research were responsible for checking the data, the analysis and the result. It was done in order to minimize the researcher's personal bias and assure that this research is objective, credible and defensible.

CHAPTER IV
FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

A. Findings

This chapter shows the findings of types of cohesion including grammatical and lexical cohesion in 16 narrative texts that are presented in electronic senior high school textbook entitled “Developing English Competence”. The following table shows the data of number of occurrence and percentage of types of lexical cohesion. It includes grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion.

Table 14: Number of Occurrences and Percentages of Types of Cohesion in Narrative Texts

Text	Type of cohesion					
	Grammatical cohesion				Lexical Cohesion	
	Ref	Sub	Ell	Con	Reit	Coll
1	16	0	1	10	20	0
2	16	0	1	7	8	1
3	37	0	0	7	17	1
4	31	1	0	5	26	1
5	47	0	0	15	28	1
6	51	0	0	29	83	4
7	22	0	0	6	37	0
8	26	0	0	12	11	0
9	4	0	0	4	16	3
10	25	0	0	15	36	2
11	23	0	0	20	30	0
12	12	0	0	25	22	2
13	17	1	0	19	27	0
14	14	0	0	12	7	3
15	7	0	0	6	10	0
16	11	0	0	17	26	0
Total	359	2	2	209	404	18
Percentage (%)	36, 12	0, 20	0, 20	21, 03	40, 64	1, 81

Notes:

- | | |
|----------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. Ref :Reference | 4. Con : Conjunction |
| 2. Sub :Substitution | 5. Reit : Reiteration |
| 3. Ell :Ellipsis | 6. Coll : Collocation |

There are 994 cohesive ties in 16 narrative texts. The grammatical and lexical cohesion appear. They include 4 sub categories of grammatical cohesion such as reference, substitution, ellipsis and conjunction, and 2 sub categories of lexical grammatical such as reiteration and collocation.

Reiteration is the most frequent type among all types of grammatical and lexical cohesion which appears 404 times or 40, 64%. The second rank is reference. Reference appears 359 times or 36, 12%. The third position is conjunction which occurs 209 times or 21, 03%. Meanwhile, collocation appears 18 times or 1, 81%, substitution appears 2 times or 0, 20%, and ellipsis appears 2 time or 0, 20%.

1. Grammatical Cohesion

Grammatical cohesion appears 572 times of total occurrences. They include reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction. The details are described as follows.

a. Reference

As previously mentioned, reference is the most frequent type among all sub categories of cohesive ties after reiteration. It appears 359 times, or 36, 12% of total occurrences of cohesive ties. However, it is in the first rank of

grammatical cohesion. Reference is divided into three types such as personal reference, demonstrative reference and comparative reference. The following table describes the number of occurrences and percentages of each types of reference.

Table 15: Number of Occurrences and Percentages of Types of Reference in Narrative Texts

No.	Types of Reference	F	%
1	Personal Reference	323	89, 97
2	Demonstrative Reference	26	7, 24
3	Comparative Reference	10	2, 79
Total		359	100

The most frequent type of reference is personal reference. Personal reference appears 323 times, or 89, 97%. The second position is demonstrative reference. It occurs 26 times, or 7, 24%. The last is comparative reference. It appears 10 times, or 2, 79%.

b. Substitution

Compared to reference, substitution is less frequent. It appears 2 times or 0, 20% of total occurrences. Substitution consists of 3 sub categories which are nominal, verbal and clausal substitution. The description is presented in the following table.

Table 16: Number of Occurrences and Percentages of Types of Substitution in Narrative Texts

No.	Types of Substitution	F	%
1	Nominal Substitution	0	0
2	Verbal Substitution	2	100
3	Clausal Substitution	0	0
Total		2	100

Substitution appears in the form of verbal substitution. It occurs 2 times in narrative texts. Meanwhile, nominal and clausal substitutions do not appear in the text.

c. Ellipsis

Ellipsis is as frequent as substitution. The findings show the occurrence of ellipsis is 2 times of total occurrences, or 0, 20 %. It consists of nominal, verbal, and clausal ellipsis. It appears in the form of nominal and clausal ellipsis. The details can be seen as follows.

Table 17: **Number of Occurrences and Percentage of Types of Ellipsis in Narrative Texts**

No.	Types of Ellipsis	F	%
1	Nominal Ellipsis	1	50
2	Verbal Ellipsis	0	0
3	Clausal Ellipsis	1	50
Total		2	100

d. Conjunction

Conjunction takes place in the third rank of most frequent types of cohesion. It appears 209 times, or 20, 96% of total occurrences. Conjunction consists of additive, adversative, causal and temporal cohesion. The details are described as follows.

Table 18: **Number of Occurrences and Percentage of Types of Conjunction in Narrative Texts**

No.	Types of Conjunction	F	%
1	Additive	142	67, 94
2	Adversative	36	17, 23
3	Causal	12	5, 74
4	Temporal	19	9, 09
Total		209	100

Additive is the most frequent type of conjunction. It appears 142 times, or 67, 94%. The second position is adversative. It appears 36 times, or 17, 23%. Meanwhile, temporal appears 12 times, or 5, 74% and is in the third rank. The last is causal which appears 19 times, or 9, 09%.

2. Lexical cohesion

As previously mentioned, lexical cohesion is a type of cohesion that establishes the semantic link through the choice of vocabulary. It consists of reiteration and collocation. It appears 422 times in texts. The following table shows the details of the occurrences and percentages.

Table 19: **Number of Occurrences and Percentages of types of Lexical Cohesion in Narrative texts**

No.	Type of Lexical Cohesion	F	%
1	Reiteration	404	95,73
2	Collocation	18	4,27
Total		422	100

Reiteration appears 404 times, or 95, 73%. It is the most frequent type of lexical cohesion compared to collocation and outnumbers the occurrences of all types of cohesion. Collocation only appears 18 times, or, 4, 27%. Reiteration consists of repetition, synonym, superordinate, and general word. The details can be seen as follows.

Table 20: Number of Occurrences and Percentages of types of Reiteration in Narrative Texts

No.	Reiteration	F	%
1	Repetition	339	83, 91
2	Synonym	43	10, 64
3	Superordinate	22	5, 45
4	General Word	0	0
Total		404	100

The findings show that repetition comes as the most frequent type of reiteration. It appears 339 times, or 83, 91%. The second position is synonym which appears 43 times, or 10, 64%. The next is superordinate which appears 22 times, or 5, 45%. Meanwhile, there is no occurrence of general word in the narrative texts.

B. Discussion

The discussion below is presented based on the findings before. It consists of three major points, namely cohesion, the factor that affects cohesion and narrative texts with rich lexical cohesion as language inputs.

1. Cohesion

As previously mentioned, findings showed that the occurrence of lexical cohesion outnumbers the occurrence of grammatical cohesion. Lexical cohesion establishes semantic relation within and between sentences using vocabulary. It appears 422 that consist of 404 instances of reiteration and 18 instances of collocation. Reiteration is in the first rank among all subcategories of cohesion.

Meanwhile, reference, the first rank between all subcategories of grammatical, is less frequent compared to reiteration. It appears 359 times.

Thus, it means that narrative texts analyzed in the research mostly use vocabulary to establish semantic relation within and between sentences. The meanings are made from one to another point mostly through vocabulary instead grammar.

a. Grammatical Cohesion

Grammatical cohesion is a type of cohesion that uses grammar to establish semantic relation. It consists of reference, substitution, ellipsis and conjunction. Among all types of subcategories of grammatical cohesion, reference sits in the first rank followed by conjunction, substitution, and ellipsis.

1) Reference

Reference shows semantic relations where the information needed can be found elsewhere in a text (Gang & Qiao, 2014: 34). The interpretation can be found via sentence structure and inferred using anaphoric or cataphoric ways. In the narrative texts analyzed in this research, reference employs both anaphoric and cataphoric ways to show semantic relation. The anaphoric way is mostly implicit.

For example:

- (6.1) When the little girl opened the door of her grandmother's house, **she** saw there was somebody in bed with a nightcap and nightgown on.
(Text 1, sentence 6)
- (6.2) But one day, a dragon came to his country and **it** attacked people.
(Text 11, sentence 17)

In the example (6.1), the signaling word *she* refers to *the little girl* and uses implicit anaphoric way to refer back to the its referential meaning. Meanwhile, in (6.2) the word *it* refers to *a dragon* in previous clause by using the same way as *she* did in the example (6.1).

Meanwhile, cataphoric way employed by reference is explicit and shown together with anaphoric ways. This aims to ease the comprehension for the readers by checking their inferences using words before and after the reference.

For example:

(6.3) So the wolf asked **her** where her grandmother lived and the little girl told him and he disappeared into the woods. When **the little girl** opened the door of her grandmother's house, she saw there was somebody in bed with a nightcap and nightgown on. (Text 1, sentence 5 and 6)

(6.4) **He** was very thin, so that the outline of his bones could be seen clearly beneath his thinning coat of hair. With hardly enough energy to walk, the wolf had little hope of finding food. As **he** lay beneath a large tree, a dog out for a walk noticed him. (Text 13, sentence 2,3, and 4)

In the example (6.3), to know what *her* refers to, the readers should go forward in the next clause. This way refers to implicit cataphoric way. While checking whether *her* represents *the little girl* or not, the readers can look at the next sentence. It shows *the little girl* which then is represented by *she* in the next clause. The readers relate both sentences because they are adjoining sentences and appear in the same context. It is the same with the example (6.4). To know what *he* refers to, the readers should find out in the next clause. There, they can find that *the wolf* is the referential meaning of *he* by using implicit cataphoric way. Again, in order to check their inferences, the readers can look at the next sentence

that mentions *the wolf* with *he*. The readers can relate that *he* found in previous sentence and next sentence refers to the same object which is *the wolf*.

Four examples above show the ways of referring used by the writers to build the semantic relation within and between sentences. The ways of referring are varied, namely explicit anaphoric way and implicit cataphoric way. These ways of referring are used together in the adjoining sentences to ease the comprehension for the readers.

a) Personal reference

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976: 37), reference is classified into personal reference, demonstrative reference and comparative reference. Personal reference employs personal pronouns to refer to category of person. There are 323 instances of personal pronouns in the narrative texts analyzed in this research.

The personal reference “he” is used 90 times and refers to men such as “a father”, “a stupid man”, “a rich man”, “Sau Ling”, “Beowulf” and so forth. It is also used to refer to animals such as “the wolf”, “a dog”, and “the tiger”, and “a crow”, and a fictional character such as “monsters named Grendel”. Meanwhile, personal reference “his” is used to represent possessive pronoun of “he” and there are 52 instances of personal reference “his” in the narrative texts. Also, “him” used to represent “he” in the object appears 28 times.

For example:

(6.5) **He** told his sons to bring him a bunch of sticks. (Text 2, sentence 3)

In the example above, *he*, *his* and *him* are mentioned to represent a man asking sons to do something. They are use in the different place and act different functions. *he* functions as subject, *his* functions as possessive pronoun and *him* functions as object.

The personal reference “she” is used 38 times and refers to women such as “the little girl” and “Rosaura”. It is also used to refer to animals such as “tigress”, “lioness”, and “the sheep” and a fictional character such as “The Witch”. Possessive pronoun “her” is used 34 times. Meanwhile, there is no instances of “hers” found in the narrative texts.

For example:

(6.6) After her friend left, **the Witch** looked around her house and she said to herself, “my friend was right”. (Text 8, sentence 5)

From the example above, the words *her* and *she* refer to *the witch*. *Her* acts as possessive pronoun in the first clause and *she* functions as subject in the second clause.

Personal reference “it” is used 31 times and represents things such as “a medicine”, “his bag”, “hiding game”, “the field”, “red flower”, “the broom”, “the lump of gold”, and so forth. Also, it is used to represent animals such as “a dragon” and “a wolf”. Meanwhile, there is only one instance of “its” in the narrative texts and it represents possessive pronoun of “a bag”.

For example:

(6.7) **It** was full of small gold bars. Then he realized that someone had taken **his bag** by mistake and left another bag, in its place. (Text 5, sentence 19 and 20)

In the example (6.7), *it* and *its* refer to *his bag* and function as subject and possessive pronoun.

The personal reference “they” is used 27 times in the story and represents a group of people such as “the miners”, “three sons”, “Lin and his wife”, “her mother and father”, “the Romans”, and “the knights”. It is also used to represent a group of animals such as “the wolf and the dog”. The word “them” is used 9 times and “their” is used 13 times in the narrative stories. Meanwhile, there is no instance of “theirs” in the stories.

For example:

(6.8) Everyone said that **the three sons** were very foolish. They had spent all their money uselessly. (Text 4, sentence 23 and 24)

From the example above, *they* and *their* refer to *the three sons* and function as subject and possessive pronoun.

From the explanation above, it is known that reference mostly employs personal pronoun to establish semantic relation within and between the sentences. It ranges from “he”, “his”, “him”, “she”, “her”, “hers”, “it”, “its”, “they”, “their”, “them”, and “theirs”. The referential meanings can be derived from the sentence structure.

b) **Demonstrative Reference**

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976: 37), demonstrative reference is used to represent a scale of proximity. It uses the words such as “this”, “these”, “here”, “that”, “those”, “there”, and “the”. There are 26 instances of

demonstrative reference in the narrative texts. Demonstrative reference, somehow, is used to represent a scale of quantity as well.

The demonstrative reference “this” and “these” are used to point things which are “near” the speaker. “this” is used 9 times in the stories and represents a single thing such as “activity”, “reason”, “statue”, “kind”, and so forth. Meanwhile, the demonstrative reference “these” is used 2 times in the narrative texts to represent things in the amount of more than one such as “sticks” and “flowers”.

For example:

(6.9) His strong will to study from Durna influenced him to go to the forest and create a statue of Durna as a symbol of Durna’s presence. With **this** statue as his imaginative teacher, Ekalaya learned how to shoot arrows by himself. (Text 7, sentence 6 and 7)

(6.10) “But the spirits have left us **these flowers** to remind us of her,” said Rosaura’s father. (Text 6, sentence 59)

In the example (6.9), *this* represents a single statue of Durna in the sentence before. Meanwhile, in the example (6.10), *these* is used to show the amount of flowers referred to by the speaker.

The demonstrative references “that” and “those” are used to point things which are far from the speaker. “that” is used 5 times to represent basket bag cubs in the hair question. Meanwhile, there is no instance of “those” in the stories.

For example:

(6.11) After finishing his meal, he picked up his bag. “**That’s** strange!” he thought, “It feels so heavy.” (Text 5, sentence 16 and 17)

From the example above, *that* refers to *his bag*. It represents a single thing that is far from the speaker.

The demonstrative references “here” and “there” are used to point place. “here” is used to point place near the speaker and there are two instances in the narrative texts. Meanwhile, “there” is used 8 times in the stories and represents place far from the speaker.

For example:

(6.12) The man next went to a house where a wedding was taking place.
There he dug a huge hole. (Text 3, sentence 4 and 5)

In the example above, *there* is used to point a place where the wedding was taking place.

The last, demonstrative reference “the” is used to point something neutral. There is no instance of “the” found in the narrative texts.

c) **Comparative Reference**

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976: 37), comparative reference refers a type of reference that is used as a means of similarity or identity. In the narrative texts, there are 10 instances of comparative reference. All of the occurrences exemplify the comparison using adjective, namely comparative and superlative degree of comparison.

Comparative degree of comparison appears 7 times in the stories and it is represented by “nearer than”, “happier”, “more beautiful”, “bigger”, “upper part”, “lower part” and “more free”. Meanwhile, superlative degree of comparison appears 3 times and is represented as “eldest” and “prettiest”. Both comparative and superlative are used to compare things between sentences.

For example:

(6.13) “My house is **more beautiful** than yours, and the walls are **bigger**.”

(Text 8, sentence 3)

In the example (6.13), *more beautiful* and *bigger* are used to compare the speaker’s house and other house.

2) Substitution

According to Bloor & Bloor as cited in Janjua (2012: 150), substitution is used when a writer wishes to avoid repetition of lexical item and use grammatical resources of language to replace the item. Substitution can be further classified as nominal, verbal, and clausal. In the narrative texts analyzed in this research, there are 2 instances of substitution in which all of them are represented by verbal substitution. It means that the writers get used to replace the verbal group with the item “do”. Meanwhile, there is no instance of nominal and clausal substitution.

For example:

(7.1) I started with nothing and made a fortune by working hard. You must **do** the same. (Text 4, sentence 6 and 7)

(7.2) “ I work regularly and I eat regularly. You could **do** the same. (Text 13, sentence 12 and 13)

From the example (7.1), *do* is used to replace *made a fortune by working hard*.

Meanwhile, in the example (7.2), *do* is used to replace *work regularly* and *eat regularly*.

3) Ellipsis

Ellipsis helps to maintain connection within text by allowing the writer to omit a noun, a verb and a clause. The omission is substitution by nil (Guthrie,

2008: 6). In the narrative texts, there are 2 instances of ellipsis, namely nominal and clausal ellipsis. It means that the writers tend to omit the subject and clause although it is not frequent.

For example:

(8.1) “Are you carrying that basket to your grandmother?” asked the wolf.
The little girl said **she was**. (Text 1, sentence 3 and 4)

From the example above it is known that there is omission in the second sentence.

The omitted clause is “carrying that basket to your grandmother”.

4) **Conjunction**

According to Halliday and Hasan as cited in Jabeen et al. (2013: 140), conjunction is semantic cohesive relations with a specification of the way in which what is to follow is systematically connected to what has gone before. It helps to connect the ideas within and between sentences. There are four kinds of conjunction, namely additive, adversative, temporal and causal. In the narrative texts, there are 209 instances of conjunction. It consists of 142 instances of additive, 36 instances of adversative, 12 instances of causal, and 19 instances of temporal.

Additive is used to be represented by “and” and “or”. Adversative is represented by “instead”, “but”, “though”, “nevertheless” and “however”. Causal is represented by “so”, “for”, “because of”, “because”, and “since”. Meanwhile, in the stories, temporal is represented by “finally”, “then”, “in the final event”, “later”, “after”, “after that”, “as soon as”, “but then”, and “so that”.

For example:

(9.1) **But** one day it found the skin of a sheep that had been flayed **and** thrown aside, **so** it put it on over its own pelt and strolled down among the sheep. (Text 15, sentence 2)

(9.2) It is possible that they are afraid of dogs biting their trunks, **though** I do not think such a thing ever happened. (Text 16, sentence 4)

In both example, *but* and *though* show the condition that is contrast from the previous condition. *And* is used to connect activities that are done in the same time. Meanwhile, the word *so* is used to show the causal relationship between the clauses.

From the findings above, it is known that the writers mostly used additive conjunction to connect the ideas in the narrative texts. It establishes semantic relation using familiar words even for novice readers. Additive is easy to understand because it adds existing idea with new one instead of adversative or causal which demands more readers' cognitive competence.

b. Lexical Cohesion

Lexical cohesion is a type of cohesion that establishes semantic relation using vocabulary. Lexical cohesion consists of reiteration and collocation.

1) Reiteration

Reiteration uses the words that have the same or near the same meaning to establish semantic relation within and between sentences. In the narrative texts analyzed in this research, reiteration appears 404 times. Reiteration consists of repetition, synonym, superordinate and general word.

Repetition establishes the semantic links using the same words. It repeats the words that are used before. It is the easiest relation that readers can understand because the readers do not need to employ the structure or the context to understand the meanings. It appears 339 times.

For example:

(10.1) She caught a glimpse of **Rosaura**'s red ribbon disappearing around the door. But **Rosaura** was already through the gate, and heading for the fields. (Text 6, sentence 18 and 19)

The writers choose the same word in order to ease the comprehension for the readers. By using the same words, the readers will easily infer the topic that is being written.

Synonym or near synonym uses the words that have similar or near similar meanings. It appears 43 times. Meanwhile, superordinate uses the words that are more general than the words mentioned before. It appears 22 times.

For example:

(10.2) Rosaura ate her **meal** quickly. She wanted to go back into the sunshine to play. As soon as she had finished her food she slipped down from her chair. (Text 6, sentence 14, 15 and 16)

It is clear that *meal* and *food* are synonymous. The writer uses these words to establish the semantic relation between sentences.

Lastly, general word uses the words that are most general related to the previous words mentioned. There is no instance of general words found in the narrative texts.

2) Collocation

Collocation uses the words that do not have the same meaning or are not classified in the same categories with the previous words. It uses the same context that the previous words appear. In the narrative texts, there are 18 instances of collocation.

For example:

(10.3) The Romans, thinking that the Greeks have admitted defeat by leaving them a gift of gesture in the form of a "**Horse Statue**' were overjoyed. They brought **the "gift"** into their castle and partied throughout the night. (Text 9, sentence 5 and 6)

It is clear that *horse statue* and *the gift* do not have correlation in meaning but they appear in the same context that is something that is given to the Romans. That is why it exemplifies collocation.

2. The Factor that Affects Cohesion

Based on the findings, there is a factor that affects cohesion, namely the number of sentences in a text. The number of sentences will affect the use of cohesive ties. Texts with high cohesion tend to have more sentences than texts with middle and low cohesion. The highly cohesive texts employ more cohesive devices because there are more ideas to connect in relation to the number of sentences. For example, text 6 entitled The Story About Red in this research which is considered as the text with the highest level of cohesion among all narrative texts in this research has 167 cohesive ties and consists of 62 sentences. On the other hand, text 15 entitled The Wolf in Sheep's Clothing which is

considered as the text with the lowest level of cohesion has 23 cohesive ties and consists of 5 sentences.

3. Narrative Texts with Rich Lexical Cohesion as Language Inputs

From the discussion above, it is known that the occurrence of reiteration outnumbers the occurrence of other subcategories of cohesion. It means that mostly semantic relation is carried through the choice of vocabulary instead of grammar. This also means that narrative texts analyzed in this research are considered to be highly cohesive texts.

Texts are considered to be high cohesion when they contain a dense lexical cohesion (Hoey in Willawan, 2011; Yeh, et al., 2010; Li, 2013). A dense lexical cohesion makes coherent discourse. Moreover, it makes semantic relation more explicit. The choice of vocabulary can be easily seen by the readers instead of the links are bound through the structure of the texts. Thus, the texts are easier to understand.

Meanwhile, the links established by the grammatical cohesion are implicit. They are bound through structure that is varied within and between sentences. They require the readers to possess sufficient background knowledge to decode the inferences (McNamara et al., 2011: 232-246). Texts which establish links through grammatical cohesion are considered to be low cohesion.

Texts with low cohesion will potentially cause comprehension problem. The readers are expected to be able to fill the gap among the ideas when the cohesive ties are too implicit in the texts. Otherwise, comprehension is likely to be

unsuccessful (Goldman and Wiley, 2011: 11-12). It is supported by Chapman's and Nunan in Nunan (1993: 109) by saying that students perform better in reading of highly cohesive text.

As a result, texts with low cohesion are not compatible as language inputs. They harm the reading comprehension since the students should fill more gaps while reading the texts using their prior knowledge and cause frustration at the end. On the other hand, texts with high cohesion are compatible to be language inputs. Students do not need to fill more gaps to understand the texts because the meanings are carried explicitly through the vocabulary. They can build new schemata by combining prior knowledge in their mind and new information from the texts and extend students' competence. Given this, it is concluded that the narrative texts analyzed in this research compatible as language inputs as well.

In relation to different amount of lexical cohesion found in narrative texts analyzed in this research, it is necessary to classify the texts into several categories. The different classification may lead to the different treatment that they should get as language inputs. The classifications lie as follows.

1. High cohesion, namely text 6 (The Story About Red), text 10 (The Tiger Would Be King), text 7 (Shadow Puppet Show: Durna's Trap), text 11 (The Legend of Beowulf), text 5 (The Fortune Teller)
2. Middle cohesion, namely text 4 (Three Foolish Sons), text 13 (The Wolf and The Dog), text 16 (Elephants, Dogs, Mice), text 12 (The Fox and The Crow), text 1 (The Little Girl and The Wolf), text 9 (No Title),

3. Low cohesion, namely text 3 (Blind Listening), text 8 (No Title), text 14 (The Miser), text 15 (The Wolf in the Sheep's Clothing), text 2 (The Father and His Son).

Texts with high cohesion generally consist of high lexical cohesion and high number of sentences. For example, text 7 entitled Shadow Puppet Shows: Durna's Trap consists of 37 lexical cohesion and 17 sentences. All lexical cohesion in this text is established using reiteration. Meanwhile, texts with middle cohesion have lower number of lexical cohesion and sentences. For example, text 1 entitled The Little Girl and The Wolf has 20 lexical cohesion and 8 sentences. All lexical cohesion in this text is established using reiteration as well.

In texts with high and middle cohesion, teachers certainly can use them as language inputs. Compared to texts with low cohesion, they have richer lexical cohesion that close more gaps between ideas within and between sentences. They require less knowledge and strategies in the process of inferences. Thus, they will enable the readers to fully comprehend the topic. These types of texts are definitely beneficial for low-knowledge readers or readers who happen to start reading texts with completely new topics because they need to remove the obstacles or gaps that may cause failure in comprehending the texts (Benjamin, 2012: 72-73).

Meanwhile, texts with low cohesion have the lowest number of lexical cohesion and number of sentences. For example, text 2 entitled The Father and His Sons has 9 lexical cohesion and 7 sentences. These types of texts need certain treatment before they are used as language inputs in language learning. Teachers

need to adapt this kind of texts by revising the texts. One of the ways of revising texts is using inference analysis proposed by Britton and Gulgoz in 1991 (Benjamin, 2012: 72).

According to Britton and Gulgoz as cited in Benjamin (2012: 72), the first thing to do to revise the texts is by finding places in the text where inferences were lacking. Then, teachers should modify the texts by linking each sentence to previous sentences via propositions and arguments that have common characteristics. The propositions and arguments can only be used one term for each concept in the texts. Finally, teachers need to arrange the sentences so that old information precedes new information. All steps are meant to make inferences explicit for the readers.

This method has been applied in their research in modifying texts used to train Air Force recruits (Benjamin, 2012: 72). They found that participants performed better on multiple-choice inference questions when they were given the revised version rather than the original version of the text although traditional readability statistics between the passages were the same. Additionally, when the participants who had read the revised text were compared to experts who had read only the original text, their scores are much higher. Furthermore, Britton et al. (1993) as cited in Benjamin (2012: 72) later found similar results when they reviewed textbooks. The textbooks had been revised according to similar principles. This studies by Britton and colleagues demonstrate analyses of explicit inferences can show that one text is more comprehensible than another, at least for

novice readers. The implicit inferences can be made from lexical cohesion that consists of reiteration and collocation.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

A. Conclusions

Based on the findings and discussions from the previous chapter, the researcher draws conclusions as follows.

1. In the 16 narrative texts presented in the electronic textbook for senior high school grade X entitled “Developing English Competence”, reiteration appears as the first rank among all subcategories of lexical and grammatical cohesion. There are 404 instances, or 40, 64% of the total occurrences. The second rank is reference with 359 instances, or 36, 12% of the total occurrences. Conjunction appears as the third rank with 209 instances or 21, 03% of the total occurrences. Then, it is followed by collocation with 18 instances or 1, 81% and substitution and ellipsis in the last rank. Each of them appears 2 times or 0, 20 % of the total occurrences. It means that the narrative texts in the textbook mostly use vocabulary rather than structure to carry semantic relation.
2. 16 narrative texts analyzed in this research are considered as highly cohesive texts because they contain dense lexical cohesion that make coherent discourse and facilitate comprehension. Finally, the narrative texts presented in the textbook are compatible as language inputs.

B. Implications

There are two implications of this research to the language teaching. The details are as follows.

1. From the findings of this research, it is implied that the analysis of cohesion can be a means of analyzing the compatibility of texts as language inputs. Thus, in order to be able to select the teaching material, the teachers should know and master the cohesion analysis. Besides selecting the texts, teachers are expected to be able to adapt the material provided in textbook using inferences analysis to explicitly show the semantic relation in the texts.
2. Reading comprehension involves interactive processing that combines top down and bottom up processing. Besides giving scaffolding about the difficult words, the teachers should be able to facilitate the students' comprehension by telling the socio-cultural background of the stories and the purposes of having the texts if it is necessary, in order to make students easily relate to their prior knowledge.

C. Suggestions

There are several suggestions for related parties. The suggestions are described as follows.

1. To teachers

This research is supposed to give ideas and knowledge for teachers to select texts as language inputs particularly narrative texts by using the theory of

cohesion proposed by Halliday and Hassan (1976) and Bloor and Bloor (1995). Furthermore, the researcher suggests teachers to be able to learn and make use knowledge about cohesion.

2. To textbooks' developers

This research is expected to be contributive enough the process of deciding which texts should be included in the textbooks. The developers are expected to be able to use the theory of cohesion selecting the materials particularly texts in order to make sure that texts are properly graded to the students' competence.

3. To students of senior high school

This research is supposed to give insights about how semantic relation is established in the texts. By reading the results of this research, the students will know how the semantic links are established in narrative texts. The researcher expects that the students can make use of this knowledge as the strategies in comprehending texts.

4. To other researchers

Other researchers can explore more than this research has accomplished. First, other researchers may search about the cohesion and coherence in the same narrative texts. Second, they can look for cohesive devices in the different types of texts. Also, the other researchers may use different textbooks as the source of data.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1. The Data Sheets of Cohesion Analysis in the Narrative Texts

Text 1

Title : The Little Girl and the Wolf

Page/ term : 30/ 1

No.	Sentence	Number of ties	Cohesive item	Type	Presupposed item
1	One afternoon, a big wolf waited in the dark forest for a little girl to come along carrying a basket of food to her grandmother.	1	her	R1b	a little girl
2	Finally, the little girl came along and she was carrying a basket of food.	5	finally little girl and she a basket of food	CIVa1 RtI CIa1 R1b RtI	- a little girl - a little girl a basket of food
3	"Are you carrying that basket to your grandmother?" asked the wolf.	3	that basket grandmother the wolf	RIIb RtI RtI	a basket of food grandmother the wolf
4	The little girl said yes she was.	3	the little girl she was	RtI R1b EIIIa1	the little girl the little girl carrying that basket to her grandmother
5	So the wolf asked her where her grandmother lived and the little girl told him and he disappeared into the woods.	11	so the wolf her her grandmother and the little girl him and he the woods	CIIIa1 RtI R1b R1b RtI CIa1 RtI RIa CIa1 RIa RtII	- the wolf the little girl the little girl grandmother - the little girl the wolf - the wolf the dark forest
6	When the little girl opened the door of her grandmother's house, she saw there was somebody in bed with a	5	the little girl her grandmother she and	RtI R1b RtI R1b CIa1	the little girl the little girl grandmother the little girl -

	nightcap and nightgown on				
7	She had approached no nearer than twenty-five feet from the bed when she saw that it was not her grandmother but the wolf, for even in a nightcap a wolf doesn't look anymore like your grandmother than Metro-Goldwyn lion looks like Calvin Coolidge.	13	she nearer than bed she it her grandmother but the wolf for a night cap a wolf grandmother	R1b R111e Rt1 R1b R1c R1b Rt1 C11a2 Rt1 C111c Rt1 Rt1 Rt1	the little girl - bed the little girl somebody the little girl grandmother - the wolf - a night cap a wolf grandmother
8	So the little girl took an automatic out of her basket and shot the wolf dead.	6	so the little girl her basket and the wolf	C111a1 Rt1 R1b Rt1 C1a1 Rt1	- the little girl the little girl basket - the wolf

Text 2

Title : The Father and His Sons

Page/ term : 30/ 1

No.	Sentence	Number of ties	Cohesive item	Type	Presupposed item
1	A father had a family of sons who were always fighting.	0	-	-	-
2	He had no luck trying to stop their arguments with words, so he decided to teach them a lesson.	6	he their arguments so he them	R1a R1d Co C111a1 R1a R1d	a father sons fighting - a father sons
3	He told his sons to bring him a bunch of sticks.	4	He his sons him	R1a R1a Rt1 R1a	a father a father sons a father

4	He took the sticks and gave them to his eldest son and asked him to break them.	9	he sticks and them his eldest and him them	RIa RtI CIa1 RIa RIIle CIa1 RIa RIa	a father sticks - sticks son - - a father sticks
5	The eldest son tried with all his strength but was not able to do it.	5	the eldest son his but was it	RtI RIa CIIa2 EIIc3 RIc	the eldest son the eldest son - - braking sticks
6	The other sons tried and were also unsuccessful.	2	sons and	RtI CIa1	sons
7	The father said, "My sons, if you are of one mind, and unite to assist each other, you will be like these sticks together; but if you are divided among yourselves, you will be broken as easily as a single stick.	7	the father sons and these sticks but stick	RtI RtI CIa1 RIIa RtI CIIa2 RtI	the father sons - sticks sticks - stick

Text 3

Title : Blind Listening

Page/ term : 35/ 1

No.	Sentence	Number of ties	Cohesive item	Type	Presupposed item
1	A stupid man was sent by his father to sell salt.	1	His	RIa	a stupid man
2	He first went to a mining area but nobody there wanted his salt.	4	he but there his	RIa CIIa2 RIIb RIa	a stupid man - mining area a stupid man
3	When he returned home, his father told him that if he had helped the	8	he his father him	RIa RIa RtI RIa	a stupid man a stupid man father a stupid man

	miners to dig, they would have bought his salt.		he they his salt	RIa RIId RIa Rt1	a stupid man the miners a stupid man salt
4	The man next went to a house where a wedding was taking place.	1	the man	RtIII	a stupid man
5	There he dug a huge hole.	2	there he	RIIb RIa	a wedding a stupid man
6	This made the people angry and they chased him away.	4	this and they him	RIIa CIa1 RIId RIa	dug a hole - the people a stupid man
7	When he returned home, his father told him that if he had beaten a drum and danced instead, the people there would have bought salt from him.	11	he home his father him he and the people there salt him	RIa Rt1 RIa RtI RIa RIa CIa1 RtI RIIb RtI RIa	a stupid man home a stupid man father a stupid man a stupid man - the people a wedding salt a stupid man
8	Then, he went to a village where there happened to be a fire.	3	then he there	CIVa1 RIa RIIb	- a stupid man a village
9	Rushing to the place, he started drumming and dancing, only to be thrown out by the people.	3	he and the people	RIa CIa1 RtI	a stupid man - the people
10	His father told him that he should have poured water on the fire instead, if he wanted to sell salt there.	7	his father him he he salt there	RIa Rt1 RIa RIa RIa RtI RIIb	a stupid man father a stupid man a stupid man a stupid man salt a village
11	In the next place he went to, a couple were fighting with each other.	1	he	RIa	a stupid man

12	The foolish man poured a bucketful of water on them, again to be chased away.	3	the foolish man water them	RtII RtI RIId	a stupid man water couple
13	His father later told him that he should have tried to settle the quarrel, in which case they would have bought salt from him.	8	his father him he the quarrel they salt him	RIa Rt1 RIa RIa Col RIb RtI RIa	a stupid man father a stupid man a stupid man fighting couple salt a stupid man
14	In the final event, the man saw two bulls fighting with each other.	2	In the final event the man	CIVe2 RtIII	- a stupid man
15	He stepped in to stop the fight and was gored to death by angry bulls.	4	he fight and bulls	RIa RtI CIa1 RtI	a stupid man fighting - bulls

Text 4

Title : Three Foolish Sons

Page/ term : 39/ 1

No.	Sentence	Number of ties	Cohesive item	Type	Presupposed item
1	There was a rich man who had three sons.	0	-	-	-
2	They lived in a large house in the town of Keelung in northern Taiwan.	1	they	RIId	a rich man and three sons
3	One day, he said to his sons, "You are no longer children.	4	he his sons children	RIa RIa RtI RtII	a rich man a rich man sons sons
4	You must do something to earn your own living.	0	-	-	-
5	When I die, I am not going to leave you very much money.	0	-	-	-

6	I started with nothing and made a fortune by working hard.	1	and	C1a1	-
7	You must do the same.	1	do the same	SIIb	work hard
8	Now, here is two hundred dollars for each of you.	1	here	RIIa	-
9	You can use it to start your own business.	1	It	RIc	two hundred dollars
10	The three sons went off separately.	1	three sons	RtI	three sons
11	The eldest son met a hunter.	2	eldest son	RIIIe RtI	- son
12	He thought that hunting would be fine so he bought a gun from him for two hundred dollars.	6	he so he him two hundred dollars	RIa CIIIa1 RIa RIa RtI	the eldest son - the eldest son a hunter two hundred dollars
13	The second son met a basketmaker.	1	son	RtI	son
14	He bought a set of tools from him so that he could make baskets.	4	he him so that he	RIa RIa CIIIa2 RIa	the second son a basketmaker - the second son
15	The third son met a doctor who told him that he had a medicine which could cure all diseases.	3	him he son	RIa RIa RtI	the third son doctor son
16	He bought it from him for two hundred dollars.	5	he it him two hundred dollars	RIa RIc RIa RtI	the third son medicine doctor two hundred dollars
17	When the rich man heard what his sons had done with the money he had given them, he was very angry.	7	the rich man his sons the money he them	RtI RIa RtI RtIII RIa RIId	the rich man the rich man sons two hundred dollars the rich man sons

			he	RIa	the rich man
18	"What stupid sons I have!" He said.	2	sons he	RtI RIa	sons the rich man
19	One day, the eldest son tried to shoot a fly on his father's forehead.	3	eldest son his father	RtI RIa RtI	eldest son eldest son father
20	Instead, he killed his father.	4	instead he his father	CIId1 RIa RIa RtI	- eldest son eldest son father
21	The second son picked up his tools and tried to repair the damage to his father's head.	8	second son his tools and the damage his father head	RtI RIa RtI CIa1 Col RIa RtI RtII	second son second son tools - shoot second son father forehead
22	The third son tried to cure his father with medicine which he had bought.	5	third son his father medicine he	RtI RIa RtI RtI RIa	third son third son father medicine third son
23	Everyone said that the three sons were very foolish.	1	three sons	RtI	three sons
24	They had spent all their money uselessly.	3	they their money	RId RId RtI	three sons three sons money

Text 5

Title : The Fortune Teller

Page/ term : 40-41/ 1

No.	Sentence	Number of ties	Cohesive item	Type	Presupposed item
1	In the great city of Taipei, there lived a man called Lin and his wife.	3	there and his	RIIb CIa1 RIa	Taipei - a man
2	They had no children.	1	they	RId	a man and his wife
3	Because of this, they were very unhappy.	3	because of this they	CIIB2 RIIa RId	- had no children a man and his

					wife
4	One day, they found a baby boy outside their door.	2	they their	RId RId	a man and his wife a man and his wife
5	He was wrapped in a blanket and crying.	2	he and	RIa CIa1	a baby boy -
6	They took the baby into their house and called him Sau Ling.	6	they baby their house and him	RId RtI RId RtII CIa1 RIa	a man and his wife baby a man and his wife house - baby boy
7	They loved him very much.	2	they him	RId RIa	a man and his wife baby boy
8	When Sau Ling was a young man, a fortune-teller came to the house.	2	Sau Ling house	RtI RtI	Sau Ling house
9	"You must send your son away," he said.	2	son he	RtII RIa	Sau Ling a fortune-teller
10	"One day he will become a thief and cause you a lot of trouble."	2	he and	RIa CIa1	Sau Ling -
11	Mr and Mrs Lin were very sad to hear this.	2	Mr. and Mrs. lin this	RtII RIIa	a man and his wife prediction
12	They believed what the fortune-teller said.	2	they fortune-teller	RId RtI	mr. and mrs. lin fortune-teller
13	They gave Sau Ling some clothes and money and sent him away.	4	they Sau Ling and him	RId RtII CIa1 RIa	Mr. and Mrs. Lin son - Sau Ling
14	Several years later, Sau Ling was having a meal in an inn several miles from Taipei.	2	later Sau Ling	CIVa1 RtI	- Sau Ling

15	He put his bag on the floor near his table.	3	he his his	RIa RIa RIa	Sau Ling Sau Ling Sau Ling
16	After finishing his meal, he picked up his bag.	6	after his meal he his bag	CIVa1 RIa RtI RIa RIa RtI	- Sau Ling meal Sau Ling Sau Ling bag
17	"That's strange!" he thought, "It feels so heavy."	3	that he it	RIIb RIa RIc	bag Sau Ling bag
18	He looked inside.	1	he	RIa	Sau Ling
19	It was full of small gold bars.	1	it	RIc	bag
20	Then he realised that someone had taken his bag by mistake and left another bag, in its place.	7	then he his bag and bag its	CIVa1 RIa RIa RtI CIa1 RtI RIc	- Sau Ling Sau Ling bag - bag bag
21	That evening, a young man came to the inn, "Has anyone seen my bag?" he asked.	3	he inn bag	RIa RtI RtI	a young man inn bag
22	Sau Ling was very honest.	1	Sau Ling	RtI	Sau Ling
23	He returned the bag to him.	3	he bag him	RIa RtI RIa	Sau Ling bag a young man
24	The young man thanked him.	2	young man him	RtI RIa	a young man Sau Ling
25	"You are really very honest," he said, "I shall ask my father to give you a job."	1	he	RIa	a young man
26	The young man's father was a rich merchant.	2	the young man father	RtI RtI	a young man father
27	He gave Sau Ling a good job.	3	he Sau Ling job	RtI RtI RtI	a young man Sau Ling job
28	"But go home first," he said, "and take a	3	but he	CIIC2 RIa	- a young man

	holiday."		and	Cla1	-
29	Sau Ling returned to Taipei.	2	Sau Ling Taipei	RtI Col	Sau Ling home
30	Mr and Mrs Lin were delighted to see him again.	2	Mr and Mrs Lin him	RtI RIa	Mr and Mrs Lin Sau Ling
31	The fortune-teller was also present.	1	the fortune-teller	RtI	the fortune-teller
32	Sau Ling told them what had happened.	2	Sau Ling them	RtI RIId	Sau Ling Mr and Mrs Lin,and fortune-teller
33	The fortune-teller did not know what to say.	1	the fortune-teller	RtI	the fortune-teller
34	He left the house without saying a word.	1	he	RIa	the fortune-teller
35	Mr and Mrs Lin never believed in fortune-teller after that.	3	Mr and Mrs lin fortune-teller after that	RtI RtI CIVa1	Mr and Mrs Lin fortune-teller -
36	Sau Ling took them to live with him and they were very happy and contented until the end of their lives.	7	Sau Ling them him and they and their	RtI RIId RIa CIa1 RIId CIa1 RIId	Sau Ling Mr and Mrs Lin Sau Ling - Mr and Mrs Lin - Mr and Mrs Lin

Text 6

Title : A Story about Red

Page/ term : 42-43/ 1

No.	Sentence	Number of ties	Cohesive item	Type	Presupposed item
1	"Rosaura! Rosaura!"	1	Rosaura	RtI	Rosaura
2	If you were tall enough, you might have seen a little splash of red in the tall grass.	0	-	-	-
3	And if you had looked closer you might have seen a	2	and girl	CIa1 RtII	- Rosaura

	small girl wearing a red ribbon.				
4	Rosaura was hiding from her mother and father.	3	Rosaura her and	RtI RIb CIa1	Rosaura Rosaura -
5	It was her favourite game.	2	it her	RIc RIb	hiding Rosaura
6	She crouched quietly, listening to the faint sound of her mother's voice.	4	she crouch her mother	RIb Col RIb RtI	Rosaura hide Rosaura mother
7	All Rosaura could see were the swaying green stalks of the corn.	1	Rosaura	RtI	Rosaura
8	They rustled above her head where the sky stretched clear and blue.	3	they her and	RIc RIb CIa1	green stalks of the corn Rosaura -
9	Suddenly, a bright yellow butterfly darted by.	0	-	-	-
10	Rosaura jumped up to chase the butterfly, forgetting all about her hiding game.	3	Rosaura the butterfly her	RtI RtI RIb	Rosaura a yellow butterfly Rosaura
11	"Rosaura! There you are," called her mother.	4	Rosaura there her mother	RIb RIIb RIb RtI	Rosaura chasing butterfly Rosaura mother
12	"It's time for lunch."	0	-	-	-
13	It was dark and cool in the cottage where Rosaura lived with her parents.	4	and Rosaura her parents	CIa1 RtI RIb RtII	- Rosaura Rosaura mother and father
14	Rosaura ate her meal quickly.	3	Rosaura her meal	RtI RIb RtIII	Rosaura Rosaura lunch
15	She wanted to go back into the sunshine to play.	1	she	RIb	Rosaura
16	As soon as she had finished her food she slipped down	6	as soon as she her	CIVa1 RIb RIb	- Rosaura Rosaura

	from her chair.		food she her	RtII RIb RIb	meal Rosaura Rosaura
17	"Rosaura, where are you going?" called her mother.	3	Rosaura her mother	RtI RIb RtI	Rosaura Rosaura mother
18	She caught a glimpse of Rosaura's red ribbon disappearing around the door.	3	she Rosaura ribbon	RIb RtI RtI	mother Rosaura ribbon
19	But Rosaura was already through the gate, and heading for the fields.	4	but Rosaura the gate and	CIa1 RtI RtII CIa1	- Rosaura the door -
20	"Rosaura! Rosaura!"	2	Rosaura Rosaura	RtI RtI	Rosaura Rosaura
21	Was that the sound of her mother calling, or the wind whispering in the corn?	3	her mother or	RIb RtI CIa3	Rosaura mother -
22	Rosaura was not sure.	1	Rosaura	RtI	Rosaura
23	All day long through the hot summers she loved to run in the fields.	2	she fields	RIb RtI	Rosaura fields
24	Her feet were scratched and her toes bruised on stones as she chased after the mice hiding in the corn stalks.	6	her and her she chased corn stalk	RIb CIa1 RIb RIb RtI RtI	Rosaura - Rosaura Rosaura chased stalks of the corn
25	Her skin was brown as a nut from the sun.	1	her	RIb	Rosaura
26	In her tangled black hair, her red ribbon fluttered.	3	her her red ribbon	RIb RIb RtI	Rosaura Rosaura red ribbon
27	The afternoon stretched out long and hot.	1	and	CIa1	-
28	As the sun reached the far side of the	5	sun field	RtI RtI	sun field

	field, Rosaura's father walked back to the cottage.		Rosaura father the cottage	RtI RtI RtI	Rosaura father the cottage
29	His eyes scanned the fields for Rosaura's red ribbon.	4	his the field Rosaura red ribbon	RIa RtI RtI RtI	father the field Rosaura red ribbon
30	But it was nowhere to be seen.	1	but	CIa1	-
31	"Hasn't Rosaura come back yet?" asked her father as he came through the door.	5	Rosaura her father he the door	RtI RIb RtI RIa Col	Rosaura Rosaura father father the cottage
32	"Not yet," said her mother, "I'm sure she'll be back soon."	3	her mother she	RIb RtI RIb	Rosaura mother Rosaura
33	But the supper was ready and still there was no sign of Rosaura.	4	but the supper and Rosaura	CIa1 Col CIa1 RtI	- the lunch - Rosaura
34	Now the sun had set, casting a red glow over the fields.	2	sun the fields	RtI RtI	sun the fields
35	Rosaura's mother and father stood at the door of their cottage, staring over the field, looking for the red ribbon.	6	Rosaura's mother and father the door their cottage the field red ribbon	RtII RtI RIa RtI RtI RtI	her parents the door Rosaura's mother and father cottage the field red ribbon
36	"Rosaura! Rosaura!"	2	Rosaura Rosaura	RtI RtI	Rosaura Rosaura
37	Soon the shadows were deep blue in the yard.	1	the yard	RtI	the field
38	It was too dark to see the red ribbon now.	1	red ribbon	RtI	red ribbon
39	Rosaura's parents began to walk and	4	Rosaura's parents	RtII	Rosaura's mother and father

	call for her in the field.		and her the field	CIa1 RIb RtI	- Rosaura the field
40	As night fell, they fetched lamp that lit up patches of corn and grass and startled the sleeping mice.	3	they and and	RIId CIa1 CIa1	Rosaura's parents - -
41	But they could find no red ribbon.	3	but they red ribbon	CIa1 RIId RtI	- Rosaura's parents red ribbon
42	Rosaura's parents called and called all through the night.	2	rosaura's parents and	RtI CIa1	rosaura's parents -
43	In the dawn, they stood alone and sad amongst the corn.	3	they and the corn	RIId CIa1 RtII	Rosaura's parents - the field
44	The red morning sun lit up their tired faces.	1	their	RIId	Rosaura's parents
45	"Look!" cried Rosaura's mother suddenly.	2	Rosaura mother	RtI RtI	Rosaura mother
46	"There she is!"	1	she	RIb	Rosaura
47	They began to run towards the red ribbon that she had spotted among the corn.	4	they red ribbon she the corn	RIId RtI RIb RtI	Rosaura's parents red ribbon Rosaura the corn
48	But oh! It wasn't Rosaura's ribbon at all, but the red petals of a flower.	3	but Rosaura's ribbon but	CIa1 RtII CIa1	- red ribbon -
49	Rosaura's mother and father had never seen such a flower before.	2	Rosaura's mother and father flower	RtII RtI	Rosaura's parents flower
50	Her father looked away in disappointment.	2	her father	RIb RtI	Rosaura father
51	"I see her!" he cried.	2	her he	RIb RIb	Rosaura Rosaura
52	And again they ran towards the dear red	3	and they	CIa1 RIId	- Rosaura's mother

	ribbon.		red ribbon	RtI	and father
53	But it was another red flower.	2	but flower	CIIa1 RtI	- flower
54	As the sun came up bright and strong, Rosaura's mother and father looked around the field.	5	sun and Rosaura's mother and father the field	RtI CIa1 RtI RtI	sun - Rosaura's mother and father the field
55	It was filled with red flowers swaying and fluttering in the tall grass.	2	red flowers and	RtI CIa1	red flowers -
56	Rosaura's mother and father felt so sad.	1	Rosaura's mother and father	RtI	Rosaura's mother and father
57	"Rosaura won't be coming home anymore," said her mother.	3	Rosaura her mother	RtI RIb RtI	Rosaura Rosaura mother
58	"She was always happier in the fields."	3	she happier the fields	RIb RIIIe RtI	Rosaura - the fields
59	"But the spirits have left us these flowers to remind us of her," said Rosaura's father.	7	but the spirits these flower her Rosaura father	CIIa1 Col RIIb RtI RIb RtI RtI	- Rosaura red flowers flower Rosaura Rosaura father
60	"They will stay with us!"	1	they	RIId	red flowers
61	Every year, when the corn ripened and the evenings grew long, Rosaura's parents stood at the edge of the fields and watched the red flowers dancing under the sun.	7	the corn and Rosaura's parents the fields and red flowers sun	RtI CIa1 RtII RtI CIa1 RtI RtI	the corn - Rosaura's mother and father the fields - red flowers sun
62	And that, say the Indians, is how the	2	and red poppy	CIa1 RtII	- red flowers

	red poppy came to be.				
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Text 7

Title : Shadow Puppet Show: Durna's Trap

Page/ term : 46/ 1

No.	Sentence	Number of ties	Cohesive item	Type	Presupposed item
1	The story started with Durna who was teaching the art of archery to the children of Hastina Kingdom at the palace's yard.	0	-	-	-
2	From far away, a young man watched the practice.	1	the practice	RtIII	teaching the art of archery
3	He was Ekalaya, the crown prince of Parang Gelung Kingdom.	2	he the crown prince of parang gelung kingdom	RIa RtIII	a young man Ekalaya
4	Ekalaya wanted to study with Durna but was rejected, since the man promised only to teach children of Pandawa and Kurawa.	5	Ekalaya Durna but the man children of Pandawa and Kurawa.	RtI RtI CIIa2 RtIII RtII	Ekalaya Durna - Durna children of hastina kingdom
5	Still Ekalaya was neither angry nor revengeful.	1	Ekalaya	RtI	Ekalaya
6	His strong will to study from Durna influenced him go to the forest and create a statue of Durna as a symbol of Durna's presence.	6	his Durna him and Durna Durna	RIa RtI RIa CIa1 RtI RtI	Ekalaya Durna Ekalaya - Durna Durna
7	With this statue as his imaginative teacher, Ekalaya learned how to shoot arrows by	3	this statue his Ekalaya	RIIa RIa RtI	a statue of durna Ekalaya Ekalaya

	himself.				
8	The result was astonishing; Ekalaya turned very skillfull in shooting arrows just like Arjuna, Durna's favourite student.	3	Ekalaya Arjuna Durna	RtI RtII RtI	Ekalaya Durna's favourite student Durna
9	Ekalaya finally encountered Arjuna, who was hunting in the forest.	3	Ekalaya finally Arjuna	RtI CIVe2 RtI	Ekalaya - Arjuna
10	Arjuna was surprised to find that an arrow struck the animal he was hunting.	3	Arjuna he arrow	RtI RIa RtI	Arjuna Arjuna arrow
11	It turned out the arrow belonged to Ekalaya.	2	it Ekalaya	RIc RtI	an arrow Ekalaya
12	Innocently, Ekalaya said he was Durna's student.	3	Ekalaya he Durna	RtI RIa RtI	Ekalaya Ekalaya Durna
13	Durna was surprised when Arjuna told him about Ekalaya.	4	Durna Arjuna him Ekalaya	RtI RtI RIa RtI	Durna Arjuna Durna Ekalaya
14	When he met Ekalaya, Durna trapped him saying he would admit Ekalaya as his student if he cut off the thumb of his right hand as evidence of his loyalty to his master.	13	he Ekalaya Durna him he Ekalaya his student he his his his his master	RIa RtI RtI RIa RIa RtI RIa RtI RIa RIa RIa RIa RtII	Durna Ekalaya Durna Ekalaya Durna Ekalaya Durna student Ekalaya Ekalaya Ekalaya Ekalaya teacher
15	Ekalaya followed the request but then realised he had been cheated.	5	Ekalaya the request but then he cheated	RtI RtII CIVa1 RIa RtII	Ekalaya cut off the thumb of his right hand - Ekalaya trapped

16	Angry and disappointed, he knew Durna did not want anybody to rival Arjuna.	4	and he Durna Arjuna	Cla1 RIa RtI RtI	- Ekalaya Durna Arjuna
17	Ekalaya became angrier when he was told by his wife that Arjuna was in love with her and challenged Arjuna to a duel.	7	Ekalaya he his Arjuna her and Arjuna	RtI RIa RIa RtI RIb CIa1 RtI	Ekalaya Ekalaya Ekalaya Arjuna his wife - Arjuna

Text 8

Title : (No title)

Page/ term : 83/ 2

No.	Sentence	Number of ties	Cohesive item	Type	Presupposed item
1	One morning, one of the Witch's friends come over to visit.	0	-	-	-
2	When she looked around the room, she said "Your house is ugly."	2	she she	RIb RIb	one of the Witch's friends one of the Witch's friends
3	My house is more beautiful than yours, and the walls are bigger."	3	more beautiful and bigger	RIIle CIa1 RIIle	ugly - -
4	The Witch was very angry when she heard this and <i>shouted</i> , "Get out of my house! and don't ever come back here!"	6	the Witch she this and and here	RtI RIb RIIa CIa1 CIa1 RIIa	the Witch the Witch "your house is ugly. my house is more beautiful than yours, and the walls are bigger." - - the witch house
5	After her friend left, the Witch <i>looked around</i> her house and she said to	5	her the Witch her and	RIb RtI RIb CIa1	the Witch the Witch the Witch -

	herself, "my friend was right.		she	Rlb	the Witch
6	My house looks ugly and the paint is faded.	3	my house ugly and	RtI RtI CIa1	my house ugly -
7	I have to repaint it.	1	it	Rlc	house
8	Then she <i>went to the shop</i> and bought a can of paint.	4	then she and paint	CIVa1 Rlb CIa1 RtI	- the Witch - paint
9	After lunch she <i>started to</i> paint, and she worked very carefully.	4	after she and she	CIVa1 Rlb CIa1 Rlb	- the Witch - the Witch
10	In the afternoon she <i>finished</i> the lower part of her house.	4	she her lower house	Rlb Rlb RIIIe RtI	the Witch the Witch - house
11	When she wanted to start the upper part she <i>found out</i> that she couldn't reach it.	5	she upper part she she it	Rlb RIIIe Rlb Rlb Rlc	the Witch lower part the Witch the Witch the upper part
12	That she got an idea.	1	she	Rlb	the Witch
13	"I will use my magic broom!"	0	-	-	-
14	She shouted, "Broom, turn into a <i>paint brush</i> and paint my walls!"	3	she broom and	Rlb RtI CIa1	the Witch broom -
15	Suddenly the broom turned into a paint brush and <i>it started</i> to paint the upper walls.	5	the broom a paint brush and it the upper walls	RtI RtI CIa1 Rlc RtII	broom a paint brush - the broom the upper part of the house
16	It worked very fast, and in ten minutes all job was done.	2	it and	Rlc CIa1	the broom -
17	The Witch was very happy.	1	the Witch	RtI	the Witch

Text 9

Title : (No title)

Page/ term : 84/ 2

No.	Sentence	Number of ties	Cohesive item	Type	Presupposed item
1	During the battle of Troy there was a Greek hero named Odysseus, he was one of the many 'tribal kings' that went to attack the Romans.	2	Odysseus he	RtIII RIa	a greek hero Odysseus
2	The Greeks won that battle decisively thanks to Odysseus' brilliant idea of building a 'Trojan Horse'.	2	TheGreeks Odysseus	RtI RtI	a greek Odysseus
3	The horse was a gigantic wooden statue of a horse built in the guise of a gift for the Romans.	3	the horse the Romans a horse	RtIII RtI RtI	trojan horse the Romans the horse
4	The Greeks then built chambers within the giant horse to allow some soldiers to hide inside to infiltrate the strong roman defense.	3	the Greeks then the giant horse	RtI CIVa1 RtII	the Greeks - the horse
5	The Romans, thinking that the Greeks have admitted defeat by leaving them a gift of gesture in the form of a 'Horse Statue' were overjoyed.	5	the Romans the Greeks them horse statue a gift	RtI RtI RIId Col RtI	the Romans the Greeks the Romans the giant horse a gift
6	They brought the 'gift' into their castle and partied throughout the night.	4	they the gift their and	RIId Col RIId CIa1	the Romans horse statue the Romans -
7	When all the	8	The Roman	RtIII	The Romans

Roman soldiers were drunk and unconscious, the Greeks slowly descended out of the "Horse Statue", rendered the Roman defense useless and opened the gate into the well defended city; allowing other Greek soldiers who were waiting outside the gates to come inside.		soldiers and the Greeks the "horse statue" the Roman and other Greek soldiers the gates	Cla1 RtI Col RtI Cla1 RtIII RtI	- the Greeks the gift the Roman - the Greeks the gate
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Text 10

Title : The Tiger who Would be King

Page/ term : 89/ 2

No.	Sentence	Number of ties	Cohesive item	Type	Presupposed item
1	One morning the tiger woke up in the jungle and told his mate that he was king of beasts.	3	and his he	Cla1 RIa RIa	- the tiger the tiger
2	"Leo, the lion, is king of beasts," she said.	2	she king of beasts	RIb RtI	his mate king of beasts
3	"We need a change," said the tiger.	1	the tiger	RtI	the tiger
4	"The creatures are crying for a change."	1	a change	RtI	a change
5	The tigress listened but she could hear no crying, except that of her cubs.	5	The tigress but she that her	RtII CIIa1 RIb RIIb RIb	Tiger's mate - the tigress crying the tigress
6	"I'll be king of beasts by the time the moon rises," said the tiger.	2	beasts the tiger	RtII RtI	creatures the tiger

7	"It will be a yellow moon with black stripes, in my honour."	0	-	-	-
8	"Oh sure," said the tigress as she went to look after her young, one of whom, a male, very like his father, had got an imaginary thorn in his paw.	5	she her young his his	R1b R1b RtII R1a R1a	the tigress the tigress cubs young young
9	The tiger prowled through the jungle till he came to the lion's den.	3	the tiger he the lion	RtI R1a RtI	the tiger the tiger the lion
10	"Come out," he roared," and greet the king of beasts!	3	he and the king of beast	R1a C1a1 RtIII	the tiger - the tiger
11	The king is dead, long live the king!"	2	the king the king	RtI RtI	the king the king
12	Inside the den, the lioness woke her mate.	2	her mate the den	RtII RtI	the lion the lion's den
13	"The king is here to see you," she said.	2	the king she	Col R1b	the tiger the lioness
14	"What king?" he inquired, sleepily.	2	king he	RtI R1a	king the lion
15	"The king of beasts," she said.	2	the king of beasts she	RtII R1b	the king the lioness
16	"I am the king of beasts," roared Leo and he charged out of the den to defend his crown against the pretender.	7	the king of beasts Leo and he the den his the pretender	RtI RtII C1a1 R1a RtI R1a Col	the king of beasts the lion - leo the den leo the tiger
17	It was a terrible fight and it lasted until the setting of the sun.	3	it and it	R1c C1a1 R1c	defend his crown - fight
18	All the animals of the jungle joined in, some taking the	4	All the animals of the jungle the tiger	RtII RtI	the creatures the tiger

	side of the tiger and others the side of the lion.		and the lion	C1a1 RtI	- the lion
19	Every creature from the aardvark to the zebra took part in the struggle to overthrow the lion or to repulse the tiger, and some did not know which they were fighting for, and some fought for both, and some fought whoever was nearest and some fought for the sake of fighting.	11	every creature the struggle the lion or the tiger and they fighting and and fighting	RtIII RtII RtI C1a3 RtI C1a1 RI d RtII C1a1 C1a1 RtI	all the animals of the jungle the fight the lion - the tiger - every creature the struggle - - fighting
20	"What are we fighting for?" someone asked the aardvark.	2	fighting the aardvark	RtI RtI	fighting the aardvark
21	"The old order," said the aardvark.	1	the aardvark	RtI	the aardvark
22	"What are we dying for?" someone asked the zebra.	1	someone	RtI	someone
23	"The new order," said the zebra.	1	the zebra	RtI	the zebra
24	When the moon rose, fevered and gibbous, it shone upon a jungle in which nothing stirred except a macaw and a cockatoo, screaming in horror.	4	and it jungle and	C1a1 RIc RtI C1a1	- Moon jungle -
25	All the beasts were dead except the tiger, and his days were numbered and his time was ticking away.	6	All the beast the tiger and his and his	RtIII RtI C1a1 RIa C1a1 RIa	All the animals the tiger - the tiger - the tiger
26	He was monarch of	3	he	RIa	the tiger

	all he surveyed, but it didn't seem to mean anything.		he but	RIa CIIa1	the tiger -
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Text 11

Title : The Legend of Beowulf

Page/ term : 92/ 2

No.	Sentence	Number of ties	Cohesive item	Type	Presupposed item
1	Once upon a time, there was a horrible monster called Grendel.	1	Grendel	RtII	a horrible monster
2	He was half-man and half-monster.	2	he and	RIa CIa1	Grendel -
3	He lived in Denmark.	1	he	RIa	Grendel
4	One day, he went to the King's castle.	1	he	RIa	Grendel
5	The king and his men tried to kill the monster but their swords were useless.	6	the king and his the monster but their	RtI CIa1 RIa RtIII CIIa1 RIId	the king - the king Grendel - the king and his men
6	A knight called Beowulf heard about the problem and went to Denmark to help the king	5	Beowulf the problem and Denmark the king	RtII RtIII CIa1 RtI RtI	a knight their swords were useless to kill Grendel - Denmark the king
7	That night, Beowulf and his men took off their armour and put away their swords and went to sleep.	7	Beowulf and his their their swords and	RtI CIa1 RIa RIId RIId RtI CIa1	Beowulf - Beowulf Beowulf and his men Beowulf and his men swords -
8	The monster came into the castle and killed a knight.	3	the monster castle and	RtI RtI CIa1	the monster castle -

9	Beowulf woke up and fought the monster-he pulled off an arm!	4	Beowulf and the monster he	RtI CIa1 RtI RIa	Beowulf - the monster beowulf
10	Grendel went back to his home in a lake and died.	3	grendel his and	RtII RIa CIa1	the monster grendel -
11	Grendel's mother was very angry and the next night she went to the castle and killed a knight	6	grendel and she the castle and a knight	RtI CIa1 RIb RtI CIa1 RtI	grendel - grendel's mother the castle - a knight
12	In the morning, Beowulf went to the lake.	2	beowulf the lake	RtI RtI	beowulf the lake
13	He killed Grendel's mother with a special sword.	3	he grendel's mother sword	RIa RtI RtI	beowulf grendel's mother sword
14	When he came back, the king was very happy and he gave Beowulf presents and money.	6	he the king and he beowulf and	RIa RtI CIa1 RIa RtI CIa1	beowulf the king - the king beowulf -
15	Beowulf went back to his country and became a king.	3	beowulf his and	RtI RIa CIa1	beowulf beowulf -
16	He was king for fifty years.	2	He king	RIa RtI	Beowulf king
17	But one day, a dragon came to his country, and it attacked people.	4	But his and it	CIa2 RIa CIa1 RIc	- beowulf - dragon
18	It lived in a cave with treasure.	1	it	RIc	dragon
19	The dragon was very big and breathed fire.	2	the dragon and	RtI CIa1	the dragon -
20	The knights were afraid and they did not want to fight the dragon.	3	and they the dragon	CIa1 RIc RtI	- the knight the dragon
21	King Beowulf was an old man but he	7	beowulf but	RtI CIa1	beowulf -

	put on his armour again and went to the dragon's cave with his men.		he his and the dragon his men	RIa RIa CIa1 RtI RtII	beowulf beowulf - the dragon the knights
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Text 12

Title : The Fox and the Crow

Page/ term : 93/ 2

No.	Sentence	Number of ties	Cohesive item	Type	Presupposed item
1	A crow, perched in a tree with a piece of cheese in his beak, attracted the eye and nose of a fox.	2	his and	RIa CIa1	a crow -
2	"If you can sing as prettily as you sit," said the fox, "then you are the prettiest singer within my scent and sight."	4	the fox then prettiest and	RtI CIIa1 RIIIe CIa1	a fox - - -
3	The fox had read somewhere, and somewhere, and somewhere else, that praising the voice of a crow with a cheese in his beak would make him drop the cheese and sing.	11	the fox and somewhere and somewhere a crow a cheese his him the cheese and	RtI CIa1 RtI CIa1 RtI RtI RtI RIa RIa RtI CIa1	the fox - somewhere - somewhere a crow cheese a crow a crow a cheese -
4	But this is not what happened to this particular crow in this particular case.	2	but this particular crow	CIIa1 RtI	- the crow
5	"They say you are sly and they say you are crazy," said the crow, having carefully removed the cheese from his	4	the crow the cheese his but	RtI RtI RIa CIIa1	the crow the cheese the crow -

	beak with the claws of one foot, "but you must be nearsighted as well.				
6	Warblers wear gay hats and colored jackets and bright vest, and they are a dollar a hundred.	4	and and and they	CIa1 CIa1 CIa1 RI d	- - - warblers wear gay hats and colored jackets and bright vest
7	I wear black and I am unique.	1	and	CIa1	-
8	"I am sure you are," said the fox, who was neither crazy nor nearsighted, but sly.	2	the fox but	RtI CIIa1	the fox -
9	"I recognize you, now that I look more closely, as the most famed and talented of all birds, and I fain would hear you tell about yourself, but I am hungry and must go."	4	and and but and	CIa1 CIa1 CIIa1 CIIa1	- - - -
10	"Tarry awhile," said the crow quickly, "and share my lunch with me."	3	the crow and lunch	RtI CIa1 Col	the crow - cheese
11	Whereupon he tossed the cunning fox the lion's share of the cheese, and began to tell about himself.	4	he the cunning fox the cheese and	RIa RtI Col CIa1	the crow the fox the lunch -
12	"A ship that sails without a crow's nest sails to doom," he said.	2	a crow he	RtI RIa	the crow a crow
13	"Bars may come and bars may go, but crow bars last forever.	5	and bars but crow	CIa1 RtI CIIa1 RtI	- bars - crow

			bars	RtI	bars
14	I am the pioneer of flight, I am the map maker.	0	-	-	-
15	Last, but never least, my flight is known to scientists and engineers, geometricians, and scholar, as the shortest distance between two points.	3	flight and and	RtI CIa1 CIa1	flight - -
16	Any two points," he concluded arrogantly	1	he	RIa	the crow
17	"Oh, every two points, I am sure," said the fox.	1	the fox	RtI	the fox
18	"And thank you for the lion's share of what I know you could not spare."	2	and the lion's share	CIa1 RtI	- the lion's share
19	And with this he trotted away into the woods, his appetite appeased, leaving the hungry crow perched forlornly in the tree.	5	And This he his appetite the hungry crow	CIa1 RIIa RIa RtIII RtII	- "And thank you for the lion's share of what I know you could not spare." the fox the cheese the crow

Text 13

Title : The Wolf and the Dog

Page/ term : 97/ 2

No.	Sentence	Number of ties	Cohesive item	Type	Presupposed item
1	Once there was a wolf who was nearly dead with hunger.	0	-	-	-
2	He was very thin, so that the outline of his bones could be seen clearly	3	he so that his	RIa CIIa1 RIa	a wolf - a wolf

	beneath his thinning coat of hair.				
3	With hardly enough energy to walk, the wolf had little hope of finding food.	1	the wolf	RtI	the wolf
4	As he lay beneath a large tree, a dog out for a walk noticed him.	2	he him	RIa RIa	the wolf the wolf
5	Seeing how thin and hungry-looking the wolf was, the dog felt sorry for him and said, "You are in terrible shape!"	5	and the wolf the dog him and	CIa1 RtI RtI RIa CIa1	- the wolf a dog the wolf -
6	You look as if you haven't eaten for many days."	0	-	-	-
7	"You're right," said the wolf.	1	the wolf	RtI	the wolf
8	"I haven't eaten because you and your friends are doing such a good job of guarding the sheep.	1	and	CIa1	-
9	Now I am so weak that I have little hope of finding food.	1	finding food	RtI	finding food
10	I think I will surely die.	0	-	-	-
11	Then why not join us? Asked the dog.	2	then the dog	CIVa1 RtI	- the dog
12	"I work regularly and I eat regularly.	1	and	CIa1	-
13	You could do the same.	1	do the same	SIIfb	-
14	I will arrange it.	1	it	RIc	work regularly
15	You can help me and the other dogs guard the sheep.	2	and the sheep	CIa1 RtI	- the sheep
16	In that way, we won't have to worry	2	the sheep and	RtI CIa1	the sheep -

	about your stealing the sheep any more and you won't have to worry about going hungry any more.				
17	It's a good deal for both of us.	0	-	-	-
18	The wolf thought it over for a few minutes and then decided that the dog was right.	3	the wolf and then the dog	RtI CIa1 RtI	the wolf - the dog
19	So they went off together toward the ranch house where the dog lived.	3	so they the dog	CIIIa1 RI d RtI	- the wolf and the dog the dog
20	But, as they were walking, the wolf noticed that the hair on a certain part of the dog's neck was very thin.	4	but they the wolf the dog	CIa2 RI d RtI RtI	- the wolf and the dog the wolf the dog
21	He was curious about this, for the dog had such a beautiful coat every where else.	4	he this for the dog	RIa RIIa CIIIa1 RtI	the wolf hair - the dog
22	Finally, he asked the dog about it.	4	finally he the dog it	CIVa1 RIa RtI RIc	- the wolf the dog the hair
23	"Oh, don't worry about that," said the dog.	2	that the dog	RIIb RtI	the hair the dog
24	"It's the place where the collar rubs on my neck when my master chains me up at night."	1	neck	RtI	neck
25	"Chained up!" cried the wolf, "Do you mean that you are chained up at night?"	3	the wolf chained chained	RtI RtI RtI	the wolf chained chained
26	If I come to live with you, will I be	1	chained	RtI	chained

	chained up at night too?				
27	"That's right," answered the dog.	2	that the dog	RIIb RtI	If I come to live with you, will I be chained up at night too? he dog
28	"But, You'll get used to it soon enough.	2	but it	CIIa1 RIc	- chained
29	I hardly think about it anymore.	1	it	RIc	chained
30	"But, if I am chained up, then I won't be able to walk when I want to take a walk or to run where I want to run," the wolf said.	5	but chained then or the wolf	CIIa1 RtI CIVa1 CIa3 RtI	- chained - - the wolf
31	"If I come to live with you, I won't be free anymore."	0	-	-	-
32	After saying this, the wolf turned and ran away.	3	this the wolf and	RIIa RtI CIa1	"If I come to live with you, I won't be free anymore." the wolf -
33	The dog called after the wolf, saying, "Wait! Come back!	2	the dog the wolf	RtI RtI	the dog the wolf
34	I may not be able to do everything I want to do, but I'm healthy, well-fed, and I have a warm place to sleep.	1	and	CIa1	-
35	You are too worried about keeping alive to enjoy life.	0	-	-	-
36	I'm more free than you are.	1	More free	RIIle	-

Text 14

Title : The Miser

Page/ term : 100/ 2

No.	Sentence	Number of ties	Cohesive item	Type	Presupposed item
1	A miser sold all that he had and bought a lump of gold, which he buried in a hole in the ground by the side of an old wall and went to look at daily.	4	he and he and	RIa CIa1 RIa CIa1	a miser - a miser -
2	One of his workmen observed his frequent visits to the spot and decided to watch his movements.	6	his his the spot and his movements	RIa RIa RtII CIa1 RIa Col	a miser a miser the ground - a miser visits
3	He soon discovered the secret of the hidden treasure, and digging down, came to the lump of gold, and stole it.	7	he hidden treasure and and lump of gold and it	RIa RtIII CIa1 CIa1 RtIII CIa1 RIc	workmen lump of gold - - hidden treasure - the lump of gold
4	The Miser, on his next visit, found the hole empty and began to tear his hair and to make loud lamentations.	7	the miser his visit the hole and his and	RtI RIa Col RtI CIa1 RIa CIa1	the miser the miser movements the hole - the miser -
5	A neighbor, seeing him overcome with grief and learning the cause, said, "Pray do not grieve so; but go and take a stone, and place it in the hole, and fancy that the gold is still lying there.	9	him and but and it the hole and the gold there	RIa CIa1 CIa1 CIa1 RIc RtI CIa1 Col RIIb	the miser - - - a stone the hole - the stone the hole
6	It will do you quite the same service; for when the gold was there, you had it not, as you did not make the	3	the gold it it	RtI RIc RIc	the gold the gold the gold

	slightest use of it."				
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Text 15

Title : The Wolf in Sheep's Clothing

Page/ term : 100/ 2

No.	Sentence	Number of ties	Cohesive item	Type	Presupposed item
1	A Wolf found great difficulty in getting at the sheep owing to the vigilance of the shepherd and his dogs.	2	and his	CIa1 RIa	- the shepherd
2	But one day it found the skin of a sheep that had been flayed and thrown aside, so it put it on over its own pelt and strolled down among the sheep.	8	it a sheep and so it it and the sheep	RIc RtI CIa1 CIIIa1 RIc RIc CIa1 RtI	a wolf a sheep - - a wolf skin - a sheep
3	The Lamb that belonged to the sheep whose skin the Wolf was wearing began to follow the Wolf in the Sheep's clothing.	5	the lamb the sheep the wolf the wolf the sheep	RtII RtI RtI RtI RtI	the sheep the sheep the wolf the wolf the sheep
4	So, leading the Lamb a little apart, he soon made a meal off her - and for some time he succeeded in deceiving the sheep, and enjoying hearty meals.	8	the lamb he her and he the sheep and meals	RtI RIa RIb CIa1 RIa RtI CIa1 RtI	the lamb the wolf the Lamb - the wolf the sheep - meal
5	Appearances are deceptive.	0	-	-	-

Text 16

Title : Elephants, Dog, and Mice

Page/ term : 154-155/ 2

No.	Sentence	Number of ties	Cohesive item	Type	Presupposed item
1	I have never known a dog and an elephant make friends.	1	and	CIa1	-
2	Elephants will eventually become accustomed to certain dogs in camps, and dogs learn not to bark at them and always to keep out of reach of the slash of a trunk or the kick of a leg.	6	elephants dogs and dogs them and	RtI RtI CIa1 RtI RIId CIa1	an alephents a dog - dogs elephants and dogs -
3	The hatred of elephants for dogs cannot easily be explained.	2	elephants dogs	RtI RtI	elephants dogs
4	It is possible that they are afraid of dogs biting their trunks, though I do not think such a thing ever happened.	4	they dogs their though	RIId RtI RIId CIIa1	elephants dogs elephants
5	It has occurred to me that it might be an instinctive dread of hydrophobia, which is the dread of everyone who keeps a dog in camp, Burman and European Assistant alike.	3	the dread a dog and	RtIII RtI CIa1	dread of hydrophobia a dog -
6	Nevertheless practically every European Assistant keeps a dog and I have almost always had one myself.	3	nevertheless a dog and	CIIb RtI CIa1	- a dog -
7	The elephants hate them and one is always losing one's	4	the elephants them and	RtI RIId CIa1	the elephants dogs -

	dog, owing to leopard, tiger, bear and snakes.		and	CIa1	-
8	The tragedies of lost dogs are often an Assistant's first experience of real grief.	2	dogs the tragedies	RtI RtIII	dogs losing one's dog
9	It is easy to ask, why, under such conditions, do you keep a dog?	1	a dog	RtI	dogs
10	But I know of no other existence where a dog is so necessary as a companion to share every moment of one's life and to drive away loneliness.	2	a dog and	RtI CIa1	a dog -
11	So far as I know, elephants don't worry about snakes, though the 'oozies' (drivers) believe that a number of elephants calves die of snake-bite.	2	elephants elephants	RtI RtI	elephants elephants
12	I have had this reported to me many times but in no instance could I find any proof.	2	this but	RIIa CIIa1	that a number of elephants calves die of snake-bite -
13	The Burmans believe that the hairs of an elephant's tail pull out very easily after it has been bitten by a snake.	5	an elephant after it a snake Burman	RtI CIVa1 RIc RtI RtI	elephants - the hairs the snake Burman
14	But, as this has also to be proved, I was never able to accept it as conclusive evidence that an	4	but this	CIIa2 RIIc	- the hairs of an elephant's tail pull out very easily after it has been

	elephant had been killed by snake-bite.		an elephant snake-bite	RtI RtI	bitten by a snake an elephant snake-bite
15	There is a widespread belief that an elephant is really terrified of a mouse.	1	an elephant	RtI	an elephant
16	The idea makes an obvious appeal to the human love of paradox.	0	-	-	-
17	But, if it is true, I can see no reason for it.	2	but it	CIIa1 RIc	- The idea
18	It certainly cannot be because the elephant is afraid of the mouse getting inside his trunk, since, with one snort, he could eject it like a cork from a popgun.	7	because the elephant the mouse his since he it	CIIIa1 RtI RtI RIa CIIIa1 RIa RIc	- the elephant the mouse the elephant - the elephant the mouse
19	However, most fears are imaginary and there is no reason why elephants should be immune from such terrors.	4	however and elephants terrors	CIIa3 CIa1 RtI RtIII	- - elephants affraid of mouse

Appendix 2. The Details of Number of Occurrences and Percentages of Types of Cohesion in Narrative Texts

Text	Total	Types of Cohesion																	
		Grammatical Cohesion													Lexical Cohesion				
		Reference			Substitution			Elipsis			Conjunction				Reiteration				Collocation
		PR	CR	DR	NS	VS	CS	NE	VE	CE	Add	Adv	Ca	Tem	Rep	Syn	Sup	Gen	
1	47	14	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	6	0	3	1	19	1	0	0	0
2	33	14	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	6	0	1	0	8	0	0	0	1
3	62	31	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	0	0	2	14	1	2	0	1
4	64	29	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	2	1	2	0	23	2	1	0	1
5	91	43	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	9	1	1	4	26	2	0	0	1
6	167	48	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	19	9	0	1	71	11	1	0	4
7	65	21	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	1	0	2	26	8	3	0	0
8	49	20	2	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	10	0	0	2	10	1	0	0	0
9	27	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	1	11	1	4	0	3
10	78	24	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	13	2	0	0	24	9	3	0	2
11	73	23	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	17	3	0	0	24	4	2	0	0
12	61	10	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	19	5	0	1	20	1	1	0	2
13	64	13	3	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	10	3	2	4	27	0	0	0	0
14	36	13	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	11	1	0	0	4	1	2	0	3
15	23	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	0	1	0	9	1	0	0	0
16	54	9	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	9	5	2	1	23	0	3	0	0
Total	994	323	26	10	0	2	0	1	0	1	147	31	12	19	339	43	22	0	18
TPS	994	359			2			2			209				404				18
Percentage (%)	100	36,12			0,2			0,2			21,03				40,64				1,81

Notes:

- | | | | | | |
|----|----|---------------------------|-----|-----|---------------------------|
| 1. | PR | : Personal Reference | 10. | Add | : Additive |
| 2. | CR | : Comparative Reference | 11. | Adv | : Adversative |
| 3. | DR | : Demonstrative Reference | 12. | Ca | : Causal |
| 4. | NS | : Nominal Substitution | 13. | Tem | : Temporal |
| 5. | VS | : Verbal Substitution | 14. | Rep | : Repetition |
| 6. | CS | : Clausal Substitution | 15. | Syn | : Synonym |
| 7. | NE | : Nominal Elipsis | 16. | Sup | : Superordinate |
| 8. | VE | : Verbal Elipsis | 17. | Gen | : General word |
| 9. | CE | : Clausal Elipsis | 18. | TPS | : Total Per Subcategories |

Appendix 3. Narrative Texts in the Electronic Textbook of Senior High School Grade X entitled “Developing English Competence”

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The Little Girl and the Wolf

James Thurber

One afternoon, a big wolf waited in the dark forest for a little girl to come along carrying a basket of food to her grandmother. Finally, the little girl came along and she was carrying a basket of food. "Are you carrying that basket to your grandmother?" asked the wolf. The little girl said yes she was. So the wolf asked her where her grandmother lived and the little girl told him and he disappeared into the woods.

When the little girl opened the door of her grandmother's house, she saw there was somebody in bed with a nightcap and nightgown on. She had approached no nearer than twenty-five feet from the bed when she saw that it was not her grandmother but the wolf, for even in a nightcap a wolf doesn't look anymore like your grandmother than Metro-Goldwyn lion looks like Calvin Coolidge. So the little girl took an automatic out of her basket and shot the wolf dead.

Taken from Readings to Remember, 2004

Page 30

Activity 9

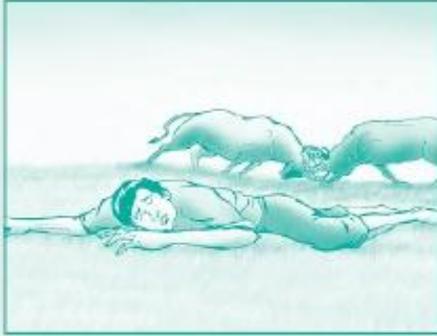
The Father and His Sons

A father had a family of sons who were always fighting. He had no luck trying to stop their arguments with words, so he decided to teach them a lesson.

He told his sons to bring him a bunch of sticks. He took the sticks and gave them to his eldest son and asked him to break them. The eldest son tried with all his strength but was not able to do it. The other sons tried and were also unsuccessful.

The father said, "My sons, if you are of one mind, and unite to assist each other, you will be like these sticks together; but if you are divided among yourselves, you will be broken as easily as a single stick."

Blind Listening



A stupid man was sent by his father to sell salt. He first went to a mining area but nobody there wanted his salt. When he returned home, his father told him that if he had helped the miners to dig, they would have bought his salt.

The man next went to a house where a wedding was taking place. There he dug a huge hole. This made the people angry and they chased him away. When he returned home, his

father told him that if he had beaten a drum and danced instead, the people there would have bought salt from him.

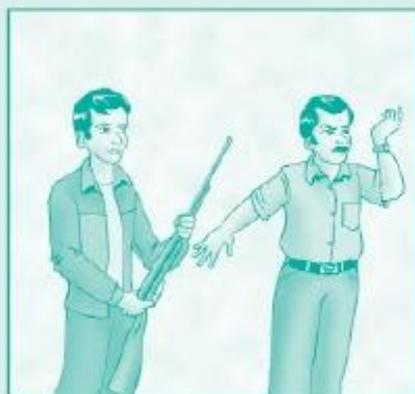
Then, he went to a village where there happened to be a fire. Rushing to the place, he started drumming and dancing, only to be thrown out by the people. His father told him that he should have poured water on the fire instead, if he wanted to sell salt there.

In the next place he went to, a couple were fighting with each other. The foolish man poured a bucketful of water on them, again to be chased away. His father later told him that he should have tried to settle the quarrel, in which case they would have bought salt from him.

In the final event, the man saw two bulls fighting with each other. He stepped in to stop the fight and was gored to death by angry bulls.

Taken from *English Bestseller 12*, 2001

Three Foolish Sons



There was a rich man who had three sons. They lived in a large house in the town of Keelung in northern Taiwan.

One day, he said to his sons, "You are no longer children. You must do something to earn your own living. When I die, I am not going to leave you very much money. I started with nothing and made a fortune by working hard. You must do the same. Now, here is two hundred dollars for each of you. You can use it to start your own business."

The three sons went off separately. The eldest son met a hunter. He thought that hunting would be fine so he bought a gun from him for two hundred dollars.

The second son met a basket-maker. He bought a set of tools from him so that he could make baskets.

The third son met a doctor who told him that he had a medicine which could cure all diseases. He bought it from him for two hundred dollars.

When the rich man heard what his sons had done with the money he had given them, he was very angry. "What stupid sons I have!" He said.

One day, the eldest son tried to shoot a fly on his father's forehead. Instead, he killed his father. The second son picked up his tools and tried to repair the damage to his father's head. The third son tried to cure his father with medicine which he had bought.

Everyone said that the three sons were very foolish. They had spent all their money uselessly.

Taken from *Favourite Stories from Taiwan*, 2000

Activity 5

Read the text and study its text structure.

The Fortune Teller

orientation

In the great city of Taipei, there lived a man called Lin and his wife. They had no children. Because of this, they were very unhappy. One day, they found a baby boy outside their door. He was wrapped in a blanket and crying. They took the baby into their house and called him Sau Ling. They loved him very much.

complication

When Sau Ling was a young man, a fortune-teller came to the house. "You must send your son away," he said. "One day he will become a thief and cause you a lot of trouble."

Mr and Mrs Lin were very sad to hear this. They believed what the fortune-teller said. They gave Sau Ling some clothes and money and sent him away.

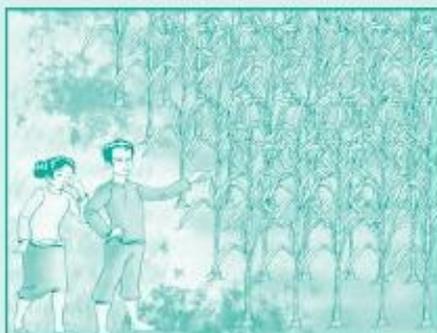
Several years later, Sau Ling was having a meal in an inn several miles from Taipei. He put his bag on the floor near his table. After finishing his meal, he picked up his bag. "That's strange!" he thought, "It feels so heavy." He looked inside. It was full of small gold bars. Then he realised that someone had taken his bag by mistake and left another bag, in its place.

That evening, a young man came to the inn, "Has anyone seen my bag?" he asked. Sau Ling was very honest. He returned the bag to him. The young man thanked him. "You are really very honest," he said, "I shall ask my

resolution

father to give you a job." The young man's father was a rich merchant. He gave Sau Ling a good job. "But go home first," he said, "and take a holiday." Sau Ling returned to Taipei. Mr and Mrs Lin were delighted to see him again. The fortune-teller was also present. Sau Ling told them what had happened. The fortune-teller did not know what to say. He left the house without saying a word. Mr and Mrs Lin never believed in fortune-teller after that. Sau Ling took them to live with him and they were very happy and contented until the end of their lives.

A Story about Red



"Rosaura! Rosaura!"

If you were tall enough, you might have seen a little splash of red in the tall grass. And if you had looked closer you might have seen a small girl wearing a red ribbon.

Rosaura was hiding from her mother and father. It was her favourite game. She crouched quietly, listening to the faint sound of her mother's voice. All Rosaura could see were the swaying green stalks of the corn. They rustled above her head where the sky stretched clear and blue. Suddenly, a bright yellow butterfly darted by. Rosaura jumped up to chase the butterfly, forgetting all about her hiding game.

"Rosaura! There you are," called her mother. "It's time for lunch."

It was dark and cool in the cottage where Rosaura lived with her parents. Rosaura ate her meal quickly. She

wanted to go back into the sunshine to play. As soon as she had finished her food she slipped down from her chair.

"Rosaura, where are you going?" called her mother.

She caught a glimpse of Rosaura's red ribbon disappearing around the door. But Rosaura was already through the gate, and heading for the fields. "Rosaura! Rosaura!"

Was that the sound of her mother calling, or the wind whispering in the corn? Rosaura was not sure. All day long through the hot summers she loved to run in the fields. Her feet were scratched and her toes bruised on stones as she chased after the mice hiding in the corn stalks. Her skin was brown as a nut from the sun. In her tangled black hair, her red ribbon fluttered.

The afternoon stretched out long and hot. As the sun reached the far side of the field, Rosaura's father walked back to the cottage. His eyes scanned the fields for Rosaura's red ribbon. But it was nowhere to be seen.

"Hasn't Rosaura come back yet?" asked her father as he came through the door.

"Not yet," said her mother, "I'm sure she'll be back soon."

But the supper was ready and still there was no sign of Rosaura. Now the sun had set, casting a red glow over the fields. Rosaura's mother and father stood at the door of their cottage, staring over the field, looking for the red ribbon.

"Rosaura! Rosaura!"

Soon the shadows were deep blue in the yard. It was too dark to see the red ribbon now. Rosaura's parents began to walk and call for her in the field. As night fell, they fetched lamp that lit up patches of corn and grass and startled the sleeping mice. But they could find no red ribbon.

Rosaura's parents called and called all through the night. In the dawn, they stood alone and sad amongst the corn. The red morning sun lit up their tired faces.

"Look!" cried Rosaura's mother suddenly. "There she is!"

They began to run towards the red ribbon that she had spotted among the corn. But oh! It wasn't Rosaura's ribbon at all, but the red petals of a flower.

Rosaura's mother and father had never seen such a flower before. Her father looked away in disappointment.

"I see her!" he cried.

And again they ran towards the dear red ribbon. But it was another red flower. As the sun came up bright and strong, Rosaura's mother and father looked around the field. It was filled with red flowers swaying and fluttering in the tall grass. Rosaura's mother and father felt so sad.

"Rosaura won't be coming home anymore," said her mother. "She was always happier in the fields."

"But the spirits have left us these flowers to remind us of her," said Rosaura's father.

"They will stay with us!"

Every year, when the corn ripened and the evenings grew long, Rosaura's parents stood at the edge of the fields and watched the red flowers dancing under the sun.

And that, say the Indians, is how the red poppy came to be.

Taken from *Childcraft: World of Colour*, 2003

Shadow Puppet Show: Durna's Trap

The story started with Durna who was teaching the art of archery to the children of Hastina Kingdom at the palace's yard. From far away, a young man watched the practice. He was Ekalaya, the crown prince of Parang Gelung Kingdom.

Ekalaya wanted to study with Durna but was rejected, since the man promised only to teach children of Pandawa and Kurawa. Still Ekalaya was neither angry nor revengeful. His strong will to study from Durna influenced him go to the forest and create a statue of Durna as a symbol of Durna's presence. With this statue as his imaginative teacher, Ekalaya learned how to shoot arrows by himself. The result was astonishing; Ekalaya turned very skillful in shooting arrows just like Arjuna, Durna's favourite student.

Ekalaya finally encountered Arjuna, who was hunting in the forest. Arjuna was surprised to find that an arrow struck the animal he was hunting. It turned out the arrow belonged to Ekalaya. Innocently, Ekalaya said he was Durna's student.

Durna was surprised when Arjuna told him about Ekalaya. When he met Ekalaya, Durna trapped him saying he would admit Ekalaya as his student if he cut off the thumb of his right hand as evidence of his loyalty to his master.

Ekalaya followed the request but then realised he had been cheated. Angry and disappointed, he knew Durna did not want anybody to rival Arjuna. Ekalaya became angrier when he was told by his wife that Arjuna was in love with her and challenged Arjuna to a duel.

Adapted from www.joglosemar.co.id

One morning, one of the Witch's friends *come over* to visit. When she looked around the room, she said "Your house is ugly. My house is *more beautiful* than yours, and the walls are bigger." The Witch was very angry when she heard this and *shouted*, "Get out of my house! and don't ever come back here!"

After her friend left, the Witch *looked around* her house and she said to herself, "my friend was right. My house looks ugly and the paint is faded. I have to repaint it. Then she *went to the shop* and bought a can of paint. After lunch she *started to paint*, and she worked very carefully. In the afternoon she *finished* the lower part of her house. When she wanted to start the upper part she *found out* that she couldn't reach it. That she got an idea. "I will use my magic broom!"

She shouted, "Broom, turn into a paint brush and paint my walls!"

Suddenly the broom turned into a paint brush and *it started* to paint the upper walls. It worked very fast, and in ten minutes all job was done. The Witch was very happy.

During the battle of Troy there was a Greek hero named Odysseus, he was one of the many 'tribal kings' that went to attack the Romans. The Greeks won that battle decisively thanks to Odysseus' brilliant idea of building a 'Trojan Horse'.

The horse was a gigantic wooden statue of a horse built in the guise of a gift for the Romans. The Greeks then built chambers within the giant horse to allow some soldiers to hide inside to infiltrate the strong Roman defense.

The Romans, thinking that the Greeks have admitted defeat by leaving them a gift of gesture in the form of a 'Horse Statue' were overjoyed. They brought the 'gift' into their castle and partied throughout the night.

When all the Roman soldiers were drunk and unconscious, the Greeks slowly descended out of the 'Horse Statue', rendered the Roman defense useless and opened the gate into the well defended city; allowing other Greek soldiers who were waiting outside the gates to come inside.

The Tiger Who Would Be King

One morning the tiger woke up in the jungle and told his mate that he was king of beasts.

"Leo, the lion, is king of beasts," she said.

"We need a change," said the tiger. "The creatures are crying for a change."

The tigress listened but she could hear no crying, except that of her cubs.

"I'll be king of beasts by the time the moon rises," said the tiger. "It will be a yellow moon with black stripes, in my honour."

"Oh sure," said the tigress as she went to look after her young, one of whom, a male, very like his father, had got an imaginary thorn in his paw.

The tiger prowled through the jungle till he came to the lion's den. "Come out," he roared, "and greet the king of beasts! The king is dead, long live the king!"

Inside the den, the lioness woke her mate. "The king is here to see you," she said.

"What king?" he inquired, sleepily.

"The king of beasts," she said.

"I am the king of beasts," roared Leo and he charged out of the den to defend his crown against the pretender.

It was a terrible fight and it lasted until the setting of the sun. All the animals of the jungle joined in, some taking the side of the tiger and others the side of the lion. Every creature from the aardvark to the zebra took part in the struggle to overthrow the lion or to repulse the tiger, and some did not know which they were fighting for, and some fought for both, and some fought whoever was nearest and some fought for the sake of fighting.

"What are we fighting for?" someone asked the aardvark.

"The old order," said the aardvark.

"What are we dying for?" someone asked the zebra.

"The new order," said the zebra.

When the moon rose, fevered and gibbous, it shone upon a jungle in which nothing stirred except a macaw and a cockatoo, screaming in horror. All the beasts were dead except the tiger, and his days were numbered and his time was ticking away. He was monarch of all he surveyed, but it didn't seem to mean anything.

Taken from *Readings to Remember*, 2004

The Legend of Beowulf

Once upon a time, there was a horrible monster called Grendel. He was half-man and half-monster. He lived in Denmark. One day, he went to the King's castle. The king and his men tried to kill the monster but their swords were useless. A knight called Beowulf heard about the problem and went to Denmark to help the king.

That night, Beowulf and his men took off their armour and put away their swords and went to sleep. The monster came into the castle and killed a knight. Beowulf woke up and fought the monster-he pulled off an arm! Grendel went back to his home in a lake and died. Grendel's mother was very angry and the next night she went to the castle and killed a knight.

In the morning, Beowulf went to the lake. He killed Grendel's mother with a special sword. When he came back, the king was very happy and he gave Beowulf presents and money.

Beowulf went back to his country and became a king. He was king for fifty years. But one day, a dragon came to his country, and it attacked people. It lived in a cave with treasure. The dragon was very big and breathed fire. The knights were afraid and they did not want to fight the dragon. King Beowulf was an old man but he put on his armour again and went to the dragon's cave with his men. ...

Taken from *Opportunities Elementary*, 2003

The Fox and the Crow

A crow, perched in a tree with a piece of cheese in his beak, attracted the eye and nose of a fox. "If you can sing as prettily as you sit," said the fox, "then you are the prettiest singer within my scent and sight." The fox had read somewhere, and somewhere, and somewhere else, that praising the voice of a crow with a cheese in his beak would make him drop the cheese and sing. But this is not what happened to this particular crow in this particular case.

"They say you are sly and they say you are crazy," said the crow, having carefully removed the cheese from his beak with the claws of one foot, "but you must be nearsighted as well. Warblers wear gay hats and colored jackets and bright vest, and they are a dollar a hundred. I wear black and I am unique.

"I am sure you are," said the fox, who was neither crazy nor nearsighted, but sly. "I recognize you, now that I look more closely, as the most famed

and talented of all birds, and I fain would hear you tell about yourself, but I am hungry and must go."

"Tarry awhile," said the crow quickly, "and share my lunch with me." Whereupon he tossed the cunning fox the lion's share of the cheese, and began to tell about himself. "A ship that sails without a crow's nest sails to doom," he said. "Bars may come and bars may go, but crow bars last forever. I am the pioneer of flight, I am the map maker. Last, but never least, my flight is known to scientists and engineers, geometricians, and scholar, as the shortest distance between two points. Any two points," he concluded arrogantly.

"Oh, every two points, I am sure," said the fox. "And thank you for the lion's share of what I know you could not spare." And with this he trotted away into the woods, his appetite appeased, leaving the hungry crow perched forlornly in the tree.

Taken from www.aesopfabiles.com

The Wolf and the Dog

Once there was a wolf who was nearly dead with hunger. He was very thin, so that the outline of his bones could be seen clearly beneath his thinning coat of hair. With hardly enough energy to walk, the wolf had little hope of finding food. As he lay beneath a large tree, a dog out for a walk noticed him. Seeing how thin and hungry-looking the wolf was, the dog felt sorry for him and said, "You are in terrible shape! You look as if you haven't eaten for many days."

"You're right," said the wolf. "I haven't eaten because you and your friends are doing such a good job of guarding the sheep. Now I am so weak that I have little hope of finding food. I think I will surely die."

Then why not join us? Asked the dog. "I work regularly and I eat regularly. You could do the same. I will arrange it. You can help me and the other dogs guard the sheep. In that way, we won't have to worry about your stealing the sheep any more and you won't have to worry about going hungry any more. It's a good deal for both of us."

The wolf thought it over for a few minutes and then decided that the dog was right. So they went off together toward the ranch house where the dog

lived. But, as they were walking, the wolf noticed that the hair on a certain part of the dog's neck was very thin. He was curious about this, for the dog had such a beautiful coat every where else. Finally, he asked the dog about it.

"Oh, don't worry about that," said the dog. "It's the place where the collar rubs on my neck when my master chains me up at night."

"Chained up!" cried the wolf, "Do you mean that you are chained up at night? If I come to live with you, will I be chained up at night too?"

That's right," answered the dog. "But, You'll get used to it soon enough. I hardly think about it anymore."

"But, if I am chained up, then I won't be able to walk when I want to take a walk or to run where I want to run," the wolf said. "If I come to live with you, I won't be free anymore." After saying this, the wolf turned and ran away.

"The dog called after the wolf, saying, "Wait! Come back! I may not be able to do everything I want to do, but I'm healthy, well-fed, and I have a warm place to sleep. You are too worried about keeping alive to enjoy life. I'm more free than you are."

Taken from www.aesopfables.com

The Miser

A miser sold all that he had and bought a lump of gold, which he buried in a hole in the ground by the side of an old wall and went to look at daily. One of his workmen observed his frequent visits to the spot and decided to watch his movements.

He soon discovered the secret of the hidden treasure, and digging down, came to the lump of gold, and stole it. The Miser, on his next visit,

found the hole empty and began to tear his hair and to make loud lamentations. A neighbor, seeing him overcome with grief and learning the cause, said, "Pray do not grieve so; but go and take a stone, and place it in the hole, and fancy that the gold is still lying there.

It will do you quite the same service; for when the gold was there, you had it not, as you did not make the slightest use of it."

Taken from www.short-stories.co.uk

The Wolf in Sheep's Clothing

A Wolf found great difficulty in getting at the sheep owing to the vigilance of the shepherd and his dogs. But one day it found the skin of a sheep that had been flayed and thrown aside, so it put it on over its own pelt and strolled down among the sheep.

The Lamb that belonged to the sheep whose skin the Wolf was wearing began to follow the Wolf in the Sheep's clothing. So, leading the Lamb a little apart, he soon made a meal off her - and for some time he succeeded in deceiving the sheep, and enjoying hearty meals.

Appearances are deceptive.

Taken from www.short-stories.co.uk

Elephants, Dog and Mice

I have never known a dog and an elephant make friends. Elephants will eventually become accustomed to certain dogs in camps, and dogs learn not to bark at them and always to keep out of reach of the slash of a trunk or the kick of a leg. The hatred of elephants for dogs cannot easily be explained. It is possible that they are afraid of dogs biting their trunks, though I do not think such a thing ever happened. It has occurred to me that it might be an instinctive dread of hydrophobia, which is the dread of everyone who keeps a dog in camp, Burman and European Assistant alike.

Nevertheless practically every European Assistant keeps a dog and I have almost always had one myself. The elephants hate them and one is always losing one's dog, owing to leopard, tiger, bear and snakes. The tragedies of lost dogs are often an Assistant's first experience of real grief.

It is easy to ask, why, under such conditions, do you keep a dog? But I know of no other existence where a dog is so necessary as a companion to share every moment of one's life and to drive away loneliness.

So far as I know, elephants don't worry about snakes, though the 'oozies' (drivers) believe that a number of elephants calves die of snake-bite. I have had this reported to me many times but in no instance could I find any proof. The Burmans believe that the hairs of an elephant's tail pull out very easily after it has been bitten by a snake. But, as this has also to be proved, I was never able to accept it as conclusive evidence that an elephant had been killed by snake-bite.

There is a widespread belief that an elephant is really terrified of a mouse. The idea makes an obvious appeal to the human love of paradox. But, if it is true, I can see no reason

for it. It certainly cannot be because the elephant is afraid of the mouse getting inside his trunk, since, with one snort, he could eject it like a cork

from a popgun. However, most fears are imaginary and there is no reason why elephants should be immune from such terrors.

Taken from www.aesopfables.com

PERNYATAAN

Yang bertanda tangan di bawah ini, saya

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menyatakan telah melakukan triangulasi data sehubungan dengan analisis data yang dilakukan oleh mahasiswa yang bersangkutan dalam penelitian yang berjudul “Cohesion in Narrative Texts Presented in The Electronic Textbook of Senior High School Grade X entitled “Developing English Competence”.

Demikian surat keterangan ini dibuat untuk dapat digunakan sesuai dengan keperluan.

Yogyakarta, 29 Januari 2015

Yang membuat pernyataan



Rizal, S. Pd.