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CONTENTS

INVESTIGATING THE PHILOSOPHICAL FOUNDATION OF AN ESP COURSEBOOK *ENGLISH FOR ACCOUNTING*

Luluk Iswati

..... 1

THE TEACHING STRATEGIES TOWARD STUDENTS' DEVELOPMENT REFLECTED IN *HARRY POTTER AND THE CHAMBER OF SECRET FILM*

Ika Octavia, Dwi Ario Fajar

..... 13

REFERENCES AND CONJUNCTIONS AS MARKERS OF PROPOSITIONAL RELATIONS IN DISCOURSE SEMANTICS

Harris Hermansyah Setiajid, F.X. Sawardi

..... 24

TEACHER'S REFLECTION ON THE DECREASING PARTICIPATION WITHIN ONLINE CLASSES

Dwi Agustina

..... 34

THE PERCEPTION ON USING DARK JOKES IN STUDENT DAILY CONVERSATION

Dameria Magdalena Sidabalok, Harpain, Sulthan Aldes Ishlah Prananca

..... 43

THE STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS ON THE IMPLEMENTATION OF KAMPUS MENGAJAR BATCH ONE TOWARD STUDENT'S PEDAGOGICAL COMPETENCE AT FKIP UNIVERSITAS BANDAR LAMPUNG

Yauarius Yanu Dharmawan, Yanuar Dwi Prastyo, Muhammad Kahfi Aradika, Gabrielle Ghaniyyu Nafinoor

..... 55

REFERENCES AND CONJUNCTIONS AS MARKERS OF PROPOSITIONAL RELATIONS IN DISCOURSE SEMANTICS

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Abstract

Discourse is the most fundamental linguistic unit that is commonly used in daily life. To compose an effective discourse, one needs a mechanism for combining the discourse's propositions. The technique is referred to as a proposition relational marker. The tool's format, which includes references and conjunctions. The term "reference" refers to propositions in a discourse, whereas "conjunction" refers to propositions in a discourse. The purpose of this article is to explain the comprehension, meaning, and application of references and conjunctions.

Keywords: *propositional relation marker, reference, conjunction*

INTRODUCTION

Discourse is a series of sentences arranged to have a big idea that will come true. Halliday and Hassan (1979: 2) show that discourse is a semantic unit embodied in a sentence in this case. There are many discourses that can be found in everyday life in the form of spoken and written discourse. Rani et al. (2013: 46-56) also found that there are also types of discourse based on the purpose of communication: descriptive discourse, exposed discourse, debate discourse, persuasive discourse, and narrative discourse.

Based on the purpose of communication, descriptive discourse is used to describe objects or situations. As shown by Nova and Sumadi (2017: 1), writing descriptive text requires detailed observation through the five senses. Examples of descriptive discourse include sales catalogs, observation reports, police

investigation reports, and news discourses. Specifically, this section explains the elements of what (what), who (who), where (where), and when (when).

In addition to descriptive discourse, there are also exposed discourses that are used to describe or reveal objects, processes, or events. According to this, Lani et al. (2013: 47) I find that discourse exposure is intended to explain something to the recipient (reader) so that the parties can understand it. Examples of descriptive discourse are discourse and news discourse about the steps or procedures for doing something, especially in the "How" section which describes the process of occurrence of events.

There is also a controversial discourse, which is used to express an opinion (discussion) or opinion about something. Consistent with this statement, supporting facts are needed to

express arguments to strengthen the argument (Hasanah and Dawud, 2017:12). Examples of controversial discourses are debate, negotiation, criticism, and editorial discourse.

Next is the discourse of belief. Persuasive discourse is discourse that is used to influence the reader to do something depending on the content of the discourse. According to Martutik (2013: 18), persuasive communication that stands out in everyday life is in the form of advertising. Other examples of persuasive discourse besides advertising are speeches, slogans, and posters.

In addition, narrative discourse is a discourse that is used to tell one or more events. As with any discourse, it is important to study story discourse. Because everyone must be involved in telling stories, both orally and in writing, or as actors, recipients, or connoisseurs of stories (Nardiati, 2015: 108). Examples of story discourse are fairy tales, folklore, short stories, novels, and biographies.

Discourse needs to be written based on the function of discourse described above. In addition to the purpose of communication, discourse also includes concepts, understandings, ideas, or a complete linguistic unity that contains an idea (Hasanah and Dawud, 2017:12). Therefore, the discourse needs to be spelled correctly and accurately so that the reader can know its purpose.

One way to write correct and correct discourse is to use propositional relationship markers to clarify the relationship between sentences (Lestari, 2016: 4). The purpose of making explicit relationships between sentences is to emphasize the relationship between one sentence and another so that it has a clear relationship. This makes it easier for the reader to understand the meaning of the discourse.

As mentioned earlier, position markers play an important role in terms of discourse consistency. Anjani (2013: 289) states that structural coherence forms syntactic bonds and combines parts in discourse. Merging between sections can be done grammatically, among others through references and connections in discourse.

Sentence-related markers used to combine or combine sentences in a discourse are grammatical sentence-related markers. The grammatical relationship marker is a useful tool for combining sentences according to grammar. Grammatical propositional markers come in three forms: references, conjunctions, and permutations. However, this article only discusses references and conjunctions.

This article contains concepts related to relational markers in grammatical statements in the form of references and conjunctions. The purpose of this conceptual article is to explain the form of relational markers in grammatical sentences. This article describes not only the format, but also the meaning and use of grammatical propositional marker formats.

Markers of Propositions in a Discourse Semantics

The propositional marker is the coagulant. Propositional markers have the ability to combine a proposition grammatically with other propositions. They are markers of grammatical propositions. Marking is achieved by cohesion. Cohesion tools include references, conjunctions, and substitutions. References and conjunctions are explained below.

DISCUSSION

Reference

The relation marker that functions as a reference to a proposition in discourse is

a reference. References are relational markers that connect words to the object or thing they refer to. Agreeing with that statement, Arifin (2012: 21) said that traditionally the meaning of reference is the relationship between words and objects.

In this case, Djajasudarma (2010: 39) says that references are used to emphasize that a topic that seems new is actually an old topic. The point is to use references, topics that seem new actually have a relationship with old topics. Thus, the topic is not a new topic, but an old topic that uses another name from the reference it refers to.

In essence, propositional relation markers function as syntactic unifiers. This is because the form of markers is used as a unifying tool between propositions in a discourse. However, apart from being syntactic, references also have a semantic character. As stated by Alwi, et al (2010: 454), references are often repeated to refer back or to clarify the meaning (semantics). The purpose of clarifying the meaning is to clarify the relationship of the meaning contained by the referrer to the reference.

There are three forms of reference. A variety of reference forms can be selected according to needs. The forms of reference used in language include (1) names, (2) pronouns (both personas and demonstratives), and (3) possessive pronouns.

Reference in the form of a name is a reference whose reference is the name itself or the identity of the word in question. Name references are references to humans, for example, Tono, Rini, Citra, Kiki, Budi, and so on. To make it clearer, consider the following example!

1. "Why are you crying? Don't cry, Citra!"

From the example above, it can be seen that you are referring to Citra. That is what is called a name reference. In addition to referring to humans, there are also references that refer to objects. To make it clearer, consider the following example!

2. "Please get me that!"
(While pointing at the object in question) "Which one?"
"The pink chair."

From the example above, it can be seen that refers to on chair which is pink.

References in the form of pronouns are references whose references are personal pronouns. Pronouns or personal pronouns include: I, we, we, you, you, he, they, and so on. To make it clearer, consider the following example!

3. "We're going to get out of here."
Yes, you and I will be leaving tonight as well."
4. "They are brothers."
Lily and Rossa are sisters."

Based on the example above, it can be seen that we refer to you and I, while they refer to Lily and Rossa.

References in the form of possessive pronouns can also be referred to as possessive references. Possessive pronoun references are references that are marked by the presence of -ku, -mu, and -cliches.

5. "The book is missing"
"Which book are you referring to?"
"Reza's Book"

Based on the example above, it can be concluded that in his book he refers to Reza's book.

According to Halliday and Hassan (1979: 31), there are two types of references based on the thing or object being referred to, namely (1) exophoric references and (2) endophoric references. Exophoric references are

references whose objects are outside the text. The point is that the object being referred to is outside the text, such as humans, trees, flowers, the sun, and so on. On the other hand, an endophoric reference is a reference whose object is in the text. The point is that the object being referred to is in the text, for example the word human, the word tree, the word flower, the word sun, and so on. Specifically, for endophoric references, Halliday and Hassan (1979: 33) divide two types of references based on the location of the reference, namely (1) anaphoric references and (2) cataphoric references. An anaphoric reference is a reference whose location is on the left or is located before the object or thing being referred to. On the other hand, a cataphoric reference is a reference where the reference is located on the right or after the object or thing being referred to. To make it clearer, consider the following example!

6. "Day Many of these students come late to attend classes in the first hour. This is because many of them sleep too late."

7. "Why are you crying?
Don't cry, Citra!"

In example (6) it has a reference that many students come late. Because the location of the reference is on the left or is located before the object or something being referred to, it is called an anaphoric reference. In example (7) you are referring to Citra. Because the location of the reference is on the right, which is after the object or thing being referred to, it is called a cataphoric reference.

Conjunctions

Relational markers that function as connecting propositions in a discourse are conjunctions. Conjunctions are

relational markers that connect one proposition to another so that they are strung together into a cohesive whole. Conjunctions make transitions between propositions look smooth. This is in line with the opinion of Rani, et al (2013: 130) who revealed that conjunctions function to string together several propositions in discourse so that the transfer of ideas in the discourse feels soft.

Ignoring the embedding of conjunctions can result in a gap of ideas between propositions. This makes the propositions unrelated to each other so that these propositions stand alone.

8. Confidence is important as a person's provision to give a speech in public.

It has been stated on page 28 that self-confidence will affect the appearance when giving a speech.

In Example 8, the first and second sentences seem to have no connection. Therefore, we need a conjunction that can unite the propositions in the first sentence and the second sentence. The correct conjunction for the above example is *as*. *As* is a conjunction of harmony that connects and harmonizes the propositions of the first and second sentences.

8a. Self-confidence is important as a person's provision to give a speech in public.

As stated on page 28 that self-confidence will affect appearance when making a speech.

Errors in the selection of conjunctions can result in the illogicality of a discourse. Discourse that is not logical will make it difficult for readers to understand it. In addition, the reader will have difficulty in drawing an inference

or conclusion. Take a look at the following example!

8b. Self-confidence is important as a person's provision to give a speech in public. However, it has been stated on page 28 that self-confidence will affect the appearance during a speech.

In example 8b there is an illogicality between the proposition in the first sentence and the proposition in the second sentence. The choice of conjunction but in example 8b is not correct because the conjunction has the meaning of incompatibility. In fact, the proposition in the second sentence actually supports the proposition in the first sentence. Therefore, we need other conjunctions that function as harmonics. Conjunctions vary. The variety can be selected according to the function of each conjunction. The choice of a variety of conjunctions can determine the cohesiveness, logicalness, and elegance of a discourse. The choice of conjunctions should pay attention to (1) the function or use of each variant of the conjunction, (2) the meaning of each variant of the conjunction, and (3) the connection between the conjunction and discourse.

In addition to its various forms, conjunctions also have several classifications of types of conjunctions based on certain criteria. Muslich (2014: 112) divides the types of conjunctions into coordinating conjunctions, subordinating conjunctions, correlative conjunctions, conjunctions between sentences, and conjunctions between paragraphs.

The classification by Muslich is based on the syntactic system. Coordinating conjunctions are conjunctions that function to bind two or more propositions with the same syntactic status. The meaning of this conjunction

is the connection of equal or equivalent propositions. Various coordinating conjunctions include and, or, and but. Examples of the use of coordinating conjunctions are as follows.

9. Kiki laughed and Husna was happy. Subordinating conjunctions are the opposite of coordinating conjunctions. Subordinating conjunctions are conjunctions that function to bind two or more propositions that have different syntactic states. The meaning of this conjunction is connecting the proposition in the main sentence with its subordinate clause. The main sentence is independent, while the subordinate clauses are bound to the main sentence.

Subordinating conjunctions are classified according to time, condition, purpose, concession, similarity, cause, effect, explanation, and method (Muslich, 2000). Variety conjunction subordinatif based on time, among others, after, before, after, since, finished, when, when, when, while, while while, while, for, so, and subordinating conjunctions sampai. Ragam conditional on, among others, if, if, if, origin (kan), if, and when. Various subordinating conjunctions based on purpose include so, so that, so that, and let. The types of subordinating conjunctions based on concessions include even though, even though, even though, even though, even though. Similar subordinating conjunctions include as if, as if, as, as, as, and as. Various subordinating conjunctions based on cause include cause, because, and because. Various subordinating conjunctions based on effect include (so) until, until (until), then (it), and as a result (its). Various subordinating conjunctions based on the explanation, among others, that. Various subordinating conjunctions based on the way, among others, by and through. Examples of the use of

subordinating conjunctions are as follows.

10. If it rains today, I will not go out of the house.

10a. I will not go out if it rains today.

Correlative conjunctions are conjunctions that function to connect two related words, phrases, or clauses. Because it connects two elements, namely words with words, phrases with phrases, and clauses with clauses, the form of this conjunction is in pairs. As the name implies, this conjunction has the meaning of reciprocity. These kinds of conjunctions include good – or, either – either, and let alone – - too. An example of the use of correlative conjunctions is as follows.

11. I don't even have a car; I don't even have a motorbike.

Conjunctions between sentences are conjunctions that function to connect two sentences at the beginning of the second sentence. The meaning of this conjunction is connecting two propositions in two sentences so that there is a connection between the two sentences. These kinds of conjunctions include even though, even though, after that, next, besides, on the contrary, actually, actually, in fact, even though, besides, therefore, therefore, before, and so on. Examples of the use of conjunctions between sentences are as follows.

12. The traffic violator ignores the traffic police warning. Instead, he tried to increase the speed of the bike.

Conjunctions between paragraphs are conjunctions that function to connect two paragraphs at the beginning of the second sentence. The meaning of this conjunction is connecting two ideas in two paragraphs so that there is a connection between the two

paragraphs. These conjunctions include as for, regarding, and so on. Examples of the use of conjunctions between paragraphs are as follows.

13. About Case the government to review the law on taxation.

In addition to the classification carried out by Muslich above, Rani, et al (2013: 134 – 156) also classify various conjunctions based on propositional relationships that are manifested in two sentences (between sentences). The classification is divided into seventeen varieties. These kinds of conjunctions include time-sequence conjunctions, preferred conjunctions, faulty conjunctions, paraphrasing conjunctions, incompatible conjunctions, compatible conjunctions, additive conjunctions, contrasting conjunctions, comparative conjunctions, causal conjunctions, optative conjunctions, concluding conjunctions, example conjunctions, dubitative conjunctions, concessions, etc. affirmative conjunctions, and explanatory conjunctions.

In this article there are several conjunctions that are not explained because they are considered to have been represented by other conjunctions. These conjunctions are contrasting conjunctions and paraphrasing conjunctions. Contrasting conjunctions are considered to have almost the same meaning as unconformity conjunctions. Both mean connecting with a different proposition from the previous proposition. In addition, paraphrasing conjunctions and additive conjunctions are also considered to have almost the same meaning. There is only a slight difference between the two conjunctions. Both mean connecting with a proposition that adds or completes the previous proposition. Therefore, the classification of the two pairs of

previous proposition. The meaning of this conjunction is to connect with a proposition that is complementary or adds to the previous proposition so that it seems related. The forms of this conjunction include other than that, in addition, and so on. Examples of the use of additive conjunctions are as follows.

18. Early marriage is prone to divorce. On the other hand, Early marriage can hinder the learning process.

Comparative conjunctions are conjunctions that function to connect propositions that contain comparisons. If there are similarities in elements, then what is compared is the difference. On the other hand, if there are differences in the elements, then what is compared is the similarities. The meaning of this conjunction is to connect the differences and similarities between one proposition and another. The form of this proposition is as follows, different from, different from that, similar to that, in line with that, and so on. An example of using comparative conjunctions is as follows.

19. Poetry and rhymes are literary works. The number of lines in a poem is not limited.

Different from that, the number of lines in the rhyme is four lines (which are presented in one stanza).

Causal conjunctions are conjunctions that function to connect two propositions that have a causal relationship. This conjunction is the opposite of a land conjunction. The meaning of this causal conjunction is to connect two propositions that are related or related. The forms of this conjunction include the consequences, the consequences, thus, therefore, because of that, and so on. Examples of the use of causal conjunctions are as follows.

20. Roni did not study last night. As a result, he could not do well on the exam questions.

Optative conjunctions are conjunctions that function to connect two propositions that contain prayer or hope. The meaning of this conjunction is to connect a proposition that contains a prayer or hope for the previous proposition. The forms of this conjunction include hopefully, hopefully, expected, and so on. An example of using optative conjunctions is as follows.

21. Happy birthday, Mom! May health and happiness always be with you.

Concluding conjunctions are conjunctions that function to connect one proposition to another which contains the conclusion from the previous propositions. The meaning of this conjunction is as a liaison between the main sentence and the non-core sentence. The main sentence in question is a sentence that contains concluding conjunctions, while the non-core sentence is a sentence that becomes the conclusion material for the main sentence. The forms of this conjunction include in short, in short, in general, so, in conclusion, in summary, and so on. An example of using concluding conjunctions is as follows.

22. In this era of globalization, there are many demands that Must be fulfilled.

All levels of society are required to compete to find an achievement. So, prepare yourself as early as possible to achieve as many achievements as possible!

An example conjunction is a conjunction that is used to connect the main proposition with the example proposition. The meaning of this conjunction is to connect a statement with an example of the statement. The form of this conjunction includes examples, for example, for example, and so on. Examples of the use of conjunction examples are as follows.

23. In this globalization era, there are many cyber-crimes.

Examples are the spread of fake news or hoaxes, wiretapping, fraud through cyberspace, and so on.

Dubitative conjunctions are conjunctions that function to connect with propositions that contain an element of doubt. The meaning of this conjunction is to connect with a proposition that contains doubts. The forms of this conjunction include possible, most likely, perhaps, perhaps, and so on. An example of the use of dubitative conjunctions is as follows.

24. Today Ani does not go to school. Maybe he's sick.

Concession conjunctions are conjunctions that function to connect with the proposition of acknowledging a deficiency or weakness. The meaning of this conjunction is to connect with a confessional proposition that cannot be resolved. The forms of this conjunction include indeed, of course, and so on. An example of using concession conjunctions is as follows.

25. There is Indonesian language with an accent that is geographical, horizontal, or more precisely ethnic in nature and there is also Indonesian language with an accent that is social, vertical, or professional.

Young people, for example, use the language Indonesia is mixed with terms and expressions that they specifically understand themselves, while other people, especially the elderly, find it very difficult or unable to understand the language of such youths. Indeed, it is understandable that certain social groups such as journalists, doctors, traders, brokers, fishermen, artists, and other social groups use many terms and expressions of certain professions, causing other people outside the group to find it difficult to understand their

Indonesian language. (Examples adapted from Rani et al, (2013:154))

Affirmative conjunctions are conjunctions that function to connect with propositions that contain affirmative statements. The meaning of this conjunction is as a liaison with a proposition that emphasizes something so that the proposition conveyed can be understood immediately. The forms of this proposition include even, moreover, and so on. An example of using affirmative conjunctions is as follows.

Example 25. Students are not only required to have academic achievements, but also non-academic achievements. There are so many places to achieve non-academic achievements, for example

Unit Activity student (SME), Department Student Association (HMJ), and Student Executive Board (BEM). In fact, many other competitions are held to achieve non-academic achievements, such as the Student Creativity Program (PKM), Student Entrepreneurial Program (PMW), and many more.

Explanatory conjunctions are conjunctions that function to connect one proposition to another that provides further explanation from the previous proposition. The meaning of this conjunction is to connect the main proposition with the explanatory proposition. The forms of this conjunction include the meaning, the meaning, the intended meaning, and so on. An example of the use of this conjunction is as follows.

26. Exophoric references are references whose objects are outside the text.

The point is that the object being referred to is outside the text, such as humans, trees, flowers, the sun, and so on.

CONCLUSION

After studying the relational markers of grammatical propositions in the form of references and conjunctions, it can be concluded that the use of these markers is important for a good discourse writing. References can make a discourse clear. On the other hand, conjunctions can make discourse elements relate to one another.

Language users should learn the use of grammatical propositional relation markers well in writing discourse. This is intended so that the written discourse can have cohesiveness in one proposition with other propositions. In addition to having a cohesive element, the use of grammatical propositional relation markers will also make the discourse neat and logical.

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