



CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 Discourse Analysis

There are several definitions of discourse analysis according to linguists in their books. Referring to the book *Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics* by Richard & Richard (2002: 161), discourse analysis is the way language form has a large meaning unit, it can be written or spoken in the form of a sentence, paragraph, or conversation. In *Discourse Analysis for Language Teacher* by McCarthy (1991:5), discourse analysis is the study of the use of language. It can be the forms of spoken, written text, or kind of conversation with high institutionalized. Moreover, in *The Handbook of Discourse Analysis* by Schiffrin (2001), the study of both text and context is discourse analysis. It terminated that discourse is the concern about language and context, whether written or spoken. From the definitions above, it can be inferred that written and spoken are kinds of discourse. Examples of written discourse are newspapers, magazines, and books. While examples of spoken discourse are speech and speaking.

Discourse is language above the sentence or the clause, and discourse analysis is the study that is not deal with single sentences, contrived by the linguist, out of context (Stubbs, 1983: 1). According to Coulthard (1976: 7), one of the goals of discourse analysis is to create coherence. It is accustomed to investigating how language is employed and creating the principle of integrity (unity) and coherence. Unity and coherence are the principle to examine how language is produced. It relates to the structure and meaning to build a discourse.

Based on those explanations, discourse analysis is a branch of linguistics that studies the use of language patterns to produce meaning. Thus, cohesion is essential in discourse because it makes coherence in its meaning.

2.2 Cohesion

Cohesion plays the important role in discourse, especially in written discourse. It considers meaning in the text to the reader. Cohesion helps to tie parts of a text together so that the reader is aware of what is being remarked and

the way the phrases and sentences relate to each other (Harmer, 2004: 24). In cohesion, it will refer to the content relationship and it conveys meaning from the author's idea to get an easier understanding for the readers.

According to Baker (1992: 180), which states that cohesion is the network of lexical, grammatical, and other relations that provide links between various parts of a text. While referring to Halliday & Hasan (2014: 6), they stated that grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion are the types of cohesion. Grammatical cohesion consists of four types. The four types of grammatical cohesion are reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction. Whereas lexical cohesion consists of two types. The two types of lexical cohesion are reiteration and collocation. Both types of cohesion occur when the interpretation is dependent on each other. Halliday & Hasan (2014: 4) stated that:

“Cohesion occurs when 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 reference to it. When this happens, a relation of cohesion is set up, and the two elements, the presupposing and presupposed, are thereby at least potentially integrated into a text.”

From the statement above, cohesion occurs when the word, clause, or phrase represents another element in the text. So, it makes the text correlates with each other.

2.3 Grammatical Cohesion

Grammatical cohesion is used as a sign of the semantic link between word, clause, and sentence. It functions significantly with connectedness and unity in text and it also occurs through grammar. According to Halliday & Hasan (2014), there are four types of grammatical cohesion, that are: reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction.

Table 2. 1 Grammatical Cohesion

Category	Function	Example	
Grammatical Cohesion	Help to guide the reader through a text		
	Reference	Create a link between sentences	
	Substitution	These/her/ similar/ it/otherwise/	
		One/ones/same/do/so	



		previous word or expression	
	Ellipsis	Leave out words or phrases from sentences	
	Conjunction	Show the relationship between sentences	Moreover/and/but/or/for instance

(Gorjani, Bahman, et al. 2015:16, adapted from Halliday & Hasan, 2014)

2.3.1 Reference

Reference refers to language elements that instead of being interpreted semantically on their elements. In the text, the context of the reference is clear for both the writer and the reader. It indicates how the writer introduces the participants and keeps them in mind throughout the text. The reference function is intended to indicate pronoun, spatial order, degree, and comparison. There are three types of reference: personal reference, demonstrative reference, and comparative reference (Halliday & Hasan, 2014: 37). Those types can be described as follows:

a. Personal Reference

The first reference type is a personal reference. It is the kind of reference that is through the category of person (Halliday & Hasan, 2014: 37). There are three classes of personal reference, as follows: personal pronoun, possessive pronoun, and possessive determiner.

Table 2. 2 Personal Reference

Semantic Category	Existential		Possessive	
	Grammatical Function	Head	Modifier	
Class	noun (pronoun)	Determiner		
Person: Speaker (only)	I me	Mine	My	

Addressee(s),			
With/without other person(s)	You	Yours	Your
Speaker and other person(s)	we us	Ours	Our
Other person, male	he him	His	His
Other person, female	she her	Hers	Her
Other person; objects	they them	Theirs	Their
Object; passage of text	It	[its]	Its
Generalized person	One		one's

(Halliday & Hasan, 2014: 38)

For example: But, most importantly, **I** believe that better understanding these questions will help all of us appreciate the enormous human possibilities of ‘Unity in Diversity’.

From the example above, the word ‘**I**’ includes references classified into personal references. It shows the pronoun that refers to the writer.

b. Demonstrative Reference

The second reference type is a demonstrative reference. It is the kind of reference that indicated location, on a scale of proximity (Halliday & Hasan, 2014: 37). Demonstrative reference is also categorized into three classes, as follows: nominative demonstrative, circumstantial demonstrative, and the definite article.



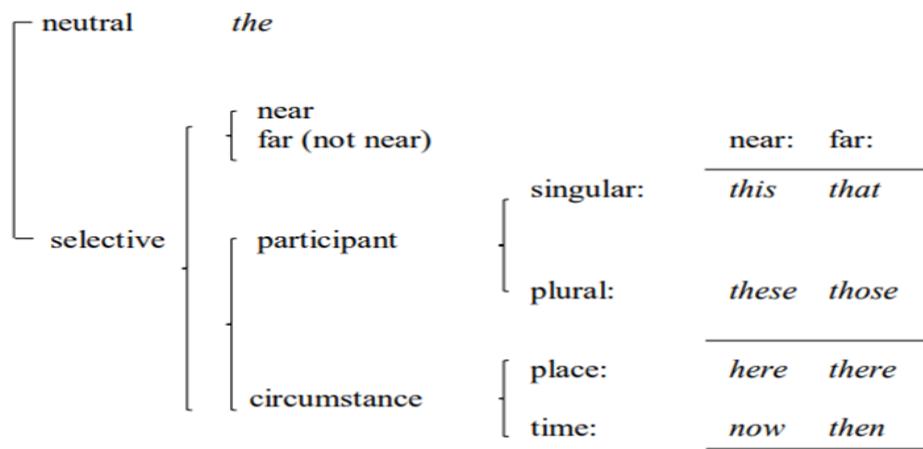


Figure 2. 1 Demonstrative Reference

(Halliday & Hasan, 2014: 57)

For example: And both are illustrated in **the** life of Yembise.

From the example above, the word “**the**” includes reference classified into demonstrative reference. It shows a neutral word that is the definite article. It refers to life.

c. Comparative Reference

The third reference type is a comparative reference. It is the kind of reference that indirectly uses identity or similarity (Halliday & Hasan, 2014: 37). Comparative reference is also categorized into two classes, as follows: general comparison and particular comparison.

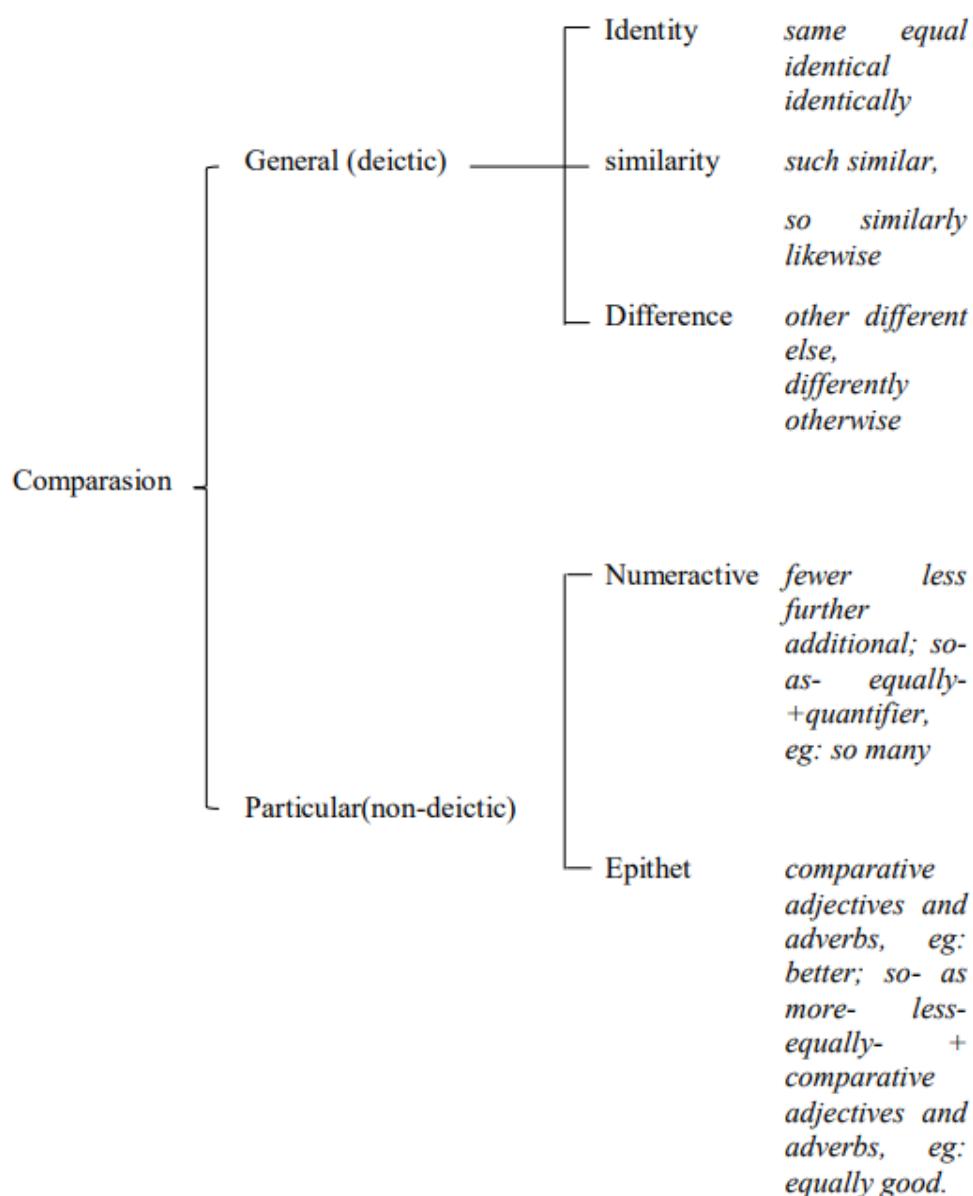


Figure 2.2 Comparative Reference

(Halliday & Hasan, 2014: 76)

For example: But, most importantly, I believe that **better** understanding these questions will help all of us appreciate the enormous human possibilities of ‘Unity in Diversity’.

From the example above, the word “**better**” includes reference classified into comparative reference. It shows an epithet that is comparative adjective of good. It compares the level of understanding.

2.3.2 Substitution

Substitution is a relation in the wording rather than in the meaning. It is the replacement of one item with another (Halliday & Hasan, 2014: 88). The item such as; a noun, verb, or clause replaces some information provided in the previous. In substitution, it has three types, that are: nominal substitution, verbal substitution, and clausal substitution (2014: 90). Those types can be described as follows:

a. Nominal Substitution

Nominal substitution occurs in the nominal group. It means that the replacement item is marked with “*one, ones, same*”. It will presuppose some noun to serve as a marker on the nominal group (Halliday & Hasan, 2014: 91).

For example: A: “These biscuits are stale”.

B: “Get some fresh **ones**”.

From the example above, the word ‘**ones**’ includes substitution classified into nominal substitution. It substitutes for the word biscuits. It means that the suggestion given to get some fresh biscuits.

b. Verbal Substitution

Verbal substitution occurs in the verbal group. It means that the place that is occupied by the lexical verb has a position in the final of the group. The replacement item is marked with the verb “*do, does, doing, did, done*” (Halliday & Hasan, 2014: 112).

For example: “I don't know the meaning of half those long words, and, what's more. I don't believe you **do** either!”.

From the example above, the word ‘**do**’ includes substitution classified into verbal substitution. It substitutes for knowing the meaning of half those long words.

c. Clausal Substitution

Clausal substitution occurs in the clausal group. It means that the presupposed is not an element within the clause, but an entire clause. The replacement item is marked with *so* for a positive environment and *not* for a negative environment (Halliday & Hasan, 2014: 130).



For example: As Yembise says, “Most Indonesians can easily identify value sets such as ‘Javanese values’ and ‘Batik values’ and ‘Balinese values,’ but significantly **not** ‘Papuan values’”.

From the example above, the word “**not**” includes substitutes classified into causal substitution. It shows a negative environment. It substitutes for easily identify. It represents Papuan values that are not easily identified as values by most Indonesians.

2.3.3 Ellipsis

Ellipsis is simply ‘substitution by zero’ because substitution and ellipsis are very similar to each other (Halliday & Hasan, 2014: 142). Ellipsis appears in a sentence or clause omitting some necessary structural elements, and can be restored by quoting elements in the preceding text. In ellipsis, it has three types, that are: nominal ellipsis, verbal ellipsis, and clausal ellipsis (2014: 146). Those types can be described as follows:

a. Nominal Ellipsis

Nominal ellipsis appears in the nominal group. It is the omission head of a noun in a nominal group in which its modifier is combined with another structure (Halliday & Hasan, 2014: 147).

For example: It is related to how things best work to enrich the human experience—in **good times and bad**.

From the example above, the phrase “**good times and bad**” included ellipsis classified into nominal ellipsis. It omitted the word *times*. The non-elliptical structure of the sentence could be ‘*good times and bad times*’.

b. Verbal Ellipsis

Verbal ellipsis appears in the verbal group. It is premised on more words in the previous language group (Halliday & Hasan, 2014: 167). It has two types, as follows; lexical ellipsis and operator ellipsis.

The category of verbal ellipsis includes;

- 1) Lexical ellipsis: It is the lexical verb that is always omitted (Halliday & Hasan, 2014: 173).
- 2) Operator ellipsis: It is involving the omission of operators with the lexical verb that remain intact (Halliday & Hasan, 2014: 174).



For example: A: “Have you been swimming”?

B: “Yes, I **have**”.

From the example above, the word “**have**” includes ellipsis classified into verbal ellipsis. It is omitting the word *been swimming*. The non-elliptical structure of the sentence could be ‘*I have been swimming*’.

c. Clausal Ellipsis

Clausal ellipsis appears in the clausal group. It has two parts structure, as follows; modal element plus propositional element (Halliday & Hasan, 2014: 197).

The part structure of clausal ellipsis includes;

- 1) Modal element: It is embodying the function of the clause, which consists in turn of the subject plus the finite element in the verbal group (Halliday & Hasan, 2014: 197).
- 2) Propositional element: It is consisting of the residue with the remainder of the verbal group and any enhancements or additions that will be shown (Halliday & Hasan, 2014: 197).

For example: A: “What was the Duke going to do?”.

B: “**Plant a row of poplars in the park**”.

From the example above, the answer includes ellipsis classified into clausal ellipsis. It is omitting the modal element. The non-elliptical structure of the sentence could be ‘*The Duke going plant a row of poplars in the park*’.

2.3.4 Conjunction

Conjunction represents semantic relation, it is cohesive not in themselves but indirectly, by their specific meanings. It is categorical certain meanings that presuppose the presence of other parts within the discourse as a result they are not primarily tools for reaching the preceding text (Halliday & Hasan, 2014: 226). It expresses a statement or clause-related meaning to its previous in the signal by a particular connecting word or phrase. There are four types of conjunction, namely: additive conjunction, adversative conjunction, causal conjunction, and temporal conjunction (2014: 238). Those types can be described as follows:

a. Additive Conjunction

Additive conjunction assists to allow information while not changing the data itself. The place can be in the previous phrase or clause. These are the conjunctive relation and examples of additive conjunction:

Table 2. 3 Additive Conjunction

Conjunctive Relation	Examples of Additive Conjunction
Simple additive relation (external and internal)	Additive: <i>and, and also, and ... too</i> Negative: <i>nor, and ... not, not ... either, neither</i> Alternative: <i>or, or else</i>
Complex additive relations (internal): emphatic	Additive: <i>further(more), moreover, additionally, besides that, add to this, in addition, and another thing</i> Alternative: <i>alternatively</i>
Complex additive relation (internal): de-emphatic	Afterthought: <i>incidentally, by the way</i>
Comparative relations (internal)	Similar: <i>likewise, similarly, in the same way, in (just) this way</i> Dissimilar: <i>on the other hand, by contrast, conversely</i>
Appositive relations (internal)	Expository: <i>that is, I mean, in other words, to put it another way</i> Exemplificatory: <i>for instance, for example, and thus</i>

(Halliday & Hasan, 2014: 249-250)

For example: Notably, Yembise was the first female Papuan national cabinet minister (Women's Empowerment **and** Child Protection portfolio 2014-2019).

From the example above, the word '**and**' includes conjunction classified into additive conjunction. It indicates two additional ideas. It connects the two statements that are 'Women's Empowerment' and 'Child Protection'.

b. Adversative Conjunction

Adversative conjunction is contrary to expectations. Expectations can be derived from what is being said or the communication process (Halliday & Hasan, 2014: 250). These are the conjunctive relation and the examples of adversative conjunction:

Table 2. 4 Adversative Conjunction

Conjunctive Relation	Examples of Adversative Conjunction
Adversative relation 'proper' ('in spite of') (external and internal)	Simple: <i>yet, though, only</i> Containing 'and': <i>but</i> Emphatic: <i>however, nevertheless, despite this, all the same</i>
Contrastive relations ('as against') (external)	Simple: <i>but, and</i> Emphatic: <i>however, on the other hand, at the same time, as against that</i>
Contrastive relations ('as against') (internal)	Avowal: <i>in fact, as a matter of fact, to tell the truth, actually, in point of fact</i>
Contrastive relations ('not ... but') (internal)	Correction of meaning: <i>instead, rather, on the contrary</i> Correction of wording: <i>at least, rather, I mean</i>
Dismissive (generalized adversative) relations (‘no matter ..., still’) (external and internal)	Dismissal, closed: <i>in any/either case/event, any/either way, whichever</i> Dismissal, open-ended: <i>anyhow, at any rate, in any case, however that may be</i>

(Halliday & Hasan, 2014: 255-256)

For example: As Yembise says, "Most Indonesians can easily identify value sets such as 'Javanese values' and 'Batik values' and 'Balinese values,' **but** significantly not 'Papuan values'".

From the example above, the word '**but**' includes conjunction classified into adversative conjunction. It shows the contrast between the two statements. The

first statement is ‘Javanese values, Batik values, and Balinese values easily identify’. The second statement is ‘Papuan value not easily identify’.

c. Causal Conjunction

Causal conjunction heading the causal relation that emphasized “result, reason, and purpose” (Halliday & Hasan, 2014: 257). These are the conjunctive relation and examples of causal conjunction:

Table 2. 5 Causal Conjunction

Conjunctive Relation	Examples of Causal Conjunction
Causal relations, general (‘because ... , so’) (external and internal)	Simple: <i>so, thus, hence, therefore</i> Emphatic: <i>consequently, accordingly, because of this</i>
Causal relations, specific	Reason: (mainly external) <i>for this reason, on account of this, (internal) it follows (from this), on this basis</i> Result: (mainly external) <i>as a result (of this), in consequence (of this)</i> Purpose: (mainly external) <i>for this purpose, with this in mind/view, with this intention, (internal) to this end</i>
Reversed causal relations, general	Simple: <i>for, because</i>
Conditional relations (‘if ..., then’) (external and internal)	Simple: <i>then</i> Emphatic: <i>in that case, that being the case, in such an event, under those circumstances</i> Generalized: <i>under the circumstances</i> Reversed polarity: <i>otherwise, under the circumstances</i>
Respective relations (‘with respect to’) (internal)	Direct: <i>in this respect/connection, with regard to this, here</i> Reversed polarity: <i>otherwise, in other</i>

	<i>respects, aside/ apart from this</i>
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(Halliday & Hasan, 2014: 255-256)

For example: **For** this reason, I like to think of Papua as ‘the sunrise Province’.

From the example above, the word “**for**” includes conjunction classified into causal conjunction. It shows reversed causal relations. It refers to the cause of the reason in the previous sentence.

d. Temporal Conjunction

Temporal conjunction is the connection between the two sentences. It connects internal terms as the simple one of sequence in time. The one is sequent to the other (Halliday & Hasan, 2014: 261). These are the conjunctive relation and the examples of temporal conjunction:

Table 2. 6 Temporal Conjunction

Conjunctive Relation	Examples of Temporal Conjunction
Simple temporal relations (external)	<p>Sequential: <i>(and) then, next, afterwards, after that, subsequently</i></p> <p>Simultaneous: <i>(just) then, at the same time, simultaneously</i></p> <p>Preceding: <i>earlier, before then/that, previously</i></p>
Complex temporal relations (external)	<p>Immediate: <i>at once, thereupon, on which; just before</i></p> <p>Interrupted: <i>soon, presently, later, after a time; some time earlier, formerly</i></p> <p>Repetitive: <i>next time, on another occasion; this time, on this occasion; the last time, on a previous occasion</i></p> <p>Specific: <i>next day, five minutes later, five minutes earlier</i></p> <p>Durative: <i>meanwhile, all this time</i></p>



	Terminal: <i>by this time; up till that time, until then</i> Punctiliar: <i>next moment; at this point/moment; the previous moment</i>
Conclusive relations (external)	Simple: <i>finally, at last, in the end, eventually</i>
Sequential and conclusive relations (external): correlative forms	Sequential: <i>first... then, first... next, first... second...</i> Conclusive: <i>at first... finally, at first... in the end</i>
Temporal relations (internal)	Sequential: <i>then, next, secondly ...</i> Conclusive: <i>finally, as a final point, in conclusion</i>
Temporal relations (internal): correlative forms	Sequential: <i>first...next, first... then, first... secondly..., in the first place...; to begin with</i> Conclusive: <i>... finally; ...to conclude with</i>
‘Here and now’ relations (internal)	Past: <i>up to now, up this point, hitherto, heretofore</i> Present: <i>at this point, here</i> Future: <i>from now on, henceforward</i>
Summary relations (internal)	Culminative: <i>to sum up, in short, briefly</i> Resumptive: <i>to resume, to get back to the point, anyway</i>

(Halliday & Hasan, 2014: 266-267)

For example: This was followed by a master’s degree in education from Canada’s Simon Fraser University **and then** a PhD from Australia’s University of Newcastle.

From the example above, the phrase “**and then**” includes conjunction classified into temporal conjunction. It shows simple temporal relations. It refers to a sequence of times when Yohana Yembise got a master’s degree in education and she got a Ph.D.

2.4 The Jakarta Post

The Jakarta Post is one of the Indonesian newspapers. It only uses English as the intermediate language. This media was founded in 1983 as the collaboration of four media groups in PT. Bina Media Tenggara, they are: Tempo, Kompas, Suara Karya, and Sinar Harapan. It is under the urging of information minister Murpoto and politician Jusuf Wanandi. It is also influenced by foreigners who speak the local language and the diplomatic community. The target readers of the Jakarta Post are not only Indonesian citizens, but also foreigners. This newspaper also aimed at educated people. The tagline of The Jakarta Post is 'Always Bold, Always Independent'.

The Jakarta Post was the first Indonesian media to successfully go international in 1994 and has received many national and international awards. In 2020, The Jakarta Post won multiple awards, such as; the Public Service Journalism Award from the Society of Publisher in Asia (SOPA), Indonesia Print Media Awards (IPMA), and the Union of Print Media Companies (SPS).

The Jakarta Post has two formats, there are printed and online. In their online formats, it can be accessed on the website thejakartapost.com. Both print media and electronic media have the same theme. On the internet, there are two options provided free and paid. To get premium news, it must be subscribed by paying. Lots of information can be seen in this newspaper because it contains articles on various topics. There are many topics to read such as business, politics, and economics. In the Jakarta Post, the reader and subscriber can send their writing to be published, with the terms and conditions.

2.5 Opinion Column

Opinion column in newspapers is a column for a writer can write the opinion text about the thoughts on a topic. The writer put the opinion text on the topic under discussion. According to Krajick (2020), he stated that:

“Opinion column is one of the best-read sections in the newspaper, it can be printed or online—often on par with front-page news. And, some of the most attentive readers are decision-makers: top people in government, corporations,

and nonprofit institutions. Appearing there is a prime way for the nonprofessional writer to get a valuable perspective into the public eye.”

So that the opinion text which reflects the perspective on topic and appears in the opinion section that is opinion column. According to Cavallari (2022) opinion text is a written in which the writer expresses an opinion and supports that opinion with facts and examples. Unlike other types of essays, the opinion essay does not necessarily need to rely on hard facts; it can, instead, rely on the writer's opinion only, provided the writer can support his or her opinions with compelling arguments. According to Durgesh & Surbhi (2021), the characteristics of opinion text is;

1. The Ideal word limit around 750-800 words.
2. The authority name matters a lot.
3. Accompanied by personal experience and observation are essential.
4. There is subheading to give clarity to the readers.
5. Must have arguments and clear perspective data, interviews, quoting from documents, metaphors, and observations.
6. The topic can be the most varied, as long as it is about a current event.

2.6 Profil Yohana Yembise

Prof. DR. Yohana Susana Yembise, Dip.Apling, MA is the first woman from Papua to be appointed as a minister in Indonesia. She was chosen as Minister of Women's Empowerment and Child Protection in President Jokowi's working period 2014-2019. She was also the first Papuan woman who become a professor at Cenderawasih University.

Yohana Yembise was born in Manokwari, Papua October, 1, 1958. She is the second child of eleven siblings. Her father was a civil servant working for Nabire regency. Yohana started her education at SD Padang Bulan Jayapura in 1971, then she continued to SMPN 1 Nabire and finished in 1974. She completed her next education at SMAN Persiapan Nabire. After that, she continued to higher education with a degree in English, Language and Arts Education from FKIP Cenderawasih University in 1985 and applied linguistics from the Regional Language Center (RELC), SEAMEO Singapore, in 1992. Then, she completed a Master's degree program of Education at Simon Fraser University Canada in

1994. She continued her Doctoral education at Newcastle University in 2001 and obtained her Ph.D. in 2006.

Yohana Yembise started her career by becoming a lecturer at the University of Cenderawasih since 1987 until now. On November 14th, 2012, she was inaugurated as a doctoral professor by the rector of Cendrawasih University. Apart from being a lecturer, she served as head of the Language Laboratory in her university. In 1992 she became a Diplomat in Applied Linguistic TEFL (Dip. TEFL) from the RELC, SEAMEO Singapore. She is also trusted as the head of the English teacher selection team for SMP, SMK, and SMA in Merauke in preparation for sending English teachers to Sunshine Coast University Australia. As well as being a member of the Joint Selection Team (JST) of the Australian Development Scholarship for the ADS/USAID scholarship in 2011. Based on the background education and career of Yohana Yembise, she is very experienced in various fields, especially in education. She can prove that Papuan women can become someone who is well known in Indonesia and the world.

2.7 Profil Rob Goodfellow

The writer of the opinion text in The Jakarta Post *opinion column* entitled “*Yohana Yembise: Portrait of a true Papuan lady*” is Rob Goodfellow. His complete name is Robert William Goodfellow B.A. Hons, PhD. He got a doctoral program in Indonesia history and politics. He also an author, Principal Consultant with Australian-based Cultural consulting, and Australian Federal Government Registered Lobbyist. He is also an Adjunct Fellow and researcher with the Humanitarian and Development Research Initiative (HADRI) at Western Sydney University.

As an author, he has written books entitled *Mrs. Murni in Bali and Ibu Yembise in Papua: Strong woman, Strong Role Models in Eastern Indonesia – Comparison and Possibilities*. He also active in publishing his writings, especially about Indonesia in The Jakarta Post opinion column. One of them is about Yohana Yembise. In opinion column about Yohana Yembise, Rob Goodfellow told about Yohana’s background and role as one of the inspirational Papuan women. He also wrote about the signature program when Yohana become minister, that is “Three Ends”. It is the program which included ending domestic violence and human



trafficking to stop inequality of economic access for women and girls in Indonesia. He emphasized that Papuan are also Indonesian. So that all Indonesian people will appreciate the enormous human possibilities more than the motto "Bhinneka Tunggal Ika". He took the example of Yohana Yembise that Papuan woman is an important figure that have strong values and contribution. It is his ways wrote the opinion text and publishing them to give insight and inspire the readers.

2.8 Previous Studies

There are four previous studies related to this research. The first research entitled *Analysis of Grammatical Cohesion in Stephenie Meyer's Novel "The Second Life of Bree Tanner"* conducted by Normah (2013). Thesis Faculty of Adab and UIN Alauddin Makassar. This research used *The Second Life of Bree Tanner* novel by Stephenie Meyer as the object of the data. This research focused on references in the theory of Halliday & Hasan (1976). This study used the descriptive qualitative method. The result showed that personal reference and demonstrative reference used in the novel. The type of personal reference mainly referred to both of the main characters in the novel.

The second research entitled *Discourse Analysis on Cohesive Device Found in The Female's Fashion Blog* conducted by Yuli Rohmawati (2014). Thesis UIN Maulana Malik Ibrahim Malang. This research used The Female's Fashion Blog as the source of the data. This research analyzed the grammatical and lexical cohesion by applying the theory of Halliday & Hasan (1976). The way to collected the data was the descriptive qualitative method. She had found all types of grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion.

The third research entitled *An Analysis of Grammatical and Lexical Cohesion in Emma Watson's Speech Text on Gender Equality* conducted by Dewi Mustika Arifiani (2016). Thesis Faculty of Adab and Humanities, State Islamic University Syarif Hidayatullah. The speech text of Emma Watson speech used as the object of the study. The important point of this research is to revealed gender equality, destructive stereotype, and harmful. It used Halliday & Hasan's theory (1976) and descriptive qualitative method to analyzed the data. She had found the grammatical cohesion dominantly used was reference, especially personal

reference as the speaker (main subject) in the speech text. Meanwhile, for lexical cohesion, the type of reiteration was dominant.

The fourth research entitled *Hedging as Negative Politeness: The Use and Function in the Opinion Column of The Jakarta Post Newspaper* conducted by Pratiwi (2020). Thesis Faculty of Cultural Sciences, Sebelas Maret University. This research analyzed negative politeness strategy belongs to the descriptive qualitative method. This research used the same source of the data from the opinion column in The Jakarta Post, but it has a different article that is analyzed.

As described in previous studies above, there shown the differences among them, such as the theory and the object of the study. In the analysis of grammatical cohesion, all of the studies above used theory proposed by Halliday & Hasan. Although uses the same theory from Halliday & Hasan, this research has a different object as the source of the data from the previous studies that analyzes cohesion. The last previous study has the same object of the study from the opinion column in The Jakarta Post but it has a different article that was taken and analyzed.