

CHAPTER II LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Grammatical Cohesive Devices: Definition and Theory

According to (Eggins, 1994), the term "cohesion" refers to the way parts of discourse relate to each other. Cohesion refers to several features of a text, such as semantic relationships within a text, coherence of participants, and relationships in terms of lexical choices. Similarly, Halliday and Hasan (1976, p. 8) describe cohesion as the semantic relationship between textual elements and other elements relevant to the interpretation of the text. (Baker, 1992) relates cohesion to the study of textual equivalence and defines it as the network of lexical, grammatical, and other relationships that establish connections between different parts of a text.

Cohesion refers to the relationship between text elements such as words, phrases, and sentences and other elements such as pronouns, nouns, and conjunctions. Cohesion involves the relationship between words and pronouns relating to the resolution of the orientation of the word's meaning (object of reference). It also includes words that often occur together in a text (collocation) and the relationship between words that have the same, related, and different meanings (lexical cohesion).

Cohesion also takes into account the semantic relationships between sentences and how they are expressed through the use of linking words. Other aspects of cohesion are how words like "one" and "do" are used to replace other words in the text (substitution) and how words or phrases are omitted from the text (suspension points). All of these contribute to the unity of the text.

2.1.1 Types of Cohesion

Halliday and Hasan (1976, p. 6) define cohesion in two ways: grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion. Grammatical cohesion is divided into four types: reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction.

2.1.2 Grammatical Cohesion Devices

Grammatical cohesion is divided into four areas: reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction. These are explained in more detail below.

1) Reference

Reference refers to a linguistic element that is not interpreted semantically, but refers to another element whose context is clear to the sender and receiver. References show the relationship between language and the world. References are used to find the expected information in a text that must be identifiable to be considered consistent. References are divided into three types: personal references, demonstrative references, and comparative references (Halliday and Hasan, 1976, p. 37).

a. Personal Reference

A personal reference is a reference that uses a function in a conversational situation, for all categories of people. The category of people includes three classes of person pronouns (I, you, we, he, she, they, it, and one), possessive pronouns (mine, yours, ours, his, hers, theirs, and its), and possessive determiners (possessive adjectives) a type of functional word used before a noun to express possession or possession (my, your, her, his, our, their).

b. Demonstrative Reference

Halliday and Hasan (1976, p. 37) note that demonstrative reference is based on locality, in the degree of proximity. This category of reference includes two classes, namely: nominative demonstratives and circumstantial demonstratives. Nominative demonstrative: this, these, that, those, and complex circumstantial demonstrative: here, there, now, then. Examples of demonstrative references are:

“Will you play football today?”

“Of course,” said Rendy.

“Okay. You’ll see me there,” said Tedi.

From the sentences, there refers to the place where playing football will happen

c. Comparative Reference

Comparative references are cohesion in the form of references that show a comparison between one thing and another. There are two types of comparative references, namely: "general" comparison and "specific" comparison. General comparisons are only about comparisons in terms of similarities and dissimilarities, without regard to specific features: two things can be the same, similar, or different (where "different" includes "not the same" and "not similar"). Here's an example of a general comparison and a specific comparison.

- General comparison:

*They were three **different** shapes.*

The word different in that sentence means **different** to each other.

- Particular comparison:

*She is a **better** woman than I am.*

The sentence is a comparison of quality, with an Epithet as comparative, and I as a *referent*.

2) Substitution

Substitution is the act of replacing a linguistic element with another linguistic element used to replace repetition. They also explained that there are three types of substitution, namely: nouns (one/ones), verbal (do, does, did, done), and clausal (so, not).

a) Nominal Substitution (one, ones, same)

In nominal substitution, three items are occurring a substitution: one, some, and the same.

Example:

*my car has broken. I must buy a new **one**.* The word **one** is the **substitution for car**

*I shoot the hippopotamus with bullets made of platinum because if I use leaden **ones** his hide is sure to flatten them.* The word **ones** substitutes the word bullets.

b) Verbal Substitution (do/does/did/done)

Verbal substitution is the substitution of a linguistic unit in the verbal category with another linguistic unit in the same category. That verbal substitute is done.

Example:

Justin: Do you still get in touch with your old friends?

*Kamari: Yes, I **do***

In the example above, Rani replaces “**still get in touch with old friends**” by “**do**”.

I don't know the meaning of half those long words, and, what's more, I don't believe you do either. Do in that sentence substitutes for knowing the meaning of half those long words.

Does Jhon work? Yes, he does. In this sentence, do substitutes work?

c) Clausal Substitution (so, not)

Clausal substitution is a replacement of a lingual unit that categorizes clausal or sentences with other parts lingual.

Example:

Everyone seems to think he's guilty. If so, no doubt he'll offer to resign.

In the example, the word so substitutes she's guilty.

3) Ellipsis

Halliday and Hassan (1976, p. 142) state that ellipses replace zeros. This means that the text element is replaced with zero, but the meaning is still clear. Ellipsis occurs when an important component of a phrase or sentence is omitted and can only be restored by referring to the element in the previous text or sentence. Like substitution, ellipsis has nominal ellipsis, verbal ellipsis, and clausal ellipsis.

a) Nominal Ellipsis

Halliday and Hassan (1976, p. 142) divide nominal ellipsis into three categories, Numerative, and Epithet. Deictic involves the class of determiners (demonstrative, possessive, and indefinite determiners).

Example:

*My kids practice an awful lot of sports. **Both** are incredibly energetic.*

The word **both** functions elliptically. It refers back to **my kids**. The word ellipsis here is my kids.

The numerative is a segment of an ellipse that is represented by numbers or other quantitative terms with three sub-divisions: cardinal (one, two, three, four, five, etc.) and

ordinal (first, next, last, second, third, etc.). and the title and adjective are stated without regard to number (many, much, more, most, few, several, a little, lots, a bit, hundreds, etc.)

Example:

*Tiara was the **first** person to sing. Novi was **the second**. The word's **first** and **second** functions are enumerative.*

Ellipsis is in the original selection fundamental (systematic) of the options left in the structure.

Example:

*Chilies are **the most expensive** in the wet season.*

b) Verbal Ellipsis

There are two types of verbal ellipsis and operator ellipsis. The vocabulary of the deleted word group is displayed with a word oval.

Example:

*A: Have you been reading? Yes I **have***

*B: What have you been doing? **Swimming***

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

*Ryan should have been **working** every day. I don't think he **has been working**. For '**has been working**', we may omit the word '**working**' or '**been working**'. Hence, the second sentence could be '**I don't think he has been**' or simply '**I don't think he has**'.*

All of the modal operators (can, could, will, would, shall, should, may, might, must, ought to, and is to) cannot be used as lexical ellipsis, only two other operators can use the word ellipsis if they want to be bold.

Examples:

Some read and some write.

In this sentence, no word acts as an operator '*were*'. This key phrase is '***There are those who read and those who write***'.

c) Clause ellipsis

A clause ellipsis is an ellipsis within a clause. In English, clauses are considered expressions of various speech functions, for example: statements, questions, responses, and so on modal elements and propositional elements as part of the clause ellipsis structure. Capital elements consist of clause speech functions such as subjects plus finite elements in verbal groups.

Example:

*Who will plant a row of jasmine flowers in the garden? **The Duke** was.*

In this example, **we will plant jasmine flowers in the second garden** clause as a clause ellipsis.

“The duke was going to plant a row of poplars in the park”

(1) What was the duke going to do? Plant a row of poplars

(2) Who was going to plant a row of poplars in the park? The duke was

(Halliday & Hasan, 1976: 197)

In the example (1), the modal element is omitted in the answer, while in the example (2) the prepositional element is omitted.

4) Conjunction

Because of their unique meaning, conjunctive elements are essentially tools for fostering coherence. This indicates that they have a meaning all by themselves, and that meaning enables them to assume the existence of other elements. Both the text before and following them resonate with them. Conjunctions can construct semantic linkages by indicating how the next sentence relates to the previous sentence semantically. Conjunctions are seen in the text in the order in which they occur for coherence. This is because sentences in a text can only come after one another when connecting sentences.

Hence, the focus isn't the semantic relationship, but its work in interfacing linguistic components that happen in arrangement. Once more, conjunctions are not around interfacing two sentences, but moreover interfacing two semantic occasions. There are four sorts of conjunctions. They are additive, adversative, causal, and temporal. All four have diverse marker words and interface sentences in several ways based on their genuine meaning Halliday & Hasan (1976, p. 226).

a) Additive conjunction

Additive conjunction contributes to additional information without changing information in the previous clause or phrase. Here are a few things about additive conjunction: *and, and also, further (more), moreover, besides that, by the way, or, nor, neither, etc.*

b) Adversative Conjunction

The basic meanings of adversative relationships are opposite to expectations. The expectation results from the content of what is being said. An adversative conjunction is marked in the text with a coordinating conjunction but other conjunctions such as *however, instead, and in contrast* mark the difference or contrast between parts in the text.

The following are items of adversative conjunctions: *however, but, in fact, nevertheless, instead of, etc.*

c) Causal Conjunction

Causal conjunction marks the relationships of cause, effect, and reason. Causal relationships are checked with expressions such as: subsequently, consequently, and so. The same applies to casual markers of cause and effect. These are communicated in the same way, and *accordingly*, and several expressions like *as result (of that)*, *in consequence (of that)*, *because of that*.

d) Temporal Conjunction

Temporal conjunctions show the time relationship that exists between sentences. This temporal relationship is communicated in the simplest frame at that moment. In addition, there are many sequential conjunctions, such as *after that*, *an hour later*, *finally*, and other expressions
Example: ***That***, *moment as night fell, he sat down to rest*.

Grammatical Cohesive Devices according to Halliday and Hasan can be summarized in the following table:

Table 1
Cohesive Devices according to Halliday and Hasan (1976)

Types of Cohesion Devices		Example
Grammatical Cohesion Devices	1. Reference a. Personal References - Personal pronouns (<i>I, you, we, he, she, they, it, and one</i>) - Possessive pronouns (<i>mine, yours, ours, his, hers, theirs, and its</i>) - Possessive determiner (<i>my, your, our, his, her, their, its, one's</i>) b. Demonstrative References - Nominative demonstrative (<i>this, these, that, and those</i>) - Circumstantial demonstrative	1. Reference a. Personal References - <i>Tiara is a new student from Italy.</i> - <i>He sits next to me.</i> b. Demonstrative References - <i>There seems to have been a great deal of sheer carelessness. Yes, <u>that</u> is what I can't understand.</i> c. Comparative Reference - <i>It's the <u>same</u> cat as the one we saw yesterday.</i> - <i>It's a <u>similar</u> cat to the one we saw yesterday; and</i>

	(here, there, now, then) c. Comparative Reference - General comparative - Particular comparative 2. Substitution a. Nominal substitution (one, ones, same) b. Verbal substitution (do/does/did/done) c. Clausal substitution (so, not) 3. Ellipsis a. Nominal ellipsis - Deictic - Numerative - Epithet b. Verbal ellipsis - Lexical ellipsis - Operator ellipsis (can, could, will, would, etc) - Clause ellipsis 4. Conjunction a. Additive conjunction (and, and also, further (more), moreover, or, nor, etc) b. Adversative conjunction (However, but, in fact, nevertheless, etc) c. Causal conjunction (accordingly, and several expressions like as result (of that, etc) d. Temporal conjunction (like after that, an hour later, finally, at last, and other expressions)	- It's a <u>different</u> cat from the one we saw yesterday. 2. Substitution a. Nominal substitution - There are some new tennis balls in the bag. These <u>ones</u> have lost their bounce b. Verbal substitution - Do you think John already knows? I think everybody <u>does</u> c. Clausal substitution - It is going to rain? I think <u>so</u> 3. Ellipsis a. Nominal ellipsis - Samuel <u>brought</u> some carnations and Jenny's Sonic sweet peas. b. Verbal ellipsis Lexical ellipsis - Ryan should have been <u>working</u> every day. I don't think he <u>has been working</u> Operator ellipsis - Some read and some write 4. Conjunction a. Additive conjunction - <u>However</u>, Carol changes her behavior because she wants to be part of something new group. b. Adversative conjunction - No one wants to be rejected <u>but</u> to prevent rejection, we often change our behavior. c. Causal conjunction - Tiara likes to eat spicy food. After <u>that</u>, she was hospitalized due to her love of eating spicy food d. Temporal conjunction - <u>Then</u>, as dusk fell, he sat down to rest
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2.1.4 Using Cohesive Devices

When using cohesive devices, students have to consider which type they should use grammatically cohesive devices. Therefore, it is necessary to understand the correct or incorrect use of conjunctions. The following will explain the use of grammatical cohesive devices.

2.1.4.1 Grammatical Cohesive Devices

Grammatical cohesive devices are classified into 4 classes: reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction, each of these has its different type.

1) Reference

A reference in English grammar (REF-er-unit) is a person, thing, or thought symbolized or mentioned in a word or sentence (Nordquist 2020). There are 3 types of referents: personal pronouns, possessive pronouns, and possessive identifiers.

a. Personal References

Personal reference refers to something by specifying its function or part in the conversation in a particular situation. The components of personal reference include personal pronouns, possessive pronouns, and determiners of possession.

- Personal pronouns

Personal pronouns: pronouns that relate to a specific person such as (I, you, he, she, we, they). The error that occurs when students use personal pronouns is the use of incorrect or inappropriate pronouns. This causes students to incorrectly use subject pronouns in object positions or vice versa, for example in the sentence below:

I love we

They hate he

Him likes you

The sentence is incorrect because we cannot place the subject pronoun in the object position in the sentence, and the object pronoun cannot be placed in the subject position in the sentence either. The correct sentence is: *I love **them**, they hate **him**, and **He** likes you.*

- Possessive pronouns

Possessive pronouns are used to show possession or to show the person who owns the object. When using possessive pronouns, students often make mistakes in using adjectives. the mistake that students often make is placing the adjective as a noun or adjective in the example sentences below:

*That novel is **my**.*

The sentence above is wrong, pronouns should be used to replace nouns and describe the status of something without emphasizing the noun. Correct sentence: *That novel is **mine**.* Possessive pronouns can also be replaced with an **apostrophe (')** and the letter s, such as **Novi's** pencil, **Tiara's** candy, and **Papa's** car.

- Possessive determiner

Possessive determiners explain the possession of a noun. However, students still make mistakes in using conjunctions, for example as follows:

***you** favorite color is red.*

In possessive adjectives, I would be my, you would be your, he would be his, she would be her, it would be its, we would be our, and they would be their. The small error in the sentence

above is not terrible, but it would be better if we used more precise grammar. The correct sentence is: ***your*** favorite color is red.

b. Demonstrative Reference

A demonstrative References are references that use the location, with a proximity scale. Students' errors in using demonstrative references are not considering Proximity refers to how close or distant the noun mentioned by the talker is, examples of errors that often occur are as follows:

That is a nice surprise!

This must have been a nice surprise for you

These sentences are not correct when using demonstrative references. The first sentence, which is closest to the speaker, uses **This** while the second sentence, which is further away from the speaker, uses the demonstrative **That**. The correct sentences are: ***This*** is a nice surprise! ***That*** must be a nice surprise for you. If students want to use demonstrative references, they need to understand the purpose of the context. Proximity refers to how close or far away the noun mentioned by a speaker is. As another example, imagine you are at a restaurant with a friend. You could say, "This food is yummy!" if you're referring to the food on your plate. But if you want to express about the food on your partner's plate, the sentence to say would be, "That food looks good too!".

c. Comparative Reference

Comparative references are indirect references that use identity or similarity (Halliday and Hasan, 1976, p. 37). However, when using comparative adjectives, it is crucial to pay attention to the grammatical bylaws. Common mistakes that students often make when using comparative adjectives are as follows:

*He is **more** taller than his brother*

When using comparisons in sentences, students mustn't overuse them. Comparisons can be useful in some cases, but if used too much it can impact the writing. Know how to use similes and when it is appropriate to use them. The correct sentence from the example above is: *He **is** taller than his brother.*

2) Substitution

A substitution is a method of replacing a single word, phrase, or clause in an identified metric with an alternative word or phrase to compensate for word usage that was previously employed. The following types of substitution are identified: nominal, verbal, and clausal substitutions.

a. Nominal Substitution

There are three types of nominal substitution: one, one, and the same. One/one substitutes always function as the head of a nominal group and can only replace items that are the name group head. For example:

*I asked for a **glass**, but they did not have **one**.*

*I broke my **glasses** so I will have to buy some new **ones**.*

A very significant thing about the use of "one" is that it refers to an infinite number. "**One**" is to "**it**" as "**a**" is to "**the**". The students cannot use "**one**" to replace a defined object, such as "**the car**" or "**my bike**", or a proper noun, such as the name of the thing (Sony). In definite cases, it would require a pronoun, such as "**it**". Compare: "**I need a pen. Do you have one?**" and "**The car broke down. I need to take it to the mechanic.**"

b. Verbal Substitution

A verb substitution in English is "do". The substitution acts as the beginning of the verb group, replaces the lexical verb, and is always at the bottom of the group. For example:

*The people **do** lots of work during the working hours.*

*Anna **does** a good job in the office.*

Both sentences above use "**do**" but look back at the example above, the first sentence uses "**do**" and the second sentence uses "**does**". It means to do work, to perform. If you don't know the difference, it will be very difficult to use "**do/does**" in writing. Therefore, "**do**" is a bare infinitive. On the other hand, "does" is an additional infinitive, which is from the word "do" + "-es". That is, the use of "do" and "does" arises from a subject that has already been used. When followed by verbs such as She, He, It, and all singular subjects except "I", if followed by a verb, the suffix "-s" or "-es" must be added to the end of the verb letter. It can be argued that "do" is used for They, We, I, You, and also other subjects that are plural, such as the subjects "the girls", "the cats", - "the babies", "the women", "the kids", and others. And "does" is used for He, She, It, and singular subjects like "a woman", "a boy", "a man", and others.

c. Clausal Substitution

The words used as substitutions are so and not. Each of these conjunctions appears in two forms: positive or negative. So positive is expressed with so, and negative is expressed with not. An example sentence is:

A: I'm sure the news about the tsunami was just a hoax.

*B: I think **so**. I don't know, I'm a little worried.*

This word "**so**" replaces the sentence *I'm sure the tsunami news was just a hoax*. Using "**so and not**" The word "**not**" replaces the negative sentence and the word "**so**" replaces the positive sentence.

3) Ellipsis

Ellipsis is simply the substitution with zero. A starting point for a discussion of ellipsis can be the general idea that an ellipsis is something that is not said. It is the omission of a group, phrase, or clause. Ellipsis occurs in a grammatical environment similar to substitution. However, there are three types of ellipsis: nominal ellipsis, verbal ellipsis, and clausal ellipsis.

a. Nominal Ellipsis

A nominal ellipsis is a partial omission in a nominal phrase. The nominal ellipsis is characterized by the loss of the initial part of the noun phrase. This missing part is usually replaced by a word that functions as a noun phrase modifier. Thus, nominal ellipsis is characterized by a shift in the status of the modifier to the head of the nominal phrase. Examples of its use are:

*Yusuf and Arya also approached Doni. **All three** had been taught English at school. How they wished they had learned it!*

The word "**all three**" is an ellipsis example. The question is, what are the three things? All three are part of a noun phrase: All three things. But then something is missing. It is easy to provide the missing elements from the names Yusuf, Alia, and Doni, as well as the information from the starting points.

b. Verbal Ellipsis

Verbal ellipsis is when part of a word group is omitted. Which forms a consistent cohesion-binding relationship that refers to one or more words from the verb group mentioned above.

Examples are:

*"**Can** the girls help fix the machine?" Yusuf asked wonderingly. "Of course they can. Women are just as smart as men. Don't forget that!"*

The word "can" is an example of an ellipsis. It means that something is missing. "can" is an auxiliary verb, so what's missing is a lexical verb. We can reconstruct the verb phrase as a whole by looking at the previous sentence. The full verb phrase is "Can they help fix the machine?". This is a common conversational exchange where only the auxiliary verb is used as an answer, rather than repeating the entire question format.

c. Clause Ellipsis

English clauses consist of two distinct elements: models and propositions. Modal elements consist of subjects and finite elements in a language group. Propositional elements include the remainder of the language group and any additions or additions that may occur. The difference between complement and addition is that complement can be the subject of an inverse clause whereas addition is not an elliptical clause and also includes deletion of capitals and prepositions. For example:

Do you miss your Father very much?" Mother asked, rather coldly, Doni thought.
*"**Awfully**," said Doni, briefly.*

The word "**very**" is an adverb. It is an adverb that describes how much Doni misses his father. He missed him awfully - very much. Therefore "**awfully**" is an ellipsis because what is missing is the whole clause: "*I miss my father awfully*".

4) Conjunction

Conjunctions are divided into two types, namely subordination and coordination, the use of which will be easier to remember with the acronym FANBOYS (For, And, Nor, But, Or, Yet, So).

a. Subordination

Subordination is the joining of two sentences that have related ideas by combining them into a main clause (a complete sentence) and a subordinate clause (a structure whose meaning differs depending on the main clause). Examples are:

Original sentence: *Juanda stopped to help the injured man. He would be late for work.*

Revised sentence: ***Although*** *Juanda would be late for work, he stopped to help the injured man.*

This revised version includes a working independent clause (*Juanda stopped to help the injured man*) that stands as a complete sentence and a dependent clause (*although Juanda will be late for work*) that sits below the main clause. Note that the revised sentence emphasizes the fact that *Juanda stopped to help the injured man, rather than the fact he would be late for work.*

b. Coordination

The conjunctions are called coordinators, and they structure the two sentences so that they are properly connected. The conjunctions used are those in the acronym form FANBOYS (For, And, Nor, But, Or, Yet, So). Here is how they are used.

1) Coordination cause-effect: For and So

- For (cause-effect)

The coordinating conjunction “**for**” is used to join two words or sentences that have a causal relationship. Examples of sentences that use the conjunction for:

*I am a little hungry, **for** I didn't eat breakfast this morning.*

A sentence that uses the conjunction “**for**” is the cause of another sentence, for example, the sentence above *I am a little hungry, **for** I didn't eat breakfast this morning.* I am hungry, **for not having breakfast this morning.**

- So (cause-effect)

The coordinating conjunction "so" joins two words, phrases, or sentences that have a cause-and-effect relationship. Examples of sentences that combine the conjunction "so":

*I did not eat breakfast this morning **so** I am a little hungry.*

A sentence that uses the conjunction “**so**” is an effect of another sentence, such as the sentence above: *I did not eat breakfast this morning, **so** I am a little hungry.* Because I did not eat breakfast this morning, **the effect is that I am hungry.**

2) Additionally: And

The coordinating conjunction "**and**" is used to combine two words, phrases, or clauses that can provide additional information to the previous sentence. Examples of sentences that use the conjunction “and”:

Dewi likes cooking **and** eating

3) Additional in negative form: Nor

The coordinating conjunction "**nor**" is used to combine two words, phrases, or sentences that have two negative meanings. Examples of sentences using the conjunction "**nor**":

*He doesn't eat free-range chicken, **nor** doesn't drink soy milk.*

4) Contrast: But

The coordinating conjunction “**but**” is used to connect two words, phrases, or sentences that have an opposite relationship. Examples of sentences using the conjunction “**but**”:

*likes to eat fish **but** doesn't like fishing.*

5) Alternative: Or

The coordinating conjunction “**or**” is used to connect two or more possibilities, alternatives, or choices. Examples of sentences using the conjunction “**or**”:

*Do you prefer nuggets **or** spaghetti?*

6) Contrast: Yet

The coordinating conjunction "yet" is also used to connect two words, phrases, or sentences that have an opposite relationship. Examples of sentences using the conjunction “**yet**”: *I like to jog in the morning, **yet** I hate to wake up early.*

2.2 Writing

Writing is a way to express language visually. The writing system uses a collection of symbols to represent speech, which can also represent symbols such as punctuation and numbers. According to Harmer (2004, p. 31), writing is one of the four language skills that is always present and is part of the English language education curriculum the importance of writing in different educational situations. Writing encourages students to focus on using words correctly. In addition, because students think while writing, writing is also a good way for students to develop and solve problems in their minds.

Moreover, Abdulkirim (2017) in Samosir (2020) state that writing is the process of pouring the structures created in the mind into paper. Writing is an activity of expressing thoughts and feelings in writing, with the hope that it can be understood by the reader, and serves as an indirect means of communication. Writing can inspire someone to create a book that can be read well. Writing can sometimes inspire someone to write a book that is enjoyable to read. Writing can be defined as a person's ability to write down main ideas or write messages to others.

According to Nunan (2003, p. 88), writing is a thinking process that involves finding ideas, thinking about how to express them in good writing composing ideas into clear sentences and passages, and organizing those ideas into statements and paragraphs. This shows that students can explore ideas and organize them well. Writing can motivate a person to create a book that can be read well and easily understood. Writing can be interpreted as a person's ability to write down main ideas or write messages to others. Many things need to be considered in writing, such as the message from the author to the reader. To help the reader understand the message conveyed by the writer, the writer must be careful in choosing words and providing information with certain abbreviations and symbols.

2.2.1 Process of Writing

In learning to write, the writing process is very important. Teachers understand that students' writing process goes through various stages that are bound to differ. Therefore, writing usually involves planning what to write, organizing, revising, and editing what we have written to create the final version. According to Harmer (2004, p. 41), there are five stages in the writing process which are as follows:

1. Planning (pre-writing)

Pre-writing is a time to focus on the goal. Pre-writing involves reading, writing, observing, and discussing the topic before writing the first draft. This method is known as the first way.

2. Drafting/Writing

This is a summary of the first paragraph of the article. Summary of the first paragraph of the article. After choosing a topic and making the necessary preparations, the next step in the writing process is to create paragraphs. After making the necessary preparations, the next step in the writing process is to create paragraphs. When reading the first paragraph, the ideas that come to mind when writing are used as guidelines. When reading a paragraph, the ideas that come to mind while writing it are used as guide leaders.

3. Revising

It's impossible to get the whole paragraph the first time. Finishing a Paragraph for the First Time After completing the first draft, the writer should look for ways to improve his work. The way to improve performance is known as evaluation. Many students find linguistic editing, scientific data, and engineering data nowadays.

4. Editing

Editing is different from revision and must be done before revision. Editing close-up interpellations of words and sentences. After the writer completes his work the writer needs to revise it extensively.

5. Published

Read all newspaper articles for more than just a quick overview. More detailed and detailed information than ever before. A message with more detail than usual. When reading a story, writers should try harder to believe that the story has full potential. For example, one way to

promote a writer's work is to encourage friends, teachers, or parents to read. A very important revision regarding clarity concerns the clarification of ideas

2.2.2 Types of Writing

All types of writing have a purpose. It can be in the form of paragraphs, essays, stories, novels, and others. Each type of writing has its own organization. The above types of writing can generally be classified into three types in terms of their structure, depending on the purpose of the writer at the university level: narrative, descriptive, explanatory, and persuasive.

1. Narrative Text

Narrative writing is very common in books and biographies. These are stories that have a problem or event and try to find a way to solve the problem. Writers study their characters as if they were those people. They talk about real-world stories, events, and experiences. Reading stories is fun because you can immerse yourself in the story and it resonates with you.

2. Descriptive Text

Descriptive text is a type of text used by a writer or speaker to describe things, people, animals, places, or topics to readers or audiences (Groth & Wignell, 1994; Knapp & Watkins, 2005; Noprianto, 2017). The writing process consists of a clear symbol system starting from grammar, classification, completeness of characteristics, function, etc., so that readers can focus and identify what the author wrote, and readers can identify it directly by comparing what the author wrote.

3. Exposition Text

Expository writing is the general term given to academic writing. This is not a story as it is based on facts and opinions that are supported by facts and they all develop ideas that need to be illustrated with examples. Exhibition hall paragraphs and essays are usually written in

the third person. The author does not use the pronoun "I", but she, he, or it. This will give you more opportunities to write.

4. Explanation Text

Explanation is a text that explains the processes involved in the formation of phonemes which are social, scientific, and cultural. The explanation explains why and how the phenomenon occurs.

2.3 Narrative Text

A narrative is a type of spoken or written language that tells a story. The purpose of a story is to amuse the reader in various ways, whether through real or imagined experiences. Knapp & Watkins, (2005) define narrative as a powerful means of changing people's opinions and attitudes. Consider how some soap operas and television dramas use narrative to address social problems and reveal their complexity in ways that news reports and current affairs programs cannot. Narrative is also a large or macro genre that can absorb one or more other genres to maintain its dominant position.

Narrative is a type of retelling, in so many words (even if it looks like a story). Narrative is a form of writing that tells a story, story, or scene. A conceptual model that aims to track performance over time. In other words, a narrative is a text about past stories or past experiences it is the expression of a series of events linked by time and coincidence.

The narrative text is divided into three parts. There are three parts to essay writing: social work, text structure, and grammar-vocabulary aspects. They should read before writing a narrative text. The social function is to entertain, delight, and facilitate real or guided experiences in different ways. The text structure is used complete the writing stage of the narrative text, and the lexical grammar function is used to understand what kind of grammar is used in the narrative text. To write a good narrative we need to take the three steps seriously.

2.3.1 Structure of A Narrative Text

1. Orientation: The opening section introduces the characters in the story.
2. Complication: problems begin in the story.
3. Resolution: The problem or conflict in the story is
4. Reorientation / Coda: This is the moral of the story.

2.3.2 Grammatical Characteristics in A Narrative Text

1. Action verbs. Verbs that describe an action (wait, kill, walk, dig, etc.)
2. A character in a particular story (Pinocchio, Snow White, etc.)
3. Time information (one upon a time, one day, etc.)
4. Using time conjunctions (when, when, suddenly, and so on)
5. Past tense (eating, playing, writing)

2.3.3 The Purpose in Narrative Text

The purpose of writing a narrative is to entertain or amuse the reader with the story.

2.3.4 Example in Narrative

Pinocchio Story

Once upon a time, there was a servant named Geppetto. He wanted to have a son, but his wife died several years ago. One day he decided to make a doll so he wouldn't be alone. He makes dolls during the day. Finally, in the morning, he finished his work and named the doll Pinocchio. Soon he felt lonely again because Pinocchio couldn't walk or talk on his own. One night, Geppetto prayed to God that he would become a real boy. He always thought about it in his dreams.

The next morning, he was surprised to find Pinocchio still alive. He taught Pinocchio how to walk, read, talk, and much more as a human. After that, he attended elementary school. One day, Pinocchio was bored and came home late at night. When Pinocchio finally returned home, Geppetto asked him. He said he was at school, but he

Orientation

wasn't. Soon Pinocchio's nose became longer, which meant Pinocchio was lying.

The next morning, Pinocchio is kidnapped by the circus owner. Pinocchio soon becomes a slave to the circus. She is very popular because she is a talking doll. Geppetto is worried because Pinocchio hasn't come home for almost two days. He looked everywhere for Pinocchio but didn't find anything. When he looked for him in the sea, big waves hit him. When the whale woke up, he was in the whale's stomach. He couldn't find a way out.

Complication

Meanwhile, Pinocchio can leave the circus. He went home, but there was no one there. Then he looked for Geppetto in the sea. Had the same fate as Geppetto, and met Geppetto in the belly of a whale. They both came out of his stomach with fire. At the end of the story, they go home together and live happily ever after.

Resolution

2.4 Previous Researches

The research related to cohesion in writing has been carried out by several researchers.

Previous research is as follows:

The first research was conducted by Anom (et al., 2013) with the title "*An Analysis of The Narrative Writing of The Ninth Grade Students of SMP Negeri 1 Gianyar Based on Text's Cohesion and Coherence*" carried out by class 9 students of SMP and the research findings showed that there was a correlation. Validity was achieved using consistent instruments. Grammatical devices include references, substitutions, ellipses, and conjunctions. Verbal devices include repetition and conjunctions. Information integration is also achieved through program development, general structure, and time spent. Most students produced eloquent and meaningful statements, although some difficulties were encountered. This can be seen in sentence patterns: verb patterns or forms, conjunctions, spelling, word choice, plural forms, generalizations, use of text, ellipsis, use of prepositions, pronouns, adjectives, adverbs, and adverbs containing capital letters. Structured learning strategies, especially writing, should be created by teachers, with interesting topics and genetic structures that make students enjoy writing, especially writing

The second study titled *"An Analysis of The Cohesion and Coherence of The Students' Narrative Writings in SMP Negeri 2 Banjar"* by (Andayani et al., 2014) This research aims to describe and explain the coherence of stories written in English by students who researched. The results of this study show that students create five types of coherence devices to ensure coherence in their writing. This refers to 70.77% and mostly uses personal references. Followed by lexical consistency of 137 items, with conjunctions of 28.51%, substitutions of 0.57%, ellipses of 0.14%, and repetitions of 78%. (b) coherence of narratives created by students through the development of themes and overall structure; (c) Some of the consistency problems identified were problems with demonstratives (personal, demonstrative), conjunctions (auxiliary, adversarial, causal, temporal), and limited lexical items. Based on these findings, the author makes several suggestions. Namely as follows, a) The teacher can clearly explain the agglomeration device using appropriate techniques. b) Current research shows that the use of substitutions and ellipses is still low. Students' narrative writing is inconsistent in both thematic development and overall structure.

The next research is from (Kuswoyo & Oktaviani, 2022) with the title "EFL Students' Coherence and Cohesion in Writing Argumentative Essays in Indonesian University" This research investigates the coherence and coherence of students' argumentative essays at Indonesian universities. The research results show that students' argumentative essay writing is influenced by several consistent devices such as conjunctions, references, ellipses, parallel structures, and transitional terms used to connect one sentence to another, indicating that satisfactory consistency cannot be achieved. We also found some grammatical errors, such as plurals, active and passive sentences, etc.

The next research is from (Ayu 2024) "Grammatical Cohesive Devices Errors Found in Senior High School Students' Narrative Text" Senior high school involves students to deal with more complex language rules and expressing ideas in a more sophisticated way. Consequently,

senior high school students are inevitably prone to errors in their English writing, particularly in the aspect of creating cohesive and coherent text. This study aims at identifying the types and causes of grammatical cohesive devices errors found in the narrative texts written by senior high school students. This study was conducted using descriptive qualitative method. Documentation method utilized by a checklist instrument and note-taking technique were used to collect the data. The method for presenting the data analysis in this study was informal method. In analysing the data, this study employed the theory from Dulay, Burt, and Krashen (1982) to analyse the types of the grammatical cohesive errors and Richards theory (1973) to analyse the causes of the errors. The results show that all types of grammatical cohesive devices errors were found in the texts. The type of the error was dominated by the omission of reference. The interlingual factor caused the omission and misordering of references. The errors caused by intralingual factor including overgeneralization, incomplete application of rules, ignorance of rules restriction, and false concept hypothesized. These instances of errors disrupt the clarity of the text and the readers' comprehension. Therefore, study's findings reveal that senior high school students face significant challenges in using grammatical cohesive devices effectively in their narrative writing.