CHAPTER II
LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter reviews several theories related to this research. Those are definition of cohesions, type of cohesion, definition of grammatical cohesions, types of grammatical cohesion which consist of four kinds (references, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction), definition of context and related studies to support the analysis and studies.

2.1. Theoretical Framework

2.1.1. Cohesion

Cohesion is one of the elements of linguistic which has a function to connect imperfect text become the perfect text, till the reader can understand what is the mean of the text. In other words, cohesion is regarded as a semantic concept that refers to relations of meaning that exist within the text (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 4). Flowerdew and Mahlberg (2009: 103) introduced the notion of the property of connectedness to refer to Cohesion. Connectedness is the flow of information and is reflected by the choice of vocabulary words or grammatical linking words that contribute to textual relations (Flowerdew and Mahlberg, 2009: 106). As Scott and Thompson (2001: 14) stated, cohesion depends on repetition within the text. Hoey (1991: 4) described cohesive ties that require the reader to look to the surrounding sentences for their interpretation. Cohesion occurs where
the interpretation of some element in the discourse is dependent on that of another (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 4).

Stoddard defined cohesion as a mental construct (1991: 20). This definition implies that cohesion must be interpreted and it requires mental effort on the part of the reader. In other words, cohesion requires to search for certain words or grammatical items that help to give meaning and purpose to clauses and sentences, so that information is distributed in a logical way.

Cohesion is usually interpreted in contrast to coherence. Many scholars pay attention to the fact that both of terms can be focused easily. And this research is focused on cohesion. So, it is necessary to give differences between two terms. Cohesion is one of elements of linguistic which connect between one text and other text until good form of text and it can be understood by the reader what the text about. While of coherence, it deals with meaning form of the text, it correlates or not. But, it does not seem simple to define the unique characteristics of cohesion and coherence. Both refer to text-forming mechanisms, but it does not presuppose that they have same meaning or they are synonymous.

Some discourse analysts determined these concepts from context or linguistic point of view. Thus, cohesion is defined either as an evaluative measure of texts or as linguistic devices used for putting sentences together (Stoddard, 1991: 13). Halliday and Hasan (1976) in Anastasya Tsareva presented that cohesion as linguistically determined. So, the description of sentence connectors given by other scholars refers to cohesion. It is as evidence of linguistically. There
seems no point in denying that the basic concept of cohesion concentrates on connections made by grammatical or lexical items, whereas coherence is a mental phenomenon that refers to the mind of the writer and reader (Thompson, 2004: 179). Other linguists said that it is referring to other scholars, describes cohesion in contrast to coherence. The first concept is defined as components of the surface text that are mutually connected and the latter one is described as components of the textual world that are mutually accessible and relevant (Hoey, 1991: 11).

The concept of cohesion comprises the interfaces between lexis and grammar, as well as between grammar and text analysis (Scott and Thompson, 2001: 14). The role of cohesive ties in a text is to prompt the perception of coherence. The concept of coherence can therefore be described from the reader/hearer’s point of view as the unfolding perception of purpose within a delimited area of meaning (Scott and Thompson, 2001: 6).

Coherence is not defined in the work of Halliday and Hasan (1976) in Anastasya Tsareva who have been influential in the discussion of cohesion. They described the concept of coherence under the term of texture.

The concept of texture is used to express the property of being a text (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 2). Cohesion is one part of what is said to be textual. Various language resources used to express relationship to the environment fulfill the function of the textual component which characterizes a text (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 299).
Texts are formed by grammatical units; words, clauses, and sentences. And, the unit link is the parts of a sentence or a clause and they are called to be structural. “Structure is one means of expressing texture” (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 7). From this statement, it shows whether a text is well-formed or not. In contrast, cohesion is not seen as structural relations in the usual sense.

Halliday and Hasan (1976:9) use the term cohesion to refer to non-structural text-forming relations. They use a special role in creating a text, but they are not structure. Text-forming relations are properties of a text. They give to link information within a text. This is achieved through relations in meaning. The significant property of the cohesive relation is the fact that one item provides the source for the interpretation of another (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 19).

From readers’ perception, cohesion seems to be complicated. Many differences of readers’ interpreted variously. Cohesion can be found and interpreted across sentence boundaries, but readers who have different processing abilities may or may be not able to be experienced to understanding of a text. However, cohesion is important in the description of a text since it gives texture that functions as a unity with respect to its environment (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 2). Moreover texture or coherence includes the connection between the text and the cognitive and experiential environment of the processor (Stoddard, 1991: 19). Flowerdew and Mahlberg (2009: 103) said that cohesion focuses on features on the textual surface, whereas coherence describes underlying meaning relationships reflected by features on the surface text.
Halliday (1994: 309) said that the main idea of cohesion saying that we need to establish relationships between sentences and clauses in order to construct discourse. The number of grammatical items in a sentence determines its length. However, these grammatical items or the number of sentences in a paragraph or the whole text are only a characteristic feature of discourse structure, but they do not determine whether a text is coherent or not. What helps to describe cohesion in written discourse is the study of semantic resources used for linking across sentences in order to see how the different parts of a text are connected. What can be observed within sentences are structures which define the relations among the parts (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 10). In terms of cohesion, what can be observed across sentences in written discourse are not structures but links that have particular features that are to be interpreted on the part of a reader.

2.1.2 Types of Cohesion

There are two broad divisions of cohesion identified by Halliday and Hasan (1976:6) grammatical and lexical. Reference, substitution, ellipsis and conjunction are the various types of grammatical cohesion. Lexical cohesion is realized through repetition of lexical items, synonyms, superordinates and general words. Table 1 (based on Halliday and Hasan, 1976) presented the division of the types of cohesion that will be described further in this chapter:
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Anaphoric [to preceding text]</td>
<td>Cataphoric [to following text]</td>
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Table 1. Types of Cohesion

From the description of the types of cohesion, the writer only focus on grammatical cohesion of this research, so the writer will describe the grammatical cohesion only to discuss and give the definition as linguists interpreted.

2.1.3. Grammatical Cohesion

Grammatical cohesion refers to the linguistic structure. The highest structural unit in the grammar is the sentence (Halliday and Hasan 1976: 28). The structure determines the order in which grammatical elements occur and the way they are related within a sentence. Cohesive relationships with other sentences create a certain linguistic environment, and the meaning of each sentence depends
on it. Various linguistic means to help identifying whether a text can function as a single meaningful unit or not.

Based on Halliday and Hasan (1976) illustrated the types of grammatical cohesion that will be discussed further:

![Diagram of Grammatical Cohesion]

**Table II. Types of Grammatical Cohesion**

The classification is taken from *Halliday and Hasan (1976).* *It is not fully exemplified. For details see Halliday and Hasan (1976: 333-338).*
2.1.3.1. Reference

Reference is one of the kinds of grammatical cohesion, it is linguistic unit that refers to others linguistic which out run or come after. In other hand, some linguists said, the principle of reference is based on the exploration of the lexico-grammatical environment of a text to look elsewhere to get a full picture and to make complete sense of a word or structure (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 31). Referential cohesion plays a special role in creating cohesive ties between the elements that can be difficult or even impossible to interpret if a single sentence is taken out of context (Nunan, 1993: 21). Gillian Brown and Yule (1983:204) said, reference is one in which the relationship of reference is taken to hold between expressions in a text and entities in the world, and that of reference between expression in different part of text.

Reference is the specific nature of the information that signed from retrieval. In this case of reference the information to be retrieved is the referential meaning, the identity of the particular thing or class of things that is being referred to; and cohesion lies in the continuity of reference, whereby the same thing enters into the discourse a second time (Halliday and Hasan, 1976:32).

Based on Halliday and Hassan (1976:31) reference is divided into two parts, they are; (1) exophoric (situation) and (2) endophoric. Endophoric Reference is distinguished between two types;

a. Anaphoric : Anaphoric reference points listeners or readers backwards to what is previously mentioned.
b. Cataphoric: Cataphoric reference looks forward in the text in order to identify the elements the reference items refer to.

So, that is meant that, anaphoric is the one instructing the hearer and the readers to look backward and in contrast, cataphoric look to forward. And to make clear this explanation, see the diagram below:

Reference of exophoric is interpretation or pointing to word relation puts on and depends on situational context. Whether the interpretation is on the text itself, so the relation is called by endophoric reference. Reference of endophoric anaphoric the unit relation and other between text. This relation refers to something that is called before. Endophoric cataphoric reference refers to something that will be mentioned after it. For the example;

... Two eyes to which I clung with all my night

Two eyes that alone seemed to hold me up. To
this very moment I do not know whether they were wide or narrow, nor can I recall if they were surrounded by lashes or not. (p.17)

The word “they” as element of cohesion which indicate to “two eyes” as element of reference and the piece of sentence above is grammatical cohesion that refers to endophoric reference (because, the reference is in the text) and has anaphoric character (because the reference is called before or previously mentioned) by using the third person in plural free types.

The kinds of grammatical of references are classified into four types, they are: (1) Personal reference, (2) Demonstratives reference, (3) Definite article reference, and (4) Comparatives reference.

(1) Personal Reference

Halliday and Hasan (1976: 37) said that personal reference is reference by means of function in the speech of situation, through the category of person. So, personal reference is indication that refers to someone. All the types of pronoun, well it is singular or plural pronoun, they are included in personal reference. The pronoun “it” is also included in personal reference.

Based on the grammatical conception, the personal pronoun can be classified into three parts. They are; (1) speaker: I, We, (2) listener: You, (3) spoken: He, She, It, They. As semantic conception that the personal pronoun is the basic of communication role, Halliday
and Hasan (1976:44) called as speech roles and other roles. Speech roles is speaker roles: (I, we), addressee roles: (you). And, other roles are (he, she, it, they, and one).

Personal reference that form a cohesion is declared in personal pronoun as head (he/him, she/her, it, they/them), possessive determiners as deixis (his, her, its, their), and possessive pronouns as head (his, hers, its, theirs). For example:

1). One of my friends was called **Day. She** was a doctor.

2). **He** said these words, but **his** voice in my ear had a different tone.

3). **He** thinks that I didn’t hear **him**.

In other words, other roles can include in personal reference of cohesion by note, the word “one” is as exophoric. Speech roles (I, you, we) deals with situational context, it is on speaker role or reference roles, although I, you, we are included in exophoric reference. And speech role can become endophoric reference if it is on quoted speech. It will be found in narrative text or novel. For example;

“Are you crying, Miss Iqbal?”

Ffrom the data above, it is so clear that this sentence contains cohesion that is characteristic of endophoric reference especially included in cataphoric part. It can be seen by the word “you” deals with “Miss Iqbal”.


Personal pronoun “It”, it is not only thing or other object but also “it” can deal with process. As grammatical concept, “It” can deals with clause, as Halliday and Hassan said that “It” refers to extended reference, and text reference. (Halliday dan Hasan, 1976: 52). For example:

The next instant I was following him into the street, and the door had already closed behind us. But I continued to turn round and look back at it for quite a while as if it was about to swing open again, or as though I had a feeling of certainty that someone was standing behind it and getting ready to push it open at any moment.

The example above, there are three words “It”, all of them explain that the word “It” refers to the word “door”.

(2) Demonstrative Reference

Based on Halliday and Hassan (1976:57), Demonstrative reference is essentially a form of verbal pointing. Demonstrative reference divided into two groups, they are nominal demonstrative that consist of (this, these, that, those), adverbial demonstrative (here, there, now, then).
Nominal demonstrative reference is to indicate something that is near or not is (this/these and that/those). “This and that” deal with time. “This” refers to this time or future time. And the word “that” refers to time in the past. For example:

“Firdaus, I beg of you. Don’t cry”
“Let me cry,” I said
“But, I’ve never seen you cry before. What’s happened?”
“Nothing.... Nothing at all.”
“That’s not possible. Something must have happened.”
“Nothing at all has happened,” I repeated.

Nominal demonstrative reference for singular type is this and that. This/that can refer to singular or plural thing. These or those refers to plural thing. As the example above, the underline word “that” refers to the word “nothing”.

Adverbial demonstrative reference, it is included in “there and here”. They deals with place that is previous mentioned. And the word “then and now” are also included in adverbial demonstrative reference, they deal with the time. For example;

_The time had come for me to shed the last grain of virtue, the last drop of sanctity in my blood. Now I was aware of the reality, of the truth. Now I knew what I wanted. Now there was no room for illusions..._
Now I realized that the least delude of all woman was prostitute. That marriage was the system built on the most cruel suffering for women.

(3) Definite Article Reference

Definite article “the” is classified together with demonstratives and possessives. Historically, it is a reduced form of that (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 58). It serves to identify a particular individual or sub-class within the class designed by the noun; but it does this only through dependence on something else (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 71). The definite article creates a cohesive link between the sentence in which it occurs and the referential information. It does not contain that information in itself, and it does not say where the information is located; its only function is to signal definiteness (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 74). So, “The” is used as a mark to show that the information necessary for identifying the element is recoverable.

(4) Comparatives Reference

Basically, the comparative is divided into two groups, they are general comparison and particular comparison. General comparative declares about similarity and dissimilarity between something that is compared. General comparative deals with the same thing; same, equal, identical, identically, or similar things; such, similar, so, similarly, likewise, and dissimilarity or dissimilar things, can use the word, other, different, else, differently, otherwise.
Based on Nunan (1993: 24) Comparative reference is expressed through adjectives and adverbs and serves to compare items within a text in terms of identity or similarity”. Halliday and Hasan (1976: 76) distinguished between the two sub-types of comparative reference: general and particular. General comparative reference expresses likeness between things, in the form of identity, similarity and unlikeness or difference. Halliday dan Hasan (1976: 80) ”particular comparison expresses comparability between things in respect of a particular property. The property in question may be a matter of quantity or of quality. It’s meant that particular reference expresses comparability between things. This is comparison in respect of quantity or quality. Particular comparison in terms of quantity is expressed by a comparative quantifier or an adverb of comparison sub-modifying a quantifier. Particular comparison in terms of quality is expressed by comparative adjectives or adverbs sub-modifying an adjective Halliday and Hasan (1976: 76-84).

To make clear, the example is provided in the table in the following below;

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Comparative reference</th>
<th>General</th>
<th>Particular</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Identity</strong></td>
<td>The same shape, the same colour, in the same condition.</td>
<td>quantity/numerative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Similarity</strong></td>
<td>“Are you similar to one</td>
<td>quality/</td>
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Difference | "you’re prostitute, and it’s my duty to arrest you, and others of your kind." | epithet of the two. (p.59)

| Table III. Comparative Reference |

Comparative reference is always described grammatically; it is included in categories of person, number, proximity, and degree comparison. The role of reference is to link an item of language to its environment. Personals, demonstratives and comparatives are text-forming devices which readers may understand the identity between languages.

### 2.1.3.2 Substitution

Substitution is replacement a word or a group of word with a words which have same meaning, in some case there are some word which can replace word. Halliday (1976:89) described substitution as a sort of counter which is used in a place of the repetition of the particular item. Halliday (1976:89) said that substitution is a relation between linguistics item such as word or phrase or a relation on the lexico grammatical level. For example;
He said;

“Every prostitute has a pimp to protect her
from other pimps, and from the police. That’s
what I’m going to do”.

The word “do” in second sentence of conversation replaces the word “protect”. So, the word “do” substitute the word “protect”.

In other hand, Halliday (1976:31) also distinguishes between substitution and reference, he said: “By contrast to substitution, which is a grammatical cohesion, reference is a semantic relation. One of the consequences of this distinction, as we shall see, is that substitution is subject to a very strong grammatical condition: the substitution must be of the same grammatical class as the item for which it substitutes. This restriction does not apply to reference. Since the relationship is on a semantic level, the reference item is in no way constrained to match the grammatical class of the item it refers to. What must match are the semantic properties”.

From the explanation above the differences between substitution and reference is, for substitution, something which is substituted must be in same grammatical class while of reference, the grammatical class can distinguish by note the meaning which is referred is same.

In English, substitution has a function to replace noun or verb or clause. Halliday and Hassan (1976:89) defined the different types of substitution as a
grammatical relation in the wording. They introduce three types of substitution: nominal, verbal and clausal.

(1) Nominal substitution

Nominal substitution is one of kinds of substitution. The part which is substituted is nominal class. Substitute of this substitution is one/ones, same, and so. (Halliday, 1980: 112)

The function of substitution one/ones as head of a noun phrase and it will be able to substitute the part to head in noun phrase as Halliday (1976: 91) said that the substitution one/ones always functioned as head a nominal group, and can substitute only for an item which it is Head of a nominal group.

I knew that all of them were cows which are sold by farmers at varying prices, and that an expensive cows was better than a cheap one.

From the example above explains that the word “one” always function as head, and it substitutes the word “cows” that function as a head in “expensive cows”. And the function of the word “one” is as head in a phrase “a cheap one” which substitutes the word “cow”.

it is not only “one/ones”, but “so” is also included in nominal substitution. It is not like substitute “one” that function as head of phrase, but substitute “so” always function to substitute all part of nominal phrase.
He asked in a quiet voice, “Firdaus, do you remember the first time we met?”

“yes”.

“Ever since that day I have been thinking about you.”

“And I, too, have been thinking about you.”

“I have been trying to hide my feelings, but it’s no longer possible.”

“So have I.”

For the example above, the function of the word “so” as mentioned above is as substitution that substitutes all nominal phrase “my feelings.”

(2) Verbal substitution

Nominal substitution is one kinds of substitution. The part which is substituted is verbal class. The substitutes is “do and do so” (Halliday, 1976:122).

Substitution “do” always function as head of verb phrase, and the position is always in the end of phrase. Based on Halliday (1980: 112) said that the verbal substitute in English is “do”. This operates as head of a verbal group, in the place that is occupied by the lexical verb; and its position is always final in the group.

Substitution “do so” is always used than substitution “do” if the point is focused on Head likewise a lexical verb, as Halliday said,
wherever the focus of information is required to fall on the Head of the verbal group—the lexical verb its self, as opposed to an auxiliary in the substitute takes the form *do so* (1976: 122).

... 

“what do you want of me?” I asked

“I want to protect you from other men.” He replied.

“but no one else besides you is menacing me.”

“if it isn’t me, it will be someone else. There are pimps running around everywhere. If you want me to marry you, I’m perfectly willing to do so.”

“I don’t see the need for you to marry me as well. It’s enough that you take what I earn. My body at least is mine.”

The function of the word “so” is a substitution. It substitutes the verb phrase “to protect you from other men”.

(3) Clausal substitution

Clausal substitution is the last types of substitution. The function of clausal substitution to substitute entire clause, it is not only on parts of elements of clause. The word which is used to substitute is “so and not”. There are three environments in which clausal substitution take place, they are; report, condition, and modality. In each environments, there are two forms; positive and negative. Positive form can be expressed by using
substitution “so”, and negative form can be expressed by using substitution “not” (Halliday and Hassan: 130-131).

2.1.3.3 Ellipsis

Ellipsis is omission of parts of sentences under the assumption which the context make the meaning clear, in some cases sometime we think that do not need some replacer to replace the word or phrases because without that phrase or word we can understood the meaning or mean or phrase or word, and then the word or phrase which already understood is omitted.

There are some definitions of ellipsis from some linguists. According Hoey (1983: 110) treats ellipsis as deletion that occurs “when the structure of one sentence is incomplete and the missing element(s) can be recovered from a previous sentence unambiguously”. Thompson (2004: 180) defines ellipsis as “the set of resources by which full repetition of a clause or clause element can be avoided”. He distinguishes between substitution and ellipsis. That ellipsis omits the last part of elements in sentence that has same meaning and clear understanding, and this element occurs with incomplete sentence but it can be understood, because the incomplete elements in the sentence has covered all of the elements in sentence from the previous message. For example:

“Did life teach you to kill?”

“Of course it did.”

From the example above, it can be understood that the short answer of this conversation has been understood. The sentence “it did” is the short answer
because it is the result of omitting of the question “did life teach you to kill?”. “it did” shows that the answer has covered all the elements of sentence and has clear meaning. Like the last sentence that just with “I have” answer, all can use ellipsis theory if the purpose or mind is same.

Fawcett (2000: 190) introduced the definition of ellipsis as recoverability at the level of form. He also told about co-ordination that occurs when clauses form a single element of structure. Ellipsis often occurs in co-ordinative clauses when there are semantic and syntactic similarities between two units (Fawcett 2000: 264), for example;

She could not read or write and know nothing about psychology,

(He could not read or write and she could not know nothing about psychology)

If see from the differences of both of them, the first sentence is ellipsis sentence, because it has same point, it is “she could not”. And second sentence, there is no ellipsis. It’s only to give understanding about ellipsis. This ellipsis is only omitting subject and auxiliary.

Eggins (2004: 147) said about minor clauses and explores the connection between clause structure and contextual dimensions. She notes that in a dialogue there is a correlation between the different structure of an initiating move and the structure of a responding move (Eggins, 2004: 147). Minor clauses or ellipsis are typically involved in responding moves and therefore responses are short, for example;
“And have you eaten yet?”

“Yes, I have.”

“I have” is a ellipsis. The complete answer of this ellipsis is “yes, I have eaten yet”. The answer can use ellipsis by omitting all of elements after subject and auxiliary. Because of ellipsis (I have) has covered all the elements that same point.

As Halliday (1976:142), there are three types of ellipsis, they are; nominal ellipsis, verbal ellipsis, and clausal ellipsis.

(1) Nominal Ellipsis

Halliday and Hasan (1976: 148) said that: any nominal group having the function of head filled by a word that normally functions within the modifiers is an elliptical one.

It is meant that the omitting is one part in nominal phrase. This ellipsis is marked by omitting head of nominal phrase. The omitting head is replaced by a word that has a function as modifier in nominal phrase. In other words, nominal ellipsis is marked by shift modifier position to head position in nominal phrase.

(2) Verbal Ellipsis

It is omitting a part of element in verbal group. It forms relation cohesion which deals with one word or more than it that has

Lexical ellipsis is omitting verb in verbal group. The element of verbal group which is ellipted can be begun of right composing part to left. Although, the exist element is only operator element. This operator element can come from verbal group which is reference, or it is new operator, example:

"And have you eaten rice yet?"

"Yes, I have."

And have you eaten rice yet?.-. Yes, I have (eaten rice yet)

(3). Clausal ellipsis

Clausal ellipsis is always used for sentence question that is only need the answer yes/no. it is marked by the losing all the sentence that is referenced, for example:

"Do you want to eat?"

"Yes."

From the example above, it can be mentioned that all the component of sentence is omitted except “yes”. the component of sentence that is replaced by the word “yes” is subject, verbal group, and the object of sentence. it is only covered by the word “yes”.
2.1.3.4. Conjunction

Conjunction is a word which connecting word or phrases or clauses. But in our daily life we found conjunction also connecting two or more idea in a sentence. As Halliday (1976:226) said that conjunction can be classified into four parts, they consist of additive, adversative, clausal, and temporal.

(1). Additive

The coordination which is put in front of a new sentence is additive. The conjunction that is included in additive kinds is; and, and also, or, nor, furthermore, by the way, in other words, thus, likewise, on the other hand, else, etc. Example:

When I cooked fish I used to give it all to him, and just take the head or the tail for myself. Or if it was rabbit I cooked, I gave him the whole rabbit and nibbled at the head. (p. 48)

(2). Adversative

Adversative is the relation which abstain the perception before. As according Halliday and Hasan (1976: 250) said that: “The basic meaning of the adversative relation is ‘contrary of expectation’.” And the conjunction that is included in adversative is; yet, but, though, only, however, actually, on the contrary, instead, at least, anyhow, etc.

Example:
The same touch, the same consistency, the
same naked cold. Yet the cold did not touch me,
did not reach me. (p.7)

(3). Clausal

Clausal conjunction is consisted of; so, therefore, for, because,
in that case, otherwise, under the circumstance, etc. Example:

I could not understand where this girl had sprung from, nor realize that she could only be me. For I was always dressed in a long gallabeya which trailed along the ground, and no matter where I went it was always barefoot. (p.20)

(4). Temporal

It explains about correlation that deals with time ordered. Temporal conjunction is consisted of; then, next, soon, at once, in the end, meanwhile, just then, etc. Example:

I could hear his bed creak as he lay down,
followed after some time by the sound of his regular snoring. Then, only, was I assured that he had fallen asleep.
2.2. Previous Studies

As the other writers have done in doing the research, having been aware of the previous studies is really important to get more qualify in research. There are some writers who writing in same field.

The first is according Ulfi Dina Hamida (2012), “Grammatical And Lexical Cohesion in translated text of Susilo Bambang Yudhoyono’s speech of Jakarta bomb attacks”. In her study, the researcher conducts a research with qualitative research approach in content or document analysis method to analyze the speech. There are two result of study, they are findings of grammatical and lexical cohesive devices are used in translated text of Susilo Bambang Yudhoyono’s speech of Jakarta bomb attacks. And her data analysis reveals that grammatical cohesive devices occurring in translated text of Susilo Bambang Yudhoyono’s speech are conjunction, reference and substitution. In her findings, she also found grammatical cohesive devices which is often occur and rarely occur in translated text Susilo Bambang Yudhoyono’s speech of Jakarta bomb attacks, and she rank or staged from grammatical cohesive devices which frequently occur until grammatical cohesive devices which is rarely occur. First, the most frequently occurring cohesive devices is conjunction, in translated text of Susilo Bambang Yudhoyono’s speech of Jakarta bomb attacks conjunction is grammatical cohesive devices which often occur. Second is references, in translated text of Susilo Bambang Yudhoyono’s speech of Jakarta bomb attacks references is grammatical cohesive devices which frequently occur after conjunction and the last is substitution. she presented data based on the rank or stage from grammatical
cohesive devices often occur and rarely occur in translated text of Susilo Bambang Yudhoyono’s speech of Jakarta bomb attacks. Lexical cohesive devices occurring in translated text of Susilo Bambang Yudhoyono’s speech are repetition, hyponymy, metonymy and antonymy.

The second is Anik Suprianti (2013), “The Grammatical Cohesion and Context of Situation in the Articles of Hot English Magazine and Hello Bali Magazine”. In her thesis, she analyzed the types of grammatical cohesion and situational context which is found in Hot English and Hello Bali. She also used the context theory and cohesion as Halliday and Hasan (1985 and 1976). The method of this thesis is qualitative method. The data analysis that is used by the writer is, the writer read, understanding, give a mark and write it down as related to the topic. The result of this analysis show that the article of this magazine which is used has 3 context situation types, they are field, tenor and mood. And found the types of grammatical cohesion, they are reference, substitusion, and conjunction.

And the last is Jamilah (2009), “Grammatical and Lexical Cohesion of Jurnalistic Text and Fiction Text”. In her thesis, she explained that her thesis is about cohesion in jurnalistic and fiction texts. The main object of the research is to know the cohesion devices (grammatical and lexical cohesion) integrate the sentences in both jurnalist text and fiction text and also she want to know about the dominant cohesion devices which are used in both texts as distinguish between them. In her thesis, to analysis her study, she applied descriptive and comparative method. In discussing the research she used the cohesion devices theory by
Halliday and Hasan. She also concluded that the dominant cohesion devices are more dominant in fiction text. However, although they have different intensity in using cohesion devices items, cohesion devices are the important role in integrating the texts although they occur in the different type of the text.

There are three previous studies in my thesis, the first previous study of its analysis used translated text of speech and the method is qualitative approach. This study of this previous study focus on grammatical and lexical cohesion in term of discourse analysis. While of second previous study is The Grammatical Cohesion And Context Of Situation In The Articles Of Hot English Magazine And Hello Bali Magazine. The method that is used is qualitative method. This analysis is studied by using discourse Analysis. And the third is Grammatical and Lexical Cohesion of Jurnalistic Text and Fiction Text by used the descriptive and comparative method and it used discourse analysis as its study.

From three previous studies above, the writer can make conclusion. There is similarity with my thesis. And, it uses discourse analysis as the study. And the differences of this thesis is the focus of the study, they use grammatical and lexical cohesion in text but in my thesis only focus on grammatical cohesion and function of grammatical cohesion with descriptive qualitative method.

So, in this study, the writer focuses on sentences in Nawal El-Saadawi’s Woman at point Zero that is included in grammatical cohesion and it will be described detail one by one the function based on the types of grammatical cohesion with Halliday’s theory.