

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background of the Study

Narrative text and expository text are major types of text that are familiar to people, especially students. In an academic setting, they are common reading materials for lecturing. A Narrative is a text which tells or present a story to entertain readers. An Expository text aims to give readers information about a topic. Nowadays, these two texts are not only available in printed form but also in the form of electronic or digital which makes them easy to access on the internet. The Access to the sources of information and knowledge is no longer difficult. There are a lot of narrative texts and expository texts such as short stories and articles in journals which are easy to find.

From a social and educational point of view, written language is very important. Literacy has to do with civilization and education (Leech et. al, 1982). In written language, the notion of complexity has to with literacy and language education. However, there is no standard linguistic measure of complexity (Rimmer, 2008). Lexical density is a kind of complexity that is typical of written language (Halliday, 1989). On the other hand, grammatical intricacy is the kind of complexity that is typical of spoken language. Applying the grammatical intricacy to written language, it helps to find whether the written text tends to be spoken or written. Therefore, Lexical density and grammatical intricacy, then, are important to be considered in narrative text and expository text. It helps to better understand of the texts.

Some works have been done to analyze the lexical density and grammatical intricacy of some texts. Johansson (2008) suggested each group of different ages produced different lexical density and it increased from the young to the adult. Nesia and Ginting (2014) found that in senior high school's reading textbook, some text genres have high lexical density and some others have low lexical density. Hanafiah and Yusuf (2016) found that undergraduate English Department students' abstracts are categorized into written text because they have a high degree of lexical density and low grammatical intricacy.

Although much work has discussed lexical density and grammatical intricacy and the studies of lexical density grammatical intricacy are limited to the study of reading text in senior high school textbooks and student writing, more studies need to be conducted especially contemporary literature works and articles in journal which are familiar with students. These texts are written in English which require the reader to have language skills, particularly reading and writing skill. Some readers might encounter complexities, difficulties, and challenges when long phrases, sentences, and paragraphs emerge in the texts. As mentioned earlier, written language in this case the narrative text and the expository text have their own lexical density that influences the complexity of both texts. The complexity of texts is one of the problems that people especially learners encounter when they read and comprehend texts.

To discover and learn the lexical density and grammatical intricacy of texts, this research will try to analyze a narrative text with the title *The Too-Clever Fox* and an expository text which is an article with the title *Attitudes Toward Regional British Accents in EFL Teaching: Student and teacher*

perspectives. The chosen narrative text is written by Leigh Bardugo who is an Israeli-American fantasy author. The chosen title is a story in her *The Language of Thorns: Midnight Tales and Dangerous Magic* book. It tells the story of an ugly fox, Kojja, who survives his life with his cleverness. Then, the chosen expository text is an article written by Alex Baratta and Nichola Halenko. The article is in *Language and Education* journal that was published in Elsevier in 2022.

Based on the explanation above, this research is important to be carried on. In this digital era, a lot of reading materials are provided online on the internet. These texts are easy to access anywhere and anytime. By knowing lexical items within the texts, it would help readers to a better understanding of the texts. It also helps to produce a good-quality of writing. In the academic field, lexical density and grammatical intricacy are important in both reading and writing. The research, thus, is going to analyze and compare the lexical density and the grammatical intricacy of two different types of texts which are narrative text and expository text.

1.2. Theoretical Framework

1.2.1. Discourse and Text

Discourse analysis is a broad field of study that some of its theories and methods of analysis are drawn from some disciplines such as philosophy, psychology, sociology and linguistics. Discourse analysis also has provided models and methods of interesting issues that emerge from disciplines such as education, cultural studies, communication and so on. However, the definition of discourse analysis is still uncertain. The generally accepted view of discourse analysis is that it has something to do with looking at language above or beyond

the sentence. Discourse studies the organization of language above the sentence, or above the clause, and therefore to study larger linguistic units, such as conversational exchanges or written texts' (Stubbs 1983:1 in Widdowson, 2004). According to Zellig Harris (1952) who first used the term, language is organized as 'connected discourse' which Harris calls morpheme sequences in text. Connected discourse is a continuous sequence of sounds that produce conversation or utterances in spoken language (Widdowson, 2004).

In discourse analysis books, the terms 'text' and 'discourse' are usually used. Halliday and Hasan (1976) argue that people produce text when they speak or write. Text is any instance of language in any medium that can be understood by someone who knows the language. Text is characterized by language functioning in context (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2014). In Systemic Functional Linguistics, three functions of language called language meta functions which are the ideational, interpersonal and textual. Leech et. al mention that discourse is a piece of language that is bigger than a single sentence. The term 'discourse' applies to both spoken and written language (literary and non-literary) (Leech et. al, 1982). Widdowson (2004) cites what Chafe mentioned that some scholars may speak of a 'discourse' or a 'text' because both terms refer to the same concern that is to a unit of language larger than the sentence (Chafe 1992).

Another idea about discourse analysis is that the analysis of discourse is the analysis of language in use. Discourse analysis is used to investigate what that language is used for (Brown and Yule, 1989). According to Brown and Yule, language has two major functions which are transactional and interactional. The transactional function is concerned with the function of language to convey

factual or propositional information. Language is used by a speaker or writer to transmit information. The interactional function is concerned with the function of language to establish and maintain social relationships. The phatic expression has been frequently used to maintain the relationship between speaker and hearer. Examples of phatic expressions are “Hallo”, “How are you?”, “Have a nice day!” and so on.

1.2.2. Spoken and Written Language

For individual development, children learn to speak first then they learn to write. In the history of human societies, spoken language comes first before written language. It means that written language emerges as a secondary form to its spoken language and develop after human use spoken language. However, the functions, forms and linguistic characteristics of the written and spoken language are different from each other. From a social and educational point of view, written language is very important. Literacy has to do with civilization and education. When the written language and spoken language are compared, the written language is usually viewed as more correct and more worthy of study (Leech et. al, 1982). However, the spoken and written language can be said that they are different form linguistics point of view, none of them is superior to the other.

However, this research only focuses on written texts so spoken language can be excluded. According to Goody (1977), at least there are two main functions of writing. The first one is the storage function that allows communications over time and space. Then, the second one is the function that shifts language from the oral to the visual domain and makes words and sentence can be examined of their original contexts. Moreover, Leech et. al (1982) have

the same ideas as what Goody suggests. They suggest that the advantage of writing is relative permanence that allows for record-keeping and for communication over a great distance (such as letters, newspapers, etc), and to large numbers simultaneously (by publications of all kinds). Another advantage of written language is that it is visible. The written language is able to be carefully planned and revised by the writer and it can be processed at leisure and re-read by the reader, while spoken language cannot do that. Therefore, the spoken and written language are complementary in function and both of them are important. Once more, none of them is more important than the other.

1.2.3. Narrative Text

Narrative text is a common text type in daily life because humans communicate with each other through stories. According to Cambridge Online Dictionary, a narrative is a story or a description of a series of events (Cambridge Dictionary). Langan (2008) mentions narration is a story or event that has happened (Langan, 2008). According to Crystal (2008), a narrative is seen as a summary of past experience by using language to structure a sequence of events (Crystal, 2008). The narrative text contains problematic events and their resolution and aims to amuse and entertain. One form of narrative text that is easily found is a short story, a brief fictional prose that focuses on one or a few incidents or series. It usually deals with a few characters and it is shorter than a novel.

Narrative is not merely about entertaining or amusing the readers. The narrative also has a social role. It is also used as an influential way for changing social opinions and attitudes. This role can be seen in some soap operas and

television dramas which raise topical social issues and propose different perspective about the issues (Knapp and Watkins, 2005). Knapp and Watkins also mentioned that narrative can apply almost anything with language since there are no typical grammatical features of narratives. However, the narrative basically is a sequence of events temporally, the readers of the narrative would expect to find a predominance of action verbs and temporal connectives.

1.2.4. Expository Text

Generally, expository text is a text that proposes to inform, explain, describe, or define a topic to the reader. Expository writing includes essays, reports, articles, memos, and other conceptual writing (Elbow, 1998).

Unlike narrative, expository text presents some challenges. Kenyon and Black (2010) suggest that expository texts are organized in many different ways starting from simple to a complex causation structure. Then, to gain information within expository texts, the readers require 'information gathering skills'. Finally, when reading expository texts, the focus is often on the facts and content of the texts.

1.2.5. The Similarities and Differences between Narrative and Expository

Narrative text and expository text are the major types of text that are familiar to most students. As explained above, both narrative text and expository text tell or explain information whether it is about events, places or objects. The other similarity that both texts have is the structure. The first part of these texts starts with an introductory paragraph. Narrative text starts with the introduction of characters, setting or conflict and expository text starts with the introduction of

the topic. Then, these texts have a body paragraph and a conclusion or resolution at the end of the paragraph.

The difference between narrative text and expository text can be seen in how the texts represent their ideas and information. The narrative text conveys ideas and information by using story-telling while expository text explains, describes and informs the ideas and information. The narrative text requires an understanding of the theme, characterization, and structure of the story. The expository text requires skills to gain information such as comparing, contrasting, evaluating and drawing conclusions from the text (Bidyapati ,2021).

1.2.6. Lexical Density

Lexical density refers to proportion of lexical words to the total number of words in text (Halliday, 1989). This concept is introduced by Ure (1971) as the total number of words with lexical properties (lexical items) divided to by the total number of words (Johansson, 2008). Lexical density estimates the linguistics complexity of written or spoken language from the lexical items and grammatical items.

Lexical density shows the ratio of lexical items to grammatical items. Lexical items are the major parts of the analysis of lexical density because they carry content words that allow to pack information in texts. Therefore, lexical density has to do with how information is packed in texts.

Halliday (1989) reveals how to measure lexical density of spoken or written texts. It starts with a classification of all words into lexical items and grammatical items. Then Halliday prefers to count lexical density as the number

of lexical items per clause instead of counting the number of lexical items as a ratio of the total number of words in texts. For example:

|| The basic ‘stuff’ of living organisms is protoplasm. || There is no set composition of this || and it varies between one individual and the next. ||

There are three clauses in the above text that contain five (basic, stuff, living, organisms, protoplasm), two (set, composition) and two (varies, individual) lexical items and the text has nine lexical items in total. The average lexical items are three per clause. Therefore, the text has a mean lexical density of 3.0 (Halliday, 1989, p.67).

Eggs has his own term to measure lexical density of texts. According to Eggs, lexical density can be calculated by counting the number of content carrying words (lexical items) in a text/sentence as a proportion of all the words in the text/sentence (Eggs, 2004). The difference between Halliday’s and Eggs’ formula is that Halliday counts lexical items per clause while Eggs counts lexical items per text/sentence. However, both ways have always the same result. In this research, the Eggs’ theory is used to analyzed the selected texts.

1.2.6.1. Content carrying words

In order to discuss content carrying words, the first thing that is need to know is morphology. The term ‘morphology’ is derived from the Greek: *morph* means ‘shape, form, and *logy* means science. Thus, morphology is the study of form or forms. In linguistics, morphology is the scientific study that deals with words, their internal structure and how they are formed (Aronoff and Fudeman, 2011).

Words possess two characteristics which are first, they have meanings that are unpredictable and so must be listed in dictionaries and the second, they are the building-block for words and phrases. However, these characteristics do not always go together (McCarthy, 2002). According to McCarthy, it will be helpful to distinguish these two characteristics with distinct terms. He uses **lexical items** for items with first characteristic and **word** for items with second characteristic (McCarthy, 2002).

Moving on to Lexical density, there are two components to understand lexical density which are lexical item and grammatical item. Lexical items often called as ‘content words’ are the main semantics information in a text. According to Halliday (1989), technically, they are items rather than words because they may consist of more than one word for example: *stand up, take over, call of* and other phrasal verbs that function as single lexical items. Content words enter into an open system which allows to add new items (Halliday, 1989). Content carrying words consist of these parts:

a. Noun

Noun refers to a word (or group of words) which is the name of a person, a place, a thing or activity or a quality or idea. Usually, noun is found and used as the subject or object of a verb. The examples of noun are *book, sense, walking stick, town hall, Eleanor, Devon* (Hermer, 1998).

b. Verb

Verb refers to a word (or group of words) that describes an action, experiences or state for example *write, ride, be set out* (Hermer, 1998).

c. Adjective

Adjective is a word which gives more information about a noun or pronoun. These are some examples of adjective: *kind, better, impetuous, best* (Hermer, 1998).

d. Adverb

Adverb is a word (or group of words) that describes and add more information of a verb, adjective, another adverb, or a whole sentence. For example: *sensibly, carefully, happily* (Hermer, 1998).

1.2.6.2. Non-content carrying words

Other component is a non-content carrying words or grammatical items or function words which enter into a closed system. The grammatical item does not allow any items to be added (Halliday, 1989). These are the categories of non-content carrying words:

a. Preposition

Preposition refers to a word (or group of word) that is used to show relationship between words (Hermer, 1998). It shows place, direction and time in a sentence. For example: *for, of, in, on top of*.

b. Conjunction

Conjunction is a word that functions to connect sentences, phrases or clauses. There are several types of conjunctions within a sentence which are subordinating and coordinating conjunction. Subordinating conjunction functions to join dependent clause to independent clause such as *if, so, that, although*. Coordinating conjunction functions to join two or more clauses such as *and, or* and *but*.

c. Auxiliary Verb

Auxiliary verb is a type of verb that helps the main verb to describe action. These are the examples of auxiliary verbs: *be, do* and *have* and the modal auxiliary verbs *shall, should, will, would, can could may, might, must* or *ought*. These auxiliary verbs help the main verb in affirmative sentence, negative sentence and question formation (Hermer, 1998).

d. Pronoun

Pronoun is a word which is used to replace a noun or noun phrase. There are several types of pronouns. They are personal pronouns (*I, you, he, she, we, they* and *it*), reflexive pronoun (*myself, yourself, etc*), possessive pronouns (*mine, yours his, her, etc*) and relative pronouns (*who, whose, where, which and that*) (Hermer, 1998).

e. Determiner

Determiners usually come in front of nouns or at the beginning of a noun phrase that function to refer something specific or particular type. Determiners consist of definite article (*the*), indefinite article (*a, an*), possessive (*my, your, etc*) demonstratives (*this, that, these, those*) and quantifiers (*some, many, few, etc*) (Hermer, 1998).

1.2.7. Grammatical Intricacy

Grammatical intricacy is the kind of complexity which is typically related to spoken language. The complexity of the spoken language is dynamic and intricate while the complexity of written language is static and dense. When

talking about grammatical intricacy, it is also important to discuss syntax and grammar.

Syntax refers to the study of sentences construction: how words group together to make phrases and sentences. It concerns the structure of sentence as the central study of syntax (Tallerman, 2011; Burton-Roberts, 2016). Some linguists use the term grammar to refer syntax and some others argue that grammar of language includes all of its organizing principles such as information about the sound systems, about the form of the words, how language is adjusted to context and so on. Thus, syntax is a part of grammar itself (Tallerman, 2011).

Sentence is said as the largest unit of syntax (Huddleston, 1988). Sentence is a linguistics expression that consists of word and it contains what is called syntactic function; subject and predicate (Huddleston, 1988; Burton-Roberts, 2016). Furthermore, in systemic functional linguistics, sentence refers only to units of orthography which is marked by the use of punctuations such as initial capital and full stop, question mark or exclamation mark at the end. Sentence as written language system of orthography and punctuation comes after spoken language which means they are secondary system. Halliday and Matthiessen preferred to use the term **clause** rather than **sentence** in referring to grammar. When two or more clauses are linked together then it is called as clause complex and the term clause simplex refers to single clause unit (or sentence of only one clause). In conclusion, the sentence is an orthographic unit that occurs in written language while the clause complex is a grammatical and semantic unit that occurs in both spoken and written language (Eggs, 2004; Halliday and Matthiessen, 2014).

There are two kinds of clause that are need to discussed. They are finite and non-finite clause. Finite clause contains a finite verb (auxiliary or lexical) and tensed for present or past. On the other hand, non-finite clause contains no tensed verb which means they are tenseless clauses and they only appear as subordinate clauses. Non-finite verbs are normally divided into four forms which are (1) bare infinitive (2) to-infinitive (3) passive participles (4) -ing participle (Burton-Roberts, 2016).

1) Bare infinitive verbs

Bare infinitive verb is a stem of a lexical verb that is not precede by any auxiliary verb. These are the examples of bare infinitive clauses (Burton-Roberts, 2016 p.225):

- i. She made him [wash her socks].
- ii. All you have to do is [squeeze the trigger slowly].

2) To-infinitive verbs

To-infinitive verb can appear as present, perfect, progress and passive form. These are the examples of to-infinitive clauses (Burton-Roberts, 2016 p.225):

- i. We eagerly accepted his invitation [to taste the wine].
- ii. He is thought [to be hiding in Brazil].
- iii. Gomez is unlikely [to be beaten by a six year old]
- iv. [For Max to have been beaten] is barely credible.

3) Passive participle verbs

These verbs are the same as bare infinitive verbs that consist of lexical verb but in the passive participle forms and they have passive meaning. These are some examples of them (Burton-Roberts, 2016 p.226):

- i. [The palanquin loaded], we took a rest.
- ii. [Loaded to capacity], the palanquin lurched on.
- iii. I saw [your book reviewed in the paper].
- iv. I want [these accusations investigated].

4) -ing participle verbs

The verb of -ing participle clause is added by -ing affix. Here are the examples of -ing participle clauses (Burton-Roberts, 2016 p.227):

- i. He always had difficulty in [apologizing].
- ii. Judith was busy [stuffing the peppers].
- iii. [Murtlock having been hospitalised], I conducted a bedside interview.

Grammatical intricacy is influenced by the clause complex. In the processes of oral communication, the clause complex is the important part (Halliday, 1989). According to Halliday, a clause complex is the grammar's way to show (1) **that** and (2) **how** the processes going together in a sequence are all related to each other. The combination of clauses into a clause complex is one of tighter integration in meaning (Halliday, 1989; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014). There are two ways of doing the clause complex relating to a degree of interdependency of taxis. There are two degrees of dependency which are parataxis (equal status) and hypotaxis (unequal status).

1) Parataxis

The clauses can be treated as equal; none is dependent on another clause, one initiating and the other continuing. For example (Halliday, 1989, p.83, Matthiessen, 2014, p.440):

Clause 1 (initiating)

Clause 2 (continuing)

It's less risky

and/or/but/so it cost less.

It's quite safe;

there's no danger.

Thomas said,

'There's no danger'.

Parataxis, according to Halliday (1989, p.83), includes:

- Co-ordinate complexes that are indicated by 'and/or'
- A kind of apposition complexes that are indicated by 'i.e/e.g'
- The use of 'then/so/but'
- Direct speech quotation complexes

2) Hypotaxis

The clauses can be treated as unequal, one clause is dependent on another clause. For example (Halliday, 1989, p.83):

Clause a (dominant)

Clause b (dependent)

They approached the government

instead of finding for themselves.

They approached the government

who rejected their appeal.

They approached the government

asking/(in order) to ask for a loan.

They said

They would approach the government

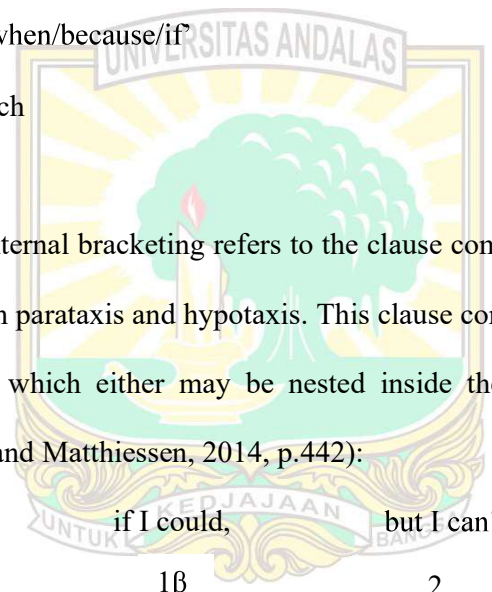
Clause b	Clause a
Instead of finding for themselves	they approached the government.
Because they needed a loan	they approached the government.
They would approach the government	they said.

Halliday (1989, p.83) includes some types of complexes as hypotaxis:

- The use of ‘besides/instead of’
- Non-defining relative clauses
- The use of ‘when/because/if’
- Indirect speech

3) Nesting

Nesting or internal bracketing refers to the clause complex which involves relationships of both parataxis and hypotaxis. This clause complex is a mixture of both kind of taxis which either may be nested inside the other. Here is the example (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2014, p.442):



I would if I could, but I can't
1α 1β 2

The example shows that there is paratactic and hypotactic relationship. *I would if I could* and *but I can't* is paratactic relationship marked as 1 2; and *I would* and *if I could* is hypotactic relationship marked as α β .

4) Embedded clauses

These clauses do not form any clause complexes because the function of them is as constituents in other clauses. Consequently, the category of parataxis and hypotaxis cannot be applied the them (Thompson, 2014, p.192). Halliday and

Matthiessen (2014) use [[]] to signify the embedded clause. The embedded clause also functions as Qualifier and it is called as a defining relative clause. Examples are (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2014, p. 382, Thompson, 2014, p.192):

The plea [[that has been entered]]

There is some support for his argument [[that modern agents have to be ruthless]]

Peter Robinson said / that the Chancellor has the opportunity [[to stimulate the housing market, / hopefully by targeting first-time buyers]]

Grammatical intricacy has to do with the number of clauses per sentence. According to Eggins (2004) grammatical intricacy can be calculated by expressing the number of clauses in a text as a proportion of the number of sentences in the text (Eggins, 2004, p.97).

1.3. Review of Previous Studies

Some works had been done to discuss lexical density and grammatical intricacy such as articles (Johansson, 2008; To et al, 2013; Nesia and Ginting, 2014; Syarif and Putri 2018; Syarif 2019; Manurung, 2019; Prawinanto and Bram, 2020; Hanafiah and Yusuf, 2016) and books (Halliday, 1989; Eggins, 2004). These works, articles and books, contain a lot of information about lexical density and grammatical intricacy.

In the literature of lexical density and grammatical intricacy, there are some studies that discuss the lexical density of English reading textbooks and the grammatical intricacy university students' thesis background. These studies can be referred to this research due to some similarities. These studies analyzed some kinds of texts such as narrative texts, discussion texts and so on, which is also the

concern of this research to analyzed the narrative text and expository text. However, the texts that they analyzed are senior high school textbook. The following are the review of the studies.

To et al (2013) examined the lexical density and readability of four English textbooks with the title Active Skill for Reading at the levels of elementary, pre-intermediate, intermediate, and upper-intermediate. They found that three of the four reading textbooks had high lexical density except the text for upper-intermediate level. Their study also revealed that there was no convincing proof about the relation between lexical density and readability, between lexical density and English reading comprehension text levels, as well as the text levels and their overall readability. The study also argued that grammatical aspects may influence the linguistic complexity of texts in English text book rather than lexical density.

Other studies relating to lexical density of English reading textbooks were conducted by Nesia and Ginting (2014), as well as Manurung (2019). Nesia and Ginting (2014) analyzed lexical density in the reading text of Look Ahead textbook especially eight different type of reading texts that are contained in the textbook. They found that from eight texts, there were four texts, discussion text, narrative text, discussion text, and narrative text, which had lower lexical density. Then, the quite lexical density was found in explanation text and review text. The highest lexical density that was found in the textbook was in explanation text (58,42%). Moreover, Manurung (2019) analyzed ten reading texts from Bahasa Inggris textbook for senior high school. The study showed that seven texts had medium lexical density and three texts had low lexical density. These two studies

suggested that English textbooks for Indonesia's senior high school are not too difficult to understand due to their lexical density.

In university level, Syarif and Putri (2018) examined the introduction section of thesis proposals written by English graduate students, with the readers of higher education level. This study purposed to find out lexical density of students' writing and to explain how lexical density shows the students' ability in writing an academic text. The study revealed that the lexical density that students produced in their writing was categorized as less dense (51,19%). It implied that students' ability in writing academic text is in average level due to lack of knowledge about the language use in writing an academic text.

In another article, Syarif (2018) also examined lexical density and grammatical intricacy that are contained in introduction section of thesis proposal written by graduate students. The study finds that the level of lexical density is adequate enough and the level of grammatical intricacy is high. The finding is slightly different from the theories because there are some clause complexes that are found in the data.

Hanafiah and Yusuf (2016) study the lexical density and the grammatical intricacy in linguistics thesis abstract written by undergraduate English Department student. This study aims to figure out the characteristics of the those abstract whether they can be classified into spoken or written language. The study finds that the average score of grammatical intricacy is 1.84 and the average score of lexical density is 0.57 or 57% and it can be concluded that those abstracts have written language characteristic because they have high degree of

lexical density and use simple language represented by low degree of grammatical intricacy.

Other study was conducted by V. Johansson (2008) that focused on developmental pattern in terms of the measures lexical diversity and lexical density. This study examined whether both of lexical diversity and lexical density are sensitive to genre (narrative vs. expository) and modality (writing vs. speaking). Johansson used material from Swedish part of an international study on developing which called Spencer project. The project purposed to investigate the development of literacy in both speaking and writing in two different genres: narrative and expository which was participated by four age groups: 10-year-olds (4th-graders), 13-year-olds (7th-graders), 17-year-olds (11th-graders), and adults (university students). In the term of lexical density, the study showed a difference lexical density between the spoken and the written texts, independent of genre. It also found that each group of different ages produced different lexical density and it increased from the young to the adult. Therefore, the study concluded that the adults were able to apply their knowledge in writing and speaking.

In the literature, most articles study and examine the lexical density of high school's reading textbooks in Indonesia while other study examines lexical density and grammatical intricacy of university students' writing. To my knowledge, the studies of lexical density grammatical intricacy are limited to the study of reading text in senior high school textbooks and student writing. Therefore, this research will also study and examine lexical density and grammatical intricacy of texts from contemporary literature works and journal which are familiar with students. By focusing the attention on lexical density and

grammatical intricacy between two different types of texts, this study, thus, intends to compare and analyze narrative text and expository text which are the common reading materials nowadays especially for students of university.

1.4. The Scope of the Study

This study will focus on the lexical density and grammatical intricacy of two type texts which are narrative text: *The Too Clever Fox* by Leigh Bardugo and expository text: *Attitudes Toward Regional British Accents in EFL Teaching: Student and teacher perspectives* written by Alex Baratta and Nichola Halenko. Then, the lexical density and grammatical intricacy of both texts will be compared. The study only focuses to analyze the lexical density of the both texts by reading the texts and finding the number of lexical items or contents carrying words in both texts and then analyzing the grammatical intricacy by counting the number of clauses per sentence in both texts.

1.5. Research Questions

1. Which text does have the highest lexical density and grammatical intricacy?
2. What are the similarities and differences between these two texts based on their lexical density and grammatical intricacy?

1.6. The Objectives of the Study

1. To analyze and compare which text has the highest lexical density and grammatical intricacy.
2. To find the similarities and differences between these two texts based on their lexical density and grammatical intricacy.