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A Discursive Approach of Grammatical and Lexical Cohesion in Students' Writing.

A case study of third year English students, YAHIA FARES UNIVERSITY-MEDEA

Dissertation submitted in partial fulfilemnt of the requirements for the Master

Degree in Linguistics.

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We declare that ***"grammatical and lexical cohesion in students' academic writing"*** is our main work and all the sources that we have used have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

03/07/2019

SIGNATURES DATE

DEDICATION

This study is wholeheartedly dedicated to our beloved families who have been the fountain of inspiration and for giving us encouragement and strength, providing their moral, spiritual, emotional, and financial supports.

We dedicate our work also to our best friends, first and for most, Khadidja Khelifi and Sara Amrouche for being our soulamtes.

ACKNOWLEGEMENT

First and most of all, all praise and gratitude is to Allah because thanks to Him we were able to finish our thesis draft. We would like to extend our sincere gratitude to Yahia Fares University, Department of Foreign Languages, for affording us the opportunity to be students for five years.

Second, we would like to thank all our dear teachers for giving us knowledge, lessons of life and self-development.

Third, we owe our deepest appreciation to our teacher Dr. Kermezli for being our insightful teacher for 3 years; the one who made us enamoured of linguistics and inspired us with his various concepts of life. We are indebted to his efforts, patience, and keen interest, and for being our dear supervisor. We are grateful to his valuable guidance, help and encouragement in the research process during the whole year to accomplish our thesis. Without you it would have been impossible to complete it.

Fourth, we would like also to express our sincere thanks to Miss Metidji for giving us the opportunity and helping us to do the internship in her class.

Last but not least, we are thankful to anyone who helped us at any stage. Their names are not mentioned in this acknowledgement.

ABSTRACT

Writing is considered as one of the four skills of language whose essential characteristic is cohesion. This research focuses mainly on cohesion in academic writing of English foreign language learners (EFLLs), because cohesion enables learners to connect ideas more accurately through focusing on both grammar and lexis.The present study aims at examining the students' awareness of the use of grammatical and lexical links in their academic writings. Furthermore, it seeks to analyze the frequency, variety, and control of employing cohesion and its effect on the style of writing.A descriptive study was adopted to answer the research questions and to illustrate to what extent the third year students of English at the University of Medea are familiar with the use of cohesive devices. This is a quantitative descriptive research. Hence, the sample population of the current research consists of 30 students of third year English at Medea University, promotion of 2018 – 2019. The sample was randomly selected. The research results revealed that students tend to employ grammatical cohesive devices (GCDs) more than lexical cohesive devices (LCDs). One of the main reasons behind this is their lack of semantic knowledge.

Key terms: Academic writing, cohesion, GCDs, LCDs, and EFLLs.

الملخص:

تعتبر الكتابة واحدة من مهارات اللغ ة الأربع والتي من أهم خصائصها الترابط، لذا يركز هذا البحث على الترابط في الكتابات الأكاديمية لمتعلمي الانجليزية كلغة أجنبية لأنه ما يمكن الطلبة من وصل أفكارهم مع بعضها بشكل أكثر دقة من خلال التركيز على كل من النحو والمفردات. تهدف الدراسة الحالية إلى فحص وعي الطلبة باستخدام الروابط النحوية والمعجمية في كتاباتهم الأكاديمية، كما تسعى الدراسة إلى تحليل تكرار وتنوع وضبط استخدام الترابط وأثره على أسلوب الكتابة. طُبّقت دراسة وصفية لغرض الإجابة على أسئلة البحث وتجسيد مدى إلمام طلبة اللغة الانجليزية في السنة الثالثة بجامعة المدية باستخدام أدوات الربط، لذلك فإن هذا البحث وصفي كمي. وبهذا فإن عينة البحث البشرية تتكون من ثلاثين طالبا و طالبة من السنة الثالثة، تخصص اللغة الانجليزية بجامعة المدية، دفعة 2018- 2019، وقد تم اختيار العينة عشوائيا. أظهرت نتائج البحث أن الطلبة يميلون إلى استخدا م أدوات الربط النحوية أكثر من أدوات الربط المعجمية وواحد من ابرز الأسباب وراء ذلك هو ضعف معرفتهم الدلالية.

الكلمات المفتاحية : الكتابة الأكاديمية، الترابط، أدوات الربط النحوية، أدوات الربط المعجمية، متعلمو الانجليزية كلغة أجنبية.

LIST OF ABREVIATIONS

DA = Discourse Analysis.

EFL = English foreign language.

EFLL = English Foreign Language Learner**.**

E.g: Example.

ESL = English Second Language.

FL = Foreign Language.

FLL = Foreign language learning.

GCD = Grammatical Cohesive Devices.

L1= First Language**.**

L2 = Second Language.

LCD = Lexical Cohesive Devices.

TESOL = Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages.

WD = Written Discourse.

WDA = Written Discourse Analysis.

Ø = Ellipsis.

% = Percentage.

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General introduction:

The most important goal of teaching foreign language (FL) is to enable the learner to communicate in this language. This communication is based on four skills, two are receptive and the other two are productive. Receptive skills are listening and reading, productive skills are speaking and writing (Mundhe, 2015).

Writing is considered as the most challenging aspect in learning languages; whether second language (SL) or (FL). According to Richard and Renandy (2002), learning to write academically requires more efforts because learners are expected to analyse, compare, and inform in order to make the text coherent. Therefore, the process of writing becomes more complex to the learner when writing extended texts.

The study analyses the concept of text and discourse and how they are related. Text includes words, clauses, and sentences, but students at university level need not only the mastery of linguistic knowledge, but they also need to correlate linguistics and different maxims of reality to use language appropriately in it social context. However, mastering the skill of writing requires different aspects like: content, spelling, language use, punctuation, coherence, and cohesion. However, cohesion is a linguistic technique that links surface structure of written works through grammatical and lexical chains, but through the analysis of language use in general, and cohesion specifically, this study will explore facts and language pedagogy adopted by instructors.

A descriptive study is conducted in the present research to answer the research questions quantitavely. A vast amount of data was provided to supply instant answers to the research questions. A large number of students were tested, but randomly selected. Students were examined to display the use of cohesion in third year level of English at University of Medea. The findings of this research are presented by means of tables and charts. Various

types of grammatical and lexical ties are demonstrated in this study to clarify what kind of chains are the most frequent ones and how they contribute to cohesion besides to the overall meaning of text.

1. Background Motivation:

One of the four major skills of learning a given language as a foreign language is academic writing. This research is conducted to this specific area in order to prove how writing is important to enhance students' performance in foreign language learning (FLL). This research focuses mainly on cohesion, because it is an essential property of academic writing. Moreover, the current study seeks to demonstrate the impact of instructors' methods of teaching on their students writing skill. Those methods are considered also as an instrument to enable learners to connect ideas in more accurate way, by focusing on both grammar and lexis.

2. Statement of the Problem:

Cohesion is one of text properties that impact the process of written texts. It is devided into GCDs that is based on a number of syntactic rules, and LCDs which is based on lexical content and background knowledge. Consequently the problem that we noticed is that English foreign learners (EFL) focus extensively on GCDs rather than LCDs. Therefore, students should recognise the effect and rules of lexical cohesion.

3. Purpose of the Research:

The present study intends to introduce different types of grammatical and lexical ties used by the third year English students. This research examines the students' awareness of the use of these links, especially lexical cohesion, in their academic products. The purpose of this research is to analyse the frequency, variety and control of using cohesion and its effects on

the style of students' writings.

4. Research Questions:

This study aims to answer one major question:

1- Why do English foreign language learners (EFLL) focus on grammatical cohesive devices (GCDs) rather than lexical cohesive devices (LCDs) in their writings?

And two related questions:

a- How often do third year English students use GCDs and LCDs in writing essays?

b- What is the consequence that third year English students face when they overlook the use of LCDs.

5. Research Hypotheses:

The following hypotheses will be tested through the implementation of the study.

One major hypothesis is:

1- EFLLs' writing might be the outcome of the classroom practice applied by the teacher.

And two related hypotheses are:

a- Third year English students may be familiar with the use of some types and sub-types of grammatical cohesion and disregard the use of lexical cohesion.

b- Third year English students might have a problem resulted from the shortage of LCDs.

6. Objectives of the Research:

The objectives of this study are focused on three aspects:

1. To investigate the reason behind the extensive use of GCDs over LCDs.
2. To find out the frequency of using cohesion in students' academic essay writing.
3. To detect the issue behind the shortage of LCDs in students' writing.

7. Significance of the Study:

This study provides a set of information about the importance of cohesion in academic writing. It focuses, first, on examining the use of categories and sub-categories of both grammatical and lexical cohesion functions in sentences and independent clauses within written essays created by Medea undergraduate students. It is expected that this study would generate information on the degree of learners' familiarity with these ties to create a coherent discourse and to reveal the problems of using them. A good piece of professional writing requires integration between form and meaning.

For learners, this study can be used as a reference for further research. Students can understand GCDs and LCDs through this study, which can improve their English, especially writing skill. Simultaniously, it offers suggestions for teachers to overcome problems related to the field of academic writing. It may as well result in new standards of English learning and teaching.

This study will be of a significant benefit for EFLLs and teachers at Yahia Fares University.

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Introduction:

This chapter gives an outline about the theoritical background of the current study. It investigates the hierarchical organization of text. It supplies a discussion of written discourse analysis and demonstrating the regularities needed in writing. The later enables learners to cohesively and coherently express what they have in mind in order to associate between ideas in text. For instance, several researchers such as Halliday and Hasan (1976) argue that the study of these criteria enables students to contribute, develop, and shape their writing skills, particularly academic writing. Therefore, the concept of cohesion, coherence and academic writing are demonstrated in details in this chapter.

1.1 Discourse Analysis:

Traditionally, linguists were concerned with the analysis of sentence in isolation and their focus were on the level of structure following the Chomskian theory of Transformational Generative Grammar (1957), which is purely syntactic view. Then, several linguists shifted the interest towards discourse analysis (DA) that studies the use of language in discourse, the manner which organises the content of any subject and linguistic expression. DA is part of the growing properties that linguistics is showing in the communicative characteristics of language and the functioning of language in social context (McCarthy, 1991).

DA is a set of approaches used to analyse written and spoken data or any semiotic sign. The term was utilised first by Harris (1952) as: « a method for the analysis of the connected speech or writing for continuing descriptive linguistics beyond the limit of a single sentence at a time and for correlating culture and language » (Harris, 1952, p.1). This method contrasts with types of analysis that are chiefly concerned with the study of grammar and with larger chuncks that aim at relating language to culture.

Later, many researchers defined DA as the actual language in use. This discipline aims at relating language to context in order to analyse both conversation and highly institutionalised forms of talk. Discourse is concerned with the analysis of speech that is produced by the addresser in a given situation and setting (McCarthy, 1991). McCarthy (1991) also claimed that DA is the umberalla term that has emerged from a multidisciplinary set of theoretical and methodological approaches such as: semiotics, linguistics, pscychology, anthropology and sociology. DA in particular is based on two trends, the formal and functional approaches. The first one is defining discourse as structural trend. It focuses on pieces larger than 'morpheme', 'clause' and 'sentence' (Schiffrin, 1994). Schiffrin (1994) stated that DA studies the internal structure in which it describes text ties that unite discourse together (Brown & Yule, as cited in Drid, 2010).

In brief, the new approach led linguists to analyse language as a group of sentences combined to form text rather than isolated sentences (McCarthy, 1991). Text grammarians in DA worked mainly with written language where they assume text as a set of language elements hung together to give a relationship with the rest of the parts of the text. The principle concern of DA is to examine how any language produced by given participants is used in communication for a given situation in a given setting.

Yule (1996) asserts that structural connections between sentences in text are important elements of discourse. The aim is to link between sentences to create cohesion. To conclude, DA is the study of the use of language that is produced by people both in spoken and written forms in social contexts.

1.2 Written Discourse:

One of the four skills of learning a FL is writing. That is regarded as a fundamental and active skill alongside speaking, which permits learners to use their hands and brains to

produce and represent ideas. According to Brown and Yule (1983), speaking process is restricted to several paralinguistic cues that modify the meaning, or convey emotion, such as tone, facial expression, postural and gestural systems. The speaker must adjust his speaking abilities with his attention and jointly regulating his next ideas. Conversely, writing process requires less tention, because the writer may scan his ideas and take his time in the selection of words.

Kaplan and Gabe (2002) define written discourse analysis (WDA) as: « Systematic analyses of the linguistic features and patterns occuring in written texts » (p. 192). Cook (1989) considers WDA as an approach that looks for regularities in language. WDA is interested in « how to do things with words, to achieve, affect, and communicate sucessfully with people in particular contexts » rather than « being concerned with the rules of language as an isolated object… » (p. 12). WD aims at delivering meaning without being concerned with syntax only.

De Beaugrand and Dressler (1981), identify the function of discourse (written or spoken) as a « communicative event » in which text properties that contribute to the organisation must be satisfactory through the seven standards of textuality:

- Cohesion: cohesion is the first text property. It has the function of linking text syntactically and lexically in order to create textuality (De Beaugrand & Dressler, 1981).
- Coherence: it occurs when sentences in text are ordered according to a principle (Boardman & Frydenberg, 2002).
- Intentionality: De Beaugrand and Dressler (1981) introduced the notion of intentionality to substitute the purpose of language produced.

- Acceptability: to describe acceptability Neubret and Shreve (1992) believe that: acceptability does not necessarly imply that the receiver believe the specific contents of the text. It does require that the addressee be able to identify and extract those contents (What the text is supposed to do) the receiver must be able to detemine what kind of text the sender intends to send, and what was to be achieved by sending it. (Neubret & Shreve, 1992, p. 73). It entails the relevance of the message to the audience.
- Informativity: Informativity in text refers to the quantity and the quality of information provided.
- Situationality: De Beaugrand and Dressler (1981) defined the term situationality as follows: a general designation for the factors which render a text relevant to a current or recoverable situation of occurrence… the accessible evidence in the situation is fed into the model along with our prior knowledge and expectations about how the 'real world' is organized (p.163). This refers to the circumstances in which given message is produced or perceived and,
- Intertextuality: refers «to the relationship between given text and other relevant texts encountered in prior experience» (Neubret & Shreve, 1992, p.117)

1.3 The Concept of Cohesion:

Cohesion concerns the surface structure, or surface elements of the text that are alternately linked within a sequence. It emerges from the grammatical dependencies between elements (Halliday & Hasan, 1976).

1.3.1 Text:

A text is any passage whether spoken or written. It can be a sentence, a phrase, or a letter (Widdowson, 2004). Text is not defined by its size; however, text forms a unified whole

because there is a distinction between a text and a collection of unrelated sentences. Thus, a text can never be a text unless the relationship occurs between the elements of sequences which allow drawing a distinction between a text and non text.

Text is a unified unit, a semantic one which is composed of a set of sentences that hold a set of meanings. Texts are produced for several purposes that are related to writer's reason for writing. In this sense, the aim of text is to achieve a successful communication between reader and writer. It requires another important element known as cohesion.

Text has a social aspect since it is a communicative tool as stated by De Beaugrand and Dressler (1981): « a text is a naturally occurring manifestation of language, i.e, as a communicative language event in a context» (p.26), hence text serves as a monitor in order to manage or change a situation because it is regarded a as semantic unit mutually related to clause/sentences by realization in which it is the decoding of one symbolic system.

In verbal communication, it is necessary to be sure of what, why and how to say. It depends on the situation that the speaker is in. For instance, a text is based on context and the context inspires a text. This issue was discussed by cognitivists. They made a relationship between text and context. According to them, the interpretation of text is related to the activation of concepts stored in long term memory by textual information, and the variation of the cognitive context makes the interpretation of text difficult. As stated by Sperber and Wilson, this interpretation varies although some people have the same mental capacities, share the same physical world, speak the same language, but their perceptual and inferencial abilities vary (as cited in Shen, 2012).

1.3.2 Texture:

The concept of texture expresses the property of being a text. Text is not a text unless it has atexture. In other words, if a passage contains more than one sentence, it is considered as a

text as long as it has linguistic features, semantic features, and context. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976)

For example: “Wash and core six cooking apples, put them into a fireproof dish” (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 2).

In this example “them” refers to “cooking apples”, in stead of repeating the word “apples” it can be replaced by a reference which has an anaphoric function. It generates cohesion between sentences. The relationship between “cooking apples” and “them” is that both of them give or share the same meaning in which they provide a texture to make these two sequences form a text. Cohesion results from the refering item which is “them” in addition to the phrase that refers to “cooking apples” (Halliday & Hasan, 1976).

Another Example is: “Wash and core six cooking apples, put the apples into a fireproof dish” (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p.3). In this sentence, the functioning item is the word “apples” accompanied with the anaphoric item “the”. It is repeated and accompanied by “the” to refer to “six cooking apples”.It is an anaphoric signal.

1.3.3 Ties:

This term was founded by Halliday and Hasan (1976) to refer to singal instance of cohesion. Tie is the link which binds a referring item to the item to which it refers. The concept of ties makes it possible to analyse text in terms of its cohesive properties (Halliday & Hasan, 1976).

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), there are two main sorts of ties, reference which contains the anaphoric relation. The other type of tie is repetition which occurs in the example of the apples. The following examples clarify other ties that express other ties: The last word ended in a long bleat, so like a sheep that Alice quite started (1). She looked at the

Queen, who seemed to have suddenly wrapped herself up in wool (2). Alice rubbed her eyes, and looked again (3). She couldn't make out what happened at all (4). Was she in shop (5)? And was that really-was it really a sheep that was sitting on the other side of the counter (6)? Rub as she would, she could make nothing more of it (7) (p.7)

This passage is analysed depending on cohesive features. The simplest form of presupposition, relates sentence to which immediately proceed is refered to as an immediate tie. This is exemplified in the first two sentences. "She" in the second sentence (2) refers to "Alice" in sentence (1). "She" in sentence (4) refers to "Alice" in sentence (3). But "she" in sentence (5) refers to "she" in sentence (4). The reader should take for granted the occurance of "Alice" in the sentence (3), this kind of relation is called a mediate tie. A remote type is visible between the sentences (7) and (5). For instance "she" in the sentence (7) presupposes nothing in the sentence (6). However, it is refered to "she" in the sentence (5), this type of relation is called the "remote relation". At the same time, the presupposed in sentence (5) is "she" in sentence (4), and she in sentence (4) is presupposed in sentence (3) which is "Alice". This is mediate tie. It is noticed that different ties can accur in one passage (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 7).

1.4 The Differences between Cohesion and Coherence:

Text process demands to make a distinction between cohesion and coherence to represent the quality of text. Halliday and Hasan (1976) stated that cohesion is generalized partly through grammar and vocabulary. Furthermore, they distinguish between grammatical and lexical cohesion.

Halliday and Hasan (1976), and Stanojevic (2012), consider cohesion as a semantic perspective because it is the relationship of meaning of one item with another item/s, by

clarifying that cohesion can be interpreted in practice as the set of semantic resources for linking a sentence with what has been presented before (as cited in Bae, 2001).

However, coherence is defined as a reference to determine the quality of text if it makes meaning when the elements of text suit jointly well and logically. (Clear et al; 1996)

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976) coherence is created by cohesive markers that are appropriately used. Moreover, Halliday and Hasan (1989) comment that early discourse of students in a new field is relatively less coherent than their later discourse because the semantic relation between the key concepts of cohesion is developped through practice.

A text is full of cohesive markers that are locally correct. It could be incoherent and incomprehensible as a whole (Oller & Jonz, 1994). Coherence is often contrasted with cohesion which is defined by Bell (1991) as: «The mutual connection of components of surface text», (p.540). However, Yule (1996) believes that coherence refers to less tangible ways of connecting discourse which are not overt and which reside in how people interpret text rather than in the text themselves.

1.5 Types of Cohesion:

Text consists of several strategies that contribute to its organization. One of these properties is cohesion that is regarded as relations of meanings that exist in text. Cohesion is classified into conjunction, substitution, reference and ellipsis, whilst lexical cohesion includes reiteration and collocation. (Halliday & Hassan, 1976) The table 2.1 presents the devision of cohesion.

<table>
<tr><th colspan="5">Cohesion</th></tr>
<tr><th colspan="3">Grammatical</th><th colspan="2">Lexical</th></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="3">Reference</td><td colspan="2">Exophoric[situational]</td><td rowspan="4">Reiteration</td><td>Repetition</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Endophoric[textual]</td><td>Synonyms</td></tr>
<tr><td>Anaphoric[to preceding text]</td><td>Cataphoric[to following text]</td><td>Superoerdinate</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Substitution</td><td>General word</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Ellipsis</td><td colspan="2" rowspan="2">Collocation</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Conjunction</td></tr>
</table>

Table 1.1 Types of Cohesion based on Halliday and Hasan (1976, as cited in Tsareva, 2010).

Briefly, the previous table represents two types of cohesion GCD and LCD. The first one consists of reference that is devided into (situational and textual reference), substitution, ellipsis and conjunctions. The second one consists of reiteration that is devided into (repetition, synonyms, suporoerdinate and general word) and collocation.

1.5.1 Grammatical Cohesion:

In text, there are some forms that rely on others in the interpretation. Some of these forms are realised through vocabulary unlike the others which are achieved through grammar. The later refers to the linguistic structure. It determines the order of grammatical elements in sentence. Grammatical cohesion is classified into four major classes: reference, substitution, ellipsis and conjunction (Halliday & Hassan, 1976)

Tsareva (2010) summarized Halliday and Hasan's words by explaining different types and sub-types of grammatical cohesion into the following table:

<table>
<tr><td colspan="4">Grammatical Cohesion</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Reference</td><td>Substitution</td><td>Ellipsis</td><td>Conjunction</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Personal</td><td>Nominal</td><td>Nominal</td><td>Additive</td></tr>
<tr><td>Existential</td><td>Possessive</td><td rowspan="2">One, ones, same</td><td rowspan="2"></td><td rowspan="2">And, and also, nor, or else, furthermore, by the way, in other words, like wise, for example, on the other hand, thus.</td></tr>
<tr><td>I/me, you,we/us, he/him, she/her, it, they/them, one.</td><td>My/mine, your/yours, our/ours, his, her/hers, its, their/theirs, one’s</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2" rowspan="3">Demonstrative
This/that, these/those, here/there & definite article: the</td><td>Verbal</td><td>Verbal</td><td>Adversative</td></tr>
<tr><td>Do</td><td></td><td>Yet, though, only, but, however, at last,in fact, rather, on the contrary, I mean, in any case</td></tr>
<tr><td>Clausal</td><td>Clausal</td><td>Causal</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2"></td><td>So, not</td><td>Apart from this</td><td>So, then, there, for, because, otherwise</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Comparative</td><td rowspan="2"></td><td rowspan="2"></td><td>Temporal</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Same, identical, similar/ly, such, different, other, else.</td><td>Then, next, before that, first…,then, at first, formerly, final, at once, soon, to sum up, in conclusion</td></tr>
</table>

Table 1.2 Types of Grammatical Cohesion (Halliday & Hasan. As cited in Tsareva, 2010, p. 13)

The previous table summarizes with clear examples categories and sub-categories of grammatical cohesion used in writing. That will be explained in details:

1.5.1.1 Reference:

One of the options of English grammatical cohesion that offers coherence in text is reference. This refers to the use of some items (word or phrase) in every language. They don’t

interprete semantically, but they identify what can be determined by referring to something else (Halliday & Hassan, 1976). In addition, Yule (2000) defines reference « as an act of speaker or writer to enable listner or reader to identify something by using linguistic forms » (p. 17).

There are three sub-types of reference:

1.5.1.1.1 Personal Reference:

Personal reference is the use of linguistic expression that provides the information necessary to interpret the other. It is defined by Halliday and Hassan (1976) as follows: « Personal reference is reference by means of function in the speech situation, through the category of PERSON » (p .37). PERSON does not include only impersonal meaning but also non personal. For example: "Alice wonderded a little at this, but she was too much in awe of the Queen to disbelieve it" the third person singular pronoun /she/ refers back to Alice (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 48). The category of PERSON includes the three classes of personal reference during the communication process. These references are personal pronouns, possessive determiners usually called 'possessive adjectives' and 'possessive pronouns'. These refering devices specify their function in speech situation. Earlier, the traditional categories where devided into first person, second person and third person, linguists were interested with the number of categories of singular and plural. (Halliday & Hassan, 1976)

The 'PERSON' system refers to relevant person or objects. The principle distinction is that between persons defined by their roles in the communication process and other roles. On the one hand the former is called 'speech roles' that are roles of speaker and adressee (hearer and listner). On the other hand, 'other roles' include other entities rather than speaker or addressee (Halliday & Hassan, 1976).

1.5.1.1.2 Demonstrative Reference:

The second type of reference is demonstrative reference. It is essentially a form of verbal poiting. This type is defined as a « Reference by means of location, on a scale of proximity » (Halliday & Hassan, 1976, p. 57); i.e. nearness in time, place, occurrence, or relation. For instance: "We went to the opera last night. That was our first outing for months". That refers anaphoricaly to last night (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 57). This type of reference is devided into two sub- types. They are illustrated in the following table:

Types of demonstrative reference		
Type	**The circumstantial (adverbial) demonstratives**	**Nominal demonstratives**
Demonstratives	Here, there, now and then	This, these, that, those and the.
Reference	Refers to the location of a process in space or time.	Refers to the location or somethining or share **entity** (person or objects).
Function	-adjuncts in the clause -secondary function: qualifier	-Deictic -In the logical structure **they function** as modifier or head. In this respect the nominal demonstratives resembles the possessive
Example	Qualifier = In **that** man there	Demonstratives: As a modifiers = that garden seems bigger As a head = that is a big garden Possessives: As a modifier = your garden seems bigger As a head = yours is a big garden

Table: 1.3 Types of demonstrative reference (Based on Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 57-58)

There are two types of demonstrative determiners, adverbial and nominal demonstratives. The first one includes items such as: (here, there, now and then), the second one includes: (this, these, that, those, and the). Adverbial determiners refers to space or time whereas, nominal determiners refer to person or object. As they are different types it is obvious that they have different functions in which they are demonstrated in (table1.3) with clear examples.

1.5.1.1.3 Comparative Reference:

Halliday and Hasan (1976) proposed that: « comparative reference is indirect reference by means of IDENTITY or SIMILARITY » (p. 37); i.e, it is used to show similarities between two items. It is Reflected by certain class of adjectives such as 'same, equal, other, better, etc' and adverbs such as 'so, such, similarly, otherwise, etc.'

Comparative reference is classified by Halliday and Hasan (1976) into two sub-categories: the general comparison and particular comparison. The first sub-category is expressed by certain type of adjectives and adverbs. It extracts likeness between objects or things. Likeness « is referential property, a thing cannot just be 'like'; it must be 'like something'» (p. 78). The general comparison expresses identity, similarity and difference, each of these has its negative such as: non- similarity and non- identity. In contrast, particular comparison: « expresses comparability between things in respect of particular property, the property in question may be a matter of quantity or quality » (Halliday & Hassan, 1976, p.80). This type of reference is devided into two sub-types. The first one is numerative, if the comparison is in term of quantity and expressed either by comparative quantifier or by an adverb of comparison. The second one is epithet element, when the comparison is in term of quality. The latter is expressed either by comparative adjectives or by adverbs of comparison submodifying an adjective (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). Examples about comparative reference are demonstrated below:

1. "We have received exactly the same report as was submitted two months ago (*Identity*)
2. "The lecturer gave two similar questions for his students." (*Similarity*)
3. A: "Whould you like this coffee?

   B: No, I'd like the other coffee." (*Difference*)

4. "Take some more tea." (*Numerative*)
5. "We are demanding higher living standards" (*Epithet particular*)
6. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 76-84)

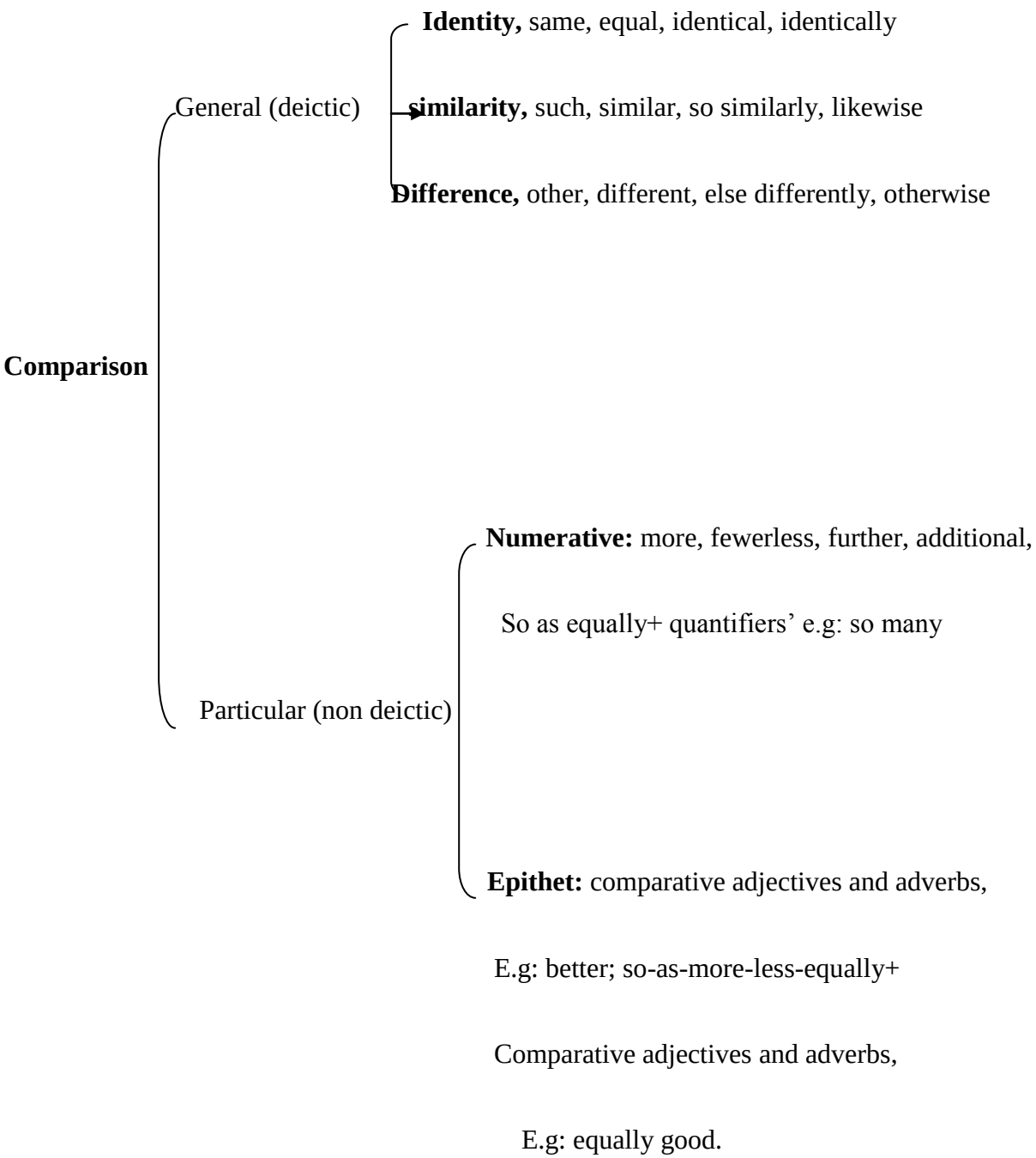


Fig 1.1: Types of comparative reference (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p.76).

General comparison is comparison by means of likeness and unlikeness. This comparison is expressed by certain class of adjectives and adverbs. The adjectives in the

nominal group function either as deictic (when the meaning depends on the point of view of speaker) or epithet (descriptive device that describes place, a thing or object).

1.5.1.1.4 Types of Phora:

Referential cohesion helps the listner/reader to interpret text and plays a special role in creating cohesive ties between elements in text. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976) reference can be accounted as 'endophoric' and 'exophoric' function, because the listner or reader is in prospect to interpert referential linguistic elements by either looking forward, backward or outward text.

1.5.1.1.4.1 Endophoric Reference:

Endophoric reference is a reference within the test. Halliday and Hasan (1976) distinguished between two kinds of endophoric relations: anaphoric and cataphoric. Anaphoric reference point's readers or listner backwards to another word previously mentioned in a text, for example: "My introduction was too short. It had to be rewritten". (Mc Carthy, 1990, p. 38) 'It' referes to 'my introduction' in contrast, cataphoric reference points forward in the text for their interpretation e.g: "When I left her at the library, Delila was disappointed and angry to me" (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 33). The object pronoun 'her' refers forward to the proper noun 'Delila'.

1.5.1.1.4.2 Exophoric Reference:

Exophoric directs the listner/ reader to look outward from the text to identify the referent (McCarthy, 1991). Whereas Halliday and Hasan (1976) defined it as « one which does not name anything; it signals that reference must be made to the context of situation ». It means that cohesive ties refer to something extralinguistic, outside the text given. E.g:

teacher: “stop doing that we are learning” (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 33) some students make a noise outside.

Exophoric and endophoric reference are both used to retrieve information from else where and are both use in the analysis of discourse.

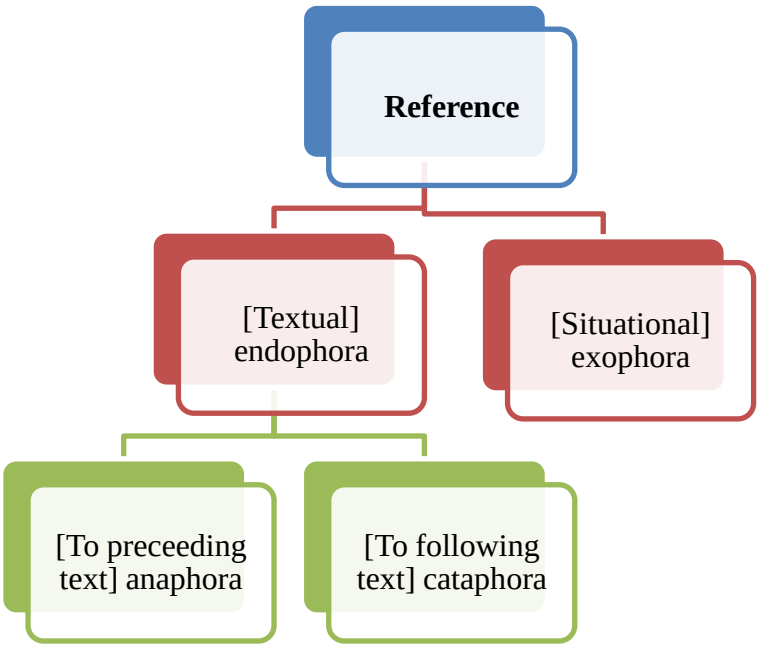


Fig 1.2: Types of phora (Halliday & Hasan, 1976)

Reference items maybe endophoric or exophoric, if they are endophoric they are either anaphoric or cataphoric.

1.5.1.2 Substitution:

The second type GCDs is known as substitution. The later discusses the relation on the lexico-grammatical level not the semantic level such as reference. It retrieves meaning from context or textual situation. Substitution is one of the methods of grammatical cohesion examined by Halliday and Hasan (1976) that is defined as the relation between linguistics elements, such as words or phrases, performed by using a substitute, to avoid repetition. « Substitute is sort of counter which is used in place of the repetition of a particular item »

(Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 89). In English substitution can function as a noun, as a verb, or as clause. Then Halliday and Hasan (1976) devided substitution into three types namely nominal, verbal, and clausal substitution.

1.5.1.2.1 Nominal Substituion:

This type of substitution is determined by the use of "one", "ones" or "same" in text.

Example: « I shoot the hippopotamus

With a bullet made of pllatinum

Because if I use leaden ones

His hide is sure to Flatten'em » (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 91)

"Bullet" is the head of a nominal group "bullet made of platinum" and "ones" is the head of nominal group "leaden ones". The example provided for the first type, nominal substitution show that the head of nominal group is to be substituted by another item which would be the head of another nominal group. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976)

1.5.1.2.2 Verbal Substitution:

The second sub-type of substitution is determined by the use of "do" in text. The following examples where provided by Halliday and Hasan (1976), they are illustrated in details in the case of verbal substitution.

Examples:

1. «… The words did not comes the same as they use to do »

2. « I don't know the meanings of half those long words, and, what's more, I don't believe you do either » (p. 112)

In the first example the item “do” substitute for “come”, but in the second example the item “do” substitutes the phrase « ….the meanings of half of those long words » (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 112). Verbal substitution operates as a head of verbal group. Lexical verb is replaced by “do” and its position is on the final in the group. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976)

1.5.1.2.3 Clausal Substitution:

The final sub-type of substitution is determined by the use of “so” and “not”.

Example:

« is there going to be an earthquak? It says so » (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 130) here “so” presupposes the whole clause.

There are three types of clausal substitution which are: **substitution of reported clause**, **substitution of conditional clause,** and **substitution of modalised clause**. The first type is defined by Halliday and Hasan (1976) as: the reported clause that is substituted by “so” or “not” is always declarative, whatever the mood of the presupposed clause. There is no substitution for interrogative or imperative (indirect questions or commands), and there for the clause, do not occur following verbs such as wonder, order or ask (p. 131). The second type, conditional clauses are also substituted by “so” and “not” especially following if / assuming so/ suppose so etc. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). For example, « everyone seems to think he’s guilty, if so, no doubt he’ll offer to resign » (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p.134). In this example “so” substitutes for “he’s guilty”. The substitutes “so” and “not” occur for clauses expressing modality. As it is defined by Halliday and Hasan (1976) « Modality is the speakers’ assessment of probalitities inherent in the situation. These may be expressed either by models forms of the verb (will, would, can, could, may, must, should, is, to and ought to), or by modal adverbs such as perhaps, possibly, probably, certainly, surely ». (p. 135).

1.5.1.3 Ellipsis:

Halliday and Hasan (1976) pointed out that both ellipsis and substitution are comparable. However, ellipsis is substitution by zero. « … this is exactly the same as presupposition by substitution, except that in substituion an explicit 'counter' is used, eg : one or do, as place marker for what is presupposed, whereas in ellipsis nothing is inserted into the slot » (p. 143).

Ellipsis is elision of linguistic elements from sentences. The omitted part can be a word, a phrase or a clause. The sentence remains grammatical even after deleting some elements (McCarthy, 1991). English ellipsis has broadly three types: Nominal, verbal, and clausal.

1.5.1.3.1 Nominal Ellipsis:

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976) nominal ellipsis is ellipsis within the nominal group. Nominal ellipsis is where noun optionally along with its modifiers gets deleted (McCarthy, 1991).

Example:

« Nelly liked the green tiles; myself I prefered the blue Ø. » (McCarthy, 1991, p.43)

The previous example offered a clear demonstration about the case of nominal omission in which two clauses are cohesive because both function elliptically and refer to the nominal group 'tiles'.

1.5.1.3.2 Verbal Ellipsis:

The second category according to Halliday and Hasan (1976) is an ellipsis within the

verbal group. The later occurs when the verb is omitted from the sentence. There are two types of vebal ellipsis: “echoing” and “auxiliary contrasting” (Thomas, as cited in McCarthy, 1991). The first type, is repeating an element from the verbal group.

Example 1: « will anyone be waiting?

Jim will, I should think » (McCarthy, 1991, p.44)

The second type is when the auxiliary changes.

Example 2: « Has she remarried?

No, but she will one day, I’m sure. » (McCarthy, 1991, p.44)

1.5.1.3.3 Clausal Ellipsis:

The final category of ellipsis is clausal. It is the omission of the entire clause especially subject- pronoun omissions such as (does not matter, sorry, can not help you, hope so, etc). For example:

A: “Who was going to plant a row of poplars in the park?”

B: “The Duke was Ø”.

1.5.1.4 Conjunction:

The final type of grammatical cohesion is conjunction. It differs from other cohesive ties such as: reference, ellipsis and substitution. It is not an anaphoric relation but it is treated as a cohesive device (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). Halliday and Hasan (1976) also noted that: «conjunctive elements are cohesive not in themselves but indirectly, by virtue of their specific meanings; they are not primarily devices for reaching out into the preceeding (or following) text, but they express certain meanings which presuppose the presence of other components in

the discourse» (p.226). Conjunction or connectives are achieved to have grammatical cohesion in texts showing the relationship between sentences. «It is the relationship that indicates how the subsequent sentence or clause should be linked to the preceeding or the following (parts of the sentence)» (Renkema, 2004, p. 104)

The table below represents Halliday and Hasan's (1976) classification of conjunction:

Type of conjunction	**Function**	**Example**
Additive	To add more information to what is already in the sentence	And, also, furthermore, in addition, besides,that is, in other words, moreover **To indicates comparison:** Likewise, similarly, in the same way **To indicates dissimilarity:** On the other hand, in contrast, alternatively.
Adversative	To indicates contrast between information in each clause.	But, however, although, yet, though, only, nevertheless, despite this, on the other hand, instead, on the contrary, anyhow, at any rate.
Causal	To indicates causality	So, they,hence, therefore, consequently, because, for this reason, it, follows, on this basis, to the end
Temporal	To indicates time	Then, next, before, after, during, when, at the same time, previously, finally, at last, soon, next day, an hour, later, meanwhile, at this moment, first, second, third, in conclusion, up to new.

Table 1.4 Types of conjunction. Based on Halliday and Hasan (as cited in Almasi & Fullerton, 2012, p. 132)

Conjunction is vast a phenomenon that is categorised according to their functions into: additive (to add information), adversative (to indicate contrast between information), causal (to indicates causality), and temporal (to indicate time) and in there is scope for a considerable amount of subclassifying within them. Nunan (1993) states the following examples:

1. **Adversative:** "I'm afraid I'll be home late tonight. However, I won't have to go in until late tomorrow"
2. **Additive:** "from a marketing viewpoint, the popular tabloid encourages the reader to read the whole page instead of choosing stories. And isn't that what any publisher wants"
3. **Temporal:** "Brick tea is a blend that has been compressed into a cake. It is taken mainly by the minority groups in China. First, it is ground to a dust. Then it is cooked in milk"
4. **Causal:** "Chinese tea is becoming increasingly popular in restaurants, and even in coffee shops. This is because of the growing belief that it has several health-giving properties". (p. 26)

1.5.2 Lexical Cohesion:

The second sort of cohesion is lexical, that is widely discussed by several linguists. It is defined as a cohesive effect achieved by the selection of vocabulary and the role plays by certain basic semantic relations between words to create textuality. The latter occurs when two words in text related in meaning (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). According to McCarthy (1991), lexical cohesion is the probality of using vocabulary items in clause and sentence in written discourse.

However, Hoey (1991) gives a different definition to a lexical cohesion, he states that lexical cohesion is the only type of cohesion that regularly forms multiple relationships

between elements in texts, as he mentioned in his book: « the study of the greater part of cohesion is the study of lexis, and the study of cohesion in text is to a considerable degree the study of patterns of lexis in text » (p. 10). Hoey's (1991) main interest is the textual organisation in which cohesive link contributes. The later can be explained as a hint to the centrality and mariginality of sentences in the text.

Furthermore, Teich and Fankhauser (2005) argue that 40 to 50 percent (%) of cohesive devices in text are lexical, because lexical devices aim at relating text together.

Thus, Halliday and Hasan (1976) described the relation between vocabulary items in texts and they devided it into two distinct subcategories: reiteration and collocation.

1.5.2.1 Reteiration:

Reteiration is the repetition of a lexical item or the use of a synonym of some kind in the context of reference (Halliday & Hasan, 1976).

Hoey (1991) set other linguistic views, which are categories of lexis. He claimed that one category is the complex repetition. For example, conceive and conception. They share the same lexical morpheme but they are not matching the same grammatical function. Moreover, meeting as a verb and meeting as a noun are identical but have different grammatical functions. Halliday and Hasan (1976) stated that: «reteiration is a form of lexical cohesion which involves the repetition of lexical item, at one end of the scale; the use of general word to refer back to the lexical item, at the end of the scale; and a number of things in between the use of a synonym, near-synonym or superordinate» (p. 278).

Sometimes it is confusing to distinguish between reteiration and reference which belongs to the grammatical cohesion. Reteiration is the repetition of a lexical item or the use of a synonym of some kind in the context of reference (Halliday & Hasan, 1989).

There are 6 forms of reteiration:

- Simple lexical repetition (e.g: woman, women).
- Complex lexical repetition (e.g: meeting, [v], meeting, [n]).
- Hyponyms (e.g: color)



- Meronyms (e.g: tree, branch).
- Synonyms (e.g: idiot, fool).
- Antonyms (e.g: open, close).

Another form of lexical cohesion is collocation.

1.5.2.1.1 Lexical Repetition:

Hoey (1991) stated that repetition is a crucial element in a text while the writer repeats a certain word along the whole text. He added different forms of repetition that are hanging in the patters of the text. Furthermore, he set several notions such as links, ties, bonds, and bond network in relation to lexical cohesion and to text organisation (Hoey, 1991). He approves that text cohesion is formed by relations of lexis and semantic between sentences. Repetition process helps a researcher to keep in their mind the target topic (Khani& Tazic, 2010).

1.5.2.1.1.1 Simple Lexical Repetition:

It occurs when a lexical item is repeated in a similar form (happiness, happiness) or with no variation other than a simple grammatical change like a plural form (man, men). Hoey (1991) claimed that only open-set lexical items can enter such a relation, therefore such grammatical items as determiners, prepositions, auxiliaries, negative, co-ordinators, subordinators, sentence conjunctions, sub-modifiers or participles are not treated as lexical items. To

demonstrate the case of simple lexical repetititon, the example is taken form the novel picture of Dorian Gray by Oscar Wild.

Example: “Music had stirred him like that. Music had troubled him many times. But music was not articulate” (Wild, 1992, p.22)

1.5.2.1.1.2 Complex Lexical Repetition:

Hoey (1991) set categories of lexis. He said that one category is the complex repetition. For instance, “conceive” and “conception” share the same lexical morpheme but they are not matching the same grammatical functions. Moreover, meeting as a verb and meeting as noun are identical but have different grammatical functions. An example about complex lexical repetition is provided to clarify complex lexical repetition:

Example: “Soul and body, body and soul how mysterious they were! (…) the separation of spirit from matter was a mystery” (Wild, 1992, p. 9)

1.5.2.1.1.3 Synonyms:

The general meaning of synonyms is sameness in meanings, whereas several linguists inderline the risk of misusing synonymy. Baily (2003) argues that: « when writing it is necessary to find synonyms in order to provide variety and interest for the reader » (as quoted in by Danglli & Abazaj, 2014, p. 629-630). Baily also provides warning to textbook users: « synonyms are not always exactly the same in meaning, but it is important not to change the register. Firm is good synonym for company but boss is too informal to use the manager. Both pupil and student could be used to identify a 15 years-old schoolgirl, but when she goes to university only students is normally used. Scholar must be possible synonym, but it is very formal. Similarly, at university a lecturer could also be called a teacher, but in school the only

possible synonym for teacher is the old fashioned master or mistress » (as quoted in Danglli & Abazaj, 2014, p. 630)

Yule (1996) defined synonyms as: «two or more forms with very closely related meanings, which are often, but not always, intersubsuitable in sentences and illustrated that by giving example such as synonyms pairs as broad-wide, almost-nearby ». In analysing synonyms, the sameness of meaning does not necessary hold the total meaning. Cruse (2000) ranked synonyms into three groups:

1.5.2.1.1.3.1 Absolute Synonymy:

It indicates full identity meaning which can be held in all the contexts. Furthermore: «two lexical items are identified as absolute synonyms in any context where one item is completely normal as well or if the item is peculiar» (Cruse, 2000, p. 157). The following examples illustrate the case of absolute synonymy: (brave- courageous)

> Example 1: «Little Billy was so brave at the dentist's this morning (relatively more normal) » (Cruse, 2000, p. 157).
>
> Example 2: «Little Billy was so courageous at the dentist's this morning (relatively less normal) » (Cruse, 2000, p.157).

1.5.2.1.1.3.2 Prepositional Synonymy:

According to Cruse (2000), prepositional synonyms differ in their expressive meaning, stylistic level and presupposed field of discourse. For example, two sentences that differ in a number of pairs of prepositional synonyms are alternatively pressupossing. The following example clariefies prepositional synonymy:

Example: «John brought a violin entails or enabled by John brought a fiddle » (Cruse, 2000, p. 161).

The word “violin” is common to everyone; however, the word “fiddle” is more specific and colloquial which might be used merely by professional, the ones who has a violinstic culture (Cruse, 2000)

1.5.2.1.1.3.3 Near-Synonyms:

Saeed (2003) presented 3 main parameters that may influence the speaker’s or writer’s choice of a certain term:

- Style of language (colloquial, formal, literary, etc), eg: “police officer”, “cop”.
- Positive or negative attitude of the speaker (eg; corpulent, obese).
- Collocation restruction (eg; language user may say a “cop car” or “police car” but not a “guard car”).

Jackson (1928) believed that the reason behind the existence of so many synonyms is that their origins come from different sources.Many English words are etymologically French, Latin, or Anglo Saxon. Hence, a pair of synonyms may persist in the vocabulary because they belong to different dialects.

1.5.2.1.1.4 Antonyms:

One more reversed lexical item to synonymy is antonymy. According to Yule (1996), antonyms are devided into two classes:

1. Gradable antonym: it is considerably used in comparative construction such as; “bigger than”, “smaller than”.
2. Ungradable antonym: it is also called complementary pairs such as true, false.

They are used in comparative constructions, but such number of pair antonyms are used negatively to indicate the others, e.g: a sentence that indicates a person is not dead refers to the meaning that the person is alive. (Yule, 1996)

McCarthy (1988) stated that: «the opposition of lexis is never determined but always relies on the discourse context » (McCarthy, 1988. p. 25).

1.5.2.1.1.5 Hyponyms:

Yule (1996) supposed that hyponyms exist when two concepts are similar in meaning. In other words, one concept includes the other one. For example: dog = animal, apple = fruit, carrot = vegetable. The relationships between these concepts involve "inclucion" which means the meaning of apple is included in the meaning of fruit.

If the apple is regarded as a hyponym of fruit, the fruit is superordinate (it is called hyperonym) of apple. (Yule, 1996)

Yule (1996) set hierarchical relationships to analyse the meanings of words in the following diagram

Hyponyms

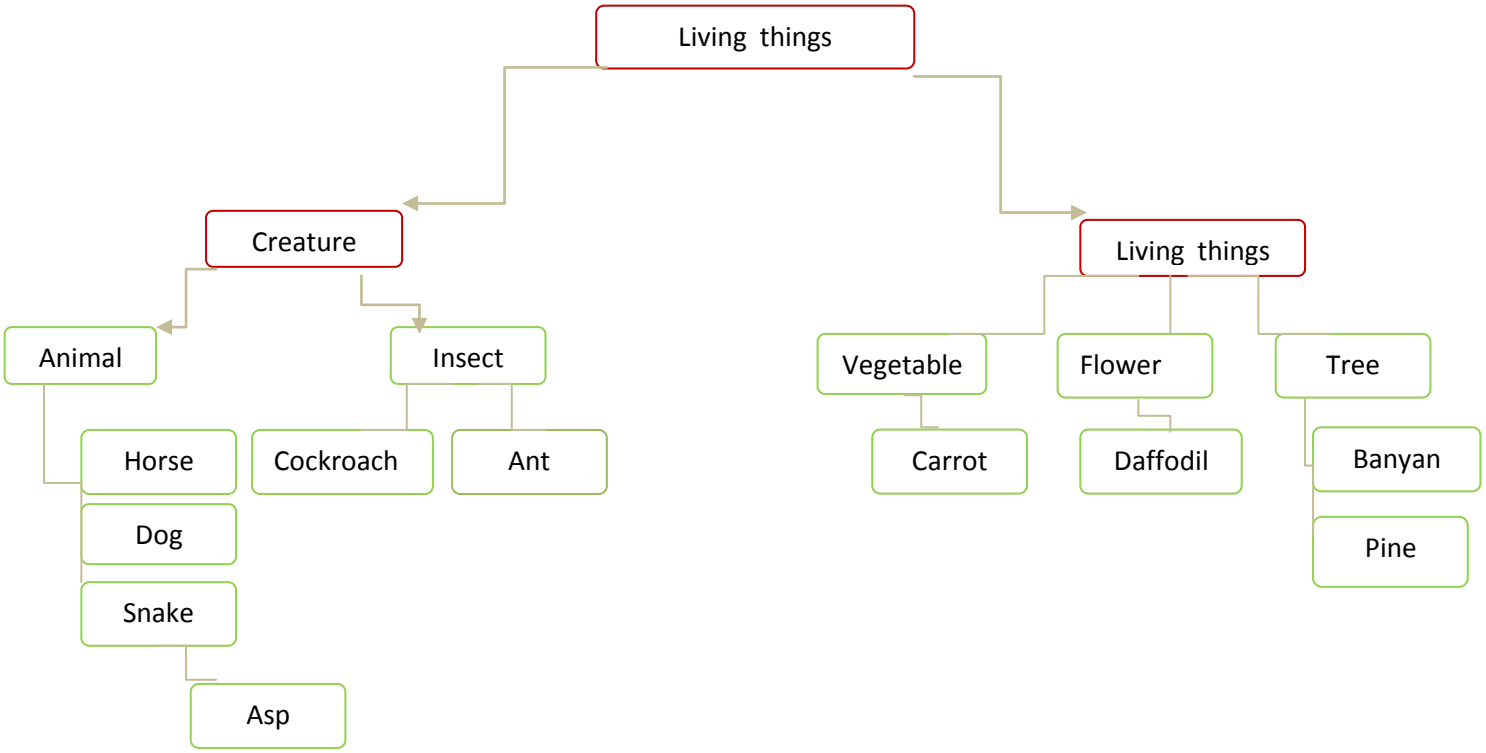


Fig 1.3: Illustrated example about hyponyms (Yule, 1996, p. 119)

Hyponymy is hierarchiral organization that designates a particular member of broader class in this example: horse, dog and snake can be defined as kind of animals and those animals can be defined as creatures and these creatures are defined as living things.

Two or more items that refer to the same superodinate are called **co-hyponyms**, e.g: “horse” and “dog” are co-hyponyms, and the superordinate is “animal” (Yule, 1996).

1.5.2.1.1.2.6 Meronyms:

Another relevant lexical device for the present research is meronymy. It indicates part-whole relations, e.g: tree = branch, hand = finger.

According to Cruse (2000) hand = finger, “finger” is supposed to be **menoym** of hand and hand is the **holonym** of finger.

Meronymy is often compared with hyponymy; however, these two concepts should not be confused. Hence, “dog” is part of “animal”, but “finger” is not a kind of “hand”, an example of meronyms was taken from Dorian Gray’s novel is presented below:

Meronymy

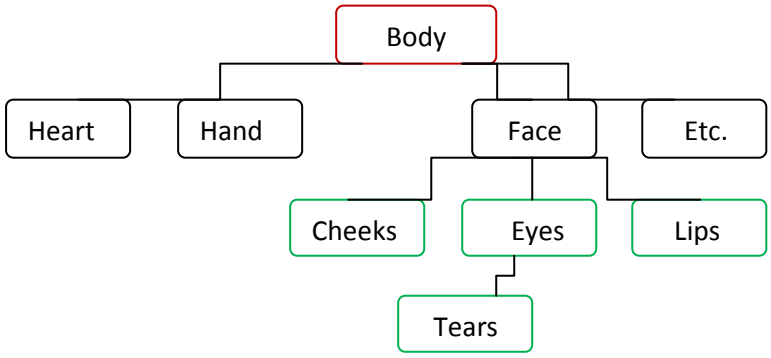


Fig1.4: Illustrated example about meronyms. Based on Wild (as cited in Tanrozaité, 2009)

Meronyms denotes part-whole relations. In this example face is part of the body whereas cheeks, eyes and lips are part of the face.

Cruse (1996) uses a term **co-meronymy** to denote the relation between lexical items indicating sister’s parts, e.g: “eyes” and “cheek” are considered co-meronyms.

1.5.2.2 Collocation:

Halliday and Hasan (1976) described collocation as: «one of the most problematical elements in lexical cohesion that is achieved through the association of lexical items that regularly co-occur» (p. 285). For them, any two lexical items having similar patterns of collocation. That is, tending to appear in similar context-will generate a cohesive force if they occur in adjacent sentences.

Collocation may include different types of semantic relations includes:

- Synonyms such as; laugh: joke, blade: sharp, garden: dig, ill: doctor, try: succeed.
- Superordinates such as; climb: ascent, disease: illness.
- Antonyms such as: like; hate, wet: dry
- Pairs of words from the same ordered series such as; Tuesday: Thursday, dollar: scent, north: south.
- Pairs of word that are unordered lexical sets such as; road: rail, blue: red.
- Related items as part to whole such as; car: break, box: lid
- Related items as part to part such as; mouth: chin.

These lexical items have a cohesive relationship that relate in the language. And it is not necessary to have a semantic relation but tendency that might share the same lexical environment (Halliday & Hasan, 1976).

Nunan (1993) sees collocation as a complicated aspect of discourse analysis because it includes all the items that are semantically related, and sometimes it is difficult to know if there is a cohesive relation in the text because it is expressed through open class items rather than closed, which includes words as pronouns, conjuctions and prepositions.

1.6 Academic writing:

'Academic style' is not only limited to specific words or specific grammatical features. It, in fact, involves how one thinks, how one reasons, and how one acts towards what has already been argued.

In academic writing, it is one of the bases to be clear and cohesive when presenting ideas and arguments. In addition, one may be asked to evaluate and discuss previous research or ideas about the topic that is being studied. Therefore, establishing the language to link ideas in academic writing would help with both these tasks. The adequate use of 'discourse

markers', that is, words or phrases that mark a relationship, can show and strengthen the direction that the argument is taking, and make the correlations between writing sections clear. Besides to using the linking words or phrases, hand-holding sentences can also demonstrate the connection between paragraphs. These sentences link back to the ideas of the previous paragraph.

The goal of the essay is to deliver information. That goal will not be achieved unless the readers understand the first few sentences or paragraphs, or else they cease reading, or they pursue reading but cannot understand the message. Thus, 'learning how to be a clear and accurate writer will help make your essay readable, and will guarantee that those who read it understand exactly what you mean to say'(Starkey, 2004).

1.6.1 Cohesion in English Academic Writing:

Academic writing is a formal style of writing, which requires an intra-text and extra-text connectedness. Cohesion is one of the intra-text properties that it is regarded as an important aspect in academic writing, which impacts the style of your writing and create meaning within the text. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976) cohesion occurs when the interpretation of one element from the text is highly dependent on the meaning of another for example: "It rained day and night for two weeks, the basement flooded and everything was under water, it spoilt all our calculations" (Mc Carthy, 1991, p. 36). The first 'it' refers to the discourse itself, the second 'it' refers to the event of two weeks, or the fact that is rained or flooded.

Lovejoy (1991) demonstrats that the quantity and quality of cohesive ties employed within text varied considerably according to disciplines or topics. For instance, persuasive essays comprise focus on some types rather than the other such as: reference, conjunction, simple and complex repetition, synonyms and antonyms. Cohesion is achieved by a variety of devices as Baker (1990) defines it: «is a set of connections between lexical, grammatical and

other relation which join various parts of text to each other. Cohesive devices are those tools which contribute to provide links between parts without any difficulties» (cited in Vali & Kiamparsa, 2010). Grammatical and lexical devices outline by Halliday and Hasan (1976), Freedenberg and Boardman (2008) talk about linking words, coordinate conjunction, subordinate presupposition, transition and Price and Maier (2007) talk about signal words.

According to Wollongong University (2001) cohesion is achieved by, first, logical relationships that can be expressed by conjunctions or by prepositional phrases or adverbs. Second, « reference is used to introduce the nouns in text and to keep track of them » ('Wollongon University', 2001, p. 1). Third, lexical cohesion relies on the selections of words. Finally logical developement of text that make it more organized.

1.6.2 Teaching Cohesion in EFL Classes:

Textual cohesion is an essential component of academic writing. Therefore, EFL teachers should focus on teaching the skill of centering on cohesion in writing for academic purposes.

Cohesion is an important property in written texts. According to Halliday and Hasan: «It is the continuity provided by cohesion that enables the reader or listener to supply all the missing pieces, all the components of the picture which are not present in the text but are necessary to its interpretation» (as quoted in Briesmaster & Etchegaray, 2017, p.188). EFL instructors should include the function of English grammatical and lexical devices that enable students to know how ideas in text are unified by these elements (Bechoua, 2012). In the same time teachers are exposed to highlight the importance of correlating between form and content during the process of writing. EFLLs dealt with some pedagogical systems of teaching English from methodological set of grammartical rules applied systematically on academic writing and neglect the importance of semantic in strengthening written texts.

Carrel (1982) argues that cohesion is the outcome of coherence that resulted from the connectivity of ideas from knowledge of the world. That why, she concluded that in language pedagogy cohesive devices play a secondary role. Beside cohesive devices mentioned by Halliday and Hasan (1976), other researchers such as Biber (1988) and Myers (1989) added an extra-information concerning devices explained that nouns and demonstrative pronouns function as contextual devices between ideas in text, furthermore Tordos argues that enumerative nouns represent one of the features of cohesion in academic writing (as cited in Hinkel, 2005)

According to Zemel (1983) EFL teachers should provide a number of activities that help learners to understand the semantic and grammatical restrictions of these devices. He added that: « rather than, presenting list of conjuncts categorized according to meaning, it would be more effective to begun by classifying linking devices according their grammatical functions » (Zemel, 1983, pp. 24-25)

1.6.3 Some Methodologies to Teach Lexical Cohesion in Academic Writing:

Writing is the major language skill for academic discourse and examination which helps to convey information about abilities and competencies in the use of English language as foreign language. Language learners take some definitions of grammatical richness and apply them systematically in their writings. Several researchers draw a sharp line between the categories of lexis and grammar in order to focus their attention on the development of lexis in EFL writing (Kadiri, Igbokwe, Okebalama & Egbe, 2016). The pedagogical system should shift the interest of teaching grammar from “correctness and accuracy” in English to “communicative ability” (MEXT, 2003). Lexical knowledge must be considered essential to EFLLs, because at the university level English students must be aware of the importance of syntax and semantics which contribute to the organization of text and formulate its textuality.

De Carrico (2001) states the importance of teaching large productive vocabulary of at least two thousands high frequency words and these words can be taught directly in writing and grammar sessions. Low frequency words can be acquired while EFLLs are exposed to reading and listening sessions.

According to McCarthy, lexical cohesion usually plays an important role in English and it needs to be explicitly taught in FL reading and writing instructions (as cited in Hinkel, 2001). He also points out that some grammatical chains should be taught explicitly such as demonstrative pronouns, substitution, and ellipsis. To conclude, an equal importance must be given to both grammatical and lexical ties in students' writing as stated by Hinkel (2001) "teachers need to work to expand learners' accessible repertoire of grammatical structures and lexis because all these features play a crucial role in non-native speakers' ability to construct cohesive (and coherent) academic essays" (Hinkel, 2001, p. 111- 132).

1.7 Previous Studies:

Several researchers examined the use of grammatical and lexical cohesion in student's academic writings. They investigated the purpose of focusing on one type rather than the other. Besides, they explored the frequency and variety of using the devices by learners, and the consequences they face when they neglect the use of lexical cohesion. This section provides reviews about several studies conducted on the same topic.

Jurgita Taurozaité (2009) entitled his research: «Patterns of Cohesion in English and Lithuanian Literary texts (O. Wild, The Picture of Dorian Gray) ». This study was based on Halliday and Hasan's (1976) taxonomies of cohesion. It aimed at exploring patterns of cohesion in English and Lithuanian texts. This work was carried out on the novel «The picture of Dorian Gray » by O. Wild. He took fifteen episodes of this novel to examine cohesive devices used in English literary text and find out the variation in Lithuanian text. The mix-

method is used in this study and several approaches such as: observation and identifying the patterns of cohesion.

Susan Louis Van Tonder (1999) entitled: «Lexical Cohesion in Student Academic Writing». This research is based on Halliday and Hasan theory. The aim of this study is to know which type of lexical cohesion that makes text more coherent. How part coherence contribute to the quality of writing, specifically persuasive writings. An experimental research was held on three independent raters for their coherence level. The findings of this study show that coherence is an important element of academic writing.

Novi Swastami (2014) entitled: « An Analysis on the Use of Cohesion in Recount Text Composed by Students at State Islamic Institute of Tulungagung ». The aim of the present study is to analyse cohesion and to find out students' skills in the use of cohesion in their writings. A quantitative approach is used to verify the frequency and the usage of cohesive devices in recount texts. Twenty nine random students were asked to write a recount text. This research highlighted the importance of cohesion in both professional and educational career.

Anastasia Tsareva (2010) entitled «Grammatical Cohesion in Argumentative Essays by Norwigian and Russian learnes » in this work the researcher adopted Halliday and Hasan's (1976) taxonomy of cohesive devices. The main interest is to explore grammatical cohesive relations conducted by Norwegian and Russian learners of English and how cohesion differs in argumentative essays. This research involves two methods; the first one is based on the study of theory. The second one aims to answer the formulated questions. The types of grammatical cohesive relations hold between sentences and T-units of an argumentative essay.

Conclusion:

In the current chapter, it has been shown that both grammatical and lexical cohesion are multitypes concepts. Thus, they are considered as important criteria to the developement of EFL writing skills and contribute to the surface text and the organization of discourse. Futhermor, as McCarthy (1991) and other researchers announced, types of lexical cohesion are considered as confusing links to non-native learners, especially EFL due to the teaching methods adopted by instructors.

Chapter 2: Methodology

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Introduction:

In order to answer research questions and to approve or disapprove hypotheses, the procedures of a research should be sorted fully. This chapter presents the purpose of the study, followed by population and sample. Next, it highlights the methods and strategies used to analyse the application of grammatical and lexical cohesion by EFL learners. Then, it explains how data were collected and analysed. Finally, this chapter sheds light on some ethical issues that were taking into consideration. It clarifies how reliability and validaty were determined in the study.

2.1 Research purpose:

In the current chapter, descriptive study is used to answer research questions and describe to what extent third year English students of Medea are familliar with the use of cohesive devices, because descriptive research aims at describing state of affairs as it exists at present (Kothari, 2004). This type of study intends at understanding social sciences issues and discovers how predominant they are through describing various data (ed. Salkind, 2010). The main characteristic of this method mentioned by Kothari (2010) «is that the researcher has no control over the variables, he can only report what has happened or what is happening» (Kothari, 2010, p. 3). The present study seeks to suggest some pedagogical recommendations to help EFL learners, especially undergraduate students, to focus equally on the use of both grammatical and lexical cohesive devices in their writings.

2.2 Research Design:

Research design is defined by different scientists in different terms. According to Leedy (1993), research design is a plan for research that provides the overall framework to collect data. Durrheim (2004) «research design is a strategic framework for action that serves as a

bridge between research questions and the execution, or the implimentation of research strategies» (Durrheim, 2004, p. 16). Research design is considered as the glue that holds all of the elements in research project. It tells what data and methods are going to be used, how to collect and analyse this data, and how all of these are going to answer research questions. Research design aims at making research more professional, because it provides an advanced planning of methods, collecting data, and techniques being adopted to analyse these data (Akhtar, 2016).

The research design of the present study is quantitative approach and the purpose of the inquiry is descriptive. Descriptive research aims at providing accurate and valid representation of variables. Quantitative descriptive research is used to describe phenomenon and answer questions within measurable variables with the purpose of explaining, predicting, and controling a phenomenon (Leedy, 1993). English language has the status of foreign language in Algeria. For this specific reason, written texts have been chosen to focus on grammatical and lexical cohesive relations through analysing sentences and words used by third year English student. As a conclusion to this analysis, single case study is adopted, because it investigates a set of individuals or group, and does not attempt to set up experiments like experimental research (Nunan, 1992).

2.3 Population and Sample:

According to Creswell (2012), population is a large number of people. Thus, in the present study the population consists of 80 students of third year English at Medea University of 2018 – 2019 promotion. Third year students are expected to have a more homogeneous level in English, because they can understand, and they have capacities that enable them to write a cohesive discourse. Hence, they were required to write persuasive essays, within ninety minutes, as a part of the second semester ongoing assessment. The participants of this

research were 30 students randomly selected in order to provide a detailed study and describe the phenomenon of cohesive writing in numerical research. A random sample has « … the same composition and characteristics of a univers» (Kothari, 2004, p. 58). In this study, all names of finite population were written on slip of papers then, these papers were set into a box mixed thoroughly and by the end 30 students were selected randomly. As stated by Kothari (2004), this selection is called random sample from finite univers**.**

2.4 Data Collection Method:

Since there have been many empirical studies on the concept of cohesion, the present research is based on secondary data since it is already available, analysed, and collected by so many researchers. They had different aims and areas of interests. This type of data was utilised because it is adequate and suitable in the context of the problem, and it might help the researchers to come up with the validity of the study. This research seeks to investigate why English students focus adequately on grammatical devices rather than lexical ones. Hence, this study is going to make a test as an instrument of the process of data collection. The task will be held during the class for 90 minutes. EFL learners are asked to write a persuasive essay, working on a text that "is a continuous process of semantic choice" (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 195). Thirty essays were chosen randomly, after that investigators analysed these pieces of writing to see whether there are semantic relations between items and acoss sentences boundries.

2.5 Data Analysis:

In the current study, the investigators use the statistical method to analyse the data and to measure the frequency of using the cohesive devices by EFL. This analysis is based on using classification tabulation (tables with numbers and percentages) to give a description of the whole data. Furthermore, the index number should be used. It is used to measure the level of a

given phenomenon as compared to the level at some standard data» (Kothari, 2004, 1990, 1985), and to determine the range of scores for changes from one essay to another.

This research is going to follow a quantitave case study to reach the following objectives:

- Examining the students'use of grammatical and lexical cohesive devices.
- Analysing the frequency, variety and control of using grammatical and lexical chains.
- Exploring the effects and the reason behind the diverse proportion of these ties.

Finally, researchers draw conclusions from the results found in this study.

2.6 Reliability and Validity:

The present enquiry aims to come up with the validity of the hypotheses, and to seek why third year English students focus extensively on grammatical devices rather than lexical ones. Therefore, researchers are going to make a test of writing essays during the class. So, this study has taken this method as a suitable instrument in this context to validate the research besides to come up with the significance of the case. It is the proper method to collect data in this case.

Conclusion:

This chapter is a description of the research method including the research design, research participants, data collection and data analysis. Furthermore, it sheds light on the purpose of the research to approve or disapprove the hypothesis, adopting a quantitative method since it is adequate and suitable in this context. The total population of this study is 30 students. The investigators collect data through considering a test as a vaible and valid instrument to analyse their writing production.

Chapter three: Finding and discussion

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Introduction:

This chapter is devoted to the discussion of research findings. The data are in form of written texts. Findings are presented in order to elaborate the use of cohesive devices which have two categories: grammatical and lexical cohesive links. The analysis of this finding aims at clarifying how these categories operate as links for several clauses and sentences and how they affect the writing process. At first tables and charts will demonstrate the use of each type and sub-type seperately. Then, a discussion of the finding will help us to detect teachers' attitude toward their students performance in writing formal assignments, and also find out that the problems that EFL face when they neglect the use of these devices especially lexical ones.

3.1 Findings:

This part is devoted to the analysis of the data provided in the present research. The first step focuses on the analysis of the total use of grammatical cohesion used by third year English students. The second step concentrates on the frequency of students' use of lexical links in academic essays writing. Then this study will demonstrate the problem affected on the shortage of LCDs in written texts. In this section, the second and third research questions will be addressed: 2- what is the frequency of using these devices by third year English students of Medea University in their essays writing? 3- What is the consequence that third year English students face when they overlook the use of lexical cohesion.

3.1.1 The Frequent Use of Grammatical Cohesion:

This part explores the learners' production of grammatical cohesive devices. The following research aims at identifying the types of cohesive features used in academic essays written by sixth semester students of Medea University of the academic year 2018-2019, in

order to discuss which of GCDs dominates the EFLLs' writing and which of them are less frequent. The use of reference, substitution, ellipsis and conjunction are revealed:

3.1.1.1 The Use of Reference:

Table 3.1 above indicates the numeric results of the use of grammatical cohesive features and it corresponding reference. This research used two terms of numerical data in order to give precise description of the data. They are frequency and percentage.

	Frequency (N)	**Percentage %**
Total	1666	100%
Reference	1250	75.03%

Table 3.1 Reference number and percentage

The table 3.1 above indicates numeric result of the use of reference. It could be seen through the result that there is an extensive use of reference (75.03 %). This can be signal that students sometimes misuse this type.

3.1.1.1.1 The Use of Personal Reference:

The total number of personal devices used by students, the corresponding number of each sub-type and the most frequent devices are shown in the table below:

Types & sub-types	**Frequency (N)**	**Percentage %**
1. Personal Links	507	100%
1.1 Existential P.L	259	51,08%
1.2 Possessive P.L	248	48,92%
Most frequent devices	It, her, his, she, he, him.	

Table 3.2 Types of personal reference.

The table above shows that both existential and possessive references are used equally by students.

3.1.1.1.2 The Use of Demonstrative Reference:

The number of the students' use of each device of demonstrative reference based on the total number of these devices.

Total (N)	Demonstrative devices	Number of devices	Percentage %
732	This	71	9.70%
	That	140	19.13%
	These	8	1.09%
	Those	5	0.68%
	Here	3	0.41%
	There	4	0.55%
	The	501	68.44%
The most frequent devices		The, that, this.	

Table 3.3 Demonstrative reference items.

The result shows that 'the' is the predominant device (68.44%), whereas references such as 'that' (19.13%) and 'this' (9.70%) are respectively used. Meanwhile the existences of plural demonstrative links such as 'these' (1.09%), 'those' (0.68%), and 'there' (0.55%) are rarely found in students' writing.

3.1.1.1.3 The Use of Comparative Reference:

The total number of comparative reference and the corresponding nmber of each type are illustrated in the following table:

Total (N)	Comparative devices	Number of devices	Percentage %
11	Same	2	18.18%
	Identical	0	/
	Similar	0	/
	Such	4	36.36%
	Different	3	27.27%
	Other	2	18.18%
	Else	0	/
The most frequent devices	Such, different, other, and same.		

Table 3.4 Comparative reference items.

As it is shown above, the total number of comparative reference devices adoptes by learners is 11. These results demonstrate that learners use some comparative devices whereas they neglect the use of others. Comparative reference‘same’ and ‘other’ are equally functioned (18.18%). Likewise ‘such’ represents the highest frequency (36.36%). It is notworthy that there are 3 occurrences of ‘different’ in texts. As for ‘identical’, ‘similar’ and ‘else’ are not used by learners. The learners’ little use of comparative reference could be an effect to their luck in practicing comparison in classroom.

3.1.1.2 The Use of Substitution:

The total amount of GCDs and the corresponding number of substitution used are presented in the following table:

	Frequency (N)	**Percentage %**
Total	1666	100%
Substitution	93	5.58%

Table 3.5 Substitution number and percentage.

The result above shows that the use of substitution (5.58%) is lower than the use of reference. This result proves that not all students involved in the study used substitution as a way of achieving cohesion in their writings. This could be attributed to students’ lack of awarness as how to use these devices in their writings (Abdulrahman, 2018). Therefore they use reference instead of substitution. According to Ali (2016), instructors should provide extensive examples about this type in order to enable students to become more familiar with the use of this type of grammatical cohesion (as cited in Abdulrahman, 2018).

3.1.1.2.1 The Use of Nominal Substitution:

This part mostly explains student’s producation of nominal substitutions. There are two kinds of numerical forms are used. The table bellow clarifies the case of nominal substitution in third year English students:

Total	Nominal substitution	Number of devices	Percentage%
37	One	35	94.59%
	Same	2	5.41%
The most frequent device	One		

Table 3.6 the use of nominal substitution.

The result shows that most students focus on the use of ‘one’ in there writing, whereas 5.41% employed the use of ‘same’

3.1.1.2.2 The Use of Verbal Substitution:

The number of students’ use of verbal substitution and to the total number of substitution is shown in the table below:

	Frequency (N)	Percentage %
Total	93	100%
Verbal substitution	12	12.90%

Table 3.7 the use of verbal substitution.

The verbal substitute ‘do’ is used instead of verbal phrase. It is function as head of the verbal phrase. Through the analysis of selected texts the result shows that verbal subtitution was used 12 times. The absence of this device from several essays is due to their little experience in using it before.

3.1.1.2.3 The Use of Clausal Substitution:

The total number of clausal substitution and the number of each clausal device are presented in the following table:

Total	Clausal substitution	Number of devices	Percentage%
44	Not	25	56.82%
	So	19	43.18%
The most frequent devices	Not and so		

Table 3.8 Clausal substitution items.

Through the result presented in this table, clausal substitution is most occuring type. Both ‘not’ (56.82%) and ‘so’ (43.18%) are approximatly functioned equally by learners.

3.1.1.3 The Use of Ellipsis:

The following table depicts the use of ellipsis in comparison to other grammatical devices. Meanwhile, the total number of grammatical devices and the corresponding number of ellipsis are demonstrated below:

	Frequency (N)	Percentage %
Total	1666	100%
Ellipsis	47	2.82%

Table 3.9 Ellipsis number and percentage.

This percentage demonstrates that ellipsis occupies the least rank, compared with other cohesive links. This problem is due to teachers’ shortage in practicing this device in classroom. Thus, instructors should expose natural examples of different types of ellipsis (Abdulrahman, 2018).

3.1.1.3.1 Types of Ellipsis:

The total number of ellipsis and the corresponding number of each type are presented in the following table:

Total	Types	Number of each type	Percentage %
47	**Nominal ellipsis**	35	74.47%
	Verbal ellipsis	7	14.89%
	Clausal ellipsis	5	10.64%

Table 3.10 : Types of ellipsis.

The table below reveals the percentage of using ellipsis by EFLL. Nominal ellipsis is the highest frequent type used by learners (74.47%), followed by verbal (14.89%) then, clausal ellipsis (10.64%).

3.1.1.4 The Use of Conjunction:

Table 3.11 below demonstrates the number and percentage of conjunction that occured in learners' 30 essays. With the total number of grammatical devices 1666.

	Frequency (N)	Percentage%
Total	1666	100%
Conjunction	192	16.57%

Table 3.11 Conjunction number and percentage.

In relation to three other grammatical types conjunction is classified the second after reference because the result remarked is (12.14%) consequently the conjunctions are familiar than ellipsis and substitution

3.1.1.4.1 The Use of Additive Conjunction:

The following table will show the number of all additive conjunction in corresponding to the number of each device:

Total	Additive conjunction	Frequency (N)	Percentage%
192	And, And also	176, 3	91.67%, 1.56%
	Nor	0	/
	Or else	0	/
	Furthermore	2	1.04%
	By the way	0	/
	In other words	0	/
	Like wise	1	0.52%
	For example	7	3.65%
	On the other hand	2	1.04%
	Thus	1	0.52%
The most frequent device	And		

Table 3.12 Additive conjunction items.

The table show that students use 'and' (91.67%) much more extensively than any other device within the additive conjunction sub-category, whereas 'and also', 'furthermore', 'like wise', 'for example', 'on the other hand', and 'thus' represent only about (1.56%), (1.04%),

(0.52%), (3.65%), (1.04%), and (0.52%) respectively. As for ‘nor’, ‘or else’, ‘by the way’, and ‘in other words’, the result above show that they are not used by learners

3.1.1.4.2 Adversative Conjunction:

In this section the total number of adversative conjunction and the corresponding number of each device are presented below:

Total	Adversative conjunction	Frequency (N)	Percentage %
44	Yet	4	9.09%
	Though	5	11.36%
	Only	1	2.27%
	But	31	70.45%
	However	3	6.82%
	At last	0	/
	In fact	0	/
	Rather	0	/
	On the contrary	0	/
	I mean	0	/
	In any case	0	/
The most frequent device		But	

Table 3.13 Adversative conjunction items.

The result reveals that students focus on the use of specific adversative conjunction which are commonly used in classroom such as ‘yet’, ‘though’, ‘only’, and ‘however’ represent only (9.09%), (11.36%), (2.27%), and (6.82%). In the one hand, the majority of students prefer to express adversative conjunction in their writing through the use of ‘but’ (70. 45%). On the other hand, they neglect the use of devices such as: ‘at last’, ‘in fact’, ‘rather’, ‘on the contrary’, ‘i mean’, and ‘in any case’.

3.1.1.4.3 Causal Conjunction:

Table 3.14 above indicates the analysis of the learners' causal cohesive devices by using the total number of causal conjunction and the corresponding number of each causal device.

Total	Causal conjunction	Frequency (N)	Percentage %
31	So	19	61.29%
	Then	2	6.45%
	There for	2	6.45%
	Because	7	22.58%
	Otherwise	1	3.23%
The most frequent device	So		

Table 3.14 Causal conjunction items.

The table above indicates that learners employed 31 causal conjunction items, the result show that the students overuse 'so' (61.29%) to express causality in addition to 'because' (22.58%) and little use of 'there for' (6.45%), 'then' (6.45%) and 'otherwise' (3.23%).

3.1.1.4.4 The Use of Temporal conjunction:

The following table will represents the number of temporal conjunction and number of each feature:

Total	Temporal conjunction	Frequency (N)	Percentage %
9	Then	2	22.22%
	Next	3	33.33%
	Before that	1	11.11%
	First…then	0	/
	At first	0	/
	Formerly	0	/
	Final	0	/
	At once	1	11.11%
	Soon	0	/
	To sum up	2	22.22%
	In conclusion	0	/
The most frequent device		Next	

Table 3.15 Temporal conjunction items.

The learners use temporal conjunction adequately, which use ‘next’ (33.33%), ‘then’ (22.22%), ‘before that’ (11.11%), ‘at once’ (11.11%) and ‘to sum up’ (22.22%) in larger amount than other such as: ‘first…then’, ‘at first’, ‘formerly’, ‘final’, ‘soon’ and ‘in conclusion.

3.1.1.5 Grammatical Cohesive Features Used in Academic Essay Writing:

The chart below indicates the total numeric result of grammatical cohesive features used by third year English students of Médéa University in their argumentative essays.

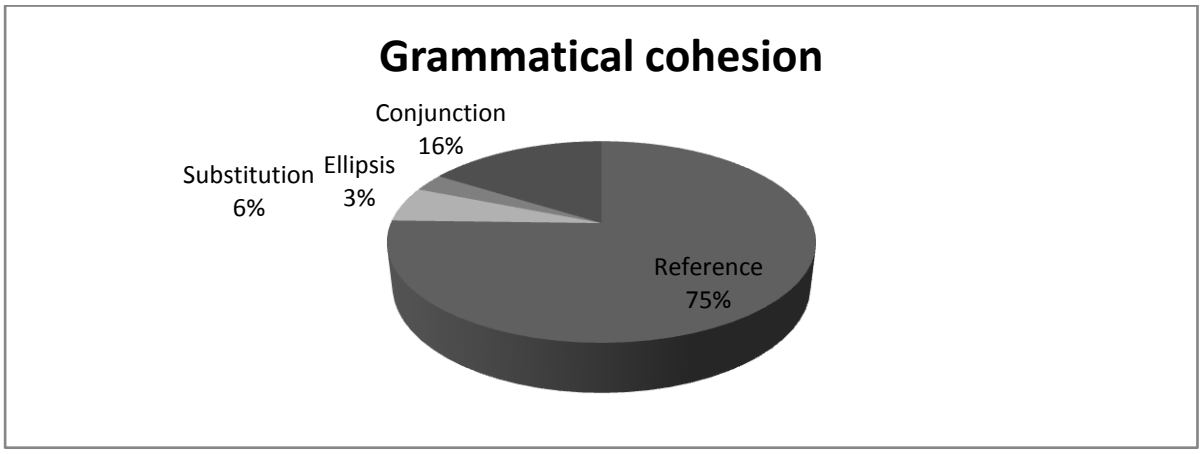


Chart 3.1 Grammatical cohesive features.

From the following chart 3.1, it could be seen that reference is the most frequent device used by students (approximatly 75%). Meanwhile, ellipsis gained the lowest percentage (approximatly 3%). Most students focus on the use of reference as it is stated by Halliday and Mathiessen (2014): « it implied that most students tend to use the reference to create cohesion by creating links between elements » (Halliday & Mathiessen, 2014, p.605). In the one hand, the use of substitution was not familiar with the students. It almost didn’t appear in their writings. On the other hand, conjunction (16%) was classified the second after reference. This was similar to the findings of (Khelifii, 2014) which reveal also that reference and conjunction are dominant devices used by EFLL. Meanwhile, substitution was not far from

conjunction. In more details, the sub-types of grammatical cohesive features that were finding in the analysis of 30 essays were described in the following charts:

Grammatic Cohesive features

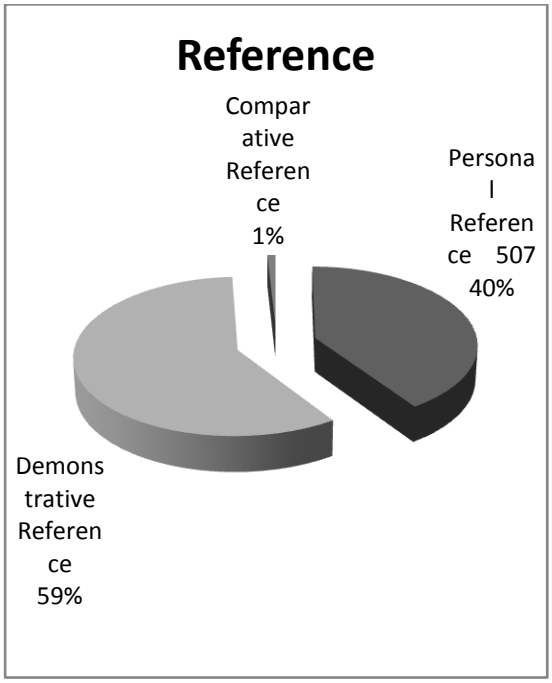


Chart 3.2 Types of reference

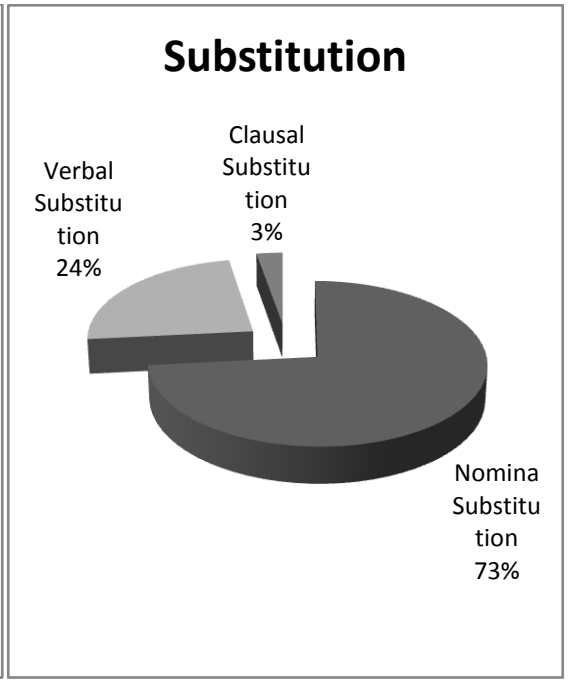


Chart3.3 Types of substitution

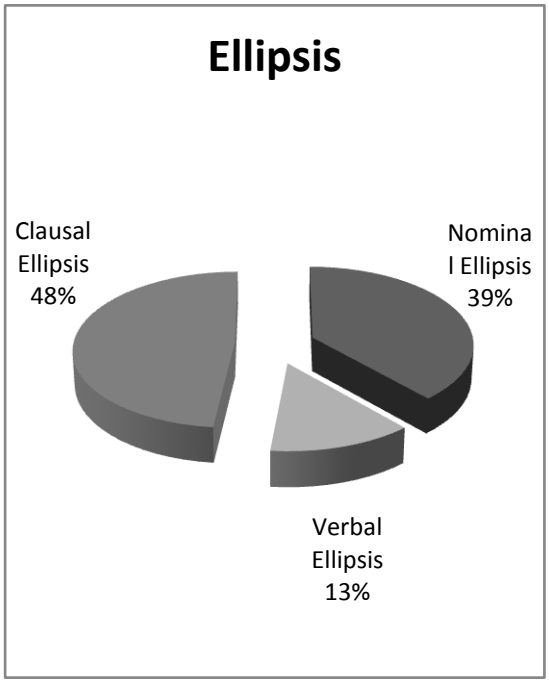


Chart 3.4 Types of ellipsis

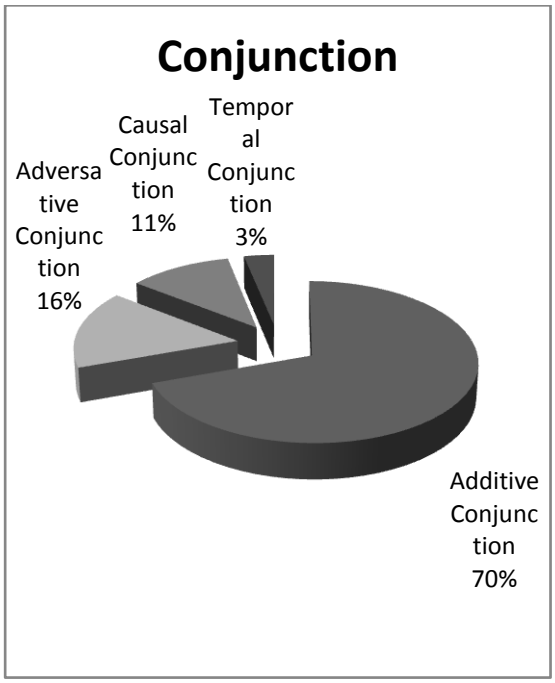


Chart 3.5 Types of conjunction

The present's charts indicate the comparaison of grammatical cohesive features per-types found in 30 essays that were written by EFLLs. It had been found that there are four foundamental types (reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction). In fact each type contains several sub-types such as: reference (personal, demonstrative and comparative), substitution (nominal, verbal, and clausal), ellipsis (nominal, verbal and clausal) and conjunction (additive, adversative, causal, and temporal).

General Comments:

The following charts reperent different usage of GCDs by students. It had been noticed that every type of grammatical cohesion has predominant per-types whereas other sub-types are less frequents. Through the analysis of the data it becomes evident that reference is the most frequent category utilised by learners. It is considered as the most common type because is taught in early stages. In which they focus on demonstrative (59%) and personal reference (40%) extensively. Regarding comparative reference, it is clear that learners adopted it the least, as it represents only (1%) which could be more frequent type in comparison to other text types, such as comparative argumentation. Chart 3.3 represents the percentage of using (nominal, verbal and clausal substitution). This category is less frequent than reference and conjunction. The chart indicates that nominal substitution represent (73%) which is the highest grade that focuses on creating relation to it preceeding noun. But creating relation with preceeding verb (24%) and clause (3%) are less frequent in persuasive texts. Based on the result illustrated in chart 3.4, ellipsis is the least frequent category used by learners. As it is mentioned by several researchers like (abdulrahman, 2014) both substitution and ellipsis need an extensive practice especially by EFLLs. Both nominal (39%) and clausal ellipsis (48%) are used adequately in contrast, verbal ellipsis (13%) is less frequent. Chart 3.5 indicates that learners established 192 additive conjunctions which represent (70%) of the

total devices used within the category of conjunction. It is though those learners are familiar with employing these devices. Otherwise causal (11%) and temporal (3%) are less common by students. These devices are used in literary texts especially academic ones' in order to subordinate information, creat relation among various part of text and establish cohesion that simplifies meaning and make the text more coherent.

3.1.2The Frequent Use of Lexical Devices:

This section analyses the learners' use of lexical devices, identifying each type of these links. Reiteration contains: Simple repetition, complex repetition, hyponyms, meronyms, antonyms, synonyms, and collocation (situational repetition).

3.1.2.1The Use of Reiteration:

The table 3.16 below indicates the percentage of using the lexical devices and specifically reiteration.

	Frequency(N)	**Percentage %**
Total	743	100%
Reiteration & collocation	743	100%

Table 3.16 the use of lexical cohesion.

In comparison to GCDs, LCDs are least exercised by students in which both types represent 743 items. It has been noticed that EFLLs use reiteration extensively and it does not mean that they use them appropriately.

3.1.2.1.1 The Use of Simple Repetition:

The following table indicates the use of simple repetition which is the most dominant used:

	Frequecy(N)	Percentage %
Total	743	100%
Simple repetition	438	58.95%

Table 3.17 Simple repetition percentage and number.

Table (3.17) illustrates the percentage of using simple repetition within the total amount of lexical cohesive chains. The result displayed that simple repetition is the most dominant type of LCDs.

3.1.2.1.2 The Use of Complex Repetition:

The table below shows the percentage of using complex repetition. Thus, the total number of lexical cohesion and the corresponding number of complex repetition are illustrated below:

	Frequency(N)	Percentage %
Total	743	100%
Complex repetition	103	13.86%

Table 3.18 Complex repetition percentage and number.

The results in this table offered the case of complex repetition in comparison to simple repetition. Complex repetition represents (approximately 14%) of the overall percentage

3.1.2.1.3 The Use of Synonyms:

The table below reveals the synonyms that are used by students.

	Frequency(N)	Percentage %
Total	743	100%
Synonyms	104	13.99%

Table 3.19 Synonyms percentage and number.

The result shows that students' use of synonymy represents (13.99%) which share the same percentage as complex repetition.

3.2.1.1.4 The Use of Antonyms:

The number of students' use of antonyms based on the total number of LCDs is shown in the following table:

	Frequency(N)	**Percentage %**
Total	743	100%
Antonyms	70	9.42%

Table 3.20 Antonyms percentage and number.

The result shows that the students use synonyms (13.99%) more than antonyms (9.42%), which mean that they master adequately the use of synomyms.

3.1.2.1.5 The Use of Hyponyms:

The following table represents the corresponding number of hyponyms used in essays based on the total number of LCDs.

	Frequency(N)	**Percentage %**
Total	743	100%
Hyponyms	35	4.71%

Table 3.21 Hyponyms number and percentage.

From the table above, we noticed that hyponyms are rarely used (4.71%) by participants.

3.2.1.1.5 The Use of Meronyms:

The table below represents the number of meronyms used by EFLLs and the corresponding number of LCDs.

	Frequency(N)	Percentage %
Total	743	100%
Meronyms	23	3.09%

Table 3.22 Meronyms percentage and number.

Through this results, we could notice that English third year students are not aware of this sub-type, the corresponding number of meronyms (3.09%) is lower than hyponyms (4.71%).

3.1.2.2 Lexical Cohesive Features Used in Academic Essay Writing:

The following chart represents the whole percentage of lexical ties used by third year English students in their persuasive essays.

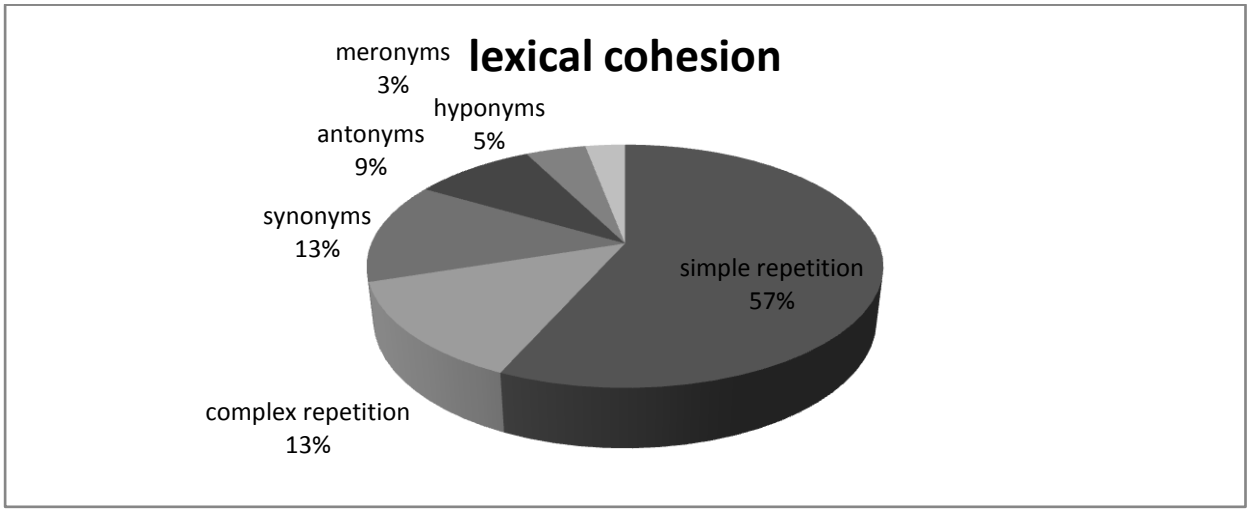


Chart 3.6 Types of lexical cohesion.

General Comments:

According to the above tables of the types of lexical cohesion, we could notice that every type of lexical cohesion is used but with different percentages (see tables 16.17.18.19.20...). Hence, third year English students overuse a specific type over the other at different times, for example, we deduce that the dominant type is repetition specifically simple repetition (54.22%), they attempt to repeat a certain lexis in their writing in order to emphasise on the target topic and to remind the reader of the aimed matter, but sometimes they fail to use this device, where they use it inappropriately, wrong or oversure it.

Moreover, students are quite familiar with the use of synonyms (13.99%) and antonyms (9.42%) because they started learning them at very early stages and with a separated activity.

Concerning the use of other LCDs such as hyponymy and meronymy, they use them rarely without knowing the nature of their functions.

3.1.3 The Use of Cohesion:

In this section, the research will identify the total amount of the use of GCDs and LCDs by testers in persuasive essays. The following table analyses the total use of cohesive devices and the corresponding percentage of each type.

Total	**Type**	**Frequency (N)**	**Percentage %**
2409	**GCD**	1666	69.16%
	LCD	743	30.84%

Table 3.23 the use of cohesion.

In this part, the result obtained show that the students' predominant the use of grammatical cohesive devices than lexical cohesive devices. A high frequency in using GCDs is reference (70%). It is larger than simple repetition (57%). Although they insist on the use of

reference more than other GCDs but they use them correctly. Consequently, third year English students are familiar with the use of GCDs with all it types and sub-types.

3.1.4 The Problem Encountered in Neglecting the Use of LCDs:

The study demonstrates that a lack of LCDs in non-native speakers discourse correlates to negotiation for meaning. Halliday and Hasan (1976) model of cohesion insists on the use of both grammatical and lexical links equally in order to create cohesion. It has been mentioned that LCDs represents the large part of cohesion because it aims at giving text its texture. The later can be defined as what makes any length of text meaningful and coherent.

Essay	Num of LCD	Percentage	Coherent	Incoherent
1	50	6.73%	×	
2	55	7.40%	×	
3	49	6.59%	×	
4	79	10.63%	×	
5	13	1.75%		×
6	12	1.62%		×
7	0	/		×
8	13	1.75%		×
9	5	0.67%		×
10	8	1.08%		×
11	9	1.21%		×
12	2	0.27%		×
13	4	0.54%		×
14	64	8.61%	×	
15	52	7%	×	
16	46	6.19%	×	
17	50	6.73%	×	
18	11	1.48%		×
19	0	/		×
20	2	0.27%		×
21	3	0.40%		×
22	10	1.35%		×
23	29	3.90%		×
24	13	1.75%		×
25	5	0.67%		×
26	3	0.40%		×
27	6	0.81%		×
28	59	7.94%	×	
29	51	6.86%	×	
30	40	5.38%	×	

Table 3.24: coherence in writing

The above table shows that there is significant difference between the percentages of using LCDs in students' essays. In which 19 students have incoherent piece of writing whereas, two of them do not fuction this links in their writing.

3.2 Discussion of Results:

The concept of cohesion has been applied to different fields such as stylistics, discourse analysis, language teaching and learning, translation studies, psycholinguistics and sociolinguistics (Xi, 2010). The present study is about the analysis of the use of cohesion in persuasive texts composed by third year English students of Medea University. This study is based on Halliday and Hasan (1976) concept of cohesion in written texts.

The findings of the study indicates that, the order of sub types of grammatical cohesion in English language are: reference (personal, demonstrative and comaparative), substitution (nominal, verbal and clausal), ellipsis (nominal, verbal and clausal), and conjunction (additive, adversative, clausal and temporal) whereas the order of lexical cohesion is: reteiration (simple repetition, complex repetition, synonymy, hyponymy, antonymy and meronymy) and collocation. Looking at these, it is clear that cohesion has wide applications in different areas. All these types try to expend the concept of cohesion and explore how language and especially English language functions in terms of textual level and how these devices specifically lexical ones' correlate to the organization of discourse (Xi, 2010). The gap this study filled is the practical use of cohesion by EFLLs in academic writing.

The first hypothesis of the study which EFLL's writing is the outcome of the classroom practice applied by the teacher is confirmed through the comparison of the quantitative data provided of both grammatical and lexical devices. The result shows a disparity between them. This problem is due to the method being applied by instructors wich focuses on teaching

English deductively not inductively. This method focuses mainly on syntax rather than semantics. However, the second hypothesis has been explained explicitly in (see table 3.23). The results clearly demonstrate that GCDs are the most frequent devices and students are aware of the use of these links in their academic writings. Consequently, to emphasise on the results, it is worthwhile to indicate that EFLLs' unawareness and ignorance of the semantic portion in their writing makes the text scuttle and incoherent.

In general, based on what mentioned above, learning to write academically is an important task that EFLLs should master. Students must know that there are many factors contribute to the organization of discourse and in the same time can corrupt their writings. Instructors should improve the method applied in teaching grammar and apply a variety of practices concerning types of cohesion especially semantic ones' in their classes.

Conclusion:

The results obtained from the test show the awareness of students to the use of GCDs in constracting their essays whereas they face difficulties in the use of lexical devices. The analysis of the test shows a variance in the usage of grammatical and lexical cohesion. Out of 2409 cohesive relations that were established in the texts, learners succeed in adopting the four types of grammatical cohesion (1666) in texts, the learners rely heavily on reference, whereas ellipsis are rarely used which sometimes causes unbalanced piece of writing. The findings also illustrate the case of lexical cohesion which represents a shortage and misuse due to the percentage provided which represents (30.84%). Students tend not to use this type because they lack semantic knowledge. Thus the result of this study confirms our hypotheses.

General conclusion

This research is conducted to gain more insight in the students' use of cohesive devices in general and to focus on the use of LCDs to strengthen students' writings from discourse viewpoint. In this research a quantitative analysis of the data is conducted in order to evaluate students' essays in terms of grammatical and lexical cohesion and discover the main problem that they face in dealing with these chains. The objectives of this study identify the frequency of using cohesion in persuasive texts that written by six semester students of Medea University, the degree of awareness in using these chains and problem encounter when they disregard the use of lexical cohesion are identified in this research. This study is devided into three chapters: first one is theoretical, second is concerned with methodology and the third one deals with field word and discussion.

The first chapter represents an overwiew of the notion of discourse analysis and its relation to academic writing by clarifying in details the processes that contribute to the organization of discourse. One of these processes is cohesion that is regarded as an essential factor in language and communication as it contributes to the unity of the text. Like it has been mentioned in the first chapter cohesion is defined as grammatical and lexical relationship within a text that holds sentences together. Halliday and Hasan (1976) devide cohesion into two distinct categories grammatical and lexical. GCDs are: reference (personal, demonstrative and comparative), substitution and ellipsis (nominal, verbal and clausal) and conjunction (additive, adversative, causal, temporal). LCDs are: reteiration (simple and complex repetition, synonymy, antonymy, hyponymy, and meronymy) and collocation. Texts are processed at different level that can be resolved by instructors and decide whether text is coherent or not. Although there are some coherent texts that do not contain cohesive devices,

it is assumed that cohesion-ensuring means are important and necessary to make the text understandable and readable.

This research is conducted to the analysis of students' essays in order to assess the attitudes of written expression toward the use of cohesion. The results reveal that students succeed to employ all types of grammatical relationships in their essays, but they have problems in dealing with lexical cohesion which made the discourse unbalanced. The highest frequency of the use of cohesion is related to the surface aspect of text that make their writing appear more systematic and methodical. The learners master the use of grammatical cohesion rather than lexical one, so the variety types of GCDs appear more often than LCDs. For this reason the majority of students write incoherent essays because the highest frequency is grammatical cohesion (69.16%) more specifically reference (75%) and conjunction (36%) followed by substitution (6%) and ellipsis (3%) while, lexical cohesion represents (30.84%), simple repetition (57%), complex repetition (13%), synonyms (13%), antonyms (9%), hyponyms (5%), and meronyms (3%).

Recommendations:

After the whole research process of collecting the data and analysing the result, recommendations for future action include:

- Students should be exposed to different linguistic features that enable them to learn how to function these elements. Comparison could be held among these elements among varied text types for the sake of analysing the frequency and effectiveness of LCDs and how they contribute to building essay's textures.
- University English students should be taught implicitly, because they are about to graduate and write formal thesis that require to be cohesive and coherent. For that, instructors should focus on written expression and grammar sessions and teaching

them from a discourse viewpoint in order to ensure the use of lexical ties in their writings. This method can give them chance to acquire knowledge subconciously about lexical chains and improve their writing skills.

- Educators should teach English naturally in order to enhance the students' writing process. Thus, they need to make an explicit connection between writing and reading, because learners' academic writing development is highly dependent on reading. It is known that when learners read intensively they become better writers. So, during reading sessions teachers should highlight the importance of LCDs and some confusing devices in GCDs sush as ellipsis and substitutions, and how the existance of these elements can avoid boredom in reading.
- The Algerian pedagogical system of teaching English should include interdisciplinarity between writing, reading, and grammar, because it is noticed by investigators that learners decontextualise the use of grammar in writing. Interdisciplinarity makes students understand the connection between form and function of language, which will help them become aware of how to build cohesion in text.
- Inductive teaching method should be adopted at the level of university and this can be achieved by putting into practice what teachers have taught students concerning using lexical elements in writing. This can be beneficial for students to better understand each type of LCDs and how they can contribute to building essay textures.
- Cognitive linguistics should be included in the curriculum of LMD system in English to enhance students' consciousness of linking meaning to writing process, and to enable learners to analyse a conceptual and experiential basis of linguistic categories. Cognitive linguistics involves knowledge of language and linguistic content and their sociolinguistic context.

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Appendix

Yahia Fares University **Third year**

Departement of Foreign Languages-English Section **Time Alloted: 1h30m**

Writing Task (Persuasive essay)

Write an expository of approximately 300 words about the following topic:

Is the Algerian election process fair?

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Best of Luck