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COHESIVE DEVICES IN ARAMCO WORLD MAGAZINE BIOGRAPHICAL RECOUNT TEXT “WHAT’S SO FUNNY ABOUT LUCIAN THE SYRIAN?” BY ROBERT LEBLING

A THESIS

Submitted to English Language Teaching Department *Tarbiyah* and Teacher
Training Faculty *Syekh Nurjati* State Islamic Institute Cirebon
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements of Scholar Degree in
English Language Teaching Department



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ABSTRACT

Rasdeni. 14121320256. *Cohesive Devices in Aramco World Magazine Biographical Recount Text “What’s so Funny about Lucian the Syrian?” by Robert Lebling*

The study investigates the analysis of cohesive devices in Aramco World magazine biographical recount text “What’s so Funny about Lucian the Syrian?” by Robert Lebling. Cohesive devices plays an important role in the unity of the text. As implies earlier that cohesion is always related with text. Halliday & Hasan (1976: 4) state that the concept of cohesion is a semantic one, it refers to relations of meaning that exist within the text, and that define it as a text. It means that there are some elements in the text which make it united and be cohesive.

This study aims to find out what types of cohesive devices are commonly used in Aramco World magazine biographical recount text “What’s so Funny about Lucian the Syrian?” by Robert Lebling and to describe how are the applications of cohesive devices there. It is relate with the research formulation of this study. This research is designed as qualitative research where the technique of collecting the data is used documentation. The data is taken from the descriptive text in Aramco World magazine, then analyze the cohesive devices on it by using document analysis.

The result finding shows that there are all types of cohesive devices appear in that text. There are conjunction with 160 occurrences or get 35% and used to add more information to the text, reference with 148 occurrences or get 32% which dominated by pronoun that refers back to earlier discourse, general nouns with 80 occurrences or get 18% which used to generalize the word to show the writer’s attitude, repetition with 24 occurrences or get 5% which used to show the writer’s focus of discourse, ellipsis with 12 occurrences or get 3% and used mostly to omitte a noun or noun group, collocation with 11 occurrences or get 2% and used to ensure the unity and centrality of the topic of this text, synonymy with 9 occurrences or get 2% which used express the similar meaning in another lexical word, substitutions with 7 occurrences or get 2% and used to express the writer’s lexical cohesion in wording, and the last is super ordination with 5 occurrences or get 1% and used in the development of the writer’s text.

Keywords: *Cohesive devices, text, grammatical cohesion, lexical cohesion.*

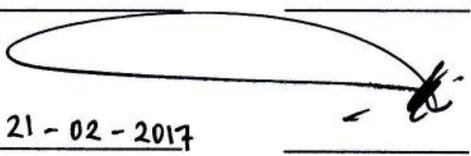


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CHAPTER I INTRODUCTION

This chapter outlines research background, focus of the study, research formulations, the aims of research, significance of the research, previous study, theoretical foundation, research methodology, research sistem, and research timeline. Research methodology consist of the the objective of the research and research design. Then the research system consist of the steps of the research, the techniques of collecting data, instrument of research, source of data and data analysis. This chapter is orientation from next chapter especially about formulation of research. Introduction is like an opening of this research consist all things related to this research before discussing the result.

1.1 Research Background

This research analyzed cohesive devices in Aramco World Magazine biographical recount text What's So Funny about Lucian the Syrian? By Robert Lebling. Cohesion have crucial role in production of text especially written text. As the student, whether in the school and university always related with the text. Especially as the students in the university, sometimes the lecture gives an assignment in form of the text. He/she instruct to make a text in the different genre or in the different type of the text; biographical recount, narrative, argumentative, descriptive, etc. because of that, the role of cohesion is crucial in the contribution to make the text become unity and be cohesive.

As Halliday and Hasan (1976: 10) argue that cohesion is exist for linking something with what has gone before. It means that cohesion plays an important role to the unity of the text. Sense of sentence-by-sentence flow by which the reader moves through a passage, with each sentence connecting to the previous one and the one that follows. The beginning of a sentence is its topic: it's what the sentence is about. The end of a sentence is its stress: it's what the sentence delivers, what's most important about it. Cohesion is important because it allows us to make multiple references to people, things, and events without reintroducing

them at each turn. If we had to repeat these every time we wanted to refer to them, the text would be very tedious to read.

There are some requirements that we need in order to make sense of the texts especially in biographical recount text. We need to understand the grammar and vocabulary used in constructing the sentences which make up each text. However, we need something else because grammar is not the only thing that accounts for the cohesion of the text. The cohesion related to the whole of the text such structure, modes, and semantic (Hyland & Paltridge, 2011:231). Grammatical sentences alone will not ensure that the text itself make sense. We need to know how the sentences relate to each other. For example, we should know ways of ensuring that those sequence of sentences are texts or not. Cohesion usually occurs in academic writing or non academic writing such biographical recount text.

A speaker or writer of language can distinguish the differences between a text and a non-text. A text must have texture (Eggins, 1994: 85). Texture is what holds the sentences of a text together to make them unity. In binding texts, it needs ties. Martin (1992: 37) states that tie is the relationship between an item and the item it presupposed in a text. It is also called a cohesive tie. There are five types of cohesive ties: reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction and lexical cohesion. These five cohesive ties produce cohesion. Halliday and Hasan (1976: 4) define that cohesion is as relations of meaning that exist within the text, and that defines it as a text. Cohesion is a semantic relation between an element in the text and some other elements that are crucial to the interpretation of it.

Cohesion is the resources within language that provide continuity in a text, over and above that is provided by clause structure and clause complexes. Halliday and Hasan (1976) in Coulthard (1974) claims that cohesion is formed by the formal ties, which bind one sentence to another. There are five headings of cohesion based on Halliday and Hasan (1976). They are reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction and lexical cohesion.

It is important in writing especially to write academic writing like biographical recount text to apply cohesion devices in order to make a writing be cohesive. The cohesive devices theory can be found in discourse analysis lesson in



the university and this is very interesting to learn about cohesive devices. The students in the university should aware about the application of cohesive devices in the text that they make, so their text become not tedious. They should know and understand the cohesive devices to make the text hang together because as the student, it is important to make a good quality text in every genre of the text. If they not mastery about cohesive devices, so the text that they make will become tedious and meaningless.

If the writer less pay attention to the placement of cohesive devices, so the reader will more confuse to understand and comprehend about the text. So the writer must be aware to use cohesive devices well, whether in non academic writing or in academic writing such biographical recount text. The choises of cohesive devices can reflect the writer's performance about their writing. Based on the explanation above, the researcher would like to analyze the application of cohesive devices in an international magazine, Aramco World biographical recount text What's so Funny about Lucian the Syrian? By Robert Lebling.

1.2 Focus of the Study

This research focused on cohesive devices that used in Aramco World biographical recount text what's so Funny about Lucian the Syrian? By Robert Lebling. The researcher analyzed the types of cohesive devices that used in "Aramco World biographical recount text What's so Funny about Lucian the Syrian?" such as reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction, and lexical cohesion. Then the researcher explained about the application of cohesive devices that used there.

1.3 Research Formulation

Based on the background of the study that have described, there are the research formulation from this study:

1. What types of cohesive devices are commonly used in Aramco World biographical recount text "What so Funny about Lucian the Syrian" by Robert Lebling?



2. How are the applications of cohesive devices in Aramco World biographical recount text “What so Funny about Lucian the Syrian?” by Robert Lebling?

1.4 Aims of the Research

Based on the questions mentioned above, the aims of the research are:

1. To find out what types of cohesive devices are commonly used in Aramco World biographical recount text “What so Funny about Lucian the Syrian?” by Robert Lebling.
2. To describe how are the applications of cohesive devices in Aramco World biographical recount text “What so Funny about Lucian the Syrian?” by Robert Lebling.

1.5 Significance of the Research

The significance of this research teoretically may give more insight to the reader about cohesive device. Especially the used of cohesive devices in the biographical recount text of international magazine Aramco World. Because the components of that text, included: words, sentences, and paragraph sould be connected. As Paltridge (2000: 139) argues that cohesive devices can help the text to be cohesive and hanging together. It means that the knowledge of cohesive devices is crucial needed to be mastered.

The significance of this research practically may give more inspiration to the next researcher to explore more about cohesive devices in others academic or non academic writing. The writer hopefully should pay attention to cohesive device in their writing. So it can help their writing to be coherence that the reader can flow and enjoy their reading.

1.6 Previous Study

This research also completed with the previous research in the same field to find the gap of the research. The unity of structure from the text is very crucial to determine how cohesive it was. Hasan (1989) cited in Paltridge (2000: 139) declares that cohesive devices contribute to the tems a text’s unity structure. Its



implies that cohesive devices determine the continuity between one part of a text and another.

Cohesive devices was introduced by Halliday and Hasan (1976) that concern how the words, sentences and paragraph of the text are inked together. They also called as cohesive ties. They (1976) argue that a text has texture, and this is what distinguishes it from something that is not a text. If a passage of English containing more than one sentence is perceived as a text, there will be certain linguistic features present in that passage which can be identified as contributing to its total unity and giving it texture.

The contribution of cohesive devices have emerged in some previous studies. First study was conducted by Wei Liu (2010) about Cohesive Devices Analysis in Humor. This study analyze cohesive devices that occur in humor. The writer chose humor as the object of the research because he argues that humor is popular among us. The writer found that there are some types of cohesive devices included in humor, such as: reference, substitution, ellipsis, inference, polysemy, and homonymy. He found out that reference is very important and useful in humor, substitution is often used in humor, ellipsis usually takes place in humor, inference in humor is the most important link for audience to understand and get across the meaning, and polysemy and homonymy are the triggers leading to the humor.

The second previous study was taken by Hmoud Alotaibi (2015). He investigated about The Role of Lexical Cohesion in Writing Quality. The research based on Halliday and Hasan's theory about cohesive devices. The model of his research deals with lexical cohesion and its subclasses, namely, repetition (same type, synonym, near-synonym, super-ordinate item, and general item) and collocation. The corpus includes five argumentative essays written by students in the field of English language literature. The results showed that the paper that received the lowest rating in terms of the writing quality was the one that included the largest number of repetition occurrences of the same type. The study concludes by arguing that repetition may not be considered as monolithic, and suggests that every type of repetition needs



to be examined individually in order to determine what enhances and what deteriorates the writing quality.

Third previous study was from Michael et.al in 2013. They investigated about discourse analysis approach of cohesion in news article. They claimed that cohesion is deemed to be outside of the structure of text because structure in text is provided by grammar. The object of this research are two Malaysian newspaper articles from the New Straits Times. This research was in the discourse analysis area. The purpose is to identify discourses that stand universally held assumptions about how different texts are created and how these discourses signify connection of specific practice and encompass a policy for change. Based on article A and article B, the writer concluded that cohesion in texts produces one class of texture through the ties that create together initiatives and experiences and texture creates meaning within language.

This research and that previous research have the same area but in the different object. This research focus on cohesive devices that used in one of article in Aramco World Magazine biographical recount text What's So Funny about Lucian the Syrian? By Robert Lebling. Now return to the vital one that cohesion can make a text semantically be cohesive. They work on the text as continuity of flowing the grammatical structure. Cohesive devices play a special role in writing especially in the article of biographical recount text form through cohesive ties. They will relate one another elements of a text until the text be cohesive.

1.7 Theoretical Foundation

In this turn, the writer took some theory that found to support the research. The writer began to talk about discourse analysis. Then the writer turned to talk about the relation between text and discourse, texture and textuality, spoken versus written discourse, the relation between discourse and grammar, cohesive devices itself and the role of cohesion in the proportional of discourse. Finally, the writer talked about the object of the research, that is biographical recount text. Point 7.1 until 7.6 adopted from Bezma (2009) that cited from Halliday and Hasan theory about cohesive devices.



1.7.1 Discourse Analysis

For many years, linguists were concerned with the analysis of single sentences where the focus was on morphology and phonology areas. Then, the attention is shifted to the sentence level by the advent of Chomsky's transformational Generative Grammar (1957). However, the analysis was not really adequate because it still focused on the formal properties of language rather than achieving meaning (Coulthard, 1977). Cook (1989) states that linguists have become aware of the use of context and language function. This awareness came with Harris's paper published with the title 'Discourse Analysis' in 1952. However, Zellig Harris was a sentence grammarian, he shifted attention towards sentences in combination; i.e., there was a sequence to produce coherent stretches of language (rules of use). Then, it is important to notice that earlier there was an attempt in discourse analysis where the emergence of other disciplines such as: semiotics, sociology, psychology, etc. These disciplines were influenced by the study of language in context and led from 1960's to 1970's to the work of Austin (1962), Hymes (1964), Halliday and Hassan (1976), Grice(1975), M.A.K. Halliday (1973), Sinclair and Coulthard (1977), Van Dijk (1972) and many others. McCarthy (1991) state that:

Discourse Analysis has grown into a wide ranging and heterogeneous discipline which finds its unity in the description of language above the sentence and an interest in the contexts and cultural influences which effect language in use. (1991: 07)

Text grammarians on discourse analysis worked mainly with written language where they assume texts as language elements hung together to give a relationship with the other parts of the text and to give a linked text with the necessary elements.

As it is said in the early, discourse is related to many disciplines. The principal concern of discourse analysis is to examine how any



language produced by a given participants whether spoken or written is used in communication for a given situation in a given setting. Thus, discourse analysis is concerned with written and spoken forms. Discourse devices also help to string language elements.

The organization of stretches of language greater than a sentence [It] can focus on conversation, written language, when searching for patterning of the language. Discourse analysis must determine the units of these larger stretches of language, how these units are signalled by specific linguistic markers, and/or the processes involved in producing and comprehending larger stretches of language.

(Fine: 1988: 01)

Yule (1996) asserts that discourse structure is very important. It focuses on the main elements that can form a well-stretched text. These structural connections between sentences create cohesion. Moreover, the study of discourse is based especially on a pragmatic view where the background knowledge, beliefs and expectations are taken into consideration; i.e., what the speakers or writers have in mind. Another definition of discourse analysis is quoted from (Allen and Corder, 1974: 200) “discourse analysis is taken to be the investigation into the formal devices used to connect sentences together”.

1.7.2 Text and Discourse

It is noteworthy that text exists in both written and spoken language. In the former, the writer who produces it whereas in the latter it becomes language in use only if it is recorded, i.e., it will create discourse. Thus, text is a linguistic product of discourse that can be studied without reference to its contextual elements as an evidence of linguistic rule. Text is the linguistic content; the stable semantic meaning of words, expressions, and sentences, but not the inferences available to hearers depending upon the context in which words, expressions and sentences are used (Schiffrin, 1994: 363-364).



However, what is important is that the text can only include some factors from the context which can be relevant to its interpretation. A text is not just a sequence of sentences strung together, but a sequence of units, be they sentences or parts of sentences; connected in some contextually appropriate ways. A text as a whole must exhibit the related, but distinguishable properties of cohesion and coherence (Lyons, 1983:198). Thus, cohesion is concerned with formal connectedness. Moreover, schemas' activation according to McCarthy (2001) is very necessary to contribute to forming a text because:

The text is not a container full of meaning which the reader simply downloads. How sentences relate to one another and how the units of meaning combines to create a coherent extended text is the results of interaction between the readers world and the text.

(McCarthy, 2001:97)

Thus, text and discourse are used interchangeably focussing on language "beyond the sentence." In other words, to take context as part of any utterances or sentences.

Halliday and Hassan (1976) provided the most appropriate definition of the 'text'. They consider a text as written or spoken stretches of the text; i.e., a text as stretch of written or spoken language which proposes that language follows a linear sequence where one line of text follows another with each line being linked to the previous line. This linear progression of text creates a context of meaning. Contextual meaning at the paragraph level is referred to as coherence while their internal properties of meaning is referred to as "cohesion". The following definition will determine the main factors that constitute a text:

A text is a unit of language in use. It is not a grammatical unit, like a clause or a sentence; and it is not defined by its size. A text is sometimes envisaged to be some kind of super sentence, a grammatical unit that is



larger than a sentence but is related to a sentence in the same way that a sentence is related to a clause, a clause to a group and so on: by constituency, the composition of larger units out of smaller ones . But this is misleading. A text is not something that is like a sentence, only bigger; it is something that differs from a sentence in kind. A text does not consist of sentences, it is realized by, or encoded in, sentences.

(Halliday and Hassan, 1976:1-2)

Thus, the ability of the speaker to stretch a given discourse can be said to constitute a text. Cohesion then is a principle factor in determining texture since it is a means through which we can relate our utterances or sentences.

1.7.3 Texture and Textuality

According to Halliday and Hassan (1976) a text is a text rather than a mere sequence of sentences. This is due to the linguistic features that cause sentences to stick together; i.e. what makes sentences constitute a text depends on “cohesive relationships” within and between sentences which create “texture”: A text has texture and this is what distinguishes it from something that is not a text. The texture is provided by the cohesive relations (1976: 2), what makes any length of text meaningful and coherent has been termed” texture”. Texture is the basis for unity and semantic interdependence without text, and text without texture would just be a group of isolated sentences with no relation to one another. Moreover, cohesion relates to the “semantic ties” within text where by a ties is made when there is some dependent link between items that combine to create meaning. Therefore, texture is created within text when there are properties of coherence and cohesion outside of the apparent grammatical structure of the text.

Texture otherwise referred to as textuality denotes the “property of being a text”. Whereby cohesion seems as a major contributor to them. Thus, textuality defined by De Beaugrande and Dressler (1981) in terms of communicative function the text is supposed to realize. Textuality is



determined by some factors which depend on the participants, the intended message and the setting of occurrence ...etc. Beaugrande and Dresslersum up these factors in seven standards of textuality in which they can fulfil the communicative function of any text. These standards are:

- Cohesion: it is the first standard of textuality; it refers to the surface relations between the sentences that create a text. i.e. to create connected sentences within a sequence. The formal surface of the text components works according to grammatical forms and conventions. It helps the reader/ hearer to sort out the meaning and uses.
- Coherence: it refers to the relations held between the underlying surface text, which is made of concepts and relations and the amount of their relevance to the central thought of the text. Moreover, the concepts refer to the knowledge which can be activated in the mind whereas relations refer to the connection between the surface texts (concept).
- Intentionality: it refers to the text producer's attitudes that the set of linguistic resources of the text should handle the text in a way that fulfil the procedures intentions and communicates the message to be conveyed in an appropriate and successful way.
- Acceptability: it concerns to the text receivers' attitude that the set of linguistic resources the text should provide the receiver an ability to perceive any relevance of the text in question.
- Informativity: it refers to the extent to which the presented information is known or not to the text receiver; i.e., it refers to the newness or the givenness of the information presented in the text. A text is said to be informative, no matter to its form and content.
- Situationality: it refers to the factors that make up a text relevant to a situation of occurrence; i.e., it is crucial for cohesion where it can determine what is said, by whom, why, when and where.
- Intertextuality: it concerns the factors which make the use of one text dependent upon knowledge of one or more. A text, in fact, belongs to a wider receiver is actually able to encounter the intended message.



1.7.4 Spoken versus Written Discourse

Discourse analysis have made a clear distinction between written and spoken discourse, and gradually they have become aware of the need to study each separately. Thus, there are differences between written and spoken discourse in terms of the regularities governing each of them.

Spoken language involves some problems which are absent in written discourse because in written discourse, the writer has usually a little time to think about what to say and how to say it. So, the spoken language involves a degree of spontaneity that is absent in the written language. For that, in spoken language, the speaker may make false starts or slips of the tongue which can be corrected in the ongoing speech.

When the speaker utters a given verbal account, it is most probably not preplanned unless when the speech given is presented in terms of a lecture based on a written record. Furthermore, the spoken language can be adjusted according to the interlocutor by the use of some international and paralinguistic features available to the speaker. The speaker also can ensure comprehensibility by modifying the utterances then to communicative situation, wherever the interlocutor shows a sign of comprehension (Brown and Yule, 1983).

On the other hand, in the written discourse, the writer has also the right to modify some written language where it is necessary, as well as, he has the possibility to check some words in a dictionary wherever he need and to cross others too. Brown and Yule (1983) also emphasize the fact that the written discourse is encountered by the reader, the writer would not be able to clarify the intended meaning any more and thus he can be doubtful about what the receiver can intend from the message conveyed.

Cook expressed very explicitly the differences between the spoken and the written discourse emphasizing on their characteristics.

Spoken language, as has often been pointed out, happens in time, and must therefore be produced and processed on line. There is no going back and changing or restructuring our words as there is in writing; there is often



no time to pause and think, and while we are taking or listening, we can not stand back and view the discourse in spatial or diagrammatic terms.

(Cook, 1989:115)

Although the differences found between written and spoken language, Nunan (1993) pointed that, the spoken and written text share the same function of characteristics as to get things done, to provide information and to entertain. However, the difference between them is the context; i.e., The situation to what, how and when the text is performed. The written text for example is needed to communicate with people who are not at the same setting, or for those occasions on which a permanent or semi-permanent record is required. Nunan (1993) emphasizes that the characteristic of written and spoken language differ on the basis of the concept of “genre,” where these differences can be observed within the sentences at the level of text structure.

Unlike Nunan, Brown and Yule (1983) pointed that there are some differences between speech and writing in terms of language function whereas, spoken language is designed to establish relationship with people, so it has initially an “interactional” function; written language is designed for the transference of information and so has a “transactional” function; written language is designed for the transference of information and so has a “transactional” function.

The distinction between written and spoken language highlights some regularities governing both of them. Text linguists are concerned with “What norms or rules do people adhere to when creating texts? Are texts structured according to recurring principles, is there a hierarchy of units comparable to acts, moves and exchanges, and are there conventional ways of opening and closing texts?”(McCarthy, 1991: 25). The answers to these questions bring out insights about the well formedness of a written text which can be raised in the grammatical regularities, where grammatical cohesion may display cohesive texts.



We shall consider some grammatical regularities observable in well-formed written texts, and how the structuring of sentences has implications for units such as paragraphs, and for the progression of whole texts. We shall also look at how the grammar of English offers a limited set of options for creating surface links between the clauses and sentences of a text, otherwise known as cohesion. Basically, most text display links from sentence to sentence in terms of grammatical features such as pronominalisation, ellipsis (the omission of otherwise expected elements because they are retrievable from the previous text or context) and conjunction of various kinds. The resources available for grammatical cohesion can be listed finitely and compared across language for translatability and distribution in real texts.

(McCarthy, 1991:25)

1.7.5 Cohesion

Cohesion is a semantic property of a text sticking together in some way. A cohesive text tends to link its sentences together semantically. This semantic aspect of cohesion has a relation with the reader who interprets the elements in a given co-text depending on the other element within the same co-text. Halliday and Hassan assert that: “Cohesion occurs where the interpretation of some element in the discourse is dependent on that of another. The one presupposes the other in the sense that it can not be effectively decoded except by resources to it.”

In fact, the presupposition is an important aspect in cohesion because it extracts the unrelated sentences by the connected one. Thus relations in meaning of any sentence depending on the surrounding elements. In other words “cohesion refers to the range of possibilities that exist for linking something with what has gone before. Since this linking is achieved through relations in meaning”. (Halliday and Hassan, 1976:10).

To illustrate, let us examine the following example: “Wash and core six cooking apples. Put them in a fire proof dish” the item “them” in



the second sentence refers back to “six cooking apples” in the first sentence. In this, since we cannot understand the second sentence without referring to the first one which gives sign to what “them” stands for. That is to say, “them” is an item to which it facilitates the reader’s understanding of the relation between sentences in the text.

As in the case of the above example, cohesion is focused on the relation of the boundaries between sentences rather than within sentences. In other words, it is interested in the “intersentence” which ensure texture. Moreover, although cohesion exists within the limit of a single sentence, it is of less importance because the sentence is naturally cohesive due to its grammatical structure. Cohesion ties between sentences stands out more clearly because they are the only source of texture, whereas within the sentence there are the structural relations as well (Halliday and Hassan, 1976: 09).

For instance, “If you happen to see the admiral don’t tell him his ship’s gone down” in this sentence, “His” and “Him” refer to “admiral” in the first half of the same sentence. Thus, the realization of cohesion within the sentence is governed by rules of pronominalisation; i.e., the use of a given pronoun to be referred to is determined by the sentence structure. For example a sentence such as “John took John’s hat off and hang John’s hat on a peg: cannot be accounted as a cohesive sentence unless we use some of the pronominal forms to be referred to the identity of the pronominal form. Then, let us consider that we are talking about the same “John” and the same “hat.” Meanwhile, we get sentence structured as “John took his hat off and hang it on a peg” in which “his” referred to “John” and “it” referred to “hat” Halliday and Hassan (1976). The intersentence cohesion is the most important aspect in cohesion. Halliday and Hassan point out that:

Cohesion relations have in principle nothing to do with sentence boundaries. Cohesion is a semantic relation between an element in the text and some other element that is crucial to the interpretation of it: but its



location in the text is in no way determined by the grammatical structure the two elements, the presupposing and the presupposed, may be structurally related to each other or they may not.

(Halliday and Hassan, 1976:08)

It is noteworthy that cohesion within the sentence may focus on the way cohesion works beyond the sentence. Thus, the use of rules of pronominalization can explain the function of cohesion at the intersentence level. But, these rules can not be always sufficient to ensure intersentence level, because lexical cohesion is one instance of this. As such then, we will infer that there is more than one type of cohesive devices. Meanwhile we need to say few words about textuality and Grammatical cohesion.

There are some experts that concern in the field of cohesive devices.

Halliday and Hasan explained about cohesive devices in 1976. The theory of cohesive devices in their book, *Cohesion in English* was discussed the types of cohesive devices in detail and complete. They mentioned the types of cohesive devices include: reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction, and lexical cohesion. Each of those types have their kinds. Halliday and Hasan (1976: 5) states that cohesion is part of the system of a language, also expressed partly through the grammar and partly through the vocabulary. It means that cohesion related to the whole part of a text whether it is spoken or written.

Second expert who give the description and explanation about cohesive devices is Brian Paltridge (2000) in his book, *Making Sense in Discourse Analysis*. He have the same point of view with Halliday and Hasan (1976) about the types of cohesive devices. In the term of conjunction, there is a bit differences of the kinds of conjunction with Halliday and Hasan's theory.

The third expert that donate the notion of cohesive devices are Hyland and Paltridge in 2011. They (2011: 231) declares in their book *The Continuum Companion to Discourse Analysis* that cohesive devices make links within and across texts. say that cohesion is the grammatical and



lexical relationship which tie a text together. Cohesion occurs where the interpretation of some element in the discourse is dependent on that of another. The one presupposes the other, in the sense that it cannot be effectively decoded except by recourse to it. When this happens, a relation of cohesion is set up, and the two elements, the presupposing and the presupposed, are thereby at least potentially integrated into a text, meanwhile, cohesion is part of the system of a language.

This research used Halliday and Hasan's theory of cohesive devices. Their theory is the most complete theory that helped the researcher to find out the answer of the research questions. The data also analyzed by using Halliday and Hassan's theory about cohesive devices according to their book *Cohesion in English* (1976).

1.7.6 Types of Cohesive Devices

Halliday and Hassan (1976) provide us with the basic categories of grammatical cohesion pointing that we can systematize this concept by classifying it into a small number of distinct categories, they refer to them as: reference, substitution ellipsis and conjunction; these categories have a theoretical basis and specific types of grammatical cohesion, which has also provide a practical means for describing and analyzing texts.

1.7.6.1 Reference

One of the options that grammar of English offers creating surface links between sentences is reference. Halliday and Hassan (1976) point out that reference features can not be semantically interpreted without referring to some other features in the text. Pronouns is the most common linguistic element as referring devices in a textual environment. However, there are other linguistic elements used to fulfill the same function such as: articles, demonstratives and comparatives.

Reference can be accounted as "exophoric" or "endophoric" functions. This is because simply when we refer to a given item, we expect thereader to interpret it by either looking forward, backward and outward. Exophoric involves exercises that require the reader to



look out of the text in order to interpret the referent. The reader, thus, has to look beyond or out of the text with a shared world between the reader and the writer. “Exophoric reference directs the receiver ‘out of ‘the text and into an assumed shared world” (McCarthy, 1991: 41). For example, ‘that must have cost a lot of money’ in this example we have to look out of the situation to retrieve the meaning of the sentences (Halliday and Hassan, 1976).

Endophoric function refers to the text itself in its interpretation. Brown and Yule (1983: 192) point that “where their interpretation lies within a text they are called ‘endophoric’ relations and do from cohesive ties within the text”. Endophoric reference is itself two classes: to start with, anaphoric relations is all kinds of activities which involve looking back in texts to find the referent .For example: “it rained day andnight for two weeks, the basement flooded and every thing was under water, It spoilt all our calculations” (McCarthy 1991: 36). Here the first “it” refers to the discourse it self, the second “it” refers to the event of two weeks, or the fact that it rained or flooded; i.e., the whole situation rather than an event in particular, whereas cataphoric relation looks forward for their interpretation. To exemplify the cataphoric reference she was terribly afraid. All kinds of black memories of her childhood came up to her mind. She could not fight against them as had been her custom because simply Mary Brown was dying at that moment.

This short text displays a number of cataphoric reference items which involve looking forward for determining what they refer to. In this example, all the pronouns (she/her) refer to Mary Brown. In this cataphoric reference, the referent has been with held to the last sentence in order to engage the reader’s /the listener’s attention.

Thus, Brown and Yule (1983) state that exophoric and endophoric co-reference need a processor based on mental representation .On the one hand we refer to the world, and on the other hand we refer to the



world created by the discourse. Halliday and Hassan (1976) summarize the types of references in the following diagram:

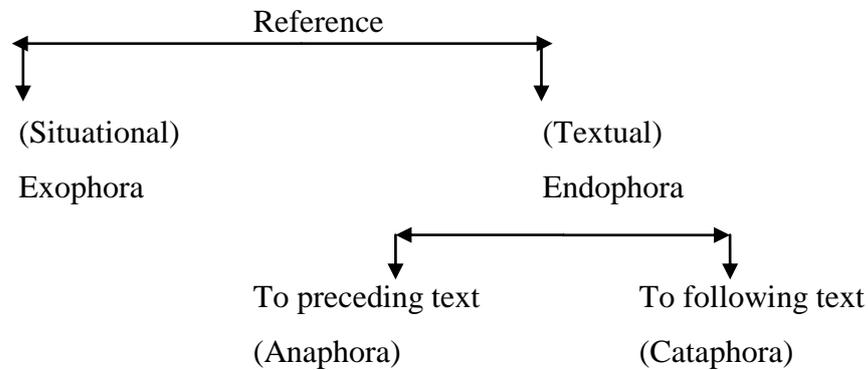


Diagram 01: Types of references

Halliday & Hasan (1976: 33) divided reference into two categories: exophora and Endophora. Exophoric reference is the reference that co-occur outside the text.

e.g:

1. I'm sorry we can't come to the phone right now but if you'd like to leave your name and telephone number, we'll get back to you as soon as we can.

2. we're at the restaurant and we'll be here for about another hour.

Example 1 is only a case of exophoric reference if the sentence is not preceded by a sentence such as "you've reached the phone of Mary and Bruce Jones." "you" and "your" in the message would still, however remain examples of exophoric reference. Equally, 'the' and 'here' in example 2 are only instances of exophoric reference if the name of the restaurant has not already been referred to earlier in the text. If it had been, these would be instances of anaphoric reference.

Anaphoric reference signifies a word or phrase that refers to another word or phrase used earlier in a text (Platridge: 2000: 132)

e.g: Stephen Downes denigrates restaurants and, in fact the very food which *he* is, sadly, in the position of 'judging.' *He* has a happy



knock of putting the reader completely off by *his* disgusting descriptions (Sartain, 1995: 16 in Platridge, 2000:132).

Cataphoric reference describes the use of a word or phrase that refers to another word or phrase which is used later in the text.

e.g: when I told *him*, *Bill* didn't really believe me.

1.7.6.2 Substitution

Halliday and Hassan (1976) state that substitution takes place when one feature (in a text) replaces a previous word or expression, for instance: "I left my pen at home, do you have one?" In this example, "one" is replaced or substitution for "pen".

It is important to mention that substitution and reference are different in what and where they operate, thus substitution is concerned with relations related with wording. Whereas reference is concerned with relations related with meaning. Substitution is a way to avoid repetition in the text itself; however, reference needs to retrieve its meaning from the situational textual occurrence.

In terms of the linguistic system, reference is a relation on the semantic level, whereas substitution is a relation on the lexicogrammatical level, the level of grammar and vocabulary, or linguistic form.

(Halliday and Hassan 1976: 89)

As such, we can substitute nouns; verbs and clauses. Kennedy (2003) points out there are three types of substitution nominal, verbal, and clausal substitution.

1.7.6.2.1 Nominal substitution

Where the noun or a nominal group can be replaced by a noun. "One"/"ones" always operate as a head of nominal group. e.g.: "there are some new tennis balls in the baf. These ones have lost their bounce." In this example, "tennis balls" is replaced by the item "ones".



1.7.6.2.2 Verbal substitution

The verb or a verbal group can be replaced by another verb which is “do.” This functions as a head of verbal group, and it is usually placed at the end of the group.

e.g. A: Annie says you drink too much.

B: So do you?

Here, ”do” substitutes “drink too much”.

1.7.6.2.3 Clausal substitution

where a clause can be usually substituted by “so” or “not”.

e.g. A: It is going to rain?

B: I think so.

In this example, the clause “going to rain” is substituted for “so”.

1.7.6.3 Ellipsis

The relation between substitution and ellipsis is very close because it is merely that ellipsis is “substitution” by zero (0). What is essential in ellipsis is that some elements are omitted from the surface text, but they are still understood. Thus, omission of these elements can be recovered by referring to an element in the preceding text. Harmer defines it: “words are deliberately left out of a sentence when the meaning is still clear” (Harmer, 2004: 24). On considering the following example:

“Penny was introduced to a famous author, but even before, she had recognized him.” It appeared that the structure of the second clause indicates that there is something left out “introduced to a famous author,” the omission of this feature kept the meaning still clear and there is no need of repetition; Carter, et. al (2000: 182) state that ellipsis occurs in writing where usually functions textually to avoid repetition where structures would otherwise be redundant.

Starkey (2004) points out that on some occasions; ellipsis is used instead of substitution for the sake of conciseness. For example

e.g.1: Every one who [can] donate time to a charity should do so.

e.g.2: Every one who can donate time to a charity should (0).



In the first example, where substitution was used, the sentence was some how wordy in comparison to the other sentence (e.g2) which seems quite concise as Starkey explains.

Substitution has three types. Kennedy (2003: 324) indicates that ellipsis is the process by which noun phrase, verb phrase, or clauses are deleted or understood when they are absent the three types of ellipsis are nominal, verbal and clausal.

1.7.6.3.1 Nominal ellipsis

Nominal ellipsis means ellipsis within the nominal group, where the omission of nominal group is served a common noun, proper noun or pronoun. e.g. “My kids practice an awful lot of sport. Both (0) are incredibly energetic.” In this example, the omission concerned with “My kids”.

1.7.6.3.2 Verbal ellipsis

Verbal ellipsis refers to ellipsis within the verbal group where the elliptical verb depends on a preceding verbal group.

e.g.: A: Have you been working?

B: Yes, I have (0).

Here, the omission of the verbal group depends on what is said before and it is concerned with “been working.”

1.7.6.3.3 Clausal ellipsis

Clausal ellipsis functions as verbal ellipsis, where the omission refers to a clause.

e.g.: A: Why did you only set three places? Paul’s, staying for dinner, isn’t he?

B: Is he? He didn’t tell him (0).

In this example the omission falls on the “Paul’s, staying for dinner”

1.7.6.4 Conjunction

Conjunction is achieved to have grammatical cohesion in texts which show the relationship between sentences. They are different from other cohesive, ties that they reach the meaning by using other



features in the discourse. Because as Nunan (1993) points out, they use features to refer to the other parts of the text in order to make relationship between sentences extremely understood. Halliday and Hassan describe it as follows:

In describing conjunction as a cohesive device, we are focusing attention not on the semantic relation as such, as realized throughout the grammar of the language, but on one particular aspect of them, namely the function they have of relating to each other linguistic elements that occur in succession but are not related by other, structural means.

(Halliday and Hassan, 1978: 227)

Williams (1983) summarized the different kinds of conjunctions in a text, based on the work of Halliday and Hassan (1976) in the following table.

Family	External/external relationship	Examples
Additive	Additive “simple” Alternative After thought Negative Expository Exemplification Similar Dissimilar	And, and also. Alternatively Incidentally, by the way. Nor, and...not. That is, I mean, in other words. For instance, thus. Likewise, similarly, in the same way. On the other hand, by contrast.
Adversative	Adversative “proper” Avowal Correction Dismissal	Yet, though, only, but, however, nevertheless, despite this. In fact, actually, as a matter of fact. Instead, rather, on the contrary, at least, I mean. In any case, in either case, whichever way it is, anyhow, at any rate, howevr it



		is.
Causal	Causal general	So, then, hence, therefore, consequently, because of this.
	Reversed causal	For, because.
	Reason	For this reason, on account of this, it follows, on this basis.
	Result	As a result, in consequence, arising out of this.
	Purpose	For this purpose, with this in mind, to this end.
	Conditional (direct)	Then, in that case, in such an event, that being so, under the circumstances.
	Conditional (reversed polarity)	Otherwise, under other circumstances
	Respective (direct)	In this respect, in this regard, with reference to this.
Temporal	Respective (reversed polarity)	Otherwise, in other respects, a side from this.
	Sequential	Then, next, after that,
	Summarizing	To sum up, in short briefly, to resume, to return to the point.
	Past	Up to now, hitherto.
	Present	At this point, here.
	Future	From now, hence forward.
	Durative	Meanwhile.
	Interrupted	Soon, after a time.
	Immediate	At once, thereupon.
	Repetitive	Next time, on another occasion.
	Specific	Next day, an hour later.
	Terminal	Until then.
Punctiliar	At this moment.	



1. Dilarang mengutip sebagian atau seluruh karya tulis ini tanpa mencantumkan dan menyebutkan sumber :
 - a. Pengutipan hanya untuk kepentingan pendidikan, penelitian, penulisan karya ilmiah, penyusunan laporan, penulisan kritik atau tinjauan suatu masalah.
 - b. Pengutipan tidak merugikan kepentingan yang wajar dari Perpustakaan IAIN Syekh Nurjati Cirebon.
2. Dilarang mengumumkan atau memperbanyak karya ilmiah ini dalam bentuk apapun tanpa seijin Perpustakaan IAIN Syekh Nurjati Cirebon.

Preceding	Previously, before that.
Simultaneous	Just then, at the same time.
Conclusive	Finally, at last.

Table 01

1.7.6.5 Types of Lexical Cohesion

The recent attempt at studying vocabulary above sentences is Halliday and Hassan's description of lexical cohesion. According to them (1976), lexical cohesion is created for the choice of a given vocabulary and the role played by certain basic semantic relations between words in creating textuality. Thus, Halliday and Hassan divide lexical cohesion into two main categories: reiteration and collocation.

1.7.6.5.1 Reiteration

Reiteration can be identified through the following classes.

1.7.6.5.1.1 Repetitions

Restate the same lexical item in a later part of the discourse.
e.g.: what we lack in a newspaper is what we should get. In a word, popular newspaper may be the winning ticket. The lexical item "newspaper" reiterated in the same form.

1.7.6.5.1.2 General nouns

They are used to refer back to a lexical item such as: person, people, man, woman for human nouns; things, object for inanimate, concrete countable nouns; stuff for inanimate, concrete uncountable; place for location, etc.

e.g1: A: Did you try the steamed buns?

B: Yes; I didn't like the things much.

e.g2: What shall I do with all this crockery?

Leave the stuff there, someone'll come and put it any way (stuff is a general noun that refers to 'crockery').

1.7.6.5.1.3 Synonymy

Used to express a similar meaning of an item.



e.g1: You could try reversing the car up the slope. The incline isn't all that steep.

(“Slope” refers back to “incline” of which it is a synonym)

E.g. 2: At 6 p.m. I hired a taxi, but because of the traffic the cab arrived later and I missed my flight.

1.7.6.5.1.4 Super ordinations

It involves the use of general class words.

E.g. This car is the best vehicle for a family of six. (Vehicle is a super ordinate of car).

1.7.6.5.2 Collocation

Collocation is the tendency of some words to co-occur together. The syntactic relations of words in which we have a combination of words by expectation; i.e., we predict the following items of a given combination by looking at the first item. The co-occurrence of certain words from a chain to ensure unity and centrality of the topic of this text. These words in chain form the lexical cohesion of the text. Nunan argued that:

Lexical cohesion is, in many ways, the most interesting of all the cohesive categories. The background knowledge of the reader or listener plays a more obvious role in the perception of lexical relationships than in the perception of other types of cohesion. Collocation patterns, for example, will only be perceived by someone who knows something about the subject at hand.

(Nunan, 1993: 30)

Thus, collocates can be words used in the same context or it can be words that contribute to the same area of meaning (Kennedy: 2003). For example, a text dealing with the chemical treatment of food contains lexical chains such as: fruit, skin, citrus, lemon, orange, chemicals, products, laboratory, etc. These words can be said to belong to the same register and contribute to the same topic.



1.7.7 Article

The article is the writing that written based on the writer's opinion or description through some sources. As Henning, et.al (2005: xv) argues that article is a piece of writing that shows how the writers have neatly organised their understanding of a topic. Shee also states that the article is the writer's view that they have about the topic, in a skilfully structured artefact. The structure and the ultimate display reveal the content in a certain way. Henning, et. al (2005:xv)

Rutherford (2003: 319) States that international article have an emphazise in several aspect are as follow:

- a. A problem that is inherently international (e.g. in international trade, exchange rates, defense, or in building or maintaining an international sphere of influence.
- b. A contemporary topic addressed in the context of another country (i.e. a country that may be a U.S. enemy, a developing country, or a peer).
- c. The history of another country, the thought of an historical figure from another country, or the thought of a contemporary figure from another country.

1.7.8 Biographical Recount Text

According to Coffin (2006: 53) A biographical recount is a genre that tells the life story of a significant historical figure. Within school history, the events focused on tend to be important moments or turning points in the person's life. Lives are thus edited and 'linearized' in a similar way to autobiographical recounts. Typically, the writer also evaluates the person and draws out the historical significance of their life. In terms of teaching and learning history, the main function of biographical recounts is to provide information about significant historical figures as well as insight into a historical era or historical question. The general, social function of biographical recount is achieved by moving through two obligatory stages and one optional stage.



Coffin (2006: 55) also states that biographical recounts are often designed to align readers' views with those of the writer concerning the historical significance and value of a historical figure. Typically, in the Evaluation of Person stage, judgements are made that appear to emerge naturally from the previous record of events. The purpose of a biographical recount is to inform by retelling past events and achievements in a person's life.

Generic structure of biographical recount consist of three parts:

➤ Orientation

It given the reader the background information as to why this person is noteworthy and should have a biography. The opening paragraph should answer the questions: who, what, where, when, and how.

➤ Series

It presents a series of events, usually told in chronological order. Here the writer might refer to a certain time on line.

➤ Re orientation

It consists of a type of conclusion with a comment on the contributions this person has made or a summary and evaluation of the person's achievement.

Language features of biographical recount are:

- A biographical recount uses specific names of the people involved in the biography.
- It is mainly written in simple past tense (the final paragraph could also include the present tense)
- A biographical recount also uses linking word to do with time
- A biographical recount describes events, so it uses many verb or action verb.
- Use of connectives to do with time (last year, then, at the same time, next, on Tuesday 24 May, later, before, meanwhile).



1.7.9 Magazine

According to Abrahamson & Miller (2015: 24) the word magazine carries an additional range of meanings specific to users' personal, educational and professional experiences and backgrounds, as well as norms that differ within and across both academic and industry sectors. Defining the magazine periodical also poses challenges unique to time, culture, and technology. As the population of magazines has grown ever larger, so too has its diversity increased, constantly changing and evolving. In general, the term magazine, as its name implies, was used to designate a general miscellany or repository of instruction and amusement. Frank Luther Mott's working definition of magazine, "... a bound pamphlet issued more or less regularly and containing a variety of reading matter" (Abrahamson & Miller, 2015: 24).

AramcoWorld, Saudi Aramco's flagship publication, is widely recognized as a leading source of nonpolitical coverage of the history, geography, arts and cultures of Saudi Arabia, the Middle East and the wider Islamic world., with an emphasis on the interweavings of the plural cultures of East and West, past and present. Founded in 1949 and winner of more than a forty awards over the past decade, the magazine is produced by ASC Public Affairs in both digital and print editions, six times a year.

1.8 Research Methodology

1.8.1 The Objective of the Research

This research focus on the analysis of cohesive devices that used in Aramco Word biographical recount text "What's so Funny about Lucian the Syrian?." As the result, the object of this research is in one of article in that magazine. The kind of the article in biographical recount text with the genre is biography about Lucian. The researcher choose this object to be researched because Aramco World in one of international magazines that many people subscribed. This magazine published once in two months. The volume of this magazine is vol.



67, number 4. This volume was chosen because the data that analyzed to be there.

The researcher also choose biographical recount text under the tittle is “What’s so Funny about Lucian the Syrian?” because Lucian is a famous person on the world who intelligent and has skilled in speech. Unique characteristic make him be popular among the world. Because that the researcher select this article to be analyzed.

1.8.2 Research Design

Based on the data that have been taken, this research used qualitative research for analyzing the data. Qualitative research is situated activity that locates the observer in the world which consists of a set interpretive, material practices that make the world visible (Denzin and Lincoln (2005) cited in Lodico, et.al (2010: 33). The data gathered during qualitative studies is systematically analyzed by the researcher throughout the course of the study. The method to analyze the data is use coding. As Lodico. et.al (2010: 35) state that coding involves the examination of the data to look for patterns, themes, or categories that emerge from the data.

The reason why this study uses qualitative method is because the purpose of this research is to deep understanding of cohesive devices, and then the collecting data is systematically analyzed by researcher using content analysis which include in one of types of qualitative research. Content analysis is the intellectual process of categorizing qualitative textual data into clusters of similar entities, or conceptual categories, to identify consistent patterns and relationships between variables or themes (Given, 2008: 120). Ary, et.al (2006: 29) adds that content analysis focus on analyzing and interpreting recorded material to learn about human behavior, the material that can be analyzed such textbooks, diaries, letters, and other documents. This is suitable with this research that analyzed the biographical recount text of the text “What’s So Funny about Lucian the Syrian?” By Robert Lebling.



1.9 Research System

1.9.1 Steps of the Research

The step of this study are adopted from Lodico, et. al (2006 : 265-267), there are:

1. Identifying research topic or focus
The researcher identified typically topics based on experience, observation in the research settings, and reading on the topic.
2. Conducting review of literature
The researcher reviews the literature to identify the important information relevant to the study and to write research questions.
3. Defining the role of researcher
Researcher decide to what degree she become involved with the population and participants. Because of the nature of qualitative research, the researcher has close contact with the participants.
4. Managing entry into the field and maintaining good field relations
Managing entry into the field and maintaining good field relations means that the researcher has clearly defined the research topic or focus, a field of the study (e.g., a place to conduct the research) must be identified. Selected consistent field the research topic.
5. Writing foreshadowed questions
Foreshadowed questions are designed by the researcher and are based on the topics or research questions identified both at the start of the study and as the study progresses. Foreshadowed questions help the researcher to focus data collection and allow the data collection to proceed in a systematic way.
6. Collecting the data
After writing foreshadowed questions the researcher moves on to collecting data. Data collection in qualitative research generally includes content analysis use review, and code the data into categories.



7. Analyzing the data

In this step researcher analyzed through the reading and review of data (analyze data, make a coding, and then make a categoritation) to detect themes and patterns that emerge.

8. Interpreting and disseminating

The researcher summarizes and explains the data that have been collected. Interpretation may also involve discussion of how the findings from this study relate to findings from past studies in this area.

1.9.2 Techniques of Collecting Data

The technique to collect the data of this research is documentation. To prove the research, data are needed and analyze the fact and phenomenon, it's completed by formulating the investigation and to concern in solving problem through content analysis. As Fraenkel and Wallen (2006: 472) state that content analysis is a technique to analyze human behavior indirect way. Those techniques fit to the research design as qualitative research.

1.9.3 Instrument of Research

The instrument of this research is the researcher herself. The researcher as the source for collecting data. As the instrument of the research, she more comprehends the data for giving more information clearly, and accurately. She took the source from some books and journals to strengthen the data and the theories

1.9.4 Source of Data

The source of data is divided into two kinds. Those are primary source and secondary source. The primary data source is biographical recount text biographical recount text under the tittle is "What's so Funny about Lucian the Syrian?." The secondary data source are the other references such as books, journals, dictionary, and other which are relevant to this research.

1.9.5 Data Analysis

Data collection and analysis in this research use inductive process. According to Lodico et.al (2006: 302) qualitative research are inductive



processes. Given (2008: 121) adds that a qualitative approach to content analysis, however, is typically inductive, beginning with deep close reading of text and attempting to uncover the less obvious contextual. The data are collected and gradually combined or related to form broader, more general descriptions and conclusions.

Researcher made a review and explored the data. After analyzed and explored all of cohesive devices data, researcher grouped that cohesive devices appropriate the kind of those device. In this section, researcher counted the data and then code it to kind categorize of those device. The process enumeration frequency of apparition cohesive devices and coding aim to group those in categories to make researcher easier in conduct the finding comparison in one category or traverse category. Then that comparison aim to develop the theoretis concepts. Coding intended for the fracture of the data of and rearranges it into categories that facilitate the comparison of data within and between these categories and that aid in the development of theoretical concepts. Another form of categorizing analysis involves sorting the data into broader themes and issues (Maxwell, 1996: 78-9; cited in Alwasilah, 2012: 116). There are the coding that used in this research:

Reference	: R
Exophoric Reference	: ExR
Endophoric Reference	: EnR
Anaphoric Reference	: AnR
Cataphoric Reference	: CaR
Substitution	: S
Nominal Substitution	: NS
Verbal Substitution	: VS
Clausal Substitution	: CS
Ellipsis	: E
Nominal Ellipsis	: NE
Verbal Ellipsis	: VE



Clausal Ellipsis	: CE
Conjunction	: C
Additive Conjunction	: AddC
Adversative Conjunction	: AdvC
Causal Conjunction	: CC
Temporal Conjunction	: TC
Lexical Cohesion	: LC
Reiteration	: Rei
Repetition	: Rep
General Nouns	: Gen
Synonymy	: Syn
Super Ordinations	: Sup
Collocation	: Coll
Sentence	: S
Sentence 1	: S1
Sentence 2	: S2
Paragraph	: P
Paragraph 1	: P1
Paragraph 2	: P2

1.10 Research Timeline

No	Activity	September	October	February
1.	Preparing			
2.	Organizing Proposal			
3.	Preparing and Collecting the Data			
4.	Analyzing Data			
5.	Make a research report			
6.	Revision			





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