

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter reviews the literature related to the written discourse, approaches to the study of discourse markers, discourse markers, and related research. The review in this chapter includes topics as follows:

1. Written Discourse
 - 1.1 The Description of Discourse
 - 1.2 The Properties of Written Text
 - 1.3 Argumentative Writing
2. Discourse Markers
 - 2.1 Terminology, Definitions, and Characteristics of Discourse Markers
 - 2.2 Semantic-Functional Categories of Discourse Markers
3. Approach to the Study of Discourse Markers
4. Related Research
 - 4.1 Research on Discourse Markers of EFL students' writing
 - 4.2 Research on Discourse Markers in the writing of Indonesian and Thai EFL students
 - 4.1.1 Studies on Discourse Markers Conducted in Indonesia
 - 4.1.2 Studies on Discourse Markers Conducted in Thailand

Written Discourse

1. The Description of Discourse

Discourse refers primarily to the language forms which are produced and interpreted as people communicate with each other (Celce-Murcia and Olshtain, 2000). Similarly, Richards and Schimdt (2002) define discourse as a general term of language use, i.e. language which has been produced as the result of an act of communication. In other words, discourse can include paragraphs, conversations, interviews, etc. In addition, discourse is a language unit beyond the sentence level (Brown, 2007; Schiffrin, 1987; Stubbs, 1983). Thus, discourse (the supra-sentential

level) comes up after the sub-sentential and sentential level (Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman, 1999). The sub-sentential level deals with the morphological level, while the sentential level involves syntactic level starting from single words developing into complex sentences. Then, the next level is discourse where a number of sentences are connected to form a coherent linguistic production such as a conversation, a monologue (e.g. speech), or a written text.

Comparing to words and sentences, which stand in isolation, discourse may construct a context by assisting in language acquisition. According to Langacker (2008), discourse is where structure, use and acquisition come together. Language is learned through its interactive use in social contexts and its emergence from usage, and social interaction is thus a key factor in describing linguistic structure. In other words, discourse extends its use to where the word and sentence cannot go through as their context is limited. Moreover, by using its meaning within a context, discourse contributes to communication. Discourse usually means actual instances of communication action in the medium of language (Johnstone, 2008, p. 2). To sum up, discourse is a language unit beyond the sentence which functions as a means to deliver a message from the writer to the reader or from the speaker to the listener.

2. The Properties of Written Text

Discourse can be classified into spoken and written form. The written form is different from the spoken form in the types of DMs typically used, and in the greater use of ellipsis and the use of intonation, pitch and stress in the spoken mode (Spratt, Pulverness and Williams, 2005). In contrast, written discourse embraces more fully both coherent and cohesive aspects (Harmer, 2001). Related to the cohesion and coherence, its aspects should be used appropriately in order to construct the cohesion and coherence within the text. For instance, the appropriate use of the cohesive aspects (i.e. DMs) may help the writers to produce a cohesive text. Here, the appropriate use of DMs links the ideas of the elements of text into a logical order. In addition, this cohesive text may also help the readers to follow the flow of the ideas. Therefore, the appropriateness of the use of DMs may help both the writers and readers in term of the cohesion and coherence of the text.

To be more details, cohesion is a more technical matter since it is about the various linguistic ways of connecting ideas across phrases and sentences. In order to make a text cohesive, there are various connectors that can be semantically categorized as those for addition, contrast, cause and effect, and time (Biber, Johansson, Leech, Conrad and Finegan, 1999). Similarly, according to Halliday and Hasan (1976), cohesion is the grammatical and lexical relationship between different elements of a text which hold it together. In other words, cohesion deals with how the components of the text are linked together to construct the unity of the text.

Further, Halliday and Hasan (1976) categorize cohesive devices into reference, substitution/ ellipsis, conjunction, and lexical cohesion. First, reference is the words' replacement by using some pronouns, pre-modifiers, and so on. It consists of personal, demonstrative, and comparative type of reference. Second, substitution/ ellipsis can be defined as replacement one item by another (substitution) or it can be zero substitution (ellipsis). They can be divided into nominal, verbal, and clausal. Third, conjunction is words or a group of words used to connect words, phrases, or clauses. There are some types of conjunction such as additive, adversative, temporal, and causal. Last, lexical cohesion is defined as the selection of vocabulary. Reiteration and collocation are the types of lexical cohesion. To sum up, those cohesive devices proposed by Halliday and Hasan (1976) are used to construct a cohesive text in order to support a text to be coherent. This framework considers more on the surface of the text in which the mechanical system serves on it.

Regarding the coherence of the text, Harmer (2001) states that coherent writing enables the readers to follow the sequence of ideas and points. Also, according to Halliday and Hasan (2003), coherence is the ways a text makes sense to readers and writers through the relevance and accessibility of its configuration of concepts, ideas, and theories. In addition, coherence works on how the text understandable for the readers, so it is related to the interpretation of the reader toward the text. Moreover, they also explain that a coherent text fulfills two regards: first, it is coherent with respect to the context of situation and therefore consistent in register; and second; it is coherent with respect to itself, and therefore cohesive. Hence, a coherent text has context of situation and cohesion. This means that cohesion facilitates coherence. Halliday and Hasan (2003) also state that a coherent text possesses situational

coherence and generic coherence. A text has situational coherence when the interlocutor can think of one situation in which all the clauses of the text occur: i.e., when he can specify a field, mode, and tenor for the entire collection of clauses. A text has generic coherence when the interlocutor can recognize the text as an example of a particular genre.

Moreover, De Beaugrande and Dressler (1981) also propose a framework which is about the Seven Standards of Textuality. They are cohesion, coherence, intentionality, acceptability, informativity, situationality, and intertextuality. Regarding to the cohesion and coherence, this framework is different to the previous framework proposed by Halliday and Hasan (2003) as this also considers both on the reader and social interaction. First, cohesion concerns the ways in which the components of the surface text are mutually connected within a sequence. Then, the coherence is the ways in which the components of the textual world mutually accessible and relevance. Therefore, regarding the previous elaboration, both cohesion and coherence become the major features in composing a good writing as their functions construct the unity of a text.

As stated in Moreno's study (2003), a coherent text has several criteria: 1) linear organization, 2) no topic shift, 3) generic coherence (clear schematic structure with a clear purpose), 4) situational coherence (clear context of situation), 5) skillful use of metadiscourse markers and cohesive ties, 6) fullness of paragraph development, 7) clear and effective introduction, 8) conclusion with a statement that gives the reader a definite sense of closure, 9) few or no grammatical errors that interrupt the discourse flow or the reading process, and 10) relevant title formation. Partly coherent texts fulfill enough of the criterion above so that a reader will be able to make at least partial integration and comprehension of the text. Thus, for an incoherent text, it occurs when the text cannot completely complete the criterion. However, on regard to this present study, this emphasizes the use of the discourse markers employed in the students' argumentative writing.

Schiffrin (1987) points out that the analysis of DMs is part of the more general analysis of discourse coherence. Here, she defines coherence as how speakers and hearers (as well as, writers and readers) jointly integrate forms, meanings, and actions to make overall sense out of what is said. It is obvious that DMs play an

important role in the discourse coherence as they function to help conveying meaning of the discourse. Also, it is stated that although DMs have primary functions (e.g. the primary function of and is for showing additional information, the primary function of well in expressing the participation framework, and etc.), their use is multifunctional. This multifunctionality on different planes of discourse helps to integrate the many simultaneous processes underlying the construction, and thus helps to create coherence (Schiffrin, 2004).

Moreover, according to Schiffrin (1987), the fact that DMs function on different discourse areas provides clues to the discourse contexts, i.e. DMs locate utterances on particular areas of talk; will lead to the function of DMs as contextual coordinates adding to coherence. As there is an underlying deictic dimension to their functions, the DMs provide participation and textual coordinates within these contexts: the deictic functions locate utterances on two proximal/ distal axes within their particular discourse contexts. It is the dual sense that DMs provide contextual coordinates for utterances: they index an utterance to the local contexts in which utterances are produced and in which they are to be interpreted. In other words, finally, this is how DMs as contextual coordinates add to coherence. Since coherence is the result of integration among different components of talk, any device which simultaneously locates an utterance within several different emerging contexts of discourse automatically has an integrative function. This way, if DMs act in linking between the previous and upcoming utterances, the result is a type of integration between two components of talk. By doing so, it provides a path toward the integration of those components into one coherent discourse. Another way of saying this is that those DMs allow speakers to construct and integrate multiple areas and dimensions of an emergent reality. Similarly, to consider the written discourse, the integration among different components of propositions also occurs, and then this will also construct the coherence of the discourse.

Since the present study is mainly concerned with the use of DMs in written discourse, the issue of the appropriateness of the use of DMs in the argumentative writing is worth discussing. Meanwhile, some studies revealed whether there is a contribution of the use of DMs to the coherence of the text. The appropriate use of DMs created the flow of logical ideas of the text (coherence) (Jalilifar, 2008;

Ramasawmy, 2004; Yang and Sun, 2012; Pongsiriwet, 2001. Here, the students who were better able to effectively and appropriately use DMs were more successful in producing more coherent compositions. In contrast, some studies revealed that there is no positive correlation between the appropriate use of DMs and the text coherence (Modhish, 2012; Zhang, 2000; Dastjerdi and Samian, 2011; Alarcon and Morales, 2011; Kusumaningrum, 2013). Additionally, the writing performance of the students was sometimes rather poor and this was not only ascribed to their restricted/over-/miss- use of DMs, but also to the grammatically erroneous sentences they have produced, students' tendency to produce rather long sentences, and so on. Therefore, it can be said that the use of the DMs may or may not contribute to the coherence of the text.

In regard to the writing activity, Richards and Schmidt (2002) describe that writing is viewed as the result of the complex processes of planning, drafting, reviewing and revising, and some approaches to the teaching of first and second language writing teach students to use these processes. The process of writing requires a different set of competencies from that required by other linguistic skills and it forces students to explore all their language competencies. For EFL students, this is not an easy task since, in writing; they are dealing with both the content of the text and the target language. Similarly, Brown (2000) describes that writing requires students to focus on how to generate ideas, how to organize a text coherently, how to use DMs and rhetorical conventions and to put both of them cohesively into a written text, how to revise a text for clearer meaning, how to edit a text for appropriate grammar and how to produce a final product. As a result, the students should deal with various processes in order to produce writing.

On regard to the relationship between cohesion and coherence, Moreno (2003) mentions that cohesive devices (particularly discourse markers) contributing to the perception of the discourse relevance and coherence of the text deal only with meaning derived from whole sentences, large fragments of text, or occasionally simple clauses linked practically. In communicating meaning, language users cannot convey everything at once, and they cannot interpret the whole text at a time. They can only convey and interpret one short stretch of the text at any time. From this perspective, a written discourse can be viewed as a complex unit of meaning constantly evolving in

the reading process. In order to be able to comprehend the text, a reader should be able to find out the relevance of meanings. Relevance here means the relationship between the propositions. Therefore, a text writer should provide the text with discourse markers and cohesive devices that will facilitate the reading process (Moreno, 2003). Thus, it can be said that the use of discourse marker can be a tool provided by the writer to facilitate the readers in understanding the texts better.

Finally, as mentioned earlier, cohesive devices help in connecting the elements of the text in order to create the text cohesion, i.e. using reference, substitution/ellipsis, conjunction, and lexical cohesion. Further, by using discourse markers, it will connect the components among the sentences. The tightness of the components of text can help the students produce a cohesive text. Then, related to the coherence, there are some criteria of coherence that can help the text make sense to the reader, i.e. having linear organization, shifting with the topic, using discourse markers, and soon. To be more specific, one of the criteria of coherence is by using the discourse markers. To produce a coherent text, the discourse markers are employed in order to make a text more understandable. Therefore, this may be concluded that the discourse markers and coherence support one another to help the writers produce a good text, as well as, an understandable one.

2. Argumentative Writing

In written discourse, there are many genres of the texts produced by students; for instance, narrative, descriptive, procedural, argumentative writing, etc. According to Richards and Schimdt (2002), argumentative writing is a textual genre which attempts to support a controversial point or defend a position on which there is a different opinion. Moreover, this genre of the text is aimed to persuade or convince the reader of a certain case.

Connor (1987) identifies four dimensions of argumentative texts that are unique to this genre. First, it is the superstructure which refers to the organizational plan of any text and the linear progression of the text. The second feature is the quality of logical reasoning which is assessed by analyzing the interrelationships of writers' assertions and the associated support or data provided to substantiate those claims. Third, good argumentative writing is identified as persuasive appeal, including the affective appeal and establishment of writer credibility. Last, the audience awareness

is also an important characteristic of successful argumentative writing. The writer must observe an awareness of the reader's perspective by dealing implicitly or explicitly with possible counter arguments. Regarding the superstructure feature, an argumentative text will deal with various linguistic features supporting the text cohesion that is DMs. Thus, to construct the organizational structure of such kind of texts, the DMs should be used appropriately within the text.

In addition, since an argumentative text consists of pros and cons or comparison and contrast of certain issues, the sentences should present the ideas appropriately. Thus, it needs DMs to show the transitions of the ideas in order to be coherent. For instance it employs a lot of DMs. As mentioned in a study by Prommas (2011), discourse markers used in essays are mostly transitional words. The reason may be that transitional words are the most potential and obvious device to show relationship of ideas. As a result, they are abundantly evident in the argumentative text.

Furthermore, Grabe (2009, p. 263) proposes a basic graphic organizer form of an argumentative text, as follows.

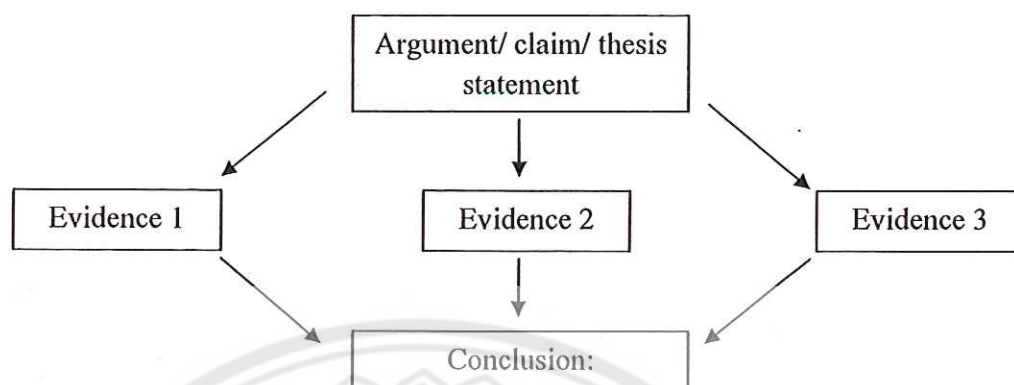


Figure 1 Basic Graphic Organizer Form of an Argumentative Text

Source: Grabe, 2009, p. 263

Discourse Markers

1. Terminology, Definitions, and Characteristics of Discourse Markers

The terminology of DMs varies by different perspectives of scholars. The DMs have been referred to by several terms such as cohesive elements (Halliday and Hasan, 1976), conjunction (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004), discourse markers (Schiffrin, 1987), pragmatics markers (Fraser, 1999), conjunctive adverbials (Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman, 1999), linking words (Boardman and Frydenberg, 2002), logical connectors (Quirk, et al., 1985), linking adverbials (Biber, et al., 1999), and discourse connectors (Cowan, 2008). In the present study, the term “discourse markers” refers to those various terms functioning to mark the transitions within a text. Moreover, DMs also function to indicate semantic relations in an underlying structure of ideas (Halliday and Hasan, 1976).

The term “discourse markers” (henceforth DMs) has been variously defined by many scholars around the world. Halliday and Hasan (1976) state that DMs express certain meanings which presuppose the presence of other components in the discourse. The meanings conveyed by DMs are relatively straightforward: additive, adversative, causal, and temporal. Although these DMs provide simple semantic analysis, they allow variation in the degree to which meaning results from the semantics of a word itself or from prepositions in a text. For example, although and

belongs to an additive meaning, its meaning can also reflect the semantic content of a text. Thus, *if* and *prefaces* an upcoming preposition while meaning contrasts with that of a prior preposition, and would then convey an adversative relation (comparing to *but* and on the other hand).

Furthermore, Halliday and Matthiessen (2004) propose that conjunction is a way of setting up the logical relations that characterize clause complexes in the absence of the structural relationships by which such complexes are defined. These relations involve similar elements up to the size of paragraphs and possibly beyond. In addition, the elements can create different types of cohesion which make distinct contributions to the creation and interpretation of text. Thus, it provides the resources for marking logico-semantic relationships between text spans of varying extents ranging from clauses within clause complexes to long spans of a paragraph or more. For instance, cohesive conjunctions within clause complexes, as in:

Someone comes along with a great idea for an expedition – **for example**, I did a book called *Sand Rivers* just before the *Indians* books, and it was a safari into a very remote part of Africa. (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004, p. 539)

According to Halliday and Matthiessen (2004), the logico-semantic relations that are manifested in the system of conjunction fall into the same three types of expansion; that is, conjunctions mark relations where one span of text elaborates, extends or enhances another (earlier span of text). However, there are still sub-categories of conjunctions: appositive, clarifying, additive, adversative, varying, matter, manner, spatio-temporal, and causal-conditional.

Also, Blakemore (2004) describes that the term DM is generally used to refer to a syntactically heterogeneous class of expressions which are distinguished by their function in discourse and the kind of meaning they encode. Also, the term “discourse” is intended to underline the fact that these expressions must be described at the level of discourse rather than the sentence, while the term “marker” is intended to reflect the fact that their meanings must be analyzed in terms of what they indicate or mark rather than what they describe. Levinson (1983, pp. 197-198) draws attention to words and phrases which not only have a “component of meaning which resists truth-conditional treatment” but also “indicate, often in very complex ways, just how

the utterance that contains them is a response to, or a continuation of, some portion of the prior discourse”.

In addition, Fraser (1999) sees DMs as a subclass of the class of expressions which contribute to non-truth-conditional sentence meaning distinguished from other such expressions by their role in signalling “the relationship of the basic message to the foregoing discourse”. Also, Fraser and Malamud-Makowski (1996) describe DMs as follows:

They are expressions which signal a relationship across rather than within utterances and contribute to the coherence of the discourse. They are usually in initial position, although medial and final position are possible for many of them and they signal how the utterance following (U_2), is to be interpreted, the first utterance (U_1) (Fraser and Malamud-Makowski, 1996, p. 864).

Schiffrin (2004) defines DMs as sequentially dependent elements that bracket units of talk. Pridham (2001) defines discourse markers as utterance indicators because they signpost the structure of the conversation for the hearer, doing its part to help the audience understand what is being said. In line with Pridham (2001), Richards and Schmidt (2002) also propose a definition of DMs as expressions that typically connect two segments of discourse but do not contribute to the meaning of either. The definitions of DMs vary from one scholar to another as each of them has different perspectives toward the DMs.

In considering the various definitions of DMs, their attributes and characteristics of the DMs need to be looked into. Schourup (1999) describes that connectivity, optionality and non-truth-conditionality are frequently taken together.

1.1 Connectivity

Connectivity is enabled when the use of DMs relates utterances or other discourse units. For Fraser (1999) a DM is “an expression which signals the relationship between the basic message and the foregoing discourse”. The connectivity of DMs is most often taken to be a necessary characteristic to relate two textual units. However, this connectivity is conceived in different ways. Blakemore (1998) argues that it is undesirable to distinguish discourse-internal uses of connectors like so, as in (1) from discourse initial uses, as in (2):

(1) A: You take the first turning on the left.

B: So we don't go past the university (then). (Blakemore, 1998)

(2) [Seeing someone return home with parcels]

So you've spent all your money. (Blakemore, 1998)

Blakemore (1998) argues that in both uses *so* marks an implicated conclusion and that it is preferable to view certain DMs not as necessarily relating two segments of text, but as relating the propositional content expressed by the current utterance to assumptions that may or may not have been communicated by a prior utterance. Thus, in (2) the speaker may be seen as relating the proposition expressed by the utterance to a proposition derived from "observation of a state of affairs".

1.2 Optionality

The existence of DMs is optional in two distinct senses. According to Fraser (1999), DMs are almost universally regarded as syntactically optional in the sense where a DM does not alter the grammaticality of its host sentence. However, DMs are claimed to be optional in the further sense that they do not enlarge the possibilities for semantic relationship between the elements they associate. As a result, if the existence of DMs is omitted, the relationship of the senses is still available to the interlocutor, though no longer explicitly signaled. For instance:

(3) The others are going to Stoke. **However**, I am going to Paris.

(4) The others are going to Stoke. I am going to Paris. (Fraser, 1999)

Based on the examples, it can be seen that in the sentence (3), the occurrence of 'however' sharpen the interlocutor's interpretation, while for the sentence (4), the interlocutors are free to interpret (i.e. can be indicated by moreover).

1.3 Non-truth-conditionality

Comparing with 'content' words, DMs do not seem to have a strong position in a sentence. DMs are generally thought to contribute nothing to the truth-conditions of the proposition expressed by an utterance (Blakemore, 1998). Hence, another view is that DMs are seen as contributing to the truth-theoretic content associated with the marked utterance (Schourup, 1999). The non-truth-conditionality of DMs distinguishes them from the uses of 'content' words, including manner adverbial (i.e. sadly) and from disjunctive forms which do affect truth-conditions, such as evidential and

hearsay sentence adverbial. However, Quirk, et al. (1985) mention that non-conjunctive adverbial and a DM can give rise to similar overall interpretations; for instance:

(5) Joe is a respected drama critic. I tell you **in addition** that she has written...

(6) Joe is a respected drama critic. **In addition**, she has written...
(Fraser, 1999)

2. Semantic-Functional Categories of Discourse Markers

As the primary function of DMs is to construct semantic relations between elements (Schiffrin, 1987), semantic criteria for DMs are created based on their semantic-functions. The present study adapts Halliday and Hasan's semantic perspective on cohesion taxonomy (1976) and Halliday and Matthiessen's taxonomy (2004). In this respect, DMs can be categorized as listed in the following table:

Table 1 Categorization Taxonomies of Discourse Markers

Taxonomy	Semantic functions
Halliday and Hasan (1976)	1. Additive
	2. Adversative
	3. Causal
	4. Temporal
Halliday and Matthiessen (2004)	1. Appositive
	2. Clarifying
	3. Additive
	4. Adversative
	5. Varying
	6. Matter
	7. Manner
	8. Spatio-temporal
	9. Causal-conditional

2.1 Halliday and Hasan's Taxonomy

Halliday and Hasan (1976) view DMs as conjunctive elements or conjunctions. They describe cohesion as a semantic rather than a structural relation, but at the same time it is "the relation between sentences in a text". In addition, they view coherence of a text as well-formed text. They also believe that cohesion is a linguistic device through the use of which we can relate units of a text so that the text

becomes coherent. A text can be coherent by using co-reference, ellipsis, and conjunctions. They also present five categories for English cohesive devices: 1) reference, 2) substitution, 3) ellipses, 4) lexical cohesion, and 5) conjunction. Halliday and Hasan (1976) view conjunctions or connective elements as DMs; of which there are four categories:

a. Additive: indicating coordination in the sense that the two language units connected are to be given equal weight, with either one subordinate in meaning or emphasis to other. Examples of this type of DMs are:

and, furthermore, moreover, in addition, additionally, similarly, that is, in other words, for example

b. Adversative: signalling that what is to come contrasts with what has been said. Examples of this type of DMs are:

but, yet, though, however, while, on the other hand, on the contrary, in fact, actually, instead, nevertheless, nonetheless

c. Causal: indicating a reason, cause and effect relation. Examples of this type of DMs are:

so, because (of), as, for, since, in view of, hence, therefore, as a result, consequently, that's why, otherwise

d. Temporal or continuative: expressing a chronological connection between two pieces. Examples of this type of DMs are:

(and) then, after, later, as long as, until, after that, at the same time, meanwhile, first, next, finally, when, to sum up

For example:

For the whole day he climbed up the steep mountainside, almost without stopping.

(7) **And** in all this time he met no one. (additive)

(8) **Yet** he was hardly aware of being tired. (adversative)

(9) **So** by night time the valley was far below him. (causal)

(10) **Then**, as dusk fell, he sat down to rest. (temporal)

(Halliday and Hasan, 1976, pp. 238-239)

2.2 Halliday and Matthiessen's Taxonomy

According to Halliday and Matthiessen (2004, pp. 540-541), the classifications of DMs are as follows.

a. Appositive: In this type, some elements are re-presented or re-stated either by exposition or by example. Examples of this type of DMs are:

in other words, that is, I mean, to put it another way, for example, for instance, to illustrate

For example:

(11) I guess the main editorial rule that we work by is to treat all manuscripts equally. **I mean**, it doesn't make any difference who the author is. (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004, p. 540)

b. Clarifying: In this type, the elaborated element is not simply restated but reinstated, summarized, made more precise or in some other way clarified for purpose of the discourse. Examples of this type of DMs are:

at least, or rather, to be more precise, by the way, incidentally, in any case, anyway, leaving that aside, in particular, more specially, to resume, as I was saying, in short, briefly, to sum up, actually, verificative

For example:

(12) Actually, there was a year in there where after I finished Vassar I went to Europe with my husband and we then wondered what to do. (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004, p. 541)

c. Additive: This type of DMs links positive relation. Examples of this type of DMs are:

and, also, moreover, furthermore, nor

For example:

(13) The ozone amount was also the lowest on record at all latitudes south of 60⁰S latitude in 1987. **Furthermore**, the occurrence of strong depletion was a year phenomenon south of 60⁰S and was not confined to the spring season as in preceding years. (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004, p. 543)

d. Adversative: This type of DMs links negative relation. Examples of this type of DMs are:

but, yet, on the other hand, however

For example:

(14) Some country doesn't **but** many countries tend to treat women and men equally. (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004, p. 544)

e. Varying: This type of DMs indicates a contrast relation between two segments. Examples of this type of DMs are:

instead, on the other hand, apart from that, except for that, or (else), alternatively

For example:

(15) Naturally though, it has to be within walking distance of Mayfair, **but, apart from that**, an attic with only a shower and a gas ring will suffice. (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004, p. 545)

f. Matter: This type of DMs refers to the matter that has gone before. Examples of this type of DMs are:

here, there, as to that, in that respect, in other respects, elsewhere

For example:

(16) Without chlorine in the Antarctic stratosphere, there would be no ozone hole. **Here**, "hole" refers to a substantial reduction below the naturally occurring concentration of ozone over Antarctica. (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004, p. 547)

g. Manner: This type of DMs creates cohesion by comparison and by reference to means. Examples of this type of DMs are:

likewise, similarly, in a different way, in the same manner

For example:

(17) By exploiting the technical skills, the military can take advantage of industry's latest techniques for protecting information systems. **Similarly**, defending our homeland from terrorism and responding to chemical attack are natural roles for our Guard and Reserve forces. (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004, p. 546)

h. Spatio-temporal: In this type, places reference may be used conjunctively within a text, spatial adverbs, and expressions containing a place noun or adverb plus reference item. Examples of this type of DMs are:

then, next, just then, previously, finally, next, secondly, here, now, up to now, lastly, at once, thereupon, soon, after a while, next time, next day, that morning, meanwhile, at that time, until then, at this moment

For example:

(18) Place the aubergine slices in a colander, sprinkle with salt, and leave to drain for 10 minutes. Rinse and dry thoroughly. **Meanwhile**, mix the flour with the cayenne pepper in a bowl. (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004, p. 544)

i. **Causal-conditional:** This type of DMs relates more specifically to result, reason or purpose. Examples of this type of DMs are:

so, therefore, hence, as a result, on account of this, for that purpose, then, in that case, otherwise, if not, yet, still, though, nevertheless

For example:

(19) I mustn't say anything about it. **Otherwise**, I'll get shot by the lady who just shut the door. (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004, p. 546)

To make clear the illustration of the Halliday and Matthiessen's (2004, p. 541) classifications of DMs, a figure is presented as follows:

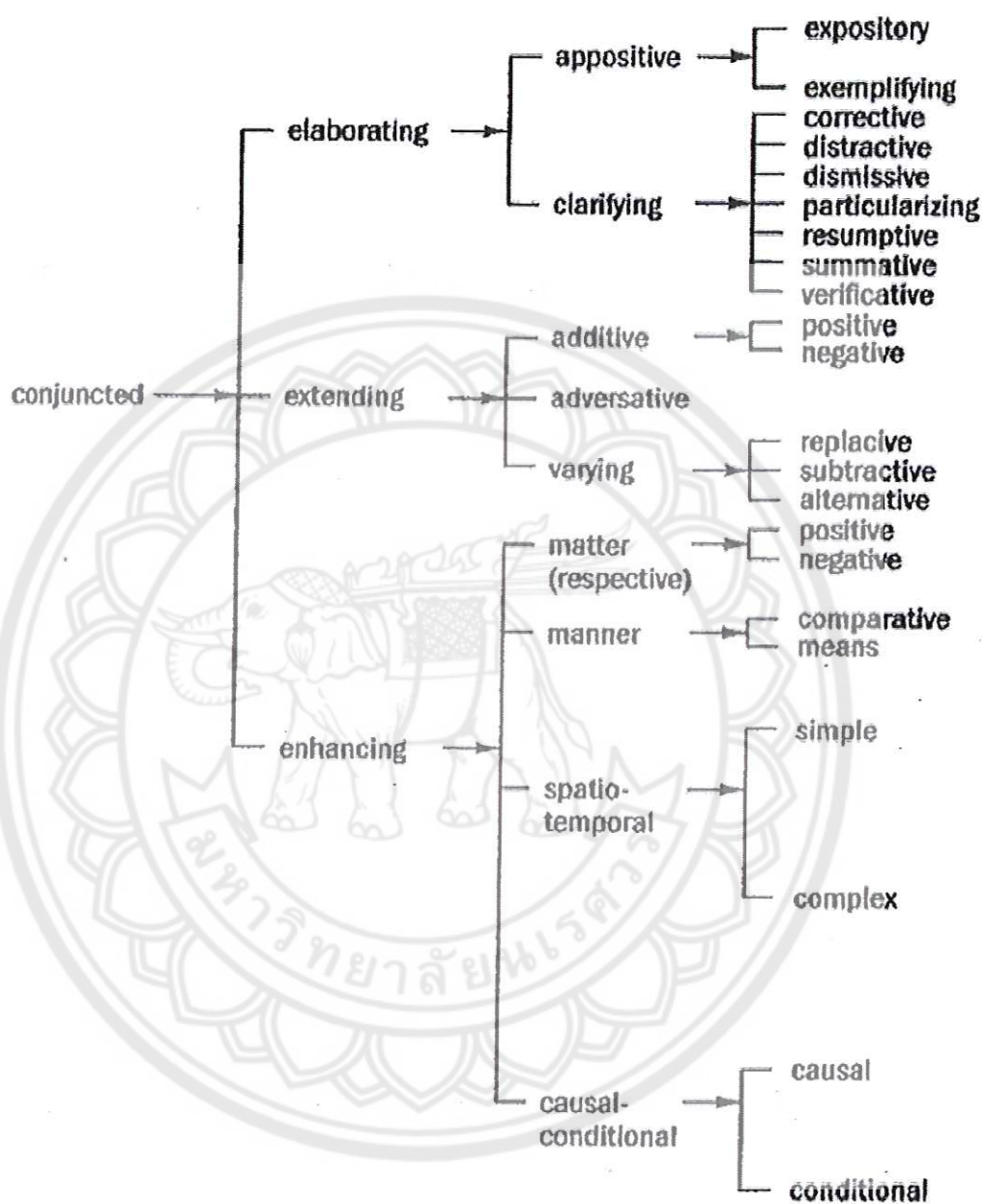


Figure 2 Halliday and Matthiessen's classifications of DMs

Source: Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004, p. 541

2.3 Taxonomy Used in this Study

The taxonomy of DMs in this study was adapted from Halliday and Hasan (1976) and Halliday and Matthiessen (2004). There are 106 examples of DMs from the two taxonomies. As a conclusion, they were classified into four semantic-functional categories: 1) addition, 2) concession and contrast, 3) cause and result, 4) enumeration and ordering, as described below.

a. Addition: adding information to what comes before and showing information as parallel to preceding information

and, furthermore, moreover, in addition, additionally, similarly, that is, in other words, for example, by the way, I mean, to put it another way, for instance, to illustrate, also, nor, likewise, in a different way, in the same manner

b. Concession and contrast: introducing information that is somewhat surprising or unexpected in light of previous information; linking information that is viewed as straight contrast

but, yet, though, however, while, on the other hand, on the contrary, in fact, actually, instead, nevertheless, nonetheless, on the other hand, apart from that, except for that, or (else), alternatively

c. Cause and result: introducing information that is a result or consequence of preceding information

so, because (of), as, for, since, in view of, hence, therefore, as a result, consequently, that's why, otherwise, there, as to that, in that respect, in other respects, elsewhere, on account of this, for that purpose, then, in that case, if not, still

d. Enumeration and ordering: signaling the order of main points that speakers or writers want to make and indicate a sequence of steps in a process

(and) then, after, later, as long as, until, after that, at the same time, meanwhile, first, next, finally, when, to sum up, at least, or rather, to be more precise, by the way, incidentally, in any case, anyway, leaving that aside, in particular, more specially, to resume, as I was saying, in short, briefly, actually, verificative, next, just then, previously, secondly, here, now, up to now, lastly, at once, thereupon, soon, after a while, next time, next day, that morning, at that time, until then, at this moment

Approach to the Study of Discourse Markers

DMs are concerned with resources for connecting segments through coordinators, subordinators or adverbial conjunctions. This work is closely related to the Rhetorical Structure Theory (RST). Basically, Rhetorical Structure Theory (RST) is a descriptive theory of a major aspect of the organization of a natural text (Mann and Thomson, 1988). This theory describes the relations between text parts in functional terms, identifying both the transition point of a relation and the extent of the items related. In addition, it provides comprehensive analysis rather than selective commentary. As mentioned earlier, the DMs play an important role in the cohesion and coherence of the text. Without the use of many DMs, a text might still be coherent. However, the presence of DMs might explicitly affect the coherence of the text. In other words, since the DMs are the transitional devices, they function to link the elements within a text in order to relate the ideas of the text. This role yields a sense of coherence. Here, the readers use this sense to identify whether a text is not only well-organized but also coherent. Thus, this is the role of DMs the readers may rely on in interpreting a text.

Additionally, Mann and Thomson (1988) state that the goal of text analysis in this work is to show how the structure of discourse reflects the intentions and goals of the speaker or writer. In other words, this creates a possibility in examining both of linguistic form and writer's intentions in ways that capture some aspects of text structure. Regarding the Mann and Thomson's Rhetorical structure theory (RST), this analysis put its emphasis the intentions and goals of authors and readers. The RST analysis concerns on 'relations'. The relations show the type of connection between two portions of text. The relationship is between two pieces of text called the nucleus (N) and the satellite (S). The function is called an effect. Each of these text spans is then connected to other spans until the set contains one final span for the entire text. Therefore, the text analysis covers all the relations among all the clauses in the text in a way that shows how coherence is established by the author and it is expected to be discovered by the reader.

Further, Mann and Thomson (1988) also state that relations between satellite and nucleus do not need to be made by linguistic markers. However, Mann and Thomson (1988) also point out that there are connectors that can be used to make a

relation specific. This is called 'clue words' or 'logical connectors' which signal the kind of shift about to take place in the discourse for instance although and however. Considering the RST analysis, this theory supports the present study since this current study is aimed at analyzing the use of DMs as linguistic features to show the relations of ideas in written texts.

In the same manner, according to Taboada and Mann (2006), Rhetorical Structure Theory (RST) is a theory of text organization that has led to areas of application beyond discourse analysis and text generation, its original goals. RST has been applied in different areas of studies related to discourse analysis, argumentation and writing. In this case, RST is used to describe and understand the structure of texts and to link rhetorical structure to other phenomena, such as cohesion, anaphora, etc. Moreover, many studies used RST to analyze second language writing and determine the textual coherence, as a means to measure students' proficiency (Taboada and Mann (2006).

Furthermore, Taboada and Mann (2006) also mention three types of contributions of RST, namely a better understanding of text; a conceptual structure of relations and how it is related to coherence; and contribution to a great diversity of work in several fields in which RST is used as a conceptual starting point, far beyond text generation which was the initial target. Therefore, these contributions may be useful as RST can be used for various purposes. Specifically, for the present study, the use of RST is aimed to examine the use of DMs employed in the argumentative writing composed by forty six EFL Indonesian and Thai university students.

Moreover, instead of the organization of the text, other important aspect related to the result of the writing was the influence of other factors such as students' English proficiency, social purpose, cultural background, and etc. Kaplan claimed that differences in academic writing are the result of culturally different ways of thinking (Paltridge and Phakiti, 2010, p. 262). The findings suggested that each language or culture had its rhetorical conventions that were unique. In addition, the rhetorical conventions of students' first language were transferred in their second language classroom which was influential. In other words, with different cultures, students may establish their native norms of writing in other literate cultures that are different (McCarthy, 1991).

Further, in regard to the socio-cultural diversity toward students' writings, it is considerable to take plausible issues into account, such as L1 transfer, cultural awareness, etc. As defined by Odlin (1989), transfer is the influence resulting from similarities and differences between the target language and any other language that has been previously (and perhaps imperfectly) acquired. Further, this includes interference in terms of vocabulary, pragmatics, and phonology (Lighbown and Spada, 2006, pp. 96-107). To take some examples, the use of repetition by American Indians' writings in English and the use of cleft sentences by the speakers of Hiberno-English are the cases in which the comparisons of performance of different native language groups (Odlin, 1989, pp. 64-67). Also, a study of rhetorical contrasts between English and Thai in student writing also revealed that Thai writers used more repetition, made extensive use of lists, often did not use conclusions, and tended to be more impersonal (Grabe and Kaplan, 1996). Moreover, it is also stated that the 'transfer' occurs when Thai students convey a pattern or model of writing in Thai into writing in English. In other words, Thai students tend to compose an English text which is more similar to a Thai text rather than the one of an American text.

Similarly, this issue also occurs in Indonesia as some studies reveal that Indonesian students also transfer their L1 to their English writing. A study on investigation of generic structure of English research articles composed by English and Indonesian writers shows that the significant differences in both forms and functions of organizing strategies between the native and non-native texts may be partly due to the influence of writing practices in the non-native writers' first language and the writer's attempt to find an appropriate format in the absence of well-established research writing conventions in the first language (Mirahayuni, 2002). Further, the absence or the overuse of explicit lexical signals also appears as another problem, which is indicated as an impact of the sufficient knowledge and the lack mastery of various linguistic resources. In addition, Budiharso (2006) reveals that the problems result from the transfer of L1 cultural conventions to L2 performance in the three rhetorical aspects, such as in general patterns of thought (linear or non-linear), development of ideas, and coherence. To sum up, in regard to some research studies, it is obviously found that L1 transfer has influence on both Indonesian and Thai students' writing. Indeed, L1 transfer may give impacts on the result of their writings such as in the wide range of vocabulary, syntax, phonology, pragmatics, etc.

Related Research

1. Research on Discourse Markers of EFL Students' Writing

Numerous studies have been conducted in investigating DMs; however, there are only few studies focused on the DMs in students' writings. Since the current study is mainly concerned with the use of DMs in written discourse, the following section is to be devoted to a brief discussion of some of the studies that have dealt with the use of DMs in the writings of non-native speakers of English.

Wang and Tsai (2007) conducted a study entitled 'Textual and contextual contrast connection: A study of Chinese contrastive markers across different text types'. The study was focused on examining Chinese contrastive markers *zhishi*, *danshi*, *buguo*, and *keshi*, correspondent to English 'but/yet/however' in various discourse modes. Some examples are narrative of personal experiences, casual conversation, formal lectures, and formal interviews. The data were collected by audio taping the participants and in the form of monologue and dialogue. The data analysis was done by using quantitative method. The findings revealed that those contrastive markers displayed a range of attitudinal, cognitive, and interactional properties. To conclude, the writer used Wang' and Tsai' study as one of the related studies because it was focused on the same thing, which is about contrastive markers. In addition, as this study was also dealt with formal lectures in the Asian context, this way is similar to the writer's setting. As the result, the findings also share beneficial information related to the writer's present study.

Next, Jalilifar's (2008) study investigated DMs in descriptive compositions of 90 Iranian EFL students selected from two universities. Without any instruction, they were given a topic to write a descriptive composition per week for 8 weeks. 598 compositions were collected, and they were analyzed qualitatively and quantitatively by three raters following Fraser's (1999) taxonomy of Discourse Markers. The findings of this particular study showed that students used DMs with different degrees of occurrence. Elaborative markers were the most frequently used, followed by inferential, contrastive, causative, and topic relating markers. The study also revealed that the number of well functioned DMs positively contributed to the writing quality of students' compositions. Jalilifar (2008) concluded that the students who were better

able to effectively and appropriately use DMs were more successful in producing more coherent compositions.

Modhish (2012) investigated the use of DMs in the composition writings of Arab EFL students. The study aimed to look into the use of DMs in the students' essays of Yemeni EFL students majoring in English. It also aimed to examine the relationship between the use of DMs and the writing quality of the students. 50 essays out of the 150 ones were analyzed to find out the frequency and nature used by the students following Fraser's (1999) taxonomy. With regard to writing quality, the 50 essays were rated by two EFL writing instructors on the basis of grammar, content, style, punctuation and spelling. This way, the collected data were analysed mainly quantitatively and qualitatively. The findings of the study revealed that the most frequently used DMs were elaborative ones, followed by the inferential, contrastive, causative and topic relating markers. The overuse of DMs by the students indicated that the students had extensively used those markers such as *and*, *also*, *so*, *but*; and these were the markers that might have kept on reoccurring on the teaching materials and in the classroom instruction carried out by the writing instructors. Moreover, it was shown that there is no strong positive correlation between students' total number of DMs used in the writing quality of the students.

In addition, a study conducted by Ramasawmy (2004) examined the relationship between conjunctive cohesion and relational coherence in students' narrative and expository compositions and writing quality. 64 compositions were analyzed using Halliday and Hasan's (1976) cohesion theory and Crombie's (1985) set of interpropositional relations. The result of the study showed that both conjunctive cohesion density and relational coherence affected the perceptions of writing quality. Writers of low-rated narrative and low-rated expository compositions not only used a more limited range of conjunctives but their compositions also manifested less cohesion density and contiguous relation density than writers of high-rated narrative and expository compositions did. In particular, the findings showed that the narrative genres comprised a lot of additives such as *and* and *furthermore* and expository compositions exhibited the varied use of additives such as *moreover*, *for example*, and *in other words*. Then, for the causal conjunctives, most narrative texts had an abundant use of a narrow range of causal conjunctives such as *because*, *as*, and *and*, pointing to

reason-result relations. There were very few conjunctives suggesting grounds-conclusion relations like hence, therefore, so and others. On the other hand, expository compositions employed a variety of causal conjunctives, including causal discontinuative conjunctives such as even if suggesting denied-consequence relation. Similarly, related to adversative conjunctives, the narrative compositions produced these conjunctives which were mostly but, unlike, though, whereas expository texts employed on the other hand, nevertheless, in contrast, and yet.

Furthermore, a study determined if the use of cohesive devices is correlative with enhanced cohesion and coherence in writing. Zhang's study of cohesion (2000) investigated the use of cohesive features in the expository compositions of Chinese undergraduates, using both quantitative and qualitative methods. 107 expository compositions were collected from two Chinese universities and assessed by three raters. This aimed to investigate the relationship between the use of cohesive devices and quality of writing. Halliday and Hasan's (1976) taxonomy of cohesive devices and their framework for analysis were used. Students employed in their writing a variety of cohesive devices with some categories of ties used more frequently than others. Lexical devices were the most frequently used, followed by conjunctive and reference devices. In terms of tie distances, the majority of the cohesive ties were either immediate or remote. There was no statistically significant relationship between the number of cohesive ties used and the quality of writing. Certain cohesive features were identified in the expository writing of Chinese undergraduates which included ambiguity in reference, overuse, and misuse of conjunctions, and restricted use of lexical cohesion.

Considering the cohesion relation on argumentative compositions, some studies on students' argumentative essays conducted in Asia were found. Braine and Liu (2005) conducted a study using Halliday and Hasan's (1976) taxonomy of cohesive devices and their framework for analysis. They investigated the use of cohesive devices in 50 argumentative compositions created by Chinese undergraduate non-English majors. It was found that the students were able to use a variety of cohesive devices in their writing, among which lexical devices constituted the largest percentages of the total number of cohesive devices, followed by references and conjunctives. With regard to the use of conjunctions, it seemed that the students were

capable of using a variety of devices to bridge the previous sentences and the following ones to make their writing clearer and more logical. However, only those commonly used items such as *but*, *or*, and *as well as* so were the students' favourites, whereas the items learned later such as *furthermore*, *on the contrary*, *moreover*, *in addition*, *on the whole*, and *nevertheless* seldom occurred in their writing.

Similarly, Dastjerdi and Samian (2011) carried out a study on the quality of Iranian EFL students' argumentative essays focused on cohesive devices. This study intended to investigate Iranian graduate non-English majors' use of cohesive devices in argumentative essays and also the relationship between the number of cohesive devices and writing quality. This employed Halliday and Hasan's (1976) cohesion theory as the framework of analysis. An analysis of forty argumentative essays written by forty Iranian graduate non-English majors showed that the students were familiar with various cohesive devices and used them in their writings. Among the cohesive devices used lexical devices had the largest percentage of the total number of cohesive devices, followed by reference devices and conjunction devices. Particularly, among the conjunction devices, additive devices had the largest percentage of used, followed by the causal devices, adversative devices, and temporal devices. In terms of the most frequently used conjunction devices, the cohesive items with the highest frequency among additive devices were *and*, *or*, and *also*. Among adversative devices, *but* and *however* are the most frequently used by the students, whereas they rarely used items like *on the contrary* and *on the other hand*. In terms of causal devices, the items *because*, *because of*, and *for* had the highest percentage. For temporal devices, the students employed *first*, *second*, *finally*, and *at the end of* more than others to show the order of their reasoning. Furthermore, it was also found that there was no significance relationship between the number of cohesive devices used and quality of writing.

Yang and Sun (2012) also used Halliday and Hasan's framework to conduct a study that comparatively investigated the differences and similarities in the use of cohesive devices by second-year and fourth-year undergraduate Chinese EFL students in their argumentative writings. The study aimed to reveal how EFL students of higher proficiency develop their written discourse competence comparing with the lower proficiency counterparts and to what degree the (correct) use of cohesive

devices indicates their writing quality. Sixty compositions, 30 written by sophomores and 30 by seniors, were collected. After being assessed by three raters using the independent writing rubrics of TOEFL, the compositions were analyzed in quantitative and qualitative way. The findings revealed that undergraduate EFL students at different proficiency levels were statistically different in their use of reference, lexical cohesion, and in their employment of four subsets of cohesive items, i.e. personal reference, demonstrative pronoun, adversity, synonym/ antonym, with large or near-large effect sizes. Then, the students of both groups were similar in utilizing conjunctions less frequently than other cohesive agents and employing monotonous conjunctions and overlapped lexical cohesive devices. Moreover, the findings also demonstrated that the (correct) use of cohesive devices correlated significantly positively with the writing quality, irrespective of the EFL proficiency levels.

Alarcon and Morales (2011) also reported the findings of a study on grammatical cohesion in students' argumentative essay. This study analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively the cohesive devices used by Philippines undergraduate students in their argumentative essay. 104 essays were collected and rated by two inter-raters, but only 64 essays statistically qualified as the corpus of the study. The analysis of the study employed Halliday and Hasan (1976) concept of grammatical cohesion as the framework. The findings showed that reference had the highest frequency, followed by conjunctions, and substitution. In addition, the cohesive devices were not significantly correlated with the quality of the students' essay. Furthermore, it was found out that there was certain cohesive types assisted the students in the argumentative process. For instance, 'but' was the most frequently used of adversative conjunction employed by the students. It may signify that their knowledge on the use of this kind of conjunction was limited where they were for instances can use concessive like 'yet or however' to establish stronger claims.

Finally, in regard to the previous research studies mentioned above, the findings show how DMs play an important role within students' writing in the EFL setting. These studies have shared information on how EFL students produce their argumentative writings in terms the nature of their argumentative writing, the use of cohesive devices especially DMs, the types of violation of cohesion and coherence, etc. Moreover, the findings also reveal whether there is relationship between the use of

DMs and the quality of the writing. There are also some implications and suggestions drawn from the studies. Thus, since the present study is aimed to investigate the kinds of the DMs, the comparison and contrast of the use of DMs between two groups, and the relationship between the use of DMs and the text coherence, these previous studies contribute a lot to this current study.

2. Research on Discourse Markers in the Writing of Indonesian and Thai EFL Students

2.1 Studies on Discourse Markers Conducted in Indonesia

The number of research studies on discourse analysis has been conducted in Indonesia and Thailand, but it is only a few numbers of those on discourse markers. First, a study on cohesion and coherence of students' texts in Indonesia has been conducted by Priyatmojo (2011). The objective of the study was to find out cohesion and coherence of the students' texts. The data was the students' recount texts. Employing fifteen students chosen from purposive sampling, the researcher got forty texts. After the texts were rated by experts, the analysis was done to examine the cohesive devices the students employ. The analysis of the data adopted Halliday and Hasan (1976). The findings showed that, among cohesive devices, the personal pronoun, repetition and temporal conjunctions were the most frequently used by the students in their writing. Following the three previous devices, the adversative and additive conjunctions were found frequently in the texts. The findings indicated that students had created recount texts in a good structure by employing cohesive devices. However, the researcher also found that most of the students developed their texts by employing reiteration or constant thematic progression pattern, zig-zag pattern, and multiple pattern thematic progression patterns. Based on the analysis of the way students develop the text patterns, most of the texts are not coherent. Consequently, the researcher suggested that the cohesion and coherence are better taught, explicitly or implicitly, either through exercises, classroom instructions, or comments to students' texts.

Second, Budiharso (2006) investigated EFL students' essay located in Indonesia. The analysis focused on the rhetorical aspects of EFL students' essays including general patterns of thought (linear or non-linear), development of ideas, and coherence. This study was aimed at analyzing the similarities and differences between English and Indonesian essays made by Indonesian EFL undergraduate students. The problems come as the effect of L1 transfer toward L2 performance. The data were English essays and Indonesian essays. They were 10 EFL undergraduate students learning in the tenth semester of MUM. The participants were preparing to write a research report of an undergraduate thesis in English. The rhetoric of English essay and the Indonesian essay was analyzed and evaluated on the basis of the task environment and the composing process adopted Connor (1996). The findings showed that the similarity of the use of rhetoric features occurs both in English and Indonesian essays. That is, EFL students made more grammatical and lexical errors in English essays comparing to in Indonesian essays. The developmental errors the students made also indicated that the students were still in their transitional competence in the continuum of approaching the L2 rule system. In conclusion, the research showed that the students had not sufficient English mastery in performing a scholarly writing.

Third, Fadlilatur (2010) had conducted an investigation on the cohesion in the thesis abstract. The study aimed to answer two main problems which related to the types of cohesive and coherent devices used by the students in their abstracts and how the cohesion and coherence of the abstracts. To analyze the data, descriptive qualitative research method was employed. Some steps to collect the data were reading the whole abstracts collection, observing them, selecting the abstracts written by the linguistic students, taking notes on the types and violations of cohesion and coherence found, classifying the data based on their types, and analyze them by using the theory of cohesion by Halliday and Hasan (1976) and coherence by Oshima and Hogue (1983). The finding revealed that the students used both grammatical and lexical cohesive devices, such as repetition, ellipsis, conjunction, etc. Then, the most widely used cohesive device was reference. In addition, the violations found in terms of cohesion were the violation of reference, substitution, conjunction, synonym, and antonym. In terms of coherence, there were inappropriate use of pronoun, transitional signals, and illogic order. The violations of cohesion and coherence that have the

highest occurrence in the abstracts were reference and logical order. Those were the things that make the sentences and paragraphs in the abstract could not cohesive and coherent as a whole.

In addition, Kusumaningrum (2013) conducted a study which intends to investigate the use of cohesive devices and also the relationship between the frequency of cohesive devices using and the quality of argumentative writing. Based on Halliday and Hasan's Cohesion theory (1976), 30 students' argumentative writings were analyzed. In analysing the quantitative data especially the statistical data, SPSS statistical software was applied. The findings revealed that the students were familiar with various cohesive devices and used them in their writing. Among the cohesive devices, reference had the largest percentage of the total number cohesive devices followed by lexical devices and conjunction devices. Furthermore, it was found that there was no significant relationship between the number of cohesive devices used and the quality of writing. The findings of the study have some important implications for EFL writing teachers and students, such as the teacher of writing should give more explanation of how to apply cohesive devices correctly, though it is not the matter of various cohesive devices, yet along with the functions and the position of cohesive devices in sentences; to enhance students' awareness of coherence and cohesion, it is important to incorporate reading into writing because students can learn more about vocabulary, syntactic structure, and the flow of the composition; and observing the use of cohesive devices can also enhance students' awareness of the characteristics of good English writing.

Afterwards, a study concerning the discourse connectors used in the argumentative writings produced by Indonesian EFL university students conducted by Andayani (2013). To adopt the taxonomies of Halliday and Hasan (1976) and Halliday and Matthiessen (2004) to account for the semantic and syntactic functions of discourse connectors, this study aimed to investigate the use of discourse connectors employed by university students in their argumentative writings. The subjects of the study were the argumentative writings composed by English-major undergraduate students. Out of 56 compositions, 30 were chosen as the sample. The data were analyzed quantitatively. First, the findings revealed that the students were able to use a variety of discourse connectors in their writing for instances addition (38.60%),

concession and contrast (27.57%), cause and result (18.75%), and enumeration and order (15.07%). Second, among a wide range of discourse connectors; and, or, because (of), but, and so were mostly found in the compositions. The overuse of these particular connectors might have been triggered by the students' reliance on their L1, since they are widely used in the spoken as well as written Bahasa. In addition, this can be due to with certain factors that have to do with the fact that the students' repertoire of discourse connectors is rather limited and the study clearly revealed that their use of discourse connectors is rather restricted. Moreover, they tended to make use of discourse connectors that are pretty sure on how to use them and would not take risk of trying to use some of unfamiliar to them. Hereafter, it is advisable that the EFL programs in Indonesia and in the other similar contexts treat writings as a separate skill and not to be looked as a secondary skill that is not given the attention it deserves. Then, EFL students should be encouraged by writings instructors to adventure with the language and not to be unnecessarily cautious of making errors as this might lead students to be rather inhibited. Furthermore, it should be emphasized once again that discourse connectors should be tackled inductively and deductively by English teachers and EFL writing instructors.

Hinkel (2001) presented a study concerning on a comparative analysis of median frequency rated of cohesive devices employed in academics texts of students who were speakers of such languages as English, Japanese, Korean, Indonesian, and Arabic. Specifically, the study focused on the median frequency rates of uses of explicit cohesion devices, such as phrase-level coordinators, sentence transitions, logical-semantic conjunction, demonstrative pronoun, and enumerative and resultative nouns in academic texts of native speakers (NS) and non-native speakers (NNS). The purpose of this study was to determine the specific differences and similarities in the uses of explicit cohesion devices in a NS and NNS corpus of 897 academic essays. The findings indicated that students of Japanese, Korean, Indonesian, and Arabic employed sentence transitions and demonstrative pronouns as significant frequency rates than do NSs. In L2 texts, the preference of the use of sentence transitions and demonstrative often reflected NNS writers' attempts to construct a unified idea flow. However, it was found that Indonesian students employed few coordinators, so it was often resulting in short sentences without elaboration. Therefore, it is suggested that

the needs to be addressed in L2 writing instruction is the employment of coordinating conjunctions by speakers of Indonesian and Arabic.

To resume, the studies mentioned earlier show that most of Indonesian students have considered cohesion and coherence in their writing ability; among cohesive devices, particularly in the use of discourse markers. Then, regarding to Halliday and Hasan's (1976) taxonomy adapted by some researcher, most of Indonesian students have already been familiar to use discourse markers such as addition, causal, enumeration, and soon. However, it was also found that some Indonesian students did not have sufficient English mastery in performing their academic writing. As a result, it was found that they either employed few discourse markers or overused of certain types of discourse markers. Moreover, based on some studies mentioned earlier, one of the reasons identified was that the problems were triggered by the students' LI transfer. Last, some studies provided some implications and suggestions which are beneficial for future studies, as well as, for the real pedagogical application.

2.2 Studies on Discourse Markers Conducted in Thailand

Similarly, there was several research studies related to discourse markers conducted in Thailand. Indeed, a study conducted by Prommas (2011) which investigated the discourse connectors (hence DC) in argumentative compositions of 44 Thai students. This study compared Thai EFL students and English-native speakers. Out of 44 students' compositions, 24 compositions were made by Thai students and the rest number of them was taken from Louvain Corpus of Native English Essays (LOCNESS) of the University of Michigan. The framework of analysing the DCs followed Halliday and Hasan's (1976) taxonomy. The emphasis is on the conjunctions (both coordinators and subordinators) and conjunctive adverbials. The study employs quantitative and qualitative method. Related to the findings, quantitatively, it showed that the presence of DCs in the Thai students were higher than in the native speakers'. Related to the total number of DC, the Thai students (27 per 1,000 words) were evidently employed DCs higher than the Thai speakers (41 per 1,000 words). This was partly due to the fact that some of the DCs such as *and* and *but* were superfluously used by the Thai students. In terms of the types of DCs used, native speakers and non-native speakers use 53 and 51 types by the two groups, respectively. Qualitatively, the

high frequent use of DCs were on the use of and, but, because, and for example. For the Thai students, this is due to those DCs were commonly found by the Thai students in the classroom context. In addition, the problems the Thai students encountered when using discourse connectors in their writings were both grammatical and functional errors, for instance discourse connectors with prepositional-phrase variants, missing verbs in finite clauses, fragments, run-ons, redundant use of discourse connectors, etc. Moreover, several reasonable causes toward these problems were given in relation to insufficient knowledge of simple-complex formation, unawareness of grammatical restrictions of DCs with variants, L1 transfer, written Thai style transfer, and oral culture influence.

Further, a study conducted by Chanawangsa (1986) aimed to discover the cohesion system in Thai, for instance to describe how clauses are connected, what devices are used, and how these devices make different parts of a text hang together. Although there were three major means of achieving textual cohesion: lexical, grammatical, and phonological, this study was confined to the first two only. In carrying out the research Halliday and Hasan's model on cohesion in English was adopted as the working hypothesis. Both corpus and introspective data were employed for analysis. Then, from the study, it was found that there were six types of cohesion in Thai: reference, substitution, ellipsis, repetition, lexical cohesion, and conjunction. Reference is the relation whereby a linguistic item is interpreted by recourse to another item in the text. Substitution is the replacement by another. Ellipsis is the replacement by zero. Repetition is the relation of recurrence. Lexical cohesion is the relation resulting from the use of related lexical items. Finally, conjunction is the semantic relationship holding between prepositions. With regard to the relative frequencies of occurrence of these relations in the data, the scale from the lowest to the highest was as follows: substitution, ellipsis, lexical cohesion, conjunction, repetition, and reference. Moreover, it was also found that although the categories of cohesion in English and Thai were very similar, the devices used to realize them can be quite different. Even when there were comparable devices, the two languages still differed in the restriction on their uses.

In addition, Pongsiriwet (2001) investigated the relationship among grammatical, discourse features, and the quality of second language writing of Thai EFL students. The participants of the study were 155 university freshmen of various majors. The data were collected from student writing which described or narrated a story about significant events or people in their lives. Out of 155 compositions, 80 were randomly selected as the data for the analysis of grammatical errors and a subsample of 40 compositions was selected as the data for the analysis the relationship between grammatical accuracy and discourse features and the effects of these two aspects on holistic writing quality. The findings of the analysis of grammatical errors showed that the most frequent types of errors occur in subject-verb agreement, followed by verb formation and tense. Then, the findings revealed no statistically significant correlation between grammatical accuracy and cohesion but a statistically significant correlation between grammatical accuracy and coherence with holistic quality. The results indicated the highest correlation between holistic quality and coherence followed by cohesion and grammar. Moreover, insights gained from this study were that students who are good at grammatical accuracy are not necessarily good at cohesion but might be good at coherence, and the raters tend to rely more on discourse features, especially coherence than grammatical accuracy in evaluating the quality of writing.

Next, Sitthirak (2010) studied the use of discourse markers by Thai University Students and English Speakers and examination of Thai students on the contrastive discourse markers. The subjects consisted of 107 respondents: 79 Thai students and 28 English speakers responding to a set of questionnaires. This study used quantitative and qualitative methods. The data was statistically analyzed as for quantitative method and categorized for qualitative method. The study was divided into three sections: the distinction between contrast and non-contrast; the variability of Contrastive Discourse Markers; and interchangeability of although and while. First, the result revealed that Thai students could distinguish between the contrast and non-contrast relation between two utterances at more considerable rate than the English speakers for the given contexts partly because of the different pragmatic use. Second, where there are various Contrastive Discourse Markers (CDM) to choose, Thai students tend to form a set of rules to deal with the 'appropriate' answers, while

English speakers consider the authentic use rather than the semantic use in general. Finally, for the interchangeability of *although* and *while*, Thai students tended to use the two problematic discourse markers more frequent than English speakers in general context. Thai students also produced some own rules whenever they feel the ambiguity, while the English speakers used their sense of language.

Tangkiengsirisin (2010) investigated the effects of teacher written feedback and students' revision on the use of cohesive devices in expository compositions written by Thai postgraduate students. In addition to the explicit instruction of the cohesive devices, the teacher written comments, including corrective, advisory and indicative comments, were provided to the students' essays. The feedback on cohesion in this study dealt with form, content and, most importantly, essay organization. Each of the essays from this experimental group was provided with a combination of teacher written comments focusing on the improvement of cohesion. Sixty pre-test and post-test essays were composed by the students from both the experimental group and the control/intact group. All the essays were analyzed by Halliday and Hasan's (1976) cohesion analysis model. T-tests were conducted to examine the differences in the use of cohesive devices between the pre-and post-test essays. The results revealed a significant improvement of cohesion in the writing of the experimental group, particularly referential, conjunctive and lexical cohesive ties. In term of conjunctions employed by students, the experimental group used significantly more additive conjunctions in their writings than the control group. In addition, both of experimental and control group also used different number adversative, causal, and temporal conjunctions. The pedagogical implications regarding the teachability and the positive effects of teacher written feedback and essays revision were derived on the basis of the research results. Insights gained from the present study are 1) that even though cohesion is a useful linguistic element that contributes to well-connected writing, it may not be adequate as a means of measuring overall writing quality, 2) that teacher written feedback should be personalized to cater for each individual student's needs and each problematic writing situation, and 3) that feedback plays a crucial role in raising awareness regarding the use of cohesion in L2 writing.

Moreover, Petchprasert (2007) found out the use of cohesive markers used Thai and English essay writing of graduate students who were speakers of Thai. In addition, the analysis describes the use of cohesive markers found in L1 and L2 essays with direct writing and translation. The effects of L1 transfers and participants' metalinguistic awareness were also investigated. Specifically, the study focused on the frequency rates of uses of cohesion based on Halliday and Hasan's (1976) cohesion analysis such as reference, substitution, ellipsis, lexical cohesion, and conjunction in written texts. The purpose of this study is to determine the specific differences and similarities in the uses of cohesive markers in the essays. The quantitative analysis of the cohesive markers found in the English direct writing essays indicated that the writer employed significantly higher frequency rates of personal reference and demonstrative than those in translation. In addition, regarding to conjunction, the writers of English direct writings used high frequency of additive conjunction (and) and adversative conjunction (but). Overall, though conjunction functioned well as it creates cohesion in their essays, the writers used a few conjunction types. As a result, they contributed less elaboration in their writing. However, the preponderance of cohesive markers used in L2 texts reflected the writers' attempts to construct ideas flow with the limitations of syntactic and lexical range.

Bennui (2008) conducted a study emphasizing on the L1 interference in the writing of Thai EFL students. This study aimed to analyse and describe features of L1 interference in paragraph writing. Three levels of L1 interference, namely words, sentence and discourse, were analyzed from samples of the students' paragraph writing in the final exam paper and discussed by considering four approaches: contrastive analysis, error analysis, interlanguage analysis, and contrastive rhetoric. It was found that literal translation of Thai words into English mainly represented features of L1 lexical interference in the students' written English. There were some features of L1 syntactic interference in the students' writing English such as word order, tense, subject-verb agreement, language style level, etc. Indeed, one of the findings revealed that the influence of the use of cohesion markers in writings. The use of various cohesion markers in one sentence made overly long or run-on sentence in their paragraphs. Thus, the students created run-on sentences by using several transition signals such as because, before, and, when, but, that, for example, and soon.

To sum up, these chronic writing problems should be solved in an appropriate way for the quality of written product and ESL/EFL writing instruction.

Furthermore, a study on contrasting narrative discourse style in Thai-English bilinguals was done by Saengngoen (2006). This study aimed to compare and contrast Thai and English narrative essays written by six Thai-English bilinguals to determine if there is any change in the textual coherence between L1 and L2 writings. Participants were asked to compose English and Thai narrative essays using a picture cue. The subjects wrote first in English and later in Thai with a three-week interval between writing sessions. The research focused on aspects of syntactical structure as well as narrative discourse structures of L1 and L2 narrative essays created by male and female Thai advanced English writers. The results revealed that in terms of textual cohesion, Thai-English bilinguals prefer using anaphoric references to cataphoric references and incorporating more nominal and comparative pronouns in English than in their Thai writings. However, the subjects utilized a larger number of demonstrative pronouns in Thai writings than in English because of the lack of the definite article *the* in the Thai language. The infrequent use of substitution and ellipsis in both L1 and L2 sample writings led the researcher to postulate that the subjects lack knowledge of such features. Thai bilinguals were also found to be more proficient in connecting their L1 Thai writings by using conjunctions than in their L2 English narrative essays. Finally, the most-frequently utilized types of conjunctive cohesions ranged, in order of frequency from most to least were additive, casual, temporal, adversative, and continuative conjunctive cohesions, respectively.

Overall, regarding to the research studies conducted in Thailand, compared to those in Indonesia, there were no significant difference toward its findings, since they might share similar role of English as foreign language. However, in term of the use of discourse markers, there was found a tendency of the use of certain discourse markers either similarly or differently, for instance coordination of *and* and *but*. Also, some problems encountered by Thai students in their writings were found such as missing certain part of the sentence, run-ons, either less or redundant use of discourse markers and its effect toward the writing quality, and soon. Finally, similar to the writing problem in Indonesian context, it was also found that L1 transfer takes into account on the Thai student writing.

To sum up this part, those previous studies are the closest related studies the writer found. Basically, the previous studies are presented in order to strengthen the present study as it can be seen the similarities and differences. Thus, some similarities in the previous study are useful to give a brief insight on how to deal with the present study, while the differences are used to convince readers that the present study has distinct case to investigate. As can be seen from the review of these related studies, the focus was placed widely on such issues as the relationship between cohesive devices and writing quality, frequency of DMs, and problems related to DMs use in students' writing. The studies indicated that some DMs remained problematic to the students as they were overused, underused and misused. Thus, the problem with the use of these DMs in English writing was due partly to L1 influence (L1 transfer).

Moreover, those previous studies have shown that the discourse markers were investigated within various text genres (Wang and Tsai, 2007; Jalilifar, 2008; Modhish, 2012), different level of English proficiency (Yang and Sun, 2011), focused on contrastive markers (Wang and Tsai, 2007), expository text (Ramasawmy, 2004; Zhang, 2000), and in a argumentative text (Braine and Liu, 2005; Dastjerdi, 2011; Yang and Sun, 2011; Alarcon and Morales, 2011). In terms of the setting, there were some studies on the analysis between students' composition and cohesion-coherence conducted in Indonesia (Priyatmojo, 2011; Budiharso, 2006; Fadlilatur, 2010), Kusumaningrum, 2013; Andayani, 2013; Hinkel, 2001) and in Thailand (Prommas , 2011; Tangkiengsirisin, 2010; Pongsiriwet, 2001; Sitthirak, 2010; Petchrasert, 2007; Bennui, 2008; Saengngoen, 2006). On account for the previous research studies mentioned earlier, there has not been found a comparative study of English discourse markers in the argumentative writings of EFL Indonesian and Thai university students. This way, the present study tries to fill in the gap by investigating the use of English discourse markers in the argumentative writing of EFL Indonesian and Thai university students.