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Text Linguistics of “Textuality”: Making a Sequence of Sentences Communicative English Written Texts

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Abstract

Textuality makes a sequence of sentences a communicative English written text. It, nonetheless, hardly becomes a major theme of foreign language learning in the Indonesian English Writing Classes/context nowadays. This study, therefore, aimed at diagnosing the “incorrect/missing uses of the seven elements of the textuality in the students’ cause and effect essay. Qualitatively, Politeknik Negeri Padang was the locus of the study. The 2nd-year ED students (n=32) were the research participants selected through the convenience sampling techniques. The documentation and observation were the techniques of data collection while the 1967 Corder’s Clinical elicitation was exercised as ways of analysing the data. The findings disclosed that the students missed using nominal substitution and lexical cohesion of repetition and synonym along with incorrectly used verbal and clausal substitution, nominal, verbal and clausal ellipsis, anaphoric and cataphoric references, and lexical cohesion of grammatical and lexical collocations. They, however, succeeded in correctly using three different types of conjunctions and coherence though they flopped to utilise the acceptable phrases of drawing a conclusion. Hyponymy, metonymy and antonymy were ignored. In conclusion, the deficiencies made the students’ sequences of sentences flawed and characterless. It, therefore, encourages EFL teacher to place emphasis on teaching textuality in the English Writing Classes.

Keywords: Text Linguistics, Textuality, Sequence of Sentences, Communicative English Written Texts

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I INTRODUCTION

The reason for proposing such a title, “Text Linguistics of “Textuality”: Making a Sequence of Sentences a Communicative English Written Text,” strongly rested on the author’s experiences of academically advising the internship reports and final projects of his students. The author appraised two critical writings issues degrading the characteristics and the quality of the internship reports and final projects themselves. The first writing issues were *Grammar*, some of them were the incorrect uses of determiners, incorrect noun number and verb

forms, wrong or missing prepositions; *Punctuations* like comma misuse within clause, punctuations in compound/complex sentences, semicolon, and question marks misuses, closing punctuation; *Spelling*: unknown words, misspelled words, mixed dialects of English, confused words; *Enhancement*: word choices, *style*: wordy sentences, passive voice misuse, improper formatting; and *Sentence Structures*: incomplete sentence, sentence fragments, fused/run-on sentence and comma splices. After being supervised for several times, they could

grammatically solve these writing issues gradually although there were found some deficiencies in completing them. Finally, the sentences produced could be *slightly* understood *grammatically*.

Lastly, the sequences of sentences produced, however, have not been considered “*communicative*” yet due to the incorrect/missing uses of their textures. Analogously, it is similar to the food and beverage being served for the five-star hotel’s guests losing their textures. They become blander, lacklustre and degrade the guests’ appetites for sensing by mouth (tasting it). As a result, the loss or the absence of food and beverage’s textures or text’s textures dispel and even demeaned the characteristics and the quality of the food and beverage and or the texts themselves. The rationales for appraising the students’ internship reports and final projects flawed, less communicative, and characterless were, therefore, *firstly*, the sequences of sentences produced because the texts missed grammatical cohesion stressing on content structural and lexical cohesion underlying the lexical content and background knowledge (Halliday, & Hasan, 1976; Hoey, 1991; Kunz & Steiner, n.d). *Secondly*, they missed any devices signifying the specific relationships between what was stated and will be delivered/conveyed next. There were not words or phrases implying the writers’ (students) additional ideas, comparison, contrast, cause and effect relationship, example and any particular meaning and conclusion. Transitional words and phrases of coordinate and correlative conjunctions should be seriously considered establishing the relationships between parallel elements. *Thirdly*, the students, on the other hand, have stated their intention of achieving specific goals. They clearly stated that this reports/final project, for examples, aimed at reporting our activities during the internship program at this office or the company. Arguing, informing, reporting, persuading, entertaining, explaining, and describing are, indeed theoretically, ways of stating intentionality. *Fourthly*, the sequences of sentences produced as texts were, regrettably, unacceptable to the reader (their advisor) because cohesion and coherence failed to be established within the sentences. *Fifthly*, besides, they failed to contain new information. The information provided was mediocre and even was similar to the previous internships reports and final projects. *Sixthly*, the students, in contrast, have considered

the factors making the texts produced, e.g. the reports and final projects were written or produced because the internship program has ended or due to meeting requirements of graduation. *Lastly*, the texts written had not linked to each other. There were no close relationships between one paragraph to the other ones though there were identified have good links between chapter one to the other ones.

Due to failing to produce the characterising, qualifying, flawless, and communicative sequences of sentences resulting in communicative texts, the study aimed at diagnosing the incorrect uses of and the missing of the seven standards of the textuality in the 2nd-year ED students’ Cause and Effect Essays. Subsequently, the single research question was sought to answer was “what standards of the textuality were *incorrectly used (misused)* and or *missed* in the 2nd-year ED students’ Cause and Effect Essays.”

Seven Standards of Textuality: A Discourse Analysis Review of Text Linguistics

What makes sequence of sentences a communicative text? The answers to the distinct question link to the following theoretical details. Historically, in the theoretical perspectives, textuality is strongly linked to the philosophies of Structuralism and Post-Structuralism. The Structuralists –Claude Lévi-Strauss, linguist Roman Jakobson, and psychoanalyst Jacques Lacan– who are taking a shelter under the umbrella of the Structuralism, dished out the ideas of studying, diagnosing, investigating or recognising the elements of the human cultures – language, linguistics, literature, art, sociology and anthropology– through their own structures (the organised system of an object, e.g., text) and relationships amongst the major elements and modelled by the language or structural linguistics proposed by the Swiss linguist Ferdinand de Saussure by collecting a corpus of utterances and then categorized (all the elements of corpus) into their diverse linguistic levels of the phonemes, morphemes, lexical categories, noun phrases, verb phrases, and types of the sentence (Searle, 2013). The Structuralists then moved to study the structures of the texts as one of the “cultural products” of the human using the analytical concepts of “binary opposition” or “pairs of opposite but interrelated utterances” as such as fantasy vs. emblematic, speech vs. writing,

signifier vs. signified, present vs. past, black vs. white, etc. In linguistics studies particularly, Ferdinand de Saussure promulgated three related concepts of language of the differences between *langue* (idealised abstraction of language/system of a language) and *parole* (speech/language used in daily life) while “sign” is both signified (abstract concept or idea/concepts/meaning of words) and signifier (the perceived sound/visual image/sound patterns of a words); language has different words to name the objects/concepts. When a speaker articulates mutely any kind of text, it is physically realized as part of a speech act) It is then “arbitrary;” the meaning of a “sign” was understood from its own relationship and contrast with other signs (Saussure, 1916).

The Post-Structuralism, characterised by Roland Barthes, Jacques Derrida, Michel Foucault, Gilles Deleuze, Judith Butler, Jean Baudrillard, Julia Kristeva, and Jürgen Habermas, stalwartly opposed these ideas of the Structuralists although they are the heirs of the intellectual project of the structuralism (Blackburn, 2008 p.353; Lewis, 1982 p. 2-24). Post-Structuralists argued that to figure out or grasp the object such as “text,” it is required to study the object itself and the system of knowledge that produces it (Bensmaïa, 2005 p. 92-93; Deleuze, 2002 p. 170-192; Mark, 1988 p. 5-6). Wittily, John Searle was amused to glimpse the blurriness of the undecided distances between the philosophers, *Structuralists* and *Post-Structuralists* because *Post-Structuralists* were the successors of the *Structuralists*’ thoughts (Searle, 1990; Blackburn, 2008 p.353; Saussure, 1916 cited in Wade, 1959 p.120). The abovementioned philosophical foundations clearly depicted that *the theory of textuality* embraces all of the characteristics discriminating the communicative content under the investigation as the object of study. Textuality is, therefore, strongly correlated to the Structuralists and Post-Structuralists’ understanding investigating the *texts* as the objects of linguistic studies in particular. As a scientific study, textuality studies two different fields of knowledge. In *literary studies*, the textuality is explicated as the individual idiosyncrasy of the imaginative, connotative and communicative spoken utterances in the literary works as novels, poetry, street signs, brochure, pamphlets, etc serving as a coherent set of signs

which seriously taken account of sending the *informative message’s contents* (Jurij, 1977) to the readers. The literary texts are, nevertheless, not the major aim of undertaking the proposed study. In contrast, as a major *linguistic study*, this research interprets textuality as the sequences of the text’s properties characterising and qualifying the sequences of sentences as communicative written texts. These two different interpretations do not automatically bound and split the main purpose of textuality itself as forms of cohesive and coherent devices in literary and linguistic texts/studies.

Text Linguistics of “Textuality”

A text is an extended formation of syntactic elements of words, groups, and clauses and textual units characterised by both cohesion and coherence (Werlich, 1976) whereas textuality is described as the state/condition of being textual, the way in which the texts (sentences) is penned. Textuality links to the sequences of sentences of the written text (Oxford Dictionary of Literary Terms, 2008) as it strongly deals with the written word, the placement of the words and the reader’s interpretation. The presence of a set formula to elucidate and explain a text’s textuality aids the writers/authors capable of characterising and qualifying their texts although they have to go through some multifaceted procedures. Besides, textuality bridges the reader to have better interpretation even though Hawthorn considers it less important or less problematic” (Hawthorn, Jeremy. 2000). This is the easiest way of making senses of the texts and deciding the characteristics and the state-of-the-art of the meanings of the text. Text linguistics, on the other hand, is the study of how texts affect human daily-life interaction. Beaugrande and Dressler (1981) describe a text as a “communicative occurrence which meets seven standards of textuality” – *cohesion, coherence, intentionality, acceptability, informativeness, situationality and intertextuality*, without one of them, the sequences of sentences being produced will not be considered communicative texts. The following is the structures of the DNA of the textuality which can make/produce a sequence of sentences a “*communicative text.*”

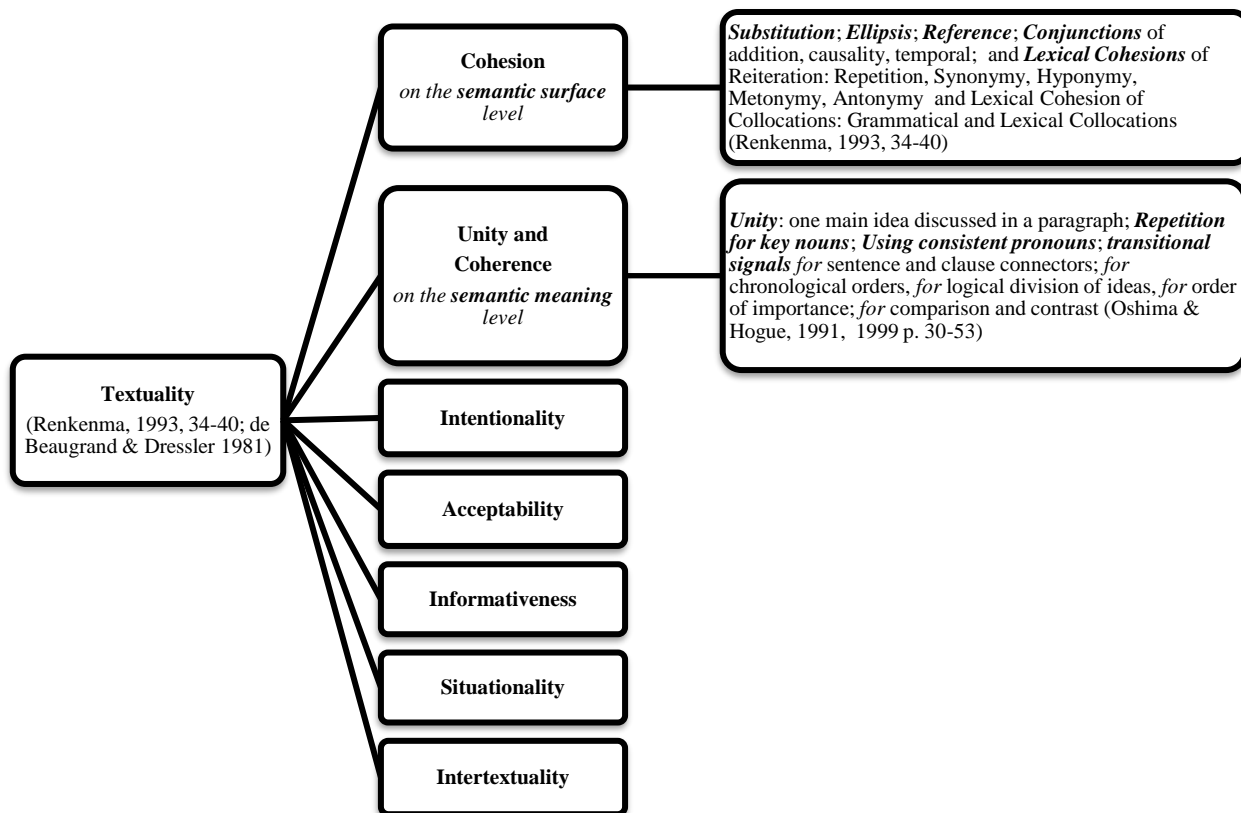


Table 1. Horizontal Hierarchy of Structures of the DNA of the “Textuality”

The brief explanations of the seven criteria for text’s textuality are, *firstly*, *cohesion*. As *lexico-grammatical units in a discourse analysis*, cohesion connects one textual element to another one in the texts. This connection signifies that the textual elements are strongly affected or determined by the other ones in the text (Renkema, 2004). Bussmann (1998 p.199) details, “The repetition of elements of the text, e.g. recurrence, textphoric, paraphrase, parallelism; the compacting of text through the use of devices such as ellipsis; and the use of morphological and syntactic devices to express the different kinds of relationships such as connection, tense, aspect, deixis, or theme-relationships form the most important parts of connecting one textual element to another one.” The Bussman’s details are specifically recognised as the cohesion’s production. Similarly, **Halliday & Hassan (1976); Renkema (1993);** Hoey, (1991) and Kunz, K. & Steiner, E **discriminate five types of cohesion. The first type is the Substitution or particularly termed as “substitution per se”** acting as replacing one item by another or substituting a word or phrase with a filler word of such as *one, so, or do*) to avoid repetition is sub-

divided into three types, namely, *nominal, verbal* and *clausal* substitution. The *substitution of nouns* which functions as replacing noun in a sentence is, for examples, “*These biscuits* are stale. Get some fresh *ones*. *These biscuits* are stale. *Those* are fresh.” The *substitution of verbs* which are done by replacing a verbal expression with the lexical item ‘do’ is for instances, “A: Have you *called* the doctor? B: I haven’t done it yet, but I will *do* it.” A: Though actually, I think you should do it. B: He *participated* in the debate, but you *didn’t*.” The last type is the *Substitution of clause* which is accomplished by using the lexical items ‘so’ and ‘not’ as in, “A: *Are they still arguing in there?* B: No, it just seems *so*.” A: Who wants to go shopping? B: You? (**Renkema, 1993**).

The **Ellipsis** or specifically identified as “zero-replacement” is the second type of cohesive device. Ellipsis emerges when word or phrase is omitted. The nominal, verbal and clausal ellipsis *zero-replacements* are the divisions of Ellipsis (Halliday & Hassan, 1994). The *Nominal ellipsis*, are for examples, When Susan brings her dog, Sam brings **his**_{dog} too. - N-ellipsis introduced by possessive. Jill likes your story even though she hates **Bill’s**_{story}. - N-ellipsis introduced by

possessive –s. Because you bought two donuts, I bought **three**_{donuts}. - N-ellipsis introduced by cardinal number. I caught the first train before you caught the **second**_{train}. - N-ellipsis introduced by ordinal number. Some school kids like syntax, and **some**_{school kids} don't. - N-ellipsis introduced by a quantifier. Each student was helped so that **each**_{student} would understand. - N-ellipsis introduced by a quantifier. The *Verbal ellipsis*, are for instances, Have you been swimming? – yes I have. What have you been doing? – swimming. Both can be said to stand for ‘*have been swimming*’ (Halliday and Hassan: 1994). The last is *Clausal ellipsis*. The examples of it are What was the Duke was going to do? –plant a row of poplars in the park (the modal element has been omitted, the subject: the Duke). This first criterion is actually meant to avoid repetition (Renkema, 1993).

The third is the *Anaphoric Reference* and *Cataphoric Reference*. These are the types of *Reference devices* that can produce cohesion. The anaphoric reference occurs when an author refers back to someone or something that has been previously identified as in the following cases in points → I carried two glasses while running. They then fell. The pronoun *they* is an anaphor pointing to the left toward its antecedent *two glasses* → The concert suddenly stopped, and **that** distressed the onlookers. The demonstrative pronoun, *that*, is an anaphor. It indicates to the left toward its antecedent → *The concert suddenly stopped*. Susie was heated, and **so** was he. The adverb *so* is an anaphor signifying to the left toward its antecedent *angry*. → If Bram purchases a new Ferrari, I will **do it** as well. The verb phrase *do it* is anaphor which designates to the left toward its antecedent *purchases a new Ferrari*. The phrases or expressions of, “*as stated previously*” and “*the aforementioned*” are cases in point which can be found in the *formulaic sequences*. The

second one is *Cataphoric Reference*. This reference is the opposite of anaphora. It is a reference forward as opposed to backwards in the discourse as in “→Because they felt very hot, the students took off their jackets. The pronoun *they* is a cataphor which specifies to the right toward its postcedent *the students*. → **Their** classmates took John for a walk around the city of Padang. The possessive adjective **THEIR** is a cataphor showing to the right toward its postcedent *John*. → Even if Darrel Keandra could **do so**, Her mother will not purchase a house. The verb phrase *do so* is a cataphor. It actually points to the right toward its postcedent *purchase a house*. → In **their** spare time, Darrel and Keandra are listening to the music. The possessive adjective, *their*, is a cataphor designating to the right toward its postcedent *Darrel and Keandra* (Renkema, 1993).

As the fourth type of cohesive writing, the *conjunction* is generally described as “linking words or sentence connectors constructing or establishing the logical relations.” In its personal uses, *conjunction* and *conjunctions* are, however, in different interpretations and meanings in particular. The *conjunction* is used to support an author to produce and convey the logical relationships between the parts of a text/sentence whereas the *conjunctions* are words or phrases the author uses to stick the clauses together as well as showing relationships between two ideas. The *conjunctions* signify the logical relations. Conjunction and conjunctions are both cohesive devices. The types of logical relations (connectives/connecting words) are illustrated below (Scribendi, 2014; Eggins, 1994, p. 105; Martin, 1986; Martin, 1993; Oshima & Hogue, 1991). Substitution, Ellipsis and conjunction are semantic-grammatical cohesive markers connecting ideas within the texts/discourses (Hassan & Halliday, 1976 p.31-227).

Table 2. Conjunctions

CONJUNCTIONS <i>connecting words, phrases, clauses and sentences</i>		
Showing Comparison: than, rather than, whether, as much as, whereas	Showing Relative Pronoun: that, whatever, what, which, whichever	Showing Time: after, as long as, as soon as, before, by the time, now that, once, since, till, until, when, whenever, while
SUBORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS (<i>concession, relative adjectives and reasons</i>) connect a dependent clause to an independent clause which aim at showing/establishing a relationship between the two (ideas).		
Showing Concession: though, even though, although, while	Showing Relative Adjectives: who, whoever, whom, whomever, whose	Showing Reasons: because, since, so that, in order (that), why
Showing Condition: if, only if, unless, until, provided, assuming that, even if, in case (that), lest	Showing Manner: how, as though, as if	
CONJUNCTIVE ADVERBS		
Similar to “AND” : also, besides, furthermore, likewise, moreover	Similar to “BUT” : however, nevertheless, nonetheless, still, conversely, instead, otherwise, rather	Similar to “SO” : accordingly, consequently, hence, meanwhile, then, therefore, thus

Showing Correlative / Pair Conjunctions are two words or phrases facilitating make a point or establish choices/options and this can be helpful in organising a sentence, making sentences wordier than necessary.

as...as, just as...so, both...and, hardly...when, either...or, neither...nor, scarcely...when, if...then, not...but, what with...and, whether...or, not only...but also, no sooner...than, rather...than

Showing Coordinating linking words or phrases providing the same grammatical purpose in a sentence.

FANBOYS: for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so

Showing "that" as a conjunction for Noun Clause:

i.e., John (1989) reported **that** more research was necessary

John (1989) → **subject**; reported → **verb**; **that** more research was necessary → dependent clause, direct object of the verb "reported"

(Caplan, 2012; Jamieson, 2012)

Lexical cohesion, as the last part of cohesion, according to Renkema (1993), is related words chosen to link the elements within sentences or texts. The author's capabilities of properly selecting related lexicons impinge on the continuity of the lexical meaning even though it does not guarantee and secure the texts' unity. Lexical cohesion is just a method for achieving it. Due to it, lexical cohesion does not indicate whether it serves cohesively or not. It always calls for a reference to the text, to some other kinds of a lexical item to be interpreted correctly. Theoretically, lexical cohesion has two different types, namely, *reiteration* and *collocation* (Morris & Hirst, 1991 p. 21-48). Reiteration, whose definition is to restate in order to **give emphasis to, consist of, first, Repetition** is the act of repeating something. **It often involves reference, for example, "A meeting will be held in Jakarta. At this meeting, the issue of eradicating corruption will be a hot topic."** The second is **Synonymy**. It is a word that has the same meaning as another word in the same language, **and often involves reference), for example, "A meeting will be held in Jakarta. At this political conference, the issue of eradicating corruption will be a hot topic. The meeting is the synonym of the conference."** The third is **Hyponymy**. It shows the relationship between general and specific words or vice versa (e.g., the relation of the 'furniture' to 'table/chair'), for example, Shanty went to Plaza Andalas for shopping furniture. She saw a lovely table. The fourth is **Metonymy** which becomes a part of the rhetorical approach aiming at describing something indirectly by pointing at things around it, such as describing someone's clothing to characterise the individual **or part vs. whole, e.g., at its six-month check-up, the brakes must be repaired. In general, however, the car is in good condition. Antonymy, lastly, signifies the relationship that exists between words which are opposite in meaning, e.g., 'white' vs. 'black'** (Mahlberg, 2006 p. 363-383; Morris & Hirst, 1991 p.21-48; Renkema, 1993).

The last is *collocations*. The collocations are in part or fully unchanging expressions that have been become time-honoured through the repetitive context-dependent uses. Such expressions as "crystal clear", "middle management", "nuclear family", "cosmetic surgery", a claim for, a pride in, etc are examples of collocated pairs of words. Syntactic relation (such as verb-object: "make" and "decision"); lexical relation (such as antonymy) and linguistically defined relation are delineated as parts of collocations. Such expressions are established based on their classifications and patterns as subsequently described. The first classification is *lexical collocations* whose patterns are Adjective + Noun: "heavy sleeper, heavy rain, etc"; Noun + Noun (it looks like a collective nouns): "bouquet of flower, a glass of water, etc, "; Noun + Verb: "plane took off, the bomb went off, tiger starts to roar, etc"; Verb + Noun: "do homework, forgive a debt, make bed, etc"; Adverb + Adjective: "strongly opposed, ridiculously easy, highly successful, etc"; Verb + Expressions + Prepositional Phrase (Verb Phrase): "run out of money, drive someone to crime, etc"; Verb + Adverb: "write correctly," speak honestly, sing beautifully, etc." The second classification is *grammatical collocations* whose patterns are Noun + Preposition, Noun + to + Infinitive, Noun + that-clause, Preposition + Noun, Adjective+ preposition, Adjective + to + Infinitive, Adjective + that-clause, Verb+ direct object+ to+ indirect object= V + indirect O + direct O, Verb + direct O + to + indirect O, Verb + direct O + for + indirect O = Verb + indirect O + direct O, Verb + preposition + Object, Verb + O + preposition + O, Verb + to + Infinitive, Verb + bare infinitive, Verb + V-ing, Verb + Object + to Infinitive, Verb + Object + infinitive, Verb + Object + V-ing, Verb + a possessive + V-ing, Verb + that clause, Verb + O + to be + Complement, Verb + O + Complement, Verb + Object¹ + Object², Verb + (O) + Adverbial, Verb + (O) + wh-clause/ wh-phrase, It + Verb + Object + to infinitive, It + V + Object + that-clause, V +

Complement (Adjective or Noun), and V + Complement/Adjective (Benson, Benson, and Ilson, 1986b; Gledhill, 2000 p. 201-216; Chaun Li, 2005, p.8; Faghih & Mehdizadeh, 2013 p.1603-1609). Shortly, substitution, ellipsis, reference, conjunctions and lexical cohesion semantically hold the sequence or segment of the sentences together, provide meaning existing within the sentences, and define as (communicative) texts. Cohesion strongly acts as the authoritative connection between one element or units of the discourse and another. This criterion, cohesion, is the first semantic measure of the texts' unity and texture communicatively.

Secondly, literally, cohesion and coherence share the same morpheme, "cohere" meaning uniting, sticking and integrating the whole

ideas and arguments together. They allocate the different contributions to qualifying and characterising a text, however. Tragically, the cohesive devices mean nothing if coherence disappears in discourses (spoken/written texts) because the cohesive devices will misguide or drive the readers of being coherent. This misguidance is called pseudo-coherence. On the contrary, a text without having some cohesive devices is strongly considered "coherence" because the critical essence/principle of coherence in spoken/written discourses/texts does not mean something existing in the language itself but it is something that the people experience daily. The people's knowledge has gone beyond the textual realization of semantic relation to search for the coherent discourses. Consider the following simplest texts of a brochure and information.

Table 3. Simplest Texts of a Brochure and Information

CALL FOR PAPERS:			
The International Conference on ELT and Linguistics at IKIP Mataram			
TIME	:	May 30, 2016,	VENUE: Aula Handayani IKIP Mataram
KEYNOTE SPEAKERS: Prof.Dr. Joko Nurkamto, M.Pd, The President of TEFLIN			
Reach us on www.fpbs.ikipmataram.ac.id for more information			

The sequence of fragmented sentences and the complete sentences/clauses look incoherence. The fact is, however, the meaning of the two examples are coherence and well-understood because of the conference participants' experience on the International Conference on ELT and Linguistics and the students' prior knowledge of having linguistic classes. The *records of certain communicative events* bridge the readers, the audiences, participants and or the students understand the "messages conveyed" well. These two texts are coherently communicative. In the above texts, the conference participants and the students themselves made sense of what they have been reading or listening to by making efforts to arrive at a *certain interpretation* backed up by prior knowledge and experience of the ways the world are.

Besides, in **most academic writing**, *making meaningful* connections/ways of achieving coherence are to have a *unity* where a good paragraph discusses only one main idea; involve *repetition for key nouns*; apply consistent pronouns that refer back to pronoun; use

transitional signals of showing how one idea related to the next ones; arrange sentences and clauses in logical orders, in chronological orders, in logical division of ideas, in order of importance, in comparison and contrast as illustrated below; the writer has been capable of **uniting, sticking and integrating the whole ideas, texts, discourses, or arguments together** (Oshima & Hogue, 1991 and 1999 p. 30-53).

The other strong beliefs making the texts coherent are, first, the *readers' continuity of senses of interpreting, appreciating and making sense of* the written texts. The second belief is coherence is, "*is not something which is generated by a text*" established through conceptual connectivity of the language users' assumption, logical relations, organization of events, objects, and situations; and continuity in human experience (Mikhchi, 2011 p. 52-53; Beaugrande & Dressler 1992 p.84; Neubert & Shreve, 1992; Hatim & Mason, 1990). In conclusion, unity, transition signals, conceptual connectivity; the readers' knowledge, experiences, and continuity of senses are the foundations of achieving a text's coherence.

functions	between sentences	between independent clauses	between dependent clauses	others
adding information	also, too, in addition, besides, moreover, furthermore	and	-	another + N, an additional + N
contrasting information	on the other hand, in contrast, nevertheless, nonetheless, however	but, yet	although, even though, whereas, while	in spite of + N, despite + N
exemplifying information	for example, for instance	-	-	an example of + N, such as + N,
explaining	indeed	-	-	that is
clarifying	in fact	-	-	-
concluding	in conclusion	-	-	-
summarising	to summarise	-	-	-
ordering information	first, second ...	-	before	the first + N
chronologically	next, last, after, that meanwhile, since then	-	after, until	the second + N, before the + N, since the +N
prioritising information	more importantly, above all	-	-	the most important + N
alternating	otherwise	or	if, unless	-
causation (reasoning)		for	because	because of, as a result, as a consequence of, due to, to result from, the result of, the effect of X on Y, the consequence of,
showing cause (effect)	accordingly, as a result, consequently, hence	so	-	the cause of, the reason for, to result in, to cause, to have an effect on, to affect
comparing information	Similarly, also, too	and	as, just as	like, just like, alike, similar to, the same as, both...and, not only. but also, to compare with,
conceding	however	but, yet	although, even though, though	despite+ N, in spite of + N
showing strong contrast	however, by comparison, on the other hand	but	-	different from, unlike, to differ from, to compare to,

Adapted from Oshima and Hogue, 1991, Writing Academic English, 2nd edition, Addison and Wesley, Mento Park, California by the Self Directed Learning Resource, Learning Resource Centre © Learning Development — University of Wollongong 2001

The signals (coherence devices) act as the techniques of making a sequence of sentences a communicative text. They glue the readers together to be able to notice the parts of sentences together in natural ways or bridge the readers to predict a particular relationship between what was said and what will be conveyed next. Subsequently, the other standards of textuality – *intentionality, acceptability, informativity, situationality, and intertextuality*– are the readers-centred, pertaining to the activities of textual communication between the writers as texts’ producers and the readers as the receivers of texts (Renkema: 1993). The followings are brief elucidations. *Thirdly*, this standard, *intentionality* is closely related to the author's intention in writing a text. The author must disclose *a set of goals* of why the text was written and the primary purpose of what/how he wants to achieve it so that the text produced seems more interactive-communicative between the writer and the reader. Intentionality makes a writer aware of link or connection between the intention and the texts

produced while from the reader’s perspective, intentionality is linked to his/her relevance of how much significance the information to her/him as a text’s reader (Mikhchi, 2011 p. 54; Beaugrande & Dressler 1992; Neubert & Shreve, 1992; Hatim & Mason, 1990 p.19). Shortly, both writer and reader should encompass the cognizant of the intention of accomplishing a particular set of goals with their message such as conveying information or arguing opinion. *Intentionality* is portrayed in the writer’s exploitation of the rhetorical devices of commands, questions and suggestions etc. The effect is, in literary studies in particular, to spice the text up.

Fourthly, acceptability, as explicated by Beaugrande & Dressler (1992 p.129), links to the reader’s stance, mindset, position, and outlook in building his communication with the written text. S/he is also bound-free to the specific content produced by the writer. The most important thing is that the reader should have to accept the language configuration that has been organized by the sender as well as capable of determining what

type of text the writer intends to convey, and what was to be accomplished by sending it (Mikhchi, 2011 p. 56; Neubert & Shreve, 1992 .73). *Fifthly*, a communicative writer is a writer whose text is spiced with the new information (new and unexpected ideas/contents), contains a criterion, the ideas proposed must be well informative, scale or consider of promoting the substantive knowledge and the ideas of “*knownness*” are crucial to disclose to appraise to what extent the communicative event is expected/not expected; known/unknown. The new information and criteria are the determining factors; clinchers in standardising/qualifying a text. Sadly, without considering them, the text produced is lack of its *Informativity* (Mikhchi, 2011 p. 56; Beaugrande & Dressler, 1992 p.139; Neubert & Shreve, 1992; Hatim & Mason, 1997 p. 26). Another aspect that must be sensitively taken to heart is when a reader has known content of the text, it becomes unqualified and characterless and vice versa, when a reader flop to understand the texts, it then does not qualify as a text (Beaugrande & Dressler, 1981). The text can constructively impinge on the readers. *Sixthly, situationality* explains the significance of producing the text to the situation, environment, or the readers. Where it happens, what its own functions in that situation, the location of the text socio-culturally, the time and place, the readers are the factors signifying the meaning of a situationality (Mikhchi, 2011 p. 58; Beaugrande & Dressler, 1992; Neubert & Shreve 1992: 85).

Lastly, intertextuality links sentences, paragraphs, or discourses to the other ones by sharing the same characteristics surrounding them. The critical dimensions and aspects a writer need to seriously take into accounts are, *firstly*, the relationship of the statement to the sea of words. *Secondly*, how those sentences, paragraphs, or discourses are used. *Thirdly*, how they position themselves concerning the other sentences, paragraphs, or discourses. *Fourthly*, the uses of the authoritative texts as primary sources of the meaning of the text produced. *Fifthly*, the text requires citing other sources such as newspapers, etc as its own explicit social drama. *Sixthly*, the text should use other sources from the encyclopaedia, newspaper reports, and citation from a literature’s work to support the analysis as the background, support, and or contrast of the text. *Seventhly*, the text probably depends on one’s belief or issues which is familiar to the readers.

Eighthly, the text must use certain implicitly familiar kinds of language, phrasing, and genres, and the last is to considering using certain idiomatic phrases used to colour the language, spice it up, and make it less boring (Mikhchi, 2011 p. 59; Bazerman, 2004 p.83-96). Intertextuality highly concerns a sequence of sentences is linked by form or meaning to the other sequence of sentences (Beaugrande & Dressler 1992: 182; Neubert & Shreve 1992: 117; Beaugrande & Dressler, 1981). The seven standards/elements of the textuality are the answers of what makes sequence of sentences a communicative text.

Cause and Effect Essay

The Cause and Effect Essay, whose primary purpose and meaning lets the readers know about the real situation, is a composition analysing and diagnosing the root causes of a problem, happening and or phenomena (*motive, logic and interpretation, and background reason*) along with discovers and discloses the effect (results) of that particular event or situation. “*Consequently, because, the main reasons why, one of the most important reasons why, as a consequence, as a result, too, one reason why, as, since, so, there are other reason*” are expressions mostly used in developing and explicating the reasons and results in the Cause and Effect composition. The Introduction, First, Second and Third Body Paragraphs and Conclusion are the basic layout and sketch of a Cause and Effect composition. The Cause and Effect Essays’ Introduction encompasses the statement of a thesis topic, a thesis statement, a piece of background information and an investigation and theoretical/conceptual reviews if possibly required. The writer then describes the causes of the critical issues with an overt image of a real situation. The *First Body Paragraph* deals with elucidating the first motive rendering the thesis statement or hypothesis true and the followed by the details of the major rationale as well as the background information or instances and other related materials. The *Second Body Paragraph* presents and portrays the secondary cause making the thesis statement or hypothesis true. The aspect distinguishing between the first and second Body Paragraph is the *development* of the relationship between primary (first) and secondary causes. The *Third Body Paragraph* shapes the final motive impinging on the main thesis statement and the primary and secondary causes. Besides, it

establishes a relationship and interdependence amongst the three motives using the deductive analysis or testing a theory. The *Conclusion* generally sums up the entire composition and

overtly affirms the deductive interpretation/logic, prior to establishing the motives in a clear-cut and definite organization (Writeawriting, 2019).

II RESEARCH METHODS

Research Design, Social Situation, Instrument, Data, and locus of the study

The *qualitative method* was the research's design exercised in this study. The method was entailed because the author intended to qualitatively diagnose and elucidate the seven standards of textuality in the 2nd-year ED students' Cause and Effect Essays (Airasian & Gay, 2000; Mason, 2002 p.11-24; Sugiyono, 2007 p. 205-213). The *social situation (research's participants as sample)* of this research, whose age ranged from nineteen to twenty-two, was 2nd-year ED students numbering 32 (Sugiyono, 2007 p.215; Spradley, 1980). This sample was selected through the convenience sampling technique. Minangkabau and the other three local languages such as Javanese, Batak and Nias languages are their mother tongues, Indonesian as their official language and English, which is only communicated in Written and Spoken/Oral English Classes, is their foreign language. As English Department students, they have academically learnt/taken some compulsory English courses like English Grammar I and II, Reading I and II, Listening I and II, Writing I and II, Technical Writing I and II, Speaking I and II, Translation I and II, Workshop on Translation and TOEIC preparation. Politeknik Negeri Padang was the locus of the study.

The researcher himself was the key *instrument* whereas the *premier data sourced from the 2nd-year ED students' Cause and Effect Essays*. The processes of obtaining the data were detailed as follows. The students were firstly asked to write English Cause and Effect Essays. The topics of the essays depended on the students' wish to write it as long as they wrote the essays as instructed. The essays were no more than 1000 words in length whose five paragraph's format consisted of an *introduction* covering a hook, a thesis statement; the *three-body paragraphs* highlighting some supporting sentences and details and a *conclusion*. Secondly, after seven to ten days, the person in charge, usually done by a class leader, collected the essays

and subsequently submitted them to the English writing lecturer and then the lecturer submit them to the researcher.

Data Collection and Data Analysis

The *documentation* and *observation* were the techniques of data collection (Sugiyono: 2007 p.222-240). Documentation was a part of *clinical elicitation technique* where the 2nd-year ED students were asked to produce the data by means of writing Cause and Effect Essays and then documented by the researcher himself as the final documentation of the expected data (Corder, 1967 p.160–170). The first technique of collecting the data – documentation– was a complement to the observation technique.

The observation technique, on the other hand, aided the researcher to understand and appreciate the 2nd-year ED students' Cause and Effect Essays as the premier data contextually in the overall social situation so he could acquire a holistic standpoint. It allowed exercising the inductive approach, and if possible, it opened access to discover new ideas. Above all, the researcher observed the seven standards of textuality in the 2nd-year ED students' Cause and Effect Essays. He acted as the passive participant at the scene of action, therefore (Mason, 2002 p.49-210).

Collecting samples of students' language and identifying or diagnosing the absences of the seven standards of the textuality were premier processes of collecting the data. Once the data collected, the researchers began to analyze them. In this analysis, the researchers focused on discovering the missing standards of textuality in those essays. *The techniques of data analysis* used were the *interpretational analysis* (Gall, M.D. et al: 2010; Mason, 2002 p. 145-173) and the other two stages of undertaking the typical Error Analysis (EA) research, namely describing, explaining and evaluating or correcting the errors (Corder, 1967 p.160–170). The interpretational analysis was the process of grouping/clustering

the seven standards of textuality and then was explained and evaluated/corrected.

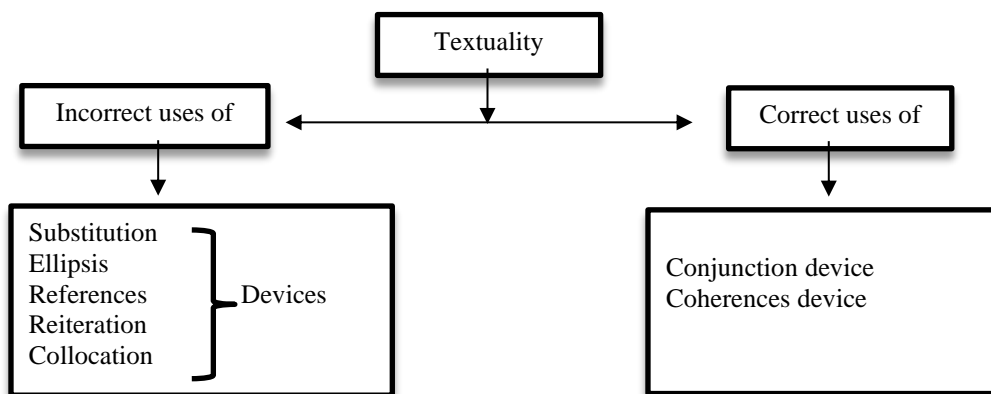
The major goals of exercising the interpretation analysis and EA stages were to identify the the seven standards of textuality and its errors. Subsequently, the identified incorrectly uses of or missing the elements of the textuality is quantified by calculating the frequencies of occurrences of types of cohesion errors. The

formula used to calculate the errors made by the students is $P = \frac{F}{n} \times 100\%$, P=percentage, F=frequencies or number of incorrectly uses of, and or missing the standards of textuality in each item, and n= numbers of the students (Sudjana: 1986). Then, the representations of the students' errors were counted if they arose frequently (at least more than one error).

III RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Referring to the proposed research question, it shows that most of the students' sequences of the sentences were flawed

(characterless). However, conjunction and coherence made the sentences communicative. The results are as the followings



This section discloses the finding of the study. The points of interest in this segment are to qualitatively and or descriptively diagnose the frequent “*incorrect/missing uses* of the seven elements of the textuality in the 2nd year PNP

students 'Cause and Effect Essays. In brief, the author identified both the frequent incorrect uses of and the missing of the seven standards of the textuality in those essays.

Table 5. Frequencies of *incorrect/missing uses* of the Substitution Devices

Types of	Sub-Types	Samples	F	%
Cohesion	of Substitution			
Substitution	The Missing uses of Nominal Substitution	Missing: These computers have been reconditioned. The technician placed (*) in the Multimedia laboratory.	23	71.87
		Correct: These computers have been reconditioned. The technician placed the reconditioned ones in the Multimedia laboratory.		

		Incorrect uses:		
		When the investigations failed to release the roots of corrupting the state budgets to the public , <i>laypeople questioned why the investigations failed to release the roots of corrupting the state budgets to the public.</i>	11	34.37
The uses of the Verbal Substitution	Incorrect uses of the Verbal Substitution	Correct:		
		When the investigations failed to release the roots of corrupting the state budgets to the public , <i>the laypeople questioned it does either.</i>		
<hr/>				
		a. Substitution of Reported Clause		
		Incorrect uses:		
		If the voters have noticed their five-year performances, they will not vote for them . The author thinks that the voters will not vote for them .		
		Correct:		
		If the voters have noticed their five-year performances, they will not vote for them . The author thinks so .		
<hr/>				
		b. Substitution of Conditional Clause		
		Incorrect uses:		
		The people judged that she had done the financial misdeeds. If she had done the financial misdeeds , she could have been laid off.	7	21.87
The uses of the Clausal Substitution	Incorrect uses of the Clausal Substitution	Correct:		
		The people judged that she had done the the financial misdeeds. If <u>so</u> , she could have been laid off.		
<hr/>				
		c. Substitution of Modalised Clauses		
		Incorrect uses:		
		When the public offered him a new strategic highest position , he honestly said that I could not accept a new strategic highest position . It was very difficult to deal with.		
		Correct:		
		When the public offered him a new strategic highest position , he honestly said that <i>perhaps not</i> . It was very difficult to deal with.		
			total	41

The sample, “*These computers have been reconditioned. The technician placed (*) in the Multimedia laboratory,*” firstly, indicated the relationship between the sequence of the first sentence and the second one was broken off because of missing “*ones*” as the head of the nominal group referring back to “*these computers*” as antecedent. Secondly, the sequence of the first sentence, “*when the investigations failed to release the roots of corrupting the state budgets to the public,*” reappeared in the subsequent sentence, “*the laypeople questioned why the investigations failed to release the roots of corrupting the state budgets to the public.*”

The repetition was due to (lack of knowledge) the incorrect use of the verbal

substitution “*does*” as the surrogate of **releasing the roots of corrupting the state budgets to the public**. Similarly, *thirdly*, the students frequently replicated the same texts (information) within the sequences of their sentences.

What they have disclosed in the first sentence, it was clearly reappeared in the subsequent sentences as in incorrect uses’ samples of the Clausal Substitutions of Reported Clause, “*If the voters have noticed their five-year performances, they will not vote for them.*”

The author thinks that **the voters will not vote for them**,” Conditional Clause, “*The people judged that she had done the financial misdeeds. If she had done the financial misdeeds, she could have been laid off,*” and Modalised Clause “*When*

the public offered him a new strategic highest position, he honestly said that I could not accept a new strategic highest position. It was very difficult to deal with."

These cases in points signified that the insensitivities towards *One, ones and the same*" as the nominal substitutions serving as the nominal groups; *Do/does* and so" as verbal substitutions functioning as the head of the verbal group and usually placed at the end of the sentences; and *so*

and *not* as the clausal substitutions acting as modifying the declarative moods of presupposed clauses, elucidating conditional clauses and expressing modality. Modality, whose *forms of the verb are is, can, would, should, could, ought to, will, etc* and *modal adverb such as surely, certainly, perhaps, possibly, etc*, is the speaker's judgement of the possibilities intrinsic in the circumstances (Carnie, 2013; Cutting, 2002 p.11; Halliday & Hasan, 1976 p.39-141).

Table 6. Frequencies of incorrect/missing uses of the Ellipsis Devices

Types of Cohesion	Sub-Types of Ellipsis	Samples	F	%
Ellipsis	The Incorrect uses of the Nominal Ellipsis	Inc: When Darrel read <i>his paper</i> , Keandra read his paper .		
		Inc: Rahayu loves your <i>novel</i> although she dislikes Smith's novel .		
		Inc: Because we proposed two <i>candidates</i> , other proposed ten candidates .		
		Inc: We took the <i>first line</i> ahead of other took the second line.		
		Inc: Some <i>Senators</i> accepted extra budgets and few Senators do not accept extra budgets.		
		Inc: <i>Five paupers</i> were aided so that the five paupers could meet their basic needs.		
		Inc: No <i>Member House</i> supports KPK, and No Member House like NGO.	27	84.37
		Inc: Each <i>intruder</i> was investigated so that each intruder could confess their mistake.		
		Inc: I read the dull <i>news</i> , but Rocky read good news.		
		Inc: I do appreciate a long <i>journey</i> though I can take the short journey .		
		Inc: if you disclose <i>our cases</i> , we shall disclose your cases also.		
		Inc: Because I did the first <i>five questions</i> , I went to accomplish that last four questions .		
		Inc: Though they ignored <i>five exercises</i> , they did the rest of the exercises.		
	The Incorrect uses of the Verbal Ellipsis	Inc: Rioters were not divulging the truth , neither is mastermind divulging the truth	5	15.62
		Inc: Darrel Like to eat late, and Keandra like to eat late.		
	The Incorrect uses of the Clausal Ellipsis	Inc: the question was who will pay the thousands of trillions of State's debts? The answer is the people who will pay the thousands of trillions of State's debts.		
		C: the question was <i>who will pay the thousands of trillions of State's debts</i> ? The answer is the people .	2	6.25
		Note: Inc means <i>Incorrect</i> . The correct sentences were in the explanations below.		
			Total	32

Theoretically, Corver (2009 p. 3–26), Lobeck (1995), Netter (1996), Werner (2011), and Winhart (1997 p.319) shortly explicated Nominal Ellipsis (N-Ellipsis) or specifically known as Nominal Phrasal Ellipsis (NPE) is a cohesive device coming out to elicit a part of a noun phrase which can be recuperated from the context. This is system/instrument occurs in many languages in the world including English.

The True ellipsis, covert pronoun and overt pronoun are the theoretical approaches of the three N-Ellipsis’s analyses in the English language. The standards of the three N-Ellipsis’s analyses of English are established by a restricted set of the “determiner” and the adjective like the units of quantifiers, ordinal and cardinal number and possessives.

The samples were incorrect due to the students’ insensitivities towards both establishing the elements of the ellipsis and the antecedents. The students frequently repeated the same words/phrases or ideas.

As a result, the sequences of sentences produced flawed and incorrect. The correct ones are (referring to the samples above) “When Darrel read *his paper*, Keandra read *his paper too*. This sentence is N-ellipsis established by possessive. Rahayu loves your *novel* although she dislikes *Smith’s novel*. **This is** N-ellipsis which is established by possessive –s.

Because we proposed two *candidates*, other proposed ten *candidates*. This is N-ellipsis, which is established by a cardinal number. We took the *first line* ahead of other took the *second line*. This is N-ellipsis, which is established by ordinal number. Some *Senators* accepted extra budgets and *few Senators* do not. This is N-ellipsis that is established by a quantifier, and *Five paupers* were aided so that *the five paupers* could meet. The quantifier established the sequence of the N-ellipsis (Cutting, 2002 p.12).

Hereinafter, these sequences of “No *Member House* supports KPK, and *No Member House* likes NGO” flopped to establish the N-Ellipsis with *no* whereas “Each *intruder* was investigated so that *each intruder* could confess” flopped establish N-Ellipsis with *each*. Similarly, these sequences of “I read the dull *news*, but Rocky read *good news*” whilst “I do appreciate a long *journey* though I can take the *short journey*” flopped to both establish the N-Ellipsis with standard adjectives. These failures were commonly recognised as quantificational constituent failing to establish the N-Ellipsis. The last samples are ellipsis following its own antecedents as in “if you disclose *our cases*, we shall disclose yours *cases* too,” “Because I did the first *five questions*, I went to accomplish that last four *questions*,” and “Though they ignored *five exercises*, they did the rest of the exercises were N-ellipsis going before its “antecedent” (Corver, 2009 p. 3–26; Lobeck, 1995; Netter, 1996; Werner, 2011; Winhart, 1997 p. 319).

In terms of verbal ellipsis, the sequences of, after correcting, “Rioters were not *divulging the truth*, neither is mastermind *divulging the truth*” and “Darrel is fond of eating late, and Keandra is fond of *eating late* as well” features Verb Phrase (VP) Ellipsis linking to the grammatical units of non-finite VP and established by modal auxiliary verbs such as be, don’t, do, did, will/shall, should/would, may/might, etc and by the infinitive particle “to.” (Bos & Spender, 2011 p. 463-494; Ylikoski, 2003 p. 185–237; Cutting, 2002 p.9-14).

The clausal ellipsis of this sequence, “the question was *who will pay the thousands of trillions of State’s debts?* The answer is the *people*” must intentionally skip over this subordinate clause “*who will pay the thousands of trillions of State’s debts?*” aiming at avoiding repetition.

Table 7. Frequencies of incorrect/missing uses of the Reference Devices

Types of Cohesion	Sub-Types of Reference	Samples	F	%
References	The uses of Anaphoric Reference	<i>Mr President Jokowi</i> delivered his political speech in front of the <i>politicians</i> . Mr. President Jokowi hoped the <i>politicians</i> to able to create peaceful conditions before and after the 2019 general election, (“... <i>he</i> hoped <i>them</i> able to...”).	30	93.75

The uses of the Cataphoric Reference	Incorrect uses of the	<i>Mr XXX</i> has corrupted the State budget. It, therefore, <i>Mr XXX</i> , is now being questioned by the KPK (“... <i>he</i> is being...”). In <i>his corruption</i> , <i>he</i> deserves to be sentenced (“... <i>XXX</i> deserves...”).	25	78.12
			Total	55

The majority of students –30 out of 32 in total – made mistakes in (anaphoric reference referring back to someone/something which has been previously stated, “*antecedent*”) referring back to someone and or something. One of the many sample data taken was “*Mr President Jokowi* delivered his political speech in front of the *politicians*. **Mr President Jokowi* (√He) hoped the *politicians* able to create a peaceful condition before and after the 2019 general election.” On the second string of the sentence, they should not reappear (re-write) “*Mr President Jokowi*” because *Mr President Jokowi* was contextually introduced earlier.

They just referred back to him (*Mr President Jokowi*) using the third person pronoun “*he*” as the subject of the sentence being addressed. Besides, the word “*politicians*” should be surrogated by “*them*” in the second sentence. Shortly, to denote the act of referring back, they

had to denote *Mr President* to “*he*” and *political leaders* to “*them*.” On the contrary, then, cataphoric reference (*postcedent*), which refers forwards, is the contrary of anaphora. It is a reference forwards as contrasting to backwards in the discourse.

It is established in the abstract ahead of it is recognized. The instance found in the students’ writing, “*Mr XXX* has corrupted the State budget. It, therefore, *Mr XXX*, is now being questioned by the KPK (√“...*he* is being...”). In *his corruption*, *he* deserves to be sentenced (√“...*XXX* deserves...”).

This example indicated that the students were still unable to insert an expression or word that co-refers with a later expression in the discourse. The inability is also seen from the number of incorrect use of cataphoric reference was 25 times or 78.12 per cent (Carnie, 2013 p.20-150; Radford, 2004 p.322; Cutting, 2002 p.9-14).

Table 8. Frequencies of incorrect/missing uses of the Conjunction Devices

Types of Cohesion	Sub-Types of Conjunctions	Samples	F	%
Conjunction	The correct uses of <i>Subordinating Conjunctions of Comparison, Concession, Condition, Time, and Reason</i>	<i>than, although, only if, as if, etc because, due to were well exercised</i>	32	100
	The correct uses of the <i>Coordinating Conjunctions of “FANBOYS”</i>	<i>for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so were well used</i>	32	100
	The correct uses of the <i>Pair Conjunctions/Correlatives</i>	<i>as...as; both...and; either...or; if...then were well applied</i>	32	100
			Total	96

The students were well aware of and more sensitive to how conjunction devices were used within the sentences/clauses as well as better understood what their meaning was. They could use the coordinating conjunction “*but*” to show contrast when linking two independent clauses, “*due to/because*” to signify reason, “*rather than/whereas*” to designate comparison, *as if/though* to show manner, etc. To the best of the

author’s understanding, those conjunctions used have correctly affected the entire meaning of their sequences of sentences.

Besides, they have known well how to punctuate connecting words correctly. The correct uses of subordinating, correlative and coordinating conjunctions, therefore, help them make the essays produced clear and easy for the author to follow.

Table 9. Frequencies of *incorrect/missing uses of the Reiteration Devices*

Types of Cohesion	Sub-Types of Reiteration	Samples	F	%		
Cohesion of Reiteration	Lexical	The Missing of the Repetition	A riot happened nationwide. In this (*), there were hundreds of main buildings burnt by the rabble-rousers (“...in this riot there were...”).	23	71.87	
		The Missing of the Synonym	Corruption is rampant in Indonesia. Hundreds of officials committing (*) have been sentenced and sent to prison (*) (“...committing fraud”).	17	53.12	
		The Incorrect uses of /the missing of the	Hyponymy	<i>No sample found</i>	-	-
		The Incorrect uses of /the missing of the	Metonymy	<i>No sample found</i>	-	-
		The Incorrect uses of /the missing of the	Antonymy	<i>No sample found</i>	-	-
			Total	40		

In discourse studies, referential devices are crucial to establishing/framing a lively, sparkling and dynamic communication conveyed by the writer/speaker. The missing of the “*repetition*” in this sample, “**A riot happened nationwide. In this (*), there were hundreds of main buildings burnt by the rabble-rousers (“...in this riot there were...”)**” indicated that the essences of repetition itself become tasteless and colourless.

In their article, Genç, Mavaşoğlu, Bada (2010 p.217) point out the critical roles of “*repetition*” in establishing coherence and interpersonal involvement. Some of them are to designate that the reader is reading/listener is

listening to and admit what was in written or orally conveyed (this is participatory readership or listenership).

It endorses readership or listenership (happen s when the writer/speaker integrates the repeated words/phrases into his/her own discourses); assists to establish the talks/discussion, etc. on the contrary, the missing of the synonym (***corruption is rampant... Hundreds of officials committing (*)/ (“...committing √fraud”)***) flop to boost the essential quality of the lexical cohesion in discourse studies that represent writer’s ideas using language varieties (Cutting, 2002 p.9-14).

Table 10. Frequencies of *incorrect/missing uses of the Collocational Devices*

Types of Cohesion	Sub-Types of Collocation	Samples	F	%	
Cohesion of Collocation	Lexical	The Incorrect uses the Grammatical Collocation	... <i>in</i> accident (√ <i>by</i> accident); pay <i>to</i> (√ <i>in</i>) advance; proud <i>in</i> (√ <i>of</i>) you;	43	134.37
			...believe <i>to</i> (√ <i>in</i>) God, etc		

The Incorrect uses of the Lexical Collocation	“... <i>have avacation</i> (v+n)...” instead of “... <i>take vocation</i> ...”	55	171.87
	“... <i>small rain</i> (adj+n)...” instead of “... <i>light rain</i> ...”		
	“... <i>really/fully forget</i> (adv+v)...” instead of “... <i>completely forget</i> ...”		
	“... <i>total awesome</i> (adv+adv)...” instead of “... <i>totally awesome</i> ...”		
	“... <i>tired to</i> (adj+pre)...” instead of “... <i>tired of</i> ...”		
	“...a <i>business MoU</i> (n+n)...” Instead of “...a <i>business deals</i> ...”		
Total		90	

The significant number of the incorrect uses of the grammatical and lexical collocations was due to the students’ lack of knowledge and mastery of pairing/collocating the words as they frequently co-occur with other English words or native speakers/writers usually collocatively do in communicating their ideas.

The types and patterns of both grammatical and lexical collocations are crucially taken into account in spoken/written forms and these are the foreign language students’ deficiencies in dealing with collocations. It is, therefore, a good idea for foreign students to

gradually memorise fixed and strong collocations along with doing more exercises continuously so that their language may seem natural to natural readers/listeners or native writers or listeners of English such as “We believe *in* God” as *believe* collocates with *in*, instead of penning “We believe *to* God” and or “This was a central government’s *business deals* instead of writing “This was a central government’s *business MoU*” since *business MoU* does not co-occur or go together more often than will be expected by chance in speech and writing (Moehkardi, 2002 p.53-62; Benson, Benson, & Ilson, 1986b).

Table 11. Frequencies of incorrect/missing uses of the Coherence Devices

		Sub-Types of Coherence	Samples	F	%
Coherence	Types of	The Correct use of Addition	<i>Able to add another idea/information using “in addition, besides, etc”</i>	32	100
		The Correct use of Example	<i>Able to give example using “for example, take the case of, etc ”</i>	32	100
		The Correct use of Effect and effect	<i>Able to indicate effect using “as a result, hence, for that reason, because (of this), due to, accordingly, etc”</i>	32	100
		The Correct use of Opposition	<i>Able to show opposition using “in contrast, however, nevertheless, etc”</i>	32	100
		The Correct use of Temporality	<i>Able to show time using “from time to time, as long as, at the same time, until now, after, before, since, then, etc”</i>	32	100
		The Correct use of Space	<i>Able to show place/location using “below, among, between, etc”</i>	32	100
Total				192	

The Incorrect ways of drawing Conclusion	I would like to end this essay...; At the end of this essay, the writer states that...; This essay finally closes that...; The writer wants to finish that...; The ending of this essay...; The closing stages of this essay...; This last part concludes..., etc	26	81.25
Total		26	

The fact was the students were more sensitive to introduce examples, to show addition or agreement, to introduce additional ideas, to specify sequence/order/time, to compare, to contrast, to establish the opposite idea or designate exception, signify cause and effect, etc in connecting sentences and paragraphs together so that there were no found unexpected leaps, breaches or fragments between ideas (Smith, 2018). The students have correctly used the transition in their Cause and Effect English essays. Nevertheless, in term of drawing a conclusion, the samples of the data indicated that the students were strongly affected by the first language (L1) of theirs though this had been concurrently discussed it with the other sub-types of coherence. The sentences or phrases, “*I would like to end this essay (speech)...; At the end of this essay, the writer states that...*” etc are simplest ways (expressions) of informally drawing conclusions in the Indonesian context. The “*In short, In brief, To summarise, In summary, To*

conclude, In conclusion, To sum up, Overall, etc” are, however, formally/academically phrases forming part of a conclusion. These are signals where a writer will end or come to the end of his/her stages of an essay (Trzeciak & Mackay, 1994).

The other five standards of textuality, conversely, are parts of other discussions as theoretically in discourse studies, not all elements of the textuality are considered equally critical. *Intentionality, informativeness, and situationality* are secondary importance. *Acceptability* only arises in normative approach to discourse studies whereas intertextuality only deals with text typology. Cohesion and coherence play critical roles primarily in making sequences of sentences a communicative text. These two standards, hence, fully considered “*important*” to assess and diagnose the character/quality of the students’ Cause and Effect English essays (Renkema, 1993 p.37).

IV CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the missing uses of the nominal substitution, repetition, and synonym; along with the incorrect uses of the verbal substitution, clausal substitution, nominal ellipsis, verbal ellipsis, clausal ellipsis, anaphoric and cataphoric references, grammatical and lexical collocations as well as the incorrect phrases of drawing conclusion considerably *mitigate* the effects of the first two standards of the “textuality” –cohesion and coherence. On the contrary, the correct uses of signifying additions, providing examples, indicating causes and effects, designating oppositions, showing temporalities and spaces/locations along with the correct uses of subordinating conjunctions of comparison, concession, condition, time, and reason coordinating conjunctions and pair conjunctions/correlatives approximately colour, characterise, and spice the students’ Cause and Effect Essays’ textures up. The sequences of the

sentences produced held together and have smoothly moved from one to the next sentences and from one paragraph to the next ones. Unfortunately, the unidentified samples of hyponymy, metonymy, and antonymy designated that the students paid not as much of attention to establishing meaningful relationships (meaning relations) between preceding words/expressions/sentences and afterwards. The insensitivity towards the lexical cohesion of the third five reiterations lexically trimmed down the allures of the essays’ texture. This study, apart from grammatical structures of English, can be practically used as an assessment and or standards in characterizing as well as qualifying the writings of other English students. The study, therefore, provides an English teacher’s extra responsibility for designing and developing a “*Textuality-based Cause and Effect Essay Model*” along with its ELT methodology.

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