



**COHESION AND THE QUALITY OF WRITING IN
UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS' COMPOSITIONS**

Safar NASROLLAHI

PH.D. DISSERTATION

Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı

Yrd.Doç.Dr. Oktay YAĞIZ

2016

(Her Hakkı Saklıdır)

T.C.
ATATÜRK ÜNİVERSİTESİ
EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ
YABANCI DİLLER EĞİTİMİ ANABİLİM DALI
İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRETMENLİĞİ BİLİM DALI

COHESION AND THE QUALITY OF WRITING IN
UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS' COMPOSITIONS

(İngilizce Alanındaki Lisans Öğrencilerinin Yazdıkları Kompozisyonların Anlam
Bütünlüğü ve Niteliği)

PH.D. DISSERTATION

Safar NASROLLAHI

Danışman: Yrd. Doç. Dr. Oktay YAĞIZ

ERZURUM

Mart, 2016

KABUL VE ONAY

Yrd.Doç.Dr. Oktay YAĞIZ danışmanlığında, safar NASROLLAHİ tarafından hazırlanan “Cohesion And The Quality of Writing in Undergraduate Students' Compositions” başlıklı çalışma 31 / 03 / 2016 tarihinde yapılan savunma sınavı sonucunda başarılı bulunarak jürimiz tarafından. Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Ana Bilim Dalı’nda Doktora Tezi olarak kabul edilmiştir.

Başkan : Yrd.Doç.Dr. Muzaffer BARIN

İmza: 

Danışman : Yrd.Doç.Dr. Oktay YAĞIZ

İmza: 

Jüri Üyesi :Yrd.Doç.Dr. Ahmet Selçuk AKDEMİR

İmza: 

Jüri Üyesi : Yrd.Doç.Dr. Savaş YEŞİLYURT

İmza: 

Jüri Üyesi : Yrd.Doç.Dr. Turgay HAN

İmza: 

Yukarıdaki imzaların adı geçen öğretim üyelerine ait olduğunu onaylarım.

04.10.2016

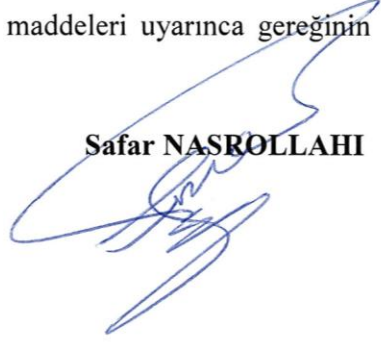

Prof. Dr. Kemal DOYMUŞ
Enstitü Müdürü

TEZ ETİK VE BİLDİRİM SAYFASI

Doktora Tezi olarak sunduđum “Cohesion and The Quality of Writing in Undergraduate Students' Compositions” bařlıklı alıřmanın, tarafımdan, bilimsel ahlak ve geleneklere aykırı dűşecek bir yardıma bařvurmaksızın yazıldıđını ve yararlandıđım eserlerin kaynakada gűsterilenlerden olduđunu, bunlara atıf yapılarak yararlanılmıř olduđunu belirtir ve onurumla dođrularım.

Lisansűstű Eđitim-űđretim yűnetmeliđinin ilgili maddeleri uyarınca geređinin yapılmasını arz ederim.

Safar NASROLLAHI



ABSTRACT
PH.D. DISSERTATION
COHESION AND THE QUALITY OF WRITING IN UNDERGRADUATE
STUDENTS' COMPOSITIONS

Safar NASROLLAHI

2016, 196 pages

The purpose of this study aimed at examining the use of cohesive devices in a sample of argumentative essays written by Turkish undergraduates majoring in English. The study attempted to identify and quantify the cohesive features of these essays. Through an analysis of cohesive devices, the study set out to investigate whether Turkish undergraduates studying English employed various types of cohesive devices in argumentative writing. Analyzing argumentative essays in terms of their cohesiveness seems crucial to see if students have enough knowledge to present the argumentation in a clear way. It is expected that this study might lead to a better understanding of the relation between the cohesive devices used and the quality of writing, and to the common characteristics that students present with regard to the choice and use of cohesive devices.

In this study, 100 participants consisting of one group of EFL university students majoring in English in Ataturk University, Erzurum, Turkey, ranging in age from 20 to 25 and studying at the same grade were selected through convenience sampling method and were required to write an argumentative composition on “*Advantages and Disadvantages of Living in a Big City and in a Small Town*” containing nearly 250 words. Afterwards, all essays were holistically assessed by two experienced writing instructors independently. A holistic rating scale ranging from zero to twenty points was used. The rating scale consisted of such factors as content, explicitness of ideas, coherence, cohesion, syntax and vocabulary.

The collected data were fed into the SPSS and underwent descriptive and inferential calculations such as frequency, Pearson’s Correlation and Regression Analysis. The analysis of quantitative data revealed that successful Turkish L2 writers

employed all types of cohesive devices. Lexical devices constituted the largest part of cohesion, followed by reference and conjunction. The quantitative findings of the present study rejected the research hypothesis that there is a strong correlation between cohesive devices used and writing quality. These findings are also compatible with some of past studies and suggesting that the number of cohesive devices alone cannot lead to better writing.

The results of the qualitative analyses demonstrated that the students had an inadequate knowledge of cohesion as one of the features of the texture of any piece of discourse, but, the teachers acknowledged coherence and cohesion were important features of good and understandable writing. Further qualitative analyses revealed that the students were afraid of writing due to lack of confidence. Moreover, some students expressed negative attitude towards writing and added that they did not like writing essays in English at all. The overall attitude of the students was indicative of the fact that they enjoyed writing about concrete, familiar and favorite topics.

ÖZET

DOKTORA TEZİ

İNGİLİZCE ALANINDAKİ LİSANS ÖĞRENCİLERİNİN YAZDIKLARI KOMPOZİSYONLARIN ANLAM BÜTÜNLÜĞÜ VE NİTELİĞİ

Safar NASROLLAHI

2016, 196 sayfa

Bu çalışmanın amacı, İngilizce alanında lisans eğitimi gören Türk öğrenciler tarafından yazılan tartışma kompozisyonlarındaki anlam bütünlüğü öğelerinin kullanımını incelemektir. Çalışma, bu kompozisyonların anlam bütünlüğü özelliklerini belirlemek ve nitelendirmek için yapılmıştır. Bu çalışma, anlam bütünlüğü öğelerinin analiziyle, İngilizce alanında lisans eğitimi gören Türk öğrencilerin, tartışma kompozisyonu yazımında farklı türlerdeki anlam bütünlüğü öğelerini kullanıp kullanmadıklarını araştırmak için yapılmıştır. Tartışma kompozisyonlarının anlamsal bütünlük açısından değerlendirilmesi, öğrencilerin tartışmayı açık bir şekilde sunabilmek için yeterli bilgiye sahip olup olmadıklarını anlamak açısından önemli görülmektedir. Bu çalışmayla, anlam bütünlüğü öğelerinin kullanımı ile yazının niteliği arasındaki ilişkinin ve öğrencilerin anlam bütünlüğü öğelerinin seçim ve kullanımına dair gösterdikleri özelliklerin daha iyi anlaşılması beklenmektedir.

Bu çalışmada, Erzurum Atatürk Üniversitesi İngilizce Eğitimi bölümünde, aynı sınıfta eğitim gören ve yaşları 20 ile 25 arasında değişen öğrencilerden oluşan 100 kişilik bir katılımcı grubu hazır örneklem yöntemiyle seçilmiş ve katılımcılardan “Büyük ve Küçük Şehirde Yaşamın Avantaj ve Dezavantajları” konusunda tartışma kompozisyonu yazmaları istenmiştir. Devamında, tüm kompozisyonlar yazma becerisi alanında deneyimli iki okutman tarafından bütüncül olarak bağımsız şekilde değerlendirilmiştir. Sıfırdan yirmi puana kadar olan bütüncül değerlendirme ölçeği kullanılmış; değerlendirme ölçeği, içerik, fikirlerin belirginliği, tutarlılık, bütünlük, sözdizimi kuralları ve kelime dağarcığı gibi faktörleri kapsamıştır. Toplanan veriler, SPSS’ye aktarılarak, frekans, Pearson korelasyon ve regresyon analizi gibi betimsel ve çıkarımsal hesaplamalar yapılmıştır. Nicel veri analizleri, ikinci yabancı dilde yazmada başarılı olan Türk öğrencilerin, anlam bütünlüğü öğelerinin tüm türlerini kullandıklarını

göstermiştir. Sözcüksel öğeler ve devamında da referans ve bağlaçlar, anlam bütünlüğünde en büyük payı teşkil etmiştir. Mevcut çalışmanın nicel bulguları, kullanılan anlam bütünlüğü öğeleri ile yazının niteliği arasında güçlü bir ilişkinin bulunduğu dair araştırma hipotezini reddetmiştir. Bu bulgular ayrıca geçmişteki bazı çalışmalarla bağdaşmaktadır ve anlam bütünlüğü öğelerinin sayısının, daha iyi yazmak için tek başına yeterli olmadığını ortaya koymaktadır.

Nitel analiz sonuçları, öğrencilerin, anlam bütünlüğünün söylemin herhangi bir parçasının yapısal özelliklerinden biri olduğuna dair yeterli bilgiye sahip olmadıklarını göstermiş, öğretmenler ise, tutarlılık ve bütünlüğün iyi ve anlaşılır bir yazının önemli özellikleri olduğunu belirtmişlerdir. İleri düzeydeki nitel analizler, öğrencilerin güven eksikliğinden dolayı kompozisyon yazmaktan çekindiklerini göstermiştir. Ayrıca, bazı öğrenciler yazmaya yönelik olumsuz düşüncelerini belirtmişler ve İngilizce kompozisyon yazmayı hiç bir surette sevmediklerini ifade etmişlerdir. Öğrencilerin genel tavırları, somut, bilinen ve sevilen konularda yazmaktan zevk aldıklarının bir göstergesidir.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

My great gratitude is to Dr. Oktay YAĞIZ, my thesis supervisor, for his invaluable guidance and help during the entire course of this research project. I am also deeply grateful of Dr. Savaş YEŞİLYURT of whom I learned a lot. Also, my sincere thanks go to teachers and students who participated in this study and helped me in the process of data gathering.

I am also grateful to my family, especially my wife, who suffered most during my four years of studying in Turkey.

Erzurum – 2016

Safar NASROLLAHI



TABLE OF CONTENTS

KABUL VE ONAY TUTANAĞI	ii
TEZ ETİK VE BİLDİRİM SAYFASI	iii
ABSTRACT	iv
ÖZET	vi
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	viii
TABLE OF CONTENTS	ix
LIST OF TABLES	xiii
LIST OF FIGURES	xv
LIST OF DIAGRAMS	xvi
ABBREVIATIONS	xvii

CHAPTER I

1.1. Introduction	1
1.2. Background and Statement of the Problem	2
1.3. The Significance of the Study	4
1.4. The Purpose of the Study	5
1.5. Research Questions	5
1.5.1. Quantitative Questions:	5
1.5.2. Qualitative Research Questions:	6
1.6. The Research Hypotheses	6
1.7. The Research Variables	6
1.8. The Conceptual and Operational Definition of Cohesion	7
1.9. Definition of Key Terms	7
1.10. Limitations of the Dissertation	8
1.11. Overview of the Dissertation	8

CHAPTER II

2.1. Introduction	10
2.2. Various Approaches to the Study of Language	10
2.2.1. Transformational Generative Grammar	10
2.2.2. Attempts beyond Sentence Boundary	11

2.2.3. The Communicative View of Language	12
2.2.4. Systemic-Functional Grammar	13
2.2.4.1. The Functions of Language	14
2.2.4.2. The Context of Situation	14
2.3. The Concept of Cohesion	15
2.3.1. Cohesion and Coherence	18
2.3.2. Cohesion and Contribution of cohesive chains	18
2.4. Textual Discourse Competence.....	25
2.5. Halliday and Hasan’s Classification of Cohesive Devices	26
2.5.1. Reference.....	26
2.5.2. Substitution.....	34
2.5.3. Ellipsis.....	36
2.5.4. Conjunction	41
2.6. Lexical Cohesion.....	44
2.7. Cohesion and Coherence in ESL Writing	45
2.7.1. Second Language Writing Research	50
2.7.2. Further trends in L2 writing methodology	51
2.7.3. Research on the Transfer from L1 to L2 in Writing.....	52
2.8. Grammatical Cohesion.....	54
2.9. The Interdependence of Grammatical and Lexical Cohesion	56
2.10. Previous Studies on Cohesive Devices in ESL/EFL Writing	57
2.11. Student’s Problems with Cohesive Devices in Writing	60

CHAPTER III

3.1. Introduction	63
3.2. Research Type and Methodology.....	63
3.3. Research Instruments	64
3.4. The participants of the studies.....	64
3.4.1. Participants of the Quantitative Studies (Population and Sample)	64
3.4.2. Participants of the Qualitative Studies (Population and Sample)	64
3.5. Sampling Method	65
3.6. Data Collection Procedures of the quantitative study	65

3.6. Validity Index of the Study Instruments	66
3.7. Reliability Index of the Study Instruments	66
3.8. Data Analysis	67
3.8.1. Descriptive Statistics	67
3.8.2. Inferential Statistics	67
3.9. The Conceptual Model of the Analysis.....	68
3.10. Chapter Summary.....	69

CHAPTER IV

4.1. Introduction	70
4.2. The Quantitative and Descriptive Statistics and Findings	70
4.2.1. Quantitative Data analysis.....	70
4.2.2. Analysis of the students' compositions	73
4.2.3. Analysis of the students' compositions in terms of reference devices.....	75
4.2.4. Analysis of students' compositions in terms of substitution and ellipsis..	76
4.2.5. Analysis of students' compositions in terms of conjunction devices.....	77
4.2.6. Analysis of students' compositions in terms of lexical devices.....	78
4.3. The Correlation and Regression Analysis.....	79
4.4. The Relationship between the Cohesive Devices and the Quality of Writing	79
4.5. The Frequency Analysis.....	98
4.6. The Qualitative Findings.....	99
4.6.1. The analysis of the students' responses to four open-ended questions (qualitative study I):	99
4.6.2. The analysis of the teachers' responses to the open-ended questions (qualitative study II):	103

CHAPTER V

5. 1. Introduction	108
5.2. Cohesion.....	108
5.2.1. Reference Cohesion.....	109
5.2.2. Substitution and Ellipsis.....	111
5.2.3. Conjunctive Cohesion	112

5.2.4. Lexical Cohesion	113
5.3. Cohesion and Writing Quality	115
5.4. Problems with Cohesion	116
5.4.1. Problems with reference	117
5.4.2. Problems with Conjunctions	119
5.4.3. Problems with Lexical Cohesion.....	120
5.5. Redundancy in Lexical Cohesion.....	121
5.6. The Comments of the Qualitative Studies	122
5.6.1. Comments for Students' Responses.....	122
5.6.2. Comments for Teachers' Responses	124
5.7. Conclusion and Pedagogical Implications	125
REFERENCES.....	133
APPENDICES	146
Appendix A: The Frequency of Main Categories of Cohesion along with their Subcategories Used in the Quantitative Study	146
Appendix B: Four Open-Ended Questions (students) Used in the Qualitative Study I	174
Appendix C: Four Open-Ended Questions (teachers) Used in the Qualitative Study II	175
CURRICULUM VITAE	176

LIST OF TABLES

Table 3.1. The description of the research participants (students).....	64
Table 4.1. Halliday and Hasan’s Coding Scheme (1976)	71
Table 4.2. Sample Analysis by Halliday and Hasan (1976)	73
Table 4.3. Mean, Standard Deviation, etc. of the Essay Scores	74
Table 4.4. The Distribution of the Cohesive Devices by Main Categories.....	74
Table 4.5. The Distribution of Reference Cohesion by its Subcategories	75
Table 4.6. The Distribution of Conjunctive cohesion by its subcategories	77
Table 4.7. The Distribution of Lexical Cohesion by its Subcategories	78
Table 4.8. The Correlation between Reference Subcategories and Writing Quality	79
Table 4.9. The Multiple Regression of (Enter)Predicting Power of Reference Subcategories on the Quality of Writing.....	80
Table 4.10 The Regression Coefficients of Reference Subcategories as Predictors of Writing Quality	80
Table 4.11 The Correlation between Conjunction Subcategories and Writing Quality .	81
Table 4.12 The Multiple Regression (enter) Predicting Power of Conjunctive Subcategories on the Quality of Writing.....	81
Table 4.13 Regression Coefficients of Conjunctive Devices as Predictors of Writing Quality	82
Table 4.14 The Correlation between Lexical Devices and Writing Quality.....	82
Table 4.15 The Multiple Regression (Enter) of Predicting Power of Lexical Devices on the Quality of Writing	83
Table 4.16 Regression Coefficients of Lexical Devices as Predictors of Writing Quality	83
Table 4.17 The Correlation between Substitution and Writing Quality.....	84
Table 4.18 The Regression Analysis (Enter) of Substitution on Students' Compositions.....	84
Table 4.19 Regression Coefficients of Substitution Devices as Predictors of Writing Quality	85
Table 4.20 The Correlation between Ellipsis and Writing Quality.....	86
Table 4.21 Regression Analysis(Enter) of Ellipsis on the Quality of Writing.....	86

Table 4.22 Regression Coefficient of Ellipsis as a Predictor of Writing Quality	86
Table 4.23 The Correlation between Composition Scores and the Number of Cohesive Devices	97
Table 4.24 The Frequency of Cohesive Devices Used in the Compositions of Turkish Undergraduate Students	98



LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1. Cohesive chains through two paragraphs of a learner text (taken from Shea, 2011).....	17
Figure 2.2: Chain interaction	21
Figure 2.3. Relation between illocutionary acts and propositions	24



LIST OF DIAGRAMS

Diagram 3.1.	The Conceptual Model of the Analysis: The.....	69
--------------	--	----



ABBREVIATIONS

Cf.	: Compare
Ph.D.	: Doctor of philosophy
e.g.	: Exempli gratia
Scrs.	: Scores
Rptn.	: Repetition
Sym.	: Synonym
Anm.	: Antonym
Sprdnt.	: Super-ordinate
G.Wd.	: General word
Col.	: Collocation
Adv.	: Adverbial
Adsv.	: Adversative
Csl.	: Causal
Tmpl.	: Temporal
Ctnv.	: Contrastive
Pnml.	: Pronominal
Dmst.	: Demonstrative
Df.Ar.	: Definite article
Comt.	: Comparative
Sbtn.	: Substitution
Elps.	: Ellipsis
Rfe.	: Reference
Cnin.	: Continuative
P.	: Page

PP.	: Pages
M.A.	: Master of Arts
i.e.	: That is to say, in other words, id est
CD.	: Cohesive device
No.	: Number
Lex.	: Lexical
L1	: Native language
L2	: Second or foreign language



**TO
MY MOTHER AND MY WIFE**



CHAPTER I

1.1. Introduction

This chapter includes background and statement of the problem, the significance of the study, the purpose of the study, the research questions, the research hypotheses, the research variables, the conceptual and operational definitions of cohesion, and the definition of basic terms.

After Bain (1867) classified prose discourse into four discourse modes, he postulated that quality in each mode comprised the elements of unity, mass (later known as emphasis), and coherence. Conners (1981) stipulated that Bain's ideas greatly influenced composition instruction. This status went on until 1950 when it started to diminish gradually, “giving way to conceptualizations of written discourse that place increased emphasis on the contexts for writing (e.g., Kinneavy, 1971) and the processes that writers use to produce writing within varying contexts (e.g., Flower & Hayes, 1980). Clearly, these emphases now permeate all levels of practice and theory” (McCulley, 1985, p. 269).

As El-Gazzar (2006) states, “the ability to write well is not a naturally acquired skill. It is usually learned and culturally transferred as a set of practices in formal instructional contexts” (p. 1). Skill in writing is an acquired art learned through practice and experience. The ability to compose is essential for writing. This entails telling or retelling information narratively or a descriptively (Carson, 2001). Myles (2001) regards writing as a continuous series of activities that range from mechanical activities to more complex act of production. The process of composing, however, can create problems for students, especially for those writing in second language (L2) academic settings. It goes without saying that one of the prerequisites of academic writing is conscious attempt and practice in writing, expanding, and analyzing idea. Tasks of this type are distinctly challenging for L2 learners because the learners encounter cognitive challenges related to second language acquisition.

1.2. Background and Statement of the Problem

Writing is a sophisticated process in that it measures a learner's capability to make use of a language and the ability to present ideas. Therefore, a person needs to write not only in a coherent but in a correct way, which needs much more time and ability. This is true of writing in a second/foreign language. Writing well is essential to academic survival. But students often encounter problems in creating an organized and effective type of text in English. When they begin to produce a coherent piece of text or an essay, problems discursively happens. This is due to many factors among which cohesion and coherence being chief.

Effective writing comes to be of great importance in teaching learning of English as a foreign language. "Cohesion and coherence, two important textual elements" (Halliday & Hasan 1976 cited in Liu & Braine, 2005, p. 624) have been considered as important characteristics of any "good" writing or text. Text is created by the textual, or text-forming, components of language. A number of authors have attempted a formal account of identifying a text, all of which emphasize connectivity within it. The account by Halliday and Hasan (1976) has come to be the most comprehensive and well-developed.

As Halliday and Hasan (1976) state, 'cohesion' is a meaning-based relation being present within the text and making it as a text. Text, for them, is any piece of spoken or written language, at any length, that makes up a connected unit. What distinguishes a text from non-text is 'texture' which is achieved by both register and cohesion. In discussing cohesion, Halliday and Hasan (1976) say: "Cohesion occurs where the INTERPRETATION of some element in the discourse is dependent on that of another. The one presupposes the other in the sense that it cannot be effectively decoded except by recourse to it" (1976, p. 4). According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), cohesion is categorized into reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction and lexical cohesion. Reference happens when one device in a text implies another device for its meaning. Substitution is the use of some device instead of another in the text. Ellipsis is simply defined as 'substitution by zero'. Conjunction refers to the indication of specific meaning which presupposes present items in the text, such as additive, adversative, causal, and temporal. The final one is lexical cohesion which is defined as the repetition of the same word or relative lexical items.

Research on cohesion and coherence in writing has become extensive since Halliday and Hasan published *Cohesion in English* (1976). A few researchers have investigated the relationship between the use of cohesive items and the quality of writing produced by college students. However, the majority of the studies carried out on cohesion and the quality of writing have come to be somewhat inconsistent and contradictory. In his study in the expository writing of Chinese undergraduate learners, Zhang (2000) contended that there was not any statistically significant relationship between the number of cohesive ties and the quality of writing. Additionally, the students' writing contained unclearness of meaning in reference, much use and wrong use of conjunction, and limitation in the use of lexical cohesion. It was also argued that the wrong use of the cohesive agencies produced an effect or even disconnection in the coherence of the text.

In contrast, other studies indicate that there is a positive correlation between the number of cohesive devices used and good writing. For example, Liu & Braine (2005) found that the students were capable of using various cohesive agencies in their compositions, among which lexical devices had the largest percentage of the total number of cohesive devices, followed by references and conjunctives. The quality of writing also showed that the quality significantly co-varies with the number of lexical devices and the total number of cohesive devices used. The researchers hold that lexical cohesion is the commonly used category in both good and weak essays.

The unfortunate part of the issue is the identification of characteristics that help researchers and tutors distinguish high- or low-quality essays which has been restricted to “examining errors and syntactic features while generally ignoring the features of texts that extend across sentence boundaries.” (Witte & Faigley, 1981, p. 189). Neither the error examination method nor the syntactic feature has been successful due to the complexity of the sources of errors and difficulty in tracing them on the one hand, and difficulty in differentiating grammatical characteristics of low- and high-rated compositions written by university students, on the other.

Witte & Faigley (1981) also believe that some significant issues cannot be resolved by analyzing cohesion. An issue, which is also the concern of the present research, is writing quality. “The quality or ‘success’ of a text depends mostly on

elements outside the text itself, those which rest beyond the domain of cohesion analyses. (p. 199). The aforementioned authors are of the opinion that writing quality is partly considered as "the 'fit' of a particular text to its context." (p. 199). This 'fit' or the writing quality contains factors such as the purpose of the writer, the discourse medium, and the hearers' knowledge of a willingness in the subject. These elements are regarded as the basis of discourse theory.

Oddly enough, although research conducted to determine the relationship between writing quality and cohesion is eye-catching in quantity, more research is still needed to illustrate the dark corners of this important relationship because cohesion is employed more than other devices to identify the strengths and weaknesses in the writing of composition by students.

1.3. The Significance of the Study

This study is important in some aspects. First, it is hoped that the present research will add to the data on L2 writing development by means of a dynamic approach. This research is expected to provide data on the development of writing taking into consideration factors such as syntax, vocabulary, and cohesion. Upon fulfillment of the mentioned expectations, the results can greatly assist teachers in creating appropriate teaching and learning strategies in their writing classes.

Second, different types of cohesion errors affect the reading of a text. Findings by (Rennes & Johnson, 2014) suggest "that the experience of the text is influenced by the number of cohesion errors, rather than the text length. (p. 1579).

Third, it seems that the greater the number of cohesion errors in a text, the more exhausting it is to read. (Rennes & Johnsson, 2014).

Fourth, studying and identifying the grammatical and lexical features of L2 compositions, according to Hinkel (2003), can contribute to developing L2 syllabi that attend to and satisfy the academic needs of L2 students in writing classes.

This list is not exhaustive and the importance of cohesion is evidenced by thousands of still ongoing research works.

1.4. The Purpose of the Study

The aim of this study is to investigate the use of cohesive agencies in a sample of argumentative essays written by Turkish undergraduate learners of English. The study seeks to identify and quantify the cohesive features of these essays. Through an analysis of cohesive devices, the study sets out to investigate whether Turkish undergraduates studying English employed various types of cohesive devices in argumentative writing. Writing in the academic context needs to be comprehensible and readable; thus, essays of English students should show not only a correct structure but also be cohesive. In the view of that, analyzing argumentative essays in terms of their cohesiveness seems crucial to see if students have enough knowledge to present the argumentation in a clear way. It is supposed that the study may result in a better knowledge of the relation between the use of cohesive agencies and the quality of writing, and the common features that students present regarding the selection and use of cohesive agencies.

1.5. Research Questions

The nature of the present study requires all three kinds of research types be incorporated into the study: quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods. Therefore, the study will try to answer both the quantitative questions and their related hypotheses on the one hand, and the qualitative questions for which there will be no hypotheses, on the other.

1.5.1. Quantitative Questions:

1. How frequently are cohesive devices used by Turkish undergraduate English majors (Senior English majors)?
2. Is there any relationship between the number of cohesive devices used and the quality of writing?
3. Do the students encounter problems in employing cohesive devices in their compositions?

1.5.2. Qualitative Research Questions:

For Students:

1. What do you know about cohesion? Have you ever taken explicit information or instruction about cohesion?
2. Where do you attach importance while you're writing your composition?
3. What is your belief about writing? Positive or negative?
4. What would you want to write better in English?

For Teachers:

1. What is the place of cohesive devices while you're rating students' compositions?
2. Do you attach importance to cohesion and cohesive devices while teaching writing? And how?
3. What is the awareness level of your students about cohesion and cohesive devices?
4. How do you rate or give scores while reading your students' compositions?

1.6. The Research Hypotheses

H₀₁. The cohesive devices used by Turkish undergraduate English majors (Senior English majors) do not enjoy high frequency.

H₀₂. There is no relationship between the number of cohesive devices used and the quality of writing.

H₀₃. The students encounter problems while using cohesive devices in their writings.

1.7. The Research Variables

The use or non-use of cohesive devices is the independent variable and the quality of compositions is the dependent variable.

1.8. The Conceptual and Operational Definition of Cohesion

Contrary to what seems at the surface, cohesion is hard to define. “The fact that it is difficult to provide a clear definition for cohesion does not indicate that the existence or validity of the concept is itself in doubt.” (Christiansen, 2011, p. 16). Definitions abound. For example, Jakobson (1960) uses the term cohesion to mean the way that the repetition of language features – e.g., syllables and stress or the use of similar grammatical structures – creates perceptible and discernable patterns within a work. It is due to these features which a work becomes a unique form and is marked aesthetically from other possible ways of saying the same thing.

Operationally, however, cohesion is a multidimensional concept comprising measures of grammatical ties, connector use, latent semantic measures, a combination of sentence and paragraph latent semantic analysis, lexical cohesion, lexical reference chains, etc. (Shea, 2011).

1.9. Definition of Key Terms

A number of essential terms will recur frequently throughout this dissertation. In order to avoid any misunderstanding of the terms used in the present study and to understand them correctly, definitions of terminology are introduced in this section.

Text : It is any piece of spoken or written mode of language, at any length, that constitutes a unified whole.

Texture: It makes a text from a non-text, i.e. a random sequence of sentences. Texture as the basic feature of ‘being a text’ is embodied by such linguistic resources as cohesive agencies.

Discourse: Any piece of spoken language conveying meaning.

Cohesion: It includes the linguistic resources which contributes to forming a sequence of sentences of a text. The term is made up of grammatical cohesion (reference, substitution, ellipsis and conjunction) and lexical cohesion.

Coherence: It is the connectivity and continuity in meaning being created partly by cohesion, i.e. cohesive agencies, and partly the readers’ knowledge of the world.

Tie: It refers to a single instance of cohesion or one occurrence of a pair of cohesively related elements. When the presupposed item (referent) occurs earlier or later in the text, a cohesive tie is created. In the lack of the element referred to, the reference item, for example, would have no meaning or become ambiguous.

Cohesive Chain: Cohesive chain refers to a situation in which the cohesive element, e.g., **it** may refer to an item in the immediately preceding sentence which is another **it**, and it may step across a whole sequence of **its** until it finds its original target element, as in **a banana...it...it...it**.

1.10. Limitations of the Dissertation

This study suffers from some constraints that can be expressed briefly as follows: to begin with, there has been a paucity of studies actually investigating the frequency of cohesive devices in the university student compositions as well as their effect on the writing quality. Most studies in this area have just scratched the surface of the issue and taken for granted that cohesion on its own will automatically lead to writing quality. But the results obtained from the various studies carried out on this area have been turned out to be contradictory. Some of them have rejected the significant relation between cohesion and writing quality, some others, on the other hand, have supported it.

Given the small corpus of the study, relatively small number of participants, the particular instruments used for the purpose of data collection, the scope of study encompassing a small area of investigation and only enclosing university English majors and English teachers exclusively in the English department of Ataturk University, Turkey, all and all contribute to the limitations of this study. Great care and circumspection should be taken while generalizing the results to the whole population.

1.11. Overview of the Dissertation

In the first chapter, the research problem, the rationale of the study, the specific questions to be specifically pursued, the key terms frequently seen, the conceptual and operational definition of ‘cohesion’, and the limitations of the dissertation are given and in the second chapter, the pertinent literature will be reviewed and analyzed with the intention of providing a theoretical foundation to the current study. In chapter three, a

general and brief discussion of methodology is given. Then it will be followed by the description of the procedures utilized in the data gathering process. Afterwards, the procedure for analyzing the data consisting of quantitative and qualitative studies will be provided. Chapter four will see the analysis of the data of the studies. The analyses of the quantitative and qualitative data will be presented. Chapter five will be devoted to discussions and conclusions and finally, pedagogical implications, if any, and some suggestions for further studies will be presented.



CHAPTER II

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

This chapter will present some previous studies in relation to the theory of cohesion and coherence. It will begin by discussing the theoretical perspectives of cohesion theory related to cohesive devices with the intention of good and effective writing. It will then document the ongoing debate by reviewing previous studies on cohesion and writing quality. The pertinent literature will be reviewed and analyzed in order to provide a theoretical foundation for the present study.

2.2. Various Approaches to the Study of Language

2.2.1. Transformational Generative Grammar

Chomsky's Transformational Generative Grammar turned the perspective of linguistic inquiry from phonology and morphology towards 'syntax' which had been given little attention in the Bloomfieldian tradition. In order to specify the object of linguistic study, Chomsky drew a distinction between 'competence', the ideal speaker-hearer's abstract underlying syntactic knowledge of his language, and 'performance', the real language use. Chomsky was interested in the study of 'competence'. He (1976, p. 3) says "linguistic theory is concerned primarily with an ideal speaker-listener, in a completely homogeneous speech community, who knows its language perfectly and is unaffected by such grammatically irrelevant conditions as memory limitations, distractions, shifts of attention and interest and errors (random or characteristic) in applying his knowledge of the language in actual performance".

Thus, Chomsky put 'performance' aside and took 'competence' as the object for the study of language in the light of its syntactic nature. He attempted to account for language by a set of syntactic rules whereby a language user "could produce all or any of the possible sentences of the language" (Stern, 1983, p. 137). In doing so, he took the sentence as the minimum unit for the study.

2.2.2. Attempts beyond Sentence Boundary

The traditional approaches to the study of language focused on ‘sentence or units lower than it. But in this section three attempts made to study larger stretches of language are considered: Harris (1952), Mitchell (1957) and Pike (1967).

In his article ‘Discourse Analysis’, Harris introduced a distributional approach to the analysis of related spoken and written language. Through the distributional analysis, he argued, one can arrive at structuring beyond the sentence limit, i.e., at stretches above the rank of sentence. His attempt was to isolate units of discourse which share of an identical environment or are distributionally equivalent in terms of word classes, i.e., a group of adjectives A followed by a group of nouns N. You can consult the text as an example quoted by Coulthard (1966, p. 4).

Since Harris turned away from meaning in the analysis, his approach did not prove fruitful and was soon abandoned.

Mitchell offered an analysis of the language of transactions in shops, markets and auctions. In the analysis, he gave great attention to the situation and determined the relevant participants and elements of it. Mitchell divided the buying-selling process into stages based on content criteria rather than linguistic ones. The stages identified are: ‘salutation’, ‘inquiry as to the object of sale’, ‘investigation of the object of sale’, ‘bargaining’ and ‘conclusion’. The first and second stages, i.e., ‘salutation’ and ‘inquiry as to the object of sale’ may not occur and the third and fifth stages, i.e., ‘investigation of the object of sale’ and ‘conclusion’ may have non-verbal realizations.

The American linguist K.L. Pike developed the tagmemic approach to the analysis of language in which the units of grammar are expressed in terms of both function and form. In tagmemic analysis the basic grammatical unit is ‘tagmeme’ which is the correlation of a grammatical function with a class of linguistic items. For example, in

The children ate the apples.

The subject tagmeme is filled by the noun phrase **the children**, the predicate tagmeme by the verb **eat** in its past tense form **ate**, and the object by the noun phrase **the apples**.

A tagmeme corresponds to the meaning-distinguishing units of sounds, i.e., phonemes in phonology, and morphemes at different ranks such as morpheme, word, phrase, clause, sentence, and paragraph.

As with Harris's approach, Pike's analysis did not consider the linguistic meaning in the analysis and the meaning of words and sentences were inferred from the social context in which they were uttered.

2.2.3. The Communicative View of Language

In the early 1970s a great shift of perspective from language as a formal system, or code, to language as a process of communication took place (cf. Hymes, 1972; Coulthard 1985; Halliday, 1970; 1979). This communicative view to the nature of language goes beyond the formal rules and incorporates the contextual or situational factors into the description. In other words, the context of situation, i.e., the context in which language occurs, plays an important role in the negotiation of meaning.

Having found Chomsky's linguistic competence too narrow for the description of language, Hymes replaced it by the notion of communicative competence. "In antithesis to Chomsky's Competence, Hymes (1972) proposes that a speaker's communicative competence should be the object of linguistic inquiry" (James, 1980, p. 100). Hymes (1972a, p. 281) states the fourfold distinction for the characterization of communicative competence: possibility, feasibility, appropriateness and finally to what degree something is in fact done i.e., actually performed.

According to Hymes (1972b, p. 58-65) any act of communication is affected by several factors which he calls 'components of speech event', and they are as follows:

1. Message: form, content (how and what)
2. Setting: physical, psychological circumstances
3. Participants: addressors, addressees
4. Purpose: conventionally recognized outcomes, goals of participants
5. Key: tone, manner of spirit in which an act is done
6. Channels: media of transmission of speech (oral, written, telegraphic, etc.)

7. Forms of speech: the historical provenance of language resources (language and dialect), presence or absence of mutual intelligibility (codes), specialization in use (varieties and registers)
8. Norms of interaction and interpretation
9. Genres: poem, myth, tale, proverb, etc.

2.2.4. Systemic-Functional Grammar

Unlike Structural Linguistics and Transformational Grammar which studied ‘langue’ and ‘competence’ as the system of language around the sentence, respectively, Halliday’s Systemic-Functional Grammar studies both the system of language and its realization as text, “It is of little use having an elegant theory of the system if it cannot account for how the system engenders text; equally it adds little to expatiate on a text if one cannot relate it to the system that lies behind it, since anyone understanding the text does so only because they know the system” (Halliday, 1988, p. xxii).

He believes “both system and text have to be in focus of attention. Otherwise there is no way of comparing one text with another, or with what it might itself have been but was not. And, perhaps most important of all, only by starting from the system can we see the text in its aspect as a process” (ibid).

Systemic- Functional Grammar (Halliday & Hasan, 1985) views language as a **social-semiotic** phenomenon. Language is semiotic in the sense that it is a system of signs used to create meaning, i.e., a system of meaning consisting of networks of options, and social in that this system of meaning is affected by the social system in which it occurs. To put it differently, it studies the relationship between language and the social and linguistic contexts within which language is used.

Through the social-semiotic view, Halliday arrives at the functions of language according to which language is not a formal system but a system used to meet the communicative needs of its speaker. He believes “the nature of language is closely related to the demands that we make on it, the functions it has to serve” (in Lyons, 1973, p. 141). Function, for him, is an essential property which has been built into the structure of language itself and has evolved its semantic and syntactic organization.

That is, the organization of every natural language should be accounted for with reference to a functional theory.

2.2.4.1. The Functions of Language

As stated in the previous section, Halliday attempts to account for language on the basis of the functions it has to serve, i.e., his approach to language is functional-biased. Thus, Halliday (1985, see also Halliday & Hasan, 1985) points out three fundamental functions underlying all uses of language: **ideational**, **interpersonal** and **textual**. These functions, as noted earlier, reflect the semantic systems of language.

A clause in English which Halliday (1985) considers a unit of message is the simultaneous realization of these three functions. The **ideational** function is related to the content of language, what a word or a sentence ‘means’. It is divided into the ‘experiential’ and the ‘logical’. The experiential function acts as the expression of our experience of the real world around and inside us. The logical function expresses logical relations deduced from our experience of the real world and are encoded in the form of co-ordination, apposition, etc.

The interpersonal function of language serves as a piece of interaction between speaker and listener, i.e., it expresses the speaker’s and listener’s participation and roles in the speech situation. While speaking, the speaker takes on a special speech role and accordingly, he/she assigns a supplementary role to the listener. For example, when the speaker asks a question, he/she adopts the role of seeker of information, or questioner, according to which the listener takes on the role of supplier of information, or respondent. And finally, most important of all, is the textual function through which language is used to make ‘text’. It follows that the unit of language is not a word or a sentence but ‘a stretch of discourse’ within which there is some connectivity and which is situationally relevant. This function enables the language user to construct texts and distinguish them from non-texts.

2.2.4.2. The Context of Situation

Halliday and Hasan (1985) characterize text in its relation to the context of situation. They believe “... text and context are so intimately related that neither concept can be enunciated without the other” (ibid: 52). Thus, Halliday and Hasan point

out three features of the context of situation: the **field**, the **tenor** and the **mode**. These features, according to them, heavily determine the semantic system of language.

The field, the tenor and the mode are related to the ideational, interpersonal and textual functions, respectively.

2.3. The Concept of Cohesion

Language does not function in a vacuum, but it functions as 'text', in real situations of use. 'Text' is created by the textual, or text-forming, components of language. A number of authors have attempted a formal account of identifying a text, all of which emphasize connectivity within it (cf. de Beaugrande, 1980; de Beaugrande & Dressler, 1981; Halliday & Hasan, 1976; etc.). The account by Halliday and Hasan (1976) has come to be most comprehensive and well-developed.

For Halliday and Hasan, 'cohesion' is a meaning-related concept being present within the text and defines it as a text'. Text, for them, is any piece of language, spoken or written, that constitutes an integrated whole. What makes a text from a non-text is 'texture' which is achieved by both **register** and **cohesion**.

Halliday and Hasan (1976) maintain that cohesion, together with register, helps to create 'text'. Register is defined as the set of semantic configurations associated with the field, the mode and the tenor. But cohesion is the set of meaning relations whereby a text is distinguished from a non-text. Register deals with what the text means whereas cohesion deals with how the text is put into a semantic construction. So a text is consistent both in register – regarding the context of situation – and in cohesion – regarding itself.

In discussing cohesion, Halliday and Hasan say, "cohesion occurs where the INTERPRETATION of some element in the discourse is dependent on that of another. The one presupposes the other in the sense that it cannot be effectively decoded except by recourse to it" (1976, p. 4).

It follows that the establishment of cohesion requires the presence of both the presupposing and the presupposed. The interpretation of one without the other will be impossible. For example in

Jhon bought an English dictionary. It was pocket-sized.

the interpretation of 'it' in the second sentence is dependent on the 'an English dictionary' in the first sentence.

Halliday and Hasan introduce the notion of **tie** – a pair of cohesively related elements – for the characterization of a text, "the concept of a tie makes it possible to analyze a text in terms of its cohesive properties, and give a systematic account of its patterns of texture"(1976:4). In the above example 'it' and 'an English dictionary' constitute a tie.

Cohesive relations may be found just as well within a sentence as between sentences. But they have nothing to do with those within a sentence. There is no need for cohesion within a sentence to make it hang together since it already hangs together by its grammatical structure, e.g., in

If you happen to meet the admiral, don't tell him his ship's gone down

the items 'him' and 'his' in the second half of the sentence have to be interpreted by reference to 'the admiral' in the first half. Whether the presupposing and the presupposed items are structurally related to each other or not makes no difference to the meaning of the cohesive relation.

Halliday and Hasan (1976) point out that the sentence is a significant unit for cohesion because it is the highest unit of grammatical structure and therefore determines the way in which cohesion is expressed. For example, if the same entity is referred to twice within the same sentence, there are rules of pronominalization, i.e., the second mention of the entity will be expressed by a pronominal form, for instance, one cannot say

John took John's hat off and hang John' hat on a peg.

By assuming only one 'John' and one 'hat' one must use a pronoun for the second mention of the identity:

John took off his hat and hung it on a peg.

As remarked earlier, cohesion is the presupposition of something located elsewhere. It may be located in the preceding sentence which is known as anaphora. In anaphoric reference what is presupposed may be in the immediately preceding sentence or in some earlier sentence, as in

Did the driver parked the car in the garage?

-He said so

Here the reference item 'he' points back to 'the driver' in the preceding sentence.

In the case of reference and substitution, the information for retrieval is in the immediately preceding sentence.

In some instances, the cohesive element, e.g., **it** may refer to an item in the immediately preceding sentence which is another **it**, and it may step across a whole sequence of **its** until it finds its original target element, as in **a banana... it... it... it**.

These instances constitute **cohesive chains**.

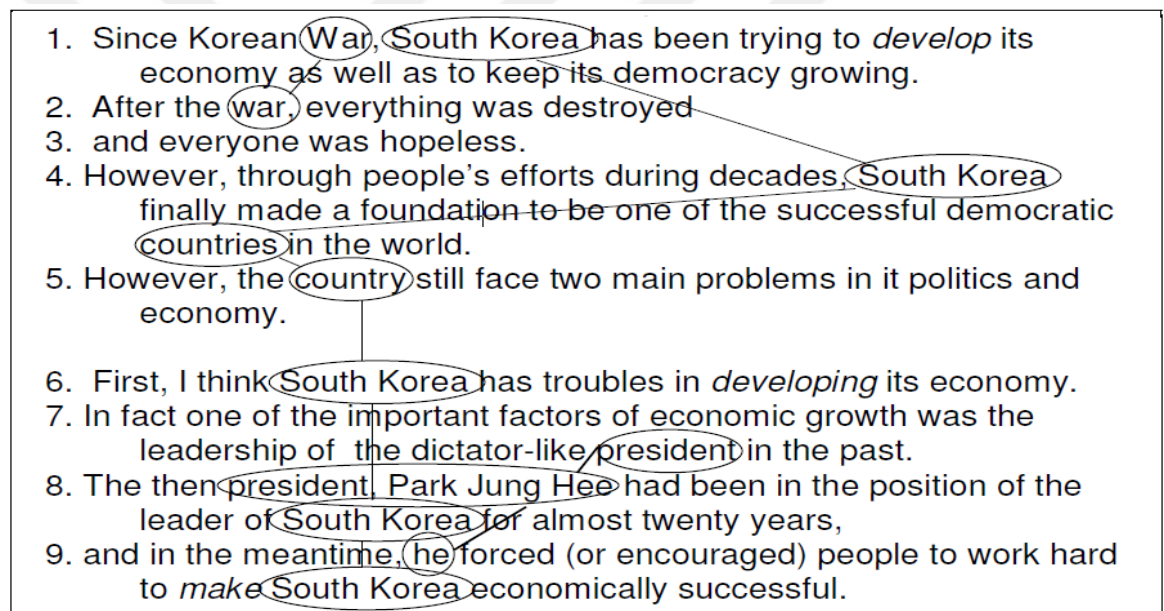


Figure 2.1. Cohesive chains through two paragraphs of a learner text (taken from Shea, 2011)

The presupposed item, on the other hand, may be located in what follows. This type of presupposition is known as **cataphora**. An instance of cataphoric reference is:

I would never have believed **it**. They've accepted the whole scheme.

In this example it refers forward to they've accepted the whole scheme.

There are also some cases in which the information required for interpretation is outside the text, i.e., the situation. This type of reference is called **exophora**. Exophoric reference points to the context of situation, as in

Did the gardener water **those** plants?

Here **those** refers to the context of situation, that is, the environment in which the dialogue is happening.

2.3.1. Cohesion and Coherence

As stated earlier, cohesion is based on the linguistic relationships between the elements in the surface structure of a text. Halliday and Hasan (1976) define cohesion as a relation of meaning that is present inside the text. Accordingly, the concept of cohesion relates to surface links being composed of grammatical and lexical relations “within-sentence, inter-sentence and cross-section interdependency” and the interpretation of one element is important to the other one (Sanczyk, 2010). Some people equate cohesion with coherence; however, some linguists contend that cohesion and coherence are different notions each of which should be dealt with separately.

For a long time, coherence has been recognized as an important quality of effective writing. Coherence is complex and difficult to define. Unlike cohesion which is linguistic links on the surface of the text and thus, concrete and objective, coherence emerges a fuzzy and abstract concept being difficult to teach and to learn. Coherence is described as a “multi-faceted concept” (Spiegel & Fitzgerald, 1990, p. 49) including a greater number of “reader-and text-based features” (Johns, 1986, in Lee, 1998). Text-based features refer to cohesion and unity, but reader-based features mean that the reader interacts with the text depending on his/her background knowledge. In other words, coherence is the relationship that connects ideas in a piece of writing to produce meaning for readers (Lee, 2002). It results from the meaningful interactional between the text and the reader (Halliday & Hasan, 1985). Moreover, cognitive theory of discourse supports this idea.

2.3.2. Cohesion and Contribution of cohesive chains

An interest in ‘text as a unit of language beyond the sentence unit’ has led to the emergence of a number of approaches to determine what constitutes a coherent text as

opposed to an incoherent one. In other words, what distinguishes a text from a sequence of sentences which would not be considered a text, say, a non-text.

Halliday and Hasan (1976) introduce the concept of ‘**cohesion**’ (see 2.2.3 above) to account for texture, or coherence, of a text, “The general meaning of cohesion is embodied in the concept of cohesion. By its role in providing ‘texture’, cohesion helps to create text” (p. 298).

Thus, the characteristic of a text, for Halliday and Hasan, is ‘texture’ which is mainly provided by cohesion and which distinguishes it from non-text: “the concept of TEXTURE is entirely appropriate to express the property of ‘being a text’. A text derives the texture from the fact that it functions as a unity with respect to its environment” (1976, p. 2).

As remarked in the previous section, cohesion is a linguistic property. It refers to some relations existing within the text and defining it as a text. These meaning relations are expressed through the linguistic system of a language according to which the texture is provided. In considering cohesion as a linguistic phenomenon, Halliday and Hasan say “what we are investigating in this book are the resources that English has for creating texture. If a passage of English containing more than one sentence is perceived as a text, there will be certain linguistic features present in that passage which can be identified as contributing to the total unity and giving it texture” (1976, p. 2).

Hasan (in Halliday & Hasan, 1985) has added new dimensions to the 1976 model, i.e., cohesion theory. She attempts to show how cohesion contributes to the creation of the coherence of a text. Cohesion, as Hasan argues, operates within three semantic relations: **co-reference**, **co-classification** and **co-extension**.

Co-reference refers to the type of semantic relation in which the members of a tie – tie being a basic concept in texture – refer to the same thing. In other words, the relation between the two members is the identity of reference, e.g., a pronoun which refers anaphorically to an already-mentioned noun. Co-classification is the type of semantic relation in which the things, processes or circumstances, referred to are of the same class, but each member of the cohesive ties may be a distinct member of the class, as in

I ride my bicycle to school. My friend **does**, too.

Here the situational event of the member ‘riding my bicycle’ is different from that of the other member ‘does’.

Co-extension refers to some kind of semantic relation that holds between different lexical items, e.g., the relation between the lexical items ‘buy’ and ‘purchase’ which is that of synonymy constituting a co-extential tie.

Co-reference creates **identity chains**, i.e., same referent; co-classification and co-extension create **similarity chains**, i.e. different referent. According to Hasan, both the identity and similarity chains are necessary if a text is to be perceived as coherent. Consider the following text cited by Hasan (in Halliday and Hasan, 1985,p. 72).

(1)The sailor goes on the ship (2) and he’s coming home with a dog (3) and the dog wants the boy and the girl (4) and they don’t know the bear’s in the chair (5) and the bear’s coming to go to sleep in it (6) and they find the bear in the chair (7) they wake him up (8) and chunk him out the room (9) and take it to the zoo (10) the sailor takes his hat off (11) and the dog’s chased the bear out the room (12) and the boy will sit down in their chair what the bear was sleeping in.

By ignoring the identity chains of sailor, boy, girl, or the dog, Hasan identifies the following cohesive chains for the above text:

Identity chains:

- a. bear – (5) bear – (6) bear – (7) him – (8) him – (9) it – (11) bear – (12) bear
- b. chair – (5) it – (6) chair – (12) chair

Similarity chains

- c. go – (2) come – (5) come – (9) take
- d. go to sleep – (7) wake up – (12) sleep
- e. find – (11) chase out – (8) chuck out
- f. home – (8) room – (11) room

Let’s observe another example of co-referential chain taken from one of the students’ compositions:

2. (Essay 48) Living in small towns has its own difficulties, people are very close together. **They** are familiar with each other, but **they** don't have many comfortable things for living better. **They** have to work in farms, **they** grow vegetables, grow children. All the time **they** are busy. **They** have not much income. **They** have not much places for fun of children.

Coherence, as Hasan points out, does not lie merely in the presence of cohesive chains but in their interaction with one another, "although the chains go a long way towards building the foundation for coherence, they are not sufficient; we need to include some relations that are characteristic of those between the components of a message. This is the relation that I refer to as **CHAIN INTERACTION** ... A minimum requirement for chain interaction is that **at least two members** of one chain stand in the same relation to **two members** of another chain" (in Halliday and Hasan, 1985, p. 91).

Chain interaction refers to relations – essentially grammatical – that bring together members of two or more distinct chains, for example, the chain interaction of the above text can be shown diagrammatically as follows:

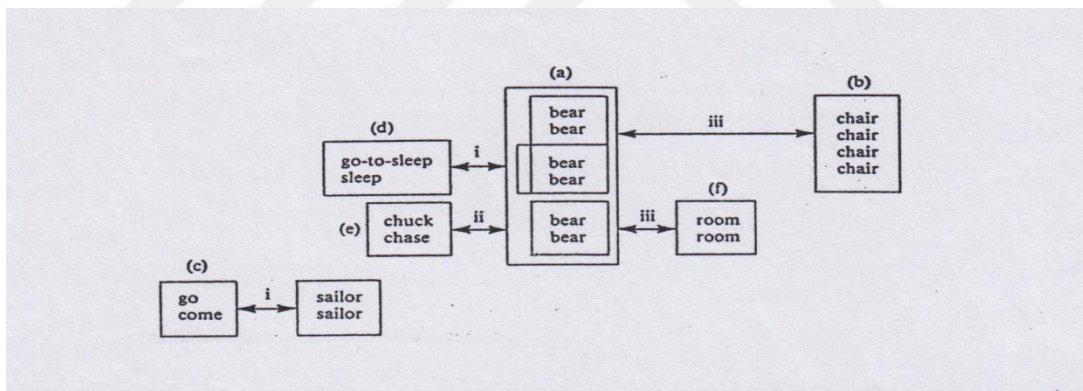


Figure 2.2: Chain interaction

As the diagram indicates, the first and second items of bear interact with (b) chair, chair, chair and chair; the second and third bear interact with (d) go-to-sleep, and so on.

Hasan accounts for the coherence of a text with reference to the number of **central tokens** as opposed to **non-central** tokens, "Those members of the chain that enter into interaction are known as **CENTRAL TOKENS**; the remaining members of

the chain are NON-CENTRAL. We thus have the following classification of the total lexical tokens of a text.

1. Relevant tokens. All tokens that enter into identity or similarity chains; these divide into:
 - (a) Central tokens; those relevant tokens that interact;
 - (b) Non-central tokens; those relevant tokens that do not interact;
2. Peripheral tokens; all those tokens that do not interact into any kind of chain” (Halliday & Hasan, 1985, p. 93).

In this way Hasan is able to demonstrate why certain texts are more coherent than some others. A text is perceived to be more coherent if, on the one hand, it contains more central tokens and, on the other hand, it contains more cohesive chains which are in interaction with one another than a less coherent text.

Halliday and Hasan’s cohesion theory as a measure of textual coherence has been argued against from different angles one of which is related to schema theory – an approach to text processing. According to schema theory, text processing is an interactive process between the text and the listener’s or reader’s background knowledge. That is, it emphasizes the role of the text processors in text processing, what the text processor does with the text.

With reference to schema theory, Morgan and Seller (in Carrell, 1982) point out that coherence is not a matter of mere surface structure but of content which may consequently have linguistic items. To support their arguments, Morgan and Seller, refer to Halliday and Hasan’s example given on page 2. What makes, according to Halliday and Hasan, the two sentences to be interpreted as a coherent text rather than as two separate sentences is the cohesive force or relation lying in that ‘them’ in the second sentence points anaphorically to **six cooking apples** ‘in the preceding sentence. But for Morgan and seller, **them** is not an anaphoric reference to **six cooking apples** as a linguistic expression but as real-world objects outside the text, and the way we arrive at ‘them’ as referring to the apples not to anything else is related to our background knowledge of cooking rather than our linguistic knowledge. Thus, it is the former which makes the text to be treated as coherent.

Another important point to be added is the fact that the cohesive ties discussed above are neither necessary nor sufficient for the unity of discourse, i.e., coherence. One may find texts which do not contain any cohesive ties but are coherent, i.e., communicatively meaningful. The cohesive ties reinforce coherence, if any, but they cannot create it by themselves. Cook (1989) maintains that ‘their presence does not automatically make a passage coherent, and their absence does not automatically make it meaningless’ (p. 21) Consider the following texts cited by Cook (ibid: 23-24):

(i) It’s a mystery to me, how the conjuror sawed that woman in half.

-Well, Jane was the woman he did it to. So presumably she must be Japanese.

(ii) -Sorry, love. I saw you were home. There’s a cat stuck under the gate at number 67.

Here the first text is filled with cohesive ties, but it displays no coherence. Conversely, the second text uttered by a neighbor does not contain any cohesive ties, but it is interpreted as coherent, i.e., it communicates something. What gives coherence to the second text lies in the function it has to serve. It is functionally interpreted as a request for help in making the cat free and hence coherent.

“The idea of language function can go a long way towards solving this problem of what binds utterances together as discourse in the absence of formal links. If we can ascertain the function of utterances, we will be able to perceive a unity of different kind” (Cook, 1989: 28).

Thus, the concept of coherence is related to some factors outside the language such as the speech situation, the participants involved, what they know and what they are doing.

Viewing text as a communicative occurrence, de Beaugrande and Dressler (1981, p. 3) characterize it in terms of seven standards of textuality: cohesion, coherence, intentionality, acceptability, informativity, situationality, and intertextuality. These seven standards must be met if a text is to be communicative. As is seen, two of them are cohesion and coherence. Cohesion, according to de Beaugrande and Dressler is concerned with the ways in which the linguistic items of a text are linked within a sequence. Coherence “concerns the ways in which the components of the textual world,

i.e., the configuration of concepts and relations which underlie the surface text, are mutually accessible and relevant” (ibid: 4). ‘Concepts’ are configurations of background knowledge and ‘relations’ are the links between the concepts which appear together in a textual world. It follows that coherence goes beyond the text and considers the communicative interaction among the language users.

Widdowson (1976) also makes a distinction between cohesion and coherence and goes on to say that coherence does not depend on overt cohesive relations. For him, “Cohesion is the overt relationship between propositions expressed through sentence” (ibid: 28) ... and coherence is the ‘relationship between the illocutionary acts which propositions, not always overtly linked, are being used to perform’ (pp. 28-29). The following example (Widdowson, 1976, p. 27) would illustrate the point:

What are the police doing?

-I have just arrived.

Although this text has not any overt cohesive relations, it is a coherent instance of discourse. The way we recognize it as coherent is related to: first, a relation between the illocutionary acts which propositions in the text perform and second, the actions performed by the utterances are sequentially connected. The relations between the sentences of the above text can be shown diagrammatically as follows:

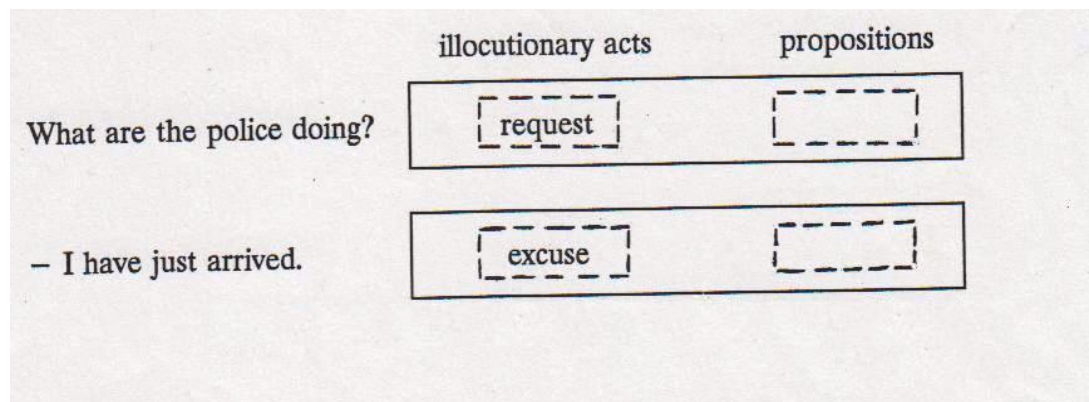


Figure 2.3. Relation between illocutionary acts and propositions

As the figure shows, there is no formal syntactic or semantic relation between the propositions expressed by the sentences, but the text is perceived as coherent. The

missing propositional link can be supplied in the following way (Widdowson, 1976: 28):

What are the police doing?

-(I don't know what the police are doing because) I have just arrived.

Brown and Yule (1983) also go beyond explicit cohesion to identify a text as 'text'. They cite texts which contain no cohesive ties, or few if any, but they are communicatively meaningful.

2.4. Textual Discourse Competence

Khorsand and Eskourdi (2005) defined textual discourse competence as referring to the students' ability in understanding and constructing monologues or written texts of different genres.

These discourse genres, according to the authors, possess different features, but there are some elements in each genre that help the coherent and other elements of the text which are used to make important points distinctive. One of the important factors in learning a language is learning how to relate these different kinds of discourse in such a way that the receivers of the message (hearers or readers) can understand what is going on and can see what is important. In the same vein, being able to relate information in a way that is coherent to the readers or hearers is also of significance. The role of textual competence in teaching and learning of the ESP is crucial. "Textual competence represents not only an ability to master the linguistic code, but also an ability to use textual, contextual and pragmatic knowledge to construct and interpret contextually appropriate texts." (Bhatia, 2014, p. 166). In a functional use of language, discourse markers are regarded as one of important functional elements that contribute to the coherence and cohesion of discourse, and exert an important role in expressive use of language. The use of discourse markers in constructing the text may perform different functions, as follows:

-Discourse markers contribute to or highlight cohesion and coherence relations.

-Discourse markers act as constraints on relevance to the intended meaning of the text.

-Markers guide the interpretation process of the reader towards a desired meaning

-They have an interactive or expressive function

-Discourse markers are used to express shared knowledge between reader and writer.

-Discourse markers are used in responses to signal the hearer's attention and involvement. (Matei, 2010, cited in Khorsand and Eskourdi, 2005)

2.5. Halliday and Hasan's Classification of Cohesive Devices

Cohesion, according to Halliday and Hasan (1976), is expressed through the lexico-grammatical system, partly through grammar and partly through the vocabulary. Halliday and Hasan (1976) discuss cohesion under five headings: **reference**, **substitution**, **ellipsis**, **conjunction** and **lexical cohesion**. Reference, substitution and ellipsis are grammatical in the sense that they involve closed systems, i.e., simple options of presence or absence, and systems such as those of person, number, proximity and degree of comparison. Lexical cohesion, as the term says, is lexical. It is open-ended involving the selection of a lexical item that is in some way related to the previously occurring one. Conjunction is on the borderline between the grammatical and the lexical, i.e., some conjunctive elements can be interpreted grammatically in terms of systems, but some others involve lexical cohesion as **moment in from that moment on**.

2.5.1. Reference

There are some items which cannot be interpreted semantically in their own right, but they require something else for their interpretation. These are called **reference**. In English, there are three types of reference: **personal**, **demonstrative**, and **comparative**. They serve as directives indicating that information is to be retrieved from elsewhere.

Personal

Personal reference is reference by means of function in the speech situation, through the category of PERSON. The term 'person' is used in the sense of 'role'.

Personal reference consists of the three categories of personal pronouns, possessive determiners and possessive pronouns:

(i) **Personal pronouns:** I, you, we, he, she, it, they; me, you, us, him, her, it, them, one

(ii) **Possessive determiners:** my, your, our, his, her, its, theirs, one's

(iii) **Possessive pronouns:** mine, yours, ours, his, hers, its, theirs

These personal reference items are used as the means of referring to relevant persons and objects pronominally in the speech situation and are either participant in some process or processor of some entity.

In the person system the main distinction is between **speech roles**, i.e., the roles of speaker and addressee and **other roles**, i.e., the roles other than the speaker and addressee. 'Speech roles' are first and second person forms which are essentially exophoric, i.e., they refer to the situation and therefore, they have no cohesive force. 'Other roles' are the third person forms which are essentially endophoric, i.e., they refer anaphorically or cataphorically to the text and hence cohesive.

In direct speech the first and second forms become endophoric, as in

(2:1) There was a brief note from Susan. She said, "**I** am coming home this weekend".

Where the reference item '**I**' refers anaphorically to **Susan** in the first sentence. Conversely, the third person forms, typically endophoric, may be used exophorically. For example, in

(2:2) Oh, **he's** already been? -Yes, he went by about five minutes ago the item **he** refers to some person in the context of situation.

The reference item '**it**' may refer to any identifiable portion of text, i.e., serving as an **extended reference** or **text reference**, as in

(2:3) [The Queen said] 'curtsey while you're thinking what to say. **It** saves time'. Alice wondered a little at this, but she was too much in awe of the Queen to disbelieve it. Here the word **it** in **It saves time** is an instance of extended reference since it refers to a clause or string of clauses rather than a single nominal. But **it** in ... **to disbelieve it**

is an instance of text reference, that is, it refers to **[that] curtsey [ing] while you're thinking what to say ... saves time.**

The reference item **one** has a generalized exophoric use. Similarly, the items **we**, **you**, **they** and **it** may have a generalized exophoric use, too. Their referent is treated as being present in all context of situation and thus, they are non-cohesive. Examples are:

(2:4) a. **You** never know.

b. **One** must accept certain principles.

In these examples the words **you** and **one** are in the generalized exophoric use and mean 'any human individual'. Unlike the personal pronouns and possessive determiners which require one referent for their interpretation, the possessive pronouns demand two referents, a possessor and a possessed, as in

(2:5) Can you hand Mary a programme? **Hers** has got lost.

Here the possessive pronoun **hers** presupposes **Mary** by reference and **programme** by ellipsis.

Demonstrative

Demonstrative reference is reference by means of location on a scale of 'proximity'. It is essentially a form of verbal pointing. The demonstratives in English are:

(i) *near: this, these, here, now*

(ii) *far: that, those, there, then*

(iii) *neutral: the*

Like the personals, the demonstratives are regularly used exophorically, i.e., referring to the context of situation. Examples are:

(2:6) a. Pick **these** up!

b. Leave that **there** and come **here**!

But they also occur endophorically, as in

(2:7) I like the lions, and I like the polar bears. These are my favorites.

-Those are my favorites, too.

This, these, that, those

The demonstratives **this, these, that, those** are extensively anaphoric and assume three distinctions: 1. 'near' (this, these) and 'not near' (that, those) 2. 'singular' (this, that) and 'plural' (these, those) and 3. 'modifier' (with a noun following) and 'head' (without noun). Each will be discussed very briefly.

The first distinction related to 'proximity' is that in speech the speaker tends to use **this** to refer to something he himself has mentioned and **that** to refer to something mentioned by his interlocutor. Examples are:

(2:8) a. There seems to have been a great deal of sheer carelessness.

This is what I can't understand.

b. There seems to have been a great deal of sheer carelessness.

-Yes, **that's** what I can't understand.

There is also another tendency which is related to 'time'. The demonstrative **that** is used with a past time referent and **this** with a present or future referent. The following examples illustrate the point:

(2:9) a. We went to the opera last night. **That** was our first outing for months.

b. We're going to the opera tonight. **This**'ll be our first outing for months.

The second distinction is that **this** and **that** refer to singular or mass nouns and **these** and **those** to count plural. The plural forms may refer anaphorically to sets that are plural in meaning. The singular forms, on the other hand, may refer to a whole list irrespective of whether or not it contains items that are themselves plural, as in

(2:10) I have ordered two turkeys, a leg of lamb, some cooked ham and tongue, and two pounds of minced beef.

Whatever are you going to do with all **that** food?--

The third one is the fact that the demonstratives function either as Modifier or as Head within the nominal group. When they function as Modifier, they may refer to any

class of noun. But in the case functioning as Head they are restricted in their reference to human nouns, where they occur only in equative clauses, e.g.,

(2:11) Do you want to know the woman who designed it? **That** was Mary Smith.

Here the demonstrative **that** has occurred in a clause where one element is supplying the identification of the other. When a demonstrative is used with a noun, the meaning is always identical with that of the presupposed item even if the noun following the demonstrative is not identical with the presupposed item; when it is used as Head, i.e., without a noun, the reference may still be identical but referring to a general class denoted by the noun, including but not limited to the particular member or members of the class being referred to in the presupposed item. They are exemplified, respectively, in

(2:12) a. There is a cat trying to get in, shall I open the window?

-Oh, **that animal** is always coming here cadging.

b. There's been another big industrial merger. It seems that nothing can be done about **this**.

In (a), although **animal** is used, the reference is still to the original **cat**; in (b), where the demonstrative **this** in the second sentence is used alone, the meaning is not 'this particular merger' but 'mergers in general'. Like the personal pronoun it discussed in the previous section, the demonstratives **this** and **that** in their singular forms as head can also occur as both extended reference and text reference (see 2.2.1.1 above). The most frequently occurring context is an equative clause. An example of extended reference is:

(2:13) No one will take it seriously. **This** is the frightening thing.

The element **that** is always anaphoric, whereas **this** may be either anaphoric or cataphoric.

The

The definite article **the** has no content. It always occurs as Modifier and indicates that the item is identifiable from somewhere, either in the situation or in the text. If the information is in the text, it is either anaphoric or cataphoric.

The cataphoric use of **the** occurs within the structural framework and hence non-cohesive. There is only one instance in which the anaphoric reference of **the** is cohesive and it is where the item is actually repeated or either a synonym or some kind of it is used, as **hall** in

(2:14) She found herself in a long, low hall which was lit up by a row of lamps hanging from the roof. There were doors round **the** hall, but they were all locked.

Like **it**, **this** and **that**, the definite article **the** with **the** noun following it may be used to refer to an identifiable portion of text and hence extended reference or text reference. Consider **the prospect** in

(2:15) *'A nice mess we're all in. Pictures in the papers and reporters coming round.' She paused ,obviously visualizing the future in a series of crude, highly colored - pictures. He thought that **the** prospect was still not wholly unpleasing.*

Here, there, now, then

The demonstratives **there**, **now** and **then** are restricted in their cohesive function and should be distinguished from their homographs- other words having the same written form but different functions, e.g., in **there's a man at the door** the item **there** is a pronoun rather than a demonstrative.

The words **here** and **there** are locative, i.e., they refer to the location a process in space. They closely parallel **this** and **that**, respectively, as in

(2:16) *'Do you play croquet with the Queen today?*

- 'I should like it very much,' said Alice, 'but I haven't been invited.'

*'You'll see me **there**,' said the Cat, and vanished.*

Here the item **there** refers to **playing croquet with the Queen**.

The items **here** and **there** also refer to extended text in which case they mean 'respect': 'in this respect'. This is exemplified in

(2:17) *'Of course it would be all the better,' said Alice: 'but it wouldn't be all the better his being punished.'*

*'You're wrong **there**, at any rate,' said the Queen.*

In such contexts, **there** may be cataphoric. The demonstratives **this**, **these** and **here** are the only items in English used cataphorically.

The demonstratives **then** and **now** are temporal, i.e., they refer to the location of a process in time. The only cohesive use of **then** is where it refers anaphorically to time and means ‘at the time just referred to’ and that of **now** is a case in which it means ‘this state of affairs having come about’. Examples are:

(2:18) a. In my young days we took these things more seriously. We had different ideas **then**.

b. The plane touched down at last. **Now** we could breathe freely again.

There are many expressions such as **in that case**, **that being so**, **after that**, **at this moment**, **under these circumstances** which contain a demonstrative. They typically occur at the beginning of a clause and function as ‘discourse adjuncts’ and thus, they fall within the category of conjunction.

Comparative

Comparative reference is indirect reference by means of IDENTITY or SIMILARITY. It is divided into general comparative reference and particular comparative reference. What has been said about personal and demonstrative reference applies to comparative reference as well. That is, comparative reference can be exophoric or endophoric. Being endophoric, it is either anaphoric or cataphoric. It may be structural (non-cohesive) or non-structural (cohesive). Examples are:

(2:19) a. It’s **the same** cat as the one we saw yesterday.

b. Would you prefer **the other** seats?

Here the comparative reference item **same** in (a) points to **the one we saw yesterday**, and it is structural, i.e., non-cohesive and **other** in (b) is exophoric.

General comparative reference

General comparison is comparison between things irrespective of any particular property. Two things may take the form of ‘identity’, ‘similarity’ or ‘difference’. The general comparative reference items in English are expressed by a certain class of adjectives and adverbs:

- (i) identity: **same, equal, identical, identically**
- (ii) similarity: **such, similar, so, similarly, likewise**
- (iii) difference: **other, different, else, differently, otherwise**

The adjectives occur within the nominal group and function either as Deictic, e.g., **identical in the identical two cards** or as Epithet, e.g., **identical in two identical cards**. The adverbs function as Adjunct, e.g., **identically in the others performed identically**. The cataphoric reference of general comparison is very rare, but it does occur, as in

(2:20) The blow would have knocked anyone **else** cold. The champ just leaned to one side, then straightened again.

Here the item **else** refers cataphorically to **the champ**.

General comparative reference may be extended reference, as in

(2:21) ‘Everybody says “come in!” here,’ thought Alice, as she went slowly after the Gryphon: ‘I never was **so** ordered in all my life, never!’.

Or it may text reference, when an expression such as **the same questions arise** ... refers back to the whole of some previous discussion.

Particular comparative reference

Quantity or quality. Like general comparison, particular comparison is also referential. The particular reference items in English are:

- (i) numerative: more, fewer, less, further, additional; so-as-equally+qualifier, e.g., **so many**.
- (ii) epithet: comparative adjectives and adverbs, e.g. **better; so-as-more-less-equally**-+comparative adjectives and adverbs, e.g. **equally** good. The items in (i) are used to express comparison in terms of **quantity** and those in (ii) are used to express comparison in terms of **quality**. They are exemplified, respectively, in

(2:22) a. Apparently Brown resigned, when his proposal was rejected.

-I wish he could have acted less precipitately.

b. ‘When \$8,000 is a minor matter, it must be really large-scale crime that is in question?’ ‘**Bigger** rackets go on.’

Here the particular reference items are **less precipitately** and **bigger** which refer anaphorically to **resigned** and **\$8,000**, respectively. In general, comparison is text-oriented. In other words, the specific nature of comparison, that of likeness or comparability between things, makes it more anaphoric rather than exophoric.

2.5.2. Substitution

Substitution is defined as a sort of counter which is used in place of the repetition of a particular item. It is a relation on the lexico- grammatical level, i.e., the level of grammar and vocabulary, or linguistic ‘form’. Thus, the different types of substitution are defined on the basis of the grammatical function of the substitute item.

Substitution is essentially endophoric and anaphoric. In other words, it mainly occurs within the text. In English there are three types of substitution: **nominal**, **verbal** and **clausal**.

Nominal substitution

The nominal substitutes in English are **one/ones** and **same**. The substitute **ones** is the plural form of **one**.

One/ones : The substitute **one/ones** functions as Head of a nominal group and therefore, it substitutes only for Head of a nominal group, as in

(2:23) Have you got a red pen? -I’ve got a blue **one**.

In this example the one substitutes for **pen** in the preceding sentence and both are Head in the nominal group.

The substitute may differ from the presupposed item in number. For example, in:

(2:24) Cherry ripe, cherry ripe, ripe I cry.

Full and fair **ones** - come and buy.

The presupposed item **cherry** is singular, whereas the substitute **ones** is plural. It should be noted that the noun that is presupposed is always a count noun; there is no substitute form for mass nouns:

(2:25) This bread's stale. –Get some fresh.

Here the only possible form is ellipsis. The substitute **one** should not be confused with the various other words **one**: the personal pronoun, cardinal numeral, determiner and the pro-noun **one**. They are exemplified, respectively, in (2:26)

- a. **One** never knows what might happen.
- b. Can I have those peaches? -You can have **one**.
- c. Are there lions in those hills? -Yes, we saw **one** on the way over.
- d. The **ones** she really loves are her grandparents.

Same

As a nominal substitute, **same** is typically accompanied by **the**. Unlike **one**, **the same** presupposes an entire nominal group including any modifying elements, except those explicitly repudiated, for example:

(2:27) I'll have two poached eggs on toast, please.

-I'll have **the same**.

The modifying element occurring with **the same**, if any, is in the form of a Qualifier introduced by **but** and often with the word **with** in the case of adding a modification or **without** in the case of repudiating a modification, as in **the same but fried, the same (but) without the toast**. The presupposed item is not a human or a proper name, but it can be an **attribute**, i.e., an adjective as Head of a nominal group in a clause of ascription, as in

(2:28) John sounded rather regretful.

-Yes, Mary sounded **the same**. **Say the same**

Verbal substitution

The verbal substitute in English is **do** which almost always occurs anaphorically. It functions as Head of a verbal group, in the place that is occupied by the lexical verb and is always in the final position in the verbal group, as in

(2:29) Has anybody fed the cat? -Somebody must have **done**.

The verbal substitute **do** may substitute for a verb plus certain other elements, i.e., any complements and adjuncts, if present. Any of these elements and adjuncts may be repudiated. Examples are:

(2:30) a. He never really succeeded in his ambitions. He might have **done**, one felt, had it not been for the restlessness of his nature.

b. Does Granny look after you every day?

-She can't **do** at weekends, because she has to go to her own house.

In (a) **done** substitutes for **succeeded in his ambitions**; in (b) **do** substitutes for **look after me** but every day is repudiated by **at weekends**.

Clausal substitution

The substitutes in English are **so** and **not** which presuppose an entire clause. In this type of substitution, i.e., clausal, the contrastive element which provides the context for the substitution is outside the clausal. For example, in

(2:31) Is there going to be an earthquake? -It says **so**.

The **so** presupposes the entire clause **there's going to be an earthquake**, and the contrastive environment is provided by the **says** which is outside it.

There are three contexts for clausal substitution: report, condition and modality. In each of these contexts, it may be positive by **so** or negative by **not**.

2.5.3. Ellipsis

Ellipsis is simply defined as 'substitution by zero'. As with substitution, ellipsis is a relation at the lexico-grammatical level, and is normally a textual relation and anaphoric. K8An elliptical item leaves specific structural slots on the basis of which the speaker supplies the missing information.

There are three types of ellipsis in English: nominal, verbal and clausal. They are briefly discussed below.

Nominal ellipsis

Nominal ellipsis is ellipsis within the nominal group. It is defined as involving the upgrading of a word functioning as a modifier to the status of Head. Or simply, in an

elliptical nominal group the Head which is a common noun is omitted and one of the modifying elements functions as Head, as in

(2:32) Which last longer, the curved or the straight rods?

-The **straight** are less likely to break.

Here **straight** is an Epithet, functioning as Modifier in the question but as Head in the response.

Verbal ellipsis

Verbal ellipsis is ellipsis within the verbal group. An elliptical verbal group is technically defined as a verbal group whose structure does not fully express its systemic features- all the choices that are being made within the verbal group systems. They have to be recovered by presupposition. In the verbal group there is only one lexical element which is the verb itself. The remainder of the verbal group expresses systemic elections, choices of an either-or type which must be made whenever a verbal group is used. The principal systems are:

(1) **Finiteness**: finite or non-finite

If finite: indicative or imperative

If indicative: modal or non-modal

(2) **Polarity**: positive or negative, and marked or unmarked

(3) **Voice**: active or passive

(4) **Tense**: past or present or future (recursively)

These selections are obligatory for all verbal groups. They are expressed as a whole by the words that are used and by their arrangement in a particular structure.

There are two types of verbal ellipsis: **lexical ellipsis** and **operator ellipsis**.

Lexical ellipsis

Lexical ellipsis involves the omission of the lexical verb from the verbal group. Other words except the initial one may also be omitted. The initial word may be a finite operator such as **can, could, will, would**, etc. and **to** or an **-ing form** if non-finite. In other words, lexical ellipsis is ellipsis 'from the right': it always involves the omission

of the last word, i.e., the lexical word, and may extend ‘left word’, to leave only the first word unomitted. Examples are:

(2:33) a. Have you been swimming? -Yes, I have.

b. I’d better see him. I don’t really want to.

In (a) the elliptical form has the features **positive, finite, active** and **present in past in present**. But none of these selections is expressed in its structure, and they have to be recovered by presupposition. Thus, its none-elliptical form is ‘have been swimming’. The elliptical verbal group in (b) consists of only the word **to** which is a marker of the infinitive whose none-elliptical form is **to see**.

Operator ellipsis

Operator ellipsis involves only the omission of operators: the lexical verb always remains intact. In operator ellipsis, the subject also is always omitted from the clause and therefore, it must be presupposed. For example:

(2:34) What have you been doing? -Swimming.

As is seen, operator ellipsis is ellipsis ‘from the left’.

Operator ellipsis mainly occurs in question-answer sequences, where the lexical verb either supplies the answer to ‘do what’, as in (2:34) above, or repudiates the verb in the question, as in

(2:35) Has she been crying? -No, laughing.

Clausal ellipsis

Both types of verbal ellipsis, operator and lexical, dealt with in the previous sections also involve the omission of other elements besides the verbal ones in the clause. Therefore, these two types of ellipsis can be looked at from the clause structure.

The clause in English has two parts: modal element and propositional element. Modal element consists of the subject plus the finite element in the verbal group; propositional element consists of the remainder of the verbal group and any complements or adjuncts, if present. For example:

(2:36) The Duke was / going to plant a row of poplars in the park.

Modal element Propositional element Thus, clausal ellipsis, modal and propositional, and verbal ellipsis, operator and lexical, go together, as in

(2:37) a. What are they doing? -Holding hands. (modal ellipsis; operator ellipsis)

b. Has the plane landed? -Yes, it has. (propositional ellipsis, lexical ellipsis)

However, in some cases clausal ellipsis, modal and propositional, may not be accompanied by verbal ellipsis, operator and modal. Modal ellipsis does not involve operator ellipsis when the verb is in simple or present tense. For example:

(2:38) What did he do?

-Ran away. (did + run away, finite fused with predicator)

The preferred form is often that with pronoun subject: **he ran away.**

No ellipsis of single elements

It is not possible to omit single elements from the structure of the clause. In other words, there is no type of clausal ellipsis which takes the form of the omission of single elements of clause structure. If a single element-complement- is to be omitted, the predicator must be omitted as well, as in

(2:39) Has she taken her medicine? -Yes, she has.

Ellipsis in question-answer and other rejoinder sequences

A **rejoinder** is any utterance which immediately follows an utterance by a different speaker and is cohesively related to it. A rejoinder following a question is called a **response** which is either **direct** or **indirect** .

Direct responses (1): yes/no questions

A direct response is one which answers the questions; it is either a form of 'yes' or 'no', if the question is of **yes/no type**, or a specification of the information asked for by the WH-element, if the question is of WH-type. The words yes/no can occur on their own as answers to 'yes/no' questions' in which case the whole remainder of the clause is presupposed. They can also be accompanied by just a part of the clause-the modal. For example:

(2:40) Are you coming? -Yes. or -Yes, I am.

In such contexts the words **yes/no** can be left out since the modal element carries the feature of polarity.

Both **yes** and **no** occur more often as rejoinders, some meaning ‘either yes or no’, e.g.: **maybe, perhaps** which are often combined with some modality e.g.: **probably, possibly**, and some meaning ‘both yes and no’ e.g.: **sometimes, usually**. All these can occur as answers to yes/no questions presupposing all the remaining features of the clause other than the polarity.

Direct responses (2): WH-questions

A WH-question requires the specification of a missing item with a particular function. The answer supplies the appropriate nominal, adverbial or propositional group to act as subject or complement or adjunct, and as an actor or goal or beneficiary or temporal or locative or whatever function is required. Examples are:

- (2:40) a. What did I hit? -A root. (complement)
 b. Till what time are you staying? -Half past three. (adjunct; temporal)

In giving a direct response, the speaker may supply only the information asked for and leaves the rest to be presupposed by ellipsis as in (2:40 a & b above). If the WH-item is **subject**, the answer may have propositional ellipsis.

Since there is no WH-verb in English, the ‘pro-verb’ **do** is used in the combination **do what?** It presupposes the whole propositional element in the clause other than the elements made explicit. Such elements even functioning as goal are accompanied with a preposition, usually **to** or **with**, as in

- (2:41) a. What are you doing? -Feeding the ducks in the parks.
 b. What have the children done to the wheelbarrow? -Broken it.

Indirect responses

An indirect response may be a **commentary**, a **disclaimer** or **supplementary**. A **commentary** is a statement about the speaker’s attitude to the answer, e.g., his ignorance of it or his consent or refusal to give it. It is, in fact, a report and has the

potentiality of ‘reporting-reported sequences. Any question can be followed by a commentary. Examples:

(2:42) a. Is it Tuesday today? -I don’t know.

b. Why are the lights turned off? -I’m not supposed to say why.

Similarly, any question may be followed by a **disclaimer**. A disclaimer avoiding the question by disputing its relevance typically involves moving from a ‘yes/no’ to a ‘WH-context, or vice versa. A disclaimer is normally either a declarative having propositional ellipsis or interrogative having response-question ellipsis. Here are some examples:

(2:43) a. When did they cancel the booking? -Did they?

b. What’s your telephone number? -We’re not on the phone.

c. Have you tested the battery? -How?

Finally, a **supplementary** response is one which does not give the information asked for but answers the question by implication. Characteristically, supplementary responses presuppose the entire clause and are typically associated with yes/no questions, as in,

(2:44) a. Are you coming back today? -This evening.

b. Can you make it stand up? -If you keep still.

2.5.4. Conjunction

Conjunctive cohesion is the only type of cohesion that consistently links the meanings of sentences or other textual units as wholes, expressing the way in which what is to follow is systematically connected to what has gone before (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). “Conjunctive elements are not cohesive in themselves but indirectly, by virtue of their specific meanings ... they express certain meanings which presuppose the presence of other components in the discourse” (Halliday & Hasan, 1976:226). To put it simply, conjunction is the type of cohesion that is obtained through the use of coordinating conjunctions, subordinators, adverbials and certain prepositional phrases to connect sentences. Conjunction links two ideas together semantically, where the interpretation of the second idea requires the understanding of the first one. These ideas

may be expressed in clauses, sentences or even paragraphs. Conjunctive relations are usually expressed through the use of conjunctive elements, which may be a coordinating conjunction such as **and, but or**, a sentence adverb like **furthermore, however, thus**, or a prepositional phrase such as **besides that, in addition to that** etc.

Except conjunction, all the other categories of Halliday and Hasan's classification scheme consist of items which are usually **anaphoric**. That is, while pronominals, substitution items, and lexical items do not express a semantic relation between two sentences, conjunctions contribute to cohesion by explicitly expressing some semantic relation between two propositions. Anaphoric relations involve linking one sentence to another with reference to some concept mentioned in another, usually preceding, sentence for their interpretation.

Halliday and Hasan (1976) distinguish two levels of conjunctive relations: external and internal. "External relation" is the relation that is "inherent in the phenomena that language is used to talk about" (p. 241). In other words, it is the ideational relation of the theme between two successive clauses or sentences. This relation involves the use of certain cohesive ties. "Internal relation", on the other hand, is the relation that is "inherent in the communication process" (p. 241). This relation occurs within the interpersonal component of language. It is the speaker's own identity on the situation-his or her choice of speech role and rhetorical channel, attitudes, judgment and the like" (p. 240). Consider the following examples:

- (2:45) a. She was never really happy here. So she's leaving.
 b. She'll be better off in a new place. –So she's leaving?

In (a) in Halliday and Hasan's view (1976, p. 267), these two levels of relation are related, as the internal relation extends from the external one, ... these internal relations may be regarded as an extension of the underlying patterns of conjunction into the communication situation itself, treating it, and thereby also the text-the linguistic component of the communication process, as having by analogy the same structure as 'reality': that is, as the phenomena that constitute the content, or **THESIS**, of the text.

Conjunctive elements establish textual relations by virtue of the fact that they presuppose the existence of other elements in the discourse (226):

Additive

Additive connectives are those which add the following sentence to the previous one(s). Some of them are as follows: and, but, or, also, moreover, furthermore, in addition, again, similarly, etc.

Adversative

The meaning of the **adversative** relation is ‘contrary to expectation’ (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). The expectation may be taken from the content of what being said or from the communication process so that we can find cohesion on both the external and the internal levels.

An external adversative relation is expressed by the word **yet** which comes at the beginning of the sentence, as in

(2: 46) All the figures were correct; they’d been checked. Yet the total came out wrong.

Very similar to the word **yet** are the words **but**, **however**, and **though** etc.

Causal

The causal relation is simply expressed by **so**, **thus**, **hence**, **therefore**, **consequently**, **accordingly**, and a number of expressions like **as a result (of that)**, **in consequence (of that)**, **because of that**. These items usually come with initial **and**. The word **so** comes only initially, unless following **and**; **thus** occurs initially or at least in the first part of the clause;

(2:47) ... she felt that there was no time to be lost, as she was shrinking rapidly; **so** she got to work at once to eat some of the other bit.

Temporal

The temporal relation refers to the fact that the relation between the theses of two sentences may be one of sequence in time: the one is subsequent to the other. This relation is simply expressed by **then**:

(2: 48) (Alice) began by taking the little golden key, and unlocking the door that led into the garden. Then she set to work nibbling at the mushroom ... till she was about a

foot high: then she walked down the little passage: and **then**-she found herself at last in the beautiful garden.

In this sequential sense we have not only **then** and **and then** but also **next**, **afterwards**, **after that**, **subsequently** and a number of other expressions.

2.6. Lexical Cohesion

Halliday and Hasan (1976) assert that lexical cohesion is achieved through the structure of lexis or vocabulary. Halliday and Hasan (ibid) divide lexical cohesion into reiteration and collocation. Halliday (1994) describes repetition as the most direct form of lexical cohesion. Repetition can create cohesion through the application of co-referentiality or by the mere occurrence of repetition (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). Also, lexical cohesion involves using the characteristics and features of words as well as the group relationship among them to achieve cohesion. We have words used repeatedly, k8words used as umbrella terms under which some other words co-exist.

Reiteration

Reiteration simply means repetition of a lexical item, or occurrence of synonyms of some kind in the context of reference. In other words, it implies saying or doing something several times. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976:278), “Reiteration is a form of lexical cohesion which involves the repetition of a lexical item, at one end of the scale; the use of a general word to refer back to a lexical item, at the other end of the scale; and a number of things in between-the use of a synonym, or superordinate”. As a lexical device for achieving cohesion, reiteration manifests in four ways: Repetition, Superordinate/Hyponym, Synonym or near Synonym, and general word, as in

(2:45) There’s a boy climbing that tree.

- a. The boy’s going to fall if he doesn’t take care.
- b. The lad’s going to fall if he doesn’t take care.
- c. The child’s going to fall if he doesn’t take care.
- d. The idiot’s going to fall if he doesn’t take care.

In (a), **boy** is repeated. In (b), the reiteration takes the form of a synonym **lad**; in (c), of the superordinate term **child**; and in (d), of a general word **idiot**.

All these instances imply the fact that one lexical item refers back to another, to which it is related by having a common referent. In most cases a reiterated item is accompanied by a reference item, typically **the**.

Collocation

Collocation “is achieved through the association of lexical items that regularly co-occur” (Halliday and Hasan, 1976; p. 284). Collocation occurs when there is clearly a systematic relationship between a pair of words such as man and woman. Although man and woman are not synonyms, there is a particular type of oppositeness between them (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). Therefore, we can state that cohesion occurs between any type of lexical items that stand to each other in some identifiable lexicosemantic relation (ibid). “In this category, pairs of synonyms, superordinates, complementaries, antonyms and converses are included. For example: praise...compliment (synonyms), shepherd...dog or television... furniture (superordinates), man...woman or step forward...step back (complementaries), admire...despise or bright...dark (antonyms), and beg...agree (converse). Words belonging to the same topic can also be counted in this category. For example, if June occurs in one sentence and July in another, the effect will be cohesive. The other examples of this kind are penny...pound, east...west, ceiling...floor, analog...digital” (Yunhong, 2011, p. 14).

Collocation is the most difficult type of cohesion to analyze because the words supposed to collocate involve neither repetition, synonymy, super-ordinate, nor general words. What is of great importance is that the words to be collocated “ share the same lexical environment” (p. 268). To put it simply, super-ordinate is a name of a specific class of objects. See the following piece of text from Witte and Faigley (1981, p. 193) in which “camping trip” is a super-ordinate for the bold-type words:

1. On a camping trip with their parents, teenagers willingly do the household chores that they resist at home. They gather **wood for a fire**, help put up a **tent**, and **carry water from a creek or lake**.

2.7. Cohesion and Coherence in ESL Writing

Researchers have recently given eye-catching attention to how EFL/ESL learners write and what sorts of problems they might face in writing texts. Cohesion as

an important construct is one of the widely studied sub-fields of second language writing. A great many of studies about cohesion and coherence in ESL/EFL writing and even in English itself (Jafarpur, 1991, Johns, 1980, Johnson, 1992; Zhang, 2000; cited in Johnson, 1992) have been done through applying Halliday and Hasan's (1976) framework. Although a number of researchers arrived at similar findings, others reached somewhat contradictory results. Some researchers found that there is no difference in the use of cohesive devices in good and weak writings (Johnson, 1992; Zhang, 2000). Others demonstrated that highly rated essays were different from low rated ones in the use of cohesive devices (Jafarpur, 1991). The findings of some researchers indicated that compositions which were scored high contained more cohesion than low scored ones (Jafarpur, 1991). Furthermore, it is commonly believed that highly scored essays include more lexical collocations than do low scored ones (Johns, 1980; Zhang, 2000). They also believed that lexical cohesion was the most commonly used category in both good and weak essays, succeeded by conjunction and reference (Johns, 1980; Zhang, 2000).

In the writings of ESL/EFL learners, some peculiar features were also identified (Olateju, 2006; Khalil, 1989; Wikborg, 1990; Dueraman, 2007). Olateju (2006) stated that some of the cohesive devices were used wrongly or insufficiently and this could be associated with the insufficient direct exposure to the English. Irwin (1982) showed how mature readers use cohesion in text and showed that the increase in the number of cohesive devices could improve readers' comprehension. These studies were clearly indicative of the fact that cohesion was a significant underlying feature of any type of writing and that L1 and L2 learners of English had considerable difficulty in applying cohesive devices.

Coherence, one of the decisive features in judging the quality of writing, has been considered to be a subjective, indistinctive and vague concept which is difficult to learn and teach (Crewe, 1990; Lee, 2002). Despite and because of the intertwinement of cohesion and coherence, they are not easily distinguished and defined as separate entities. Lee (2002) also believed that the concept of coherence was not definite so that writing teachers had difficulties in teaching and assessing students writing. Meanwhile, a number of researchers had defined coherence from different perspectives. However, as Grabe and Kaplan (1996, p. 67) stated, "there is little consensus on the matter of an

overall definition of coherence”. Castro (2004) defined coherence as the link in a text that connected ideas and made the flow of thoughts meaningful and clear for readers. So, it accounts for the meaningful and logical relationship among elements in a text, which stems from “thematic development, organization of information, or communicative purpose of the particular discourse” (Kuo, 1995, p.48). In Halliday and Hasan’s definition in their book *Cohesion in English* (1976, p.23), coherence refers to the internal elements of a text, consisting of cohesion and register. Halliday and Hasan further added that “A text is a passage of discourse which is coherent in these two regards: it is coherent with respect to the context of situation, and therefore consistent in register; and it is coherent with respect to itself, and therefore cohesive” (p. 23).

Based on Halliday and Hasan (1976), cohesion gives a sequence of sentences a coherent texture. Cohesion occurs where the interpretation of some elements in the discourse is dependent on that of another (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). Halliday and Hasan (1976, p. vii) pointed out that cohesion is one of the linguistic system's major resources for text construction. In fact, cohesion represents the presence of explicit cues in the text that allow readers/listeners to find semantic relations within it as part of linguistic system enhancing the semantic potentials of text. A text is meaningful only when elements referring to each other in the text set up a relation. The relation can be set up through reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction as grammatical and lexical cohesion. So, the grammar and lexicon are two forms of cohesion. These cohesive devices that are used by speakers and writers in expressing meaning provide semantic relations for the semantic units the interpretations of which they facilitate. Cohesion shows how meaning-based relationship is fixed by lexical and syntactic features. These explicit lexical and syntactic features are known as cohesive devices, which signal the relationships in sentences and paragraphs.

Writing plays an important role in our personal and professional lives. It is defined as an act of communication, a useful means of addressing an audience (Vahid Dastjerdi & Hayati Samian, 2011). It is one of the most authentic and interactive ways of getting ideas and thoughts across to people. Halliday (1989) considers writing as a negotiative and explanatory act which requires great judgment. The ability to express ideas in a second or foreign language coherently and accurately is a major achievement that even many native speakers of English may never truly master it (Celce-Murcia,

2001 cited in Vahid Dastjerdi & Hayatik Samian, 2011). “Learning to write efficiently a text is a long process that requires much practice and sometimes explicit and formal instruction” (Vahid Dastjerdi & Hayati Samian, 2011, p. 65).

Cohesion and coherence, two important textual elements (Halliday & Hasan, 1976; Halliday, 2000), have long been considered as important features of “good” writing. According to Halliday and Hasan, cohesion is described as one of the linguistic system’s major resources for text construction (p. vii). When learners present their ideas in writing tasks, they need to make certain that a text flows through sentences. Sentences need to be connected to each other; thus, unrelated sentences will be difficult or impossible for the reader to understand the sequence. To increase the connectedness of sentences in a text, writers may use “cohesion” to join ideas between sentences to create texture (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). In fact, cohesion refers to the presence or absence of explicit cues in the text that allow the reader to find relations of meaning within it. It is part of the system of language which has the potentials for meaning enhancement in texts. Coherence refers to the elements internal to the text, consisting of cohesion and register. “A text is a passage of discourse which is coherent in these two regards: it is coherent with respect to the context of situation, and therefore consistent in register; and it is coherent to itself, and therefore cohesive” (p. 23).

“The construct of *cohesion* shows one very specific aspect of a text; thus, a text may contain many cohesive features but still not be considered effective. There is much beyond semantic ties between sentences that needs to construct a meaningful and effective text: genre, text organization and information structure, propositional content, and meta-discourse features, along with lexico-grammatical competence” (Shea, 2011, p.6). The term *coherence* is usually used to refer to the combination of all these elements and their interaction with a reader’s understanding to form a unified whole (ibid).

In presenting thoughts and ideas, learners’ writing must show some form of cohesion and coherence (Dastjerdy & Samian, 2011). At the discourse level, cohesion analysis provides a useful measure of the effectiveness and quality of writing (ibid).

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), a paragraph is a semantic unit, rather than a grammatical structure, and the various sections of a paragraph are linked together by cohesive ties. These ties are regarded as linguistic features that offer texture to a text:

A text has texture, and this is what makes it different from something that is not a text "... if a passage of English containing more than one sentence is perceived as a text, there will be certain linguistic features present in that passage which can be identified as contributing to its total unity and giving it texture" (ibid. p. 2).

It was not until after the 1960's that research on cohesion and coherence began to receive greater attention from many scholars and linguists. Many writers of ESL/EFL writing textbooks are aware that cohesion is an essential element of effective, well-organized writing, thereby including some information about cohesion in their textbooks. They usually define and discuss cohesion, as well as coherence, to help learners write more cohesively and coherently. They also provide some exercises so that learners can improve their use of cohesion.

The introduction of Halliday and Hasan's work *Cohesion in English* (1976) made the study of cohesion and coherence more interesting to linguists and researchers. This particular work was the first to present a systematic study of cohesion from a textual perspective. The concept of cohesion was defined by Halliday and Hasan as being "a semantic one" with cohesion occurring "where the interpretation of some element in the discourse is dependent on that of another" (4). Thus, cohesive ties constitute texture, which distinguishes a text from a non-text. With texture, a text forms a unified whole, whereas a discourse without texture is not considered as a text simply because it does not form a unified whole.

In Halliday and Hasan's (1976) view, meanings can be held together in the connected sentences in various ways, and the structure of meaning created by the writer is called "cohesion". According to them, cohesion is an indicator for a unified text and not a combination of unrelated sentences. It is important, though, to note that cohesion does not concern content. Halliday and Hasan (1976) assert that "cohesion does not concern what a text means; it concerns how the text is constructed as a semantic edifice" (p. 26). In other words, cohesion usually plays a crucial role in connecting ideas in a paragraph but does not contribute to the global flow of a text across paragraphs. In

their study, Halliday and Hasan present a taxonomy of various cohesive ties such as reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction and lexical cohesion (See 2.3. for details regarding cohesive ties as classified by Halliday and Hasan, 1976).

Some other studies have also been carried out on “cohesion” and “coherence”. They possess distinctive features. While cohesion is concerned with the inter-sentential semantic relations, coherence deals with the overall connectedness of the ideas in a text rather than only semantic relations between sentences. Cohesion is primarily related to the degree to which a sentence is linked to the next one; on the other hand, coherence makes connections of the entire concept of a text. In order to achieve coherence in writing, the writer needs to master adequate skills in making each paragraph cohesive. Several studies show that L2 writing is generally shorter, less cohesive, less fluent, and contains more errors than L1 writing (Hyland: 2003 cited in Tangkiengsirisin, 2010).

2.7.1. Second Language Writing Research

Research in second language writing has a complex history. The discipline of second language writing studies is situated somewhere “between concerns of compositionists and applied linguists” (Kroll, 2003, p. 12). This situation is taken by ESL writing because it considers students novice writers and second language learners, as well. There was little published research on L2 writing until a few decades ago; however, the researching and teaching of L2 writing became steadily more prevalent later, and ever more researchers from English language teaching, applied linguistics, communication, composition studies, and education identified themselves as L2 writing specialists.

Atkinson (2000) observed that the ESL writing field was based primarily in North America. He believed that this was evidenced by the entities through which L2 writing has established itself as a discipline. In 1998, Conference on College Composition and Communication (CCCC) formed the Committee on Second Language Writing intending to integrate the second language perspective into institutional practices of CCCC. The Symposium on Second Language Writing (SSLW) also began in 1998 as a biennial conference to bring together teachers and researchers whose main concern was second- and foreign-language writers to discuss important issues in the field of L2 writing. Later in 2006, SSLW became an annual international conference

due to overwhelming popularity and success. Even the members of TESOL voted to begin a new interest section devoted solely to issues in L2 writing in 2005, and more and more TESOL graduate programs started to offer required or elective L2 writing courses. This is not to say that L2 writing research is conducted only in North American contexts; rather, L2 writing research is now an international issue.

L2 writing has succeeded in establishing itself as a discipline, with exponential growth in the past 35 years (Polio, 2003; see also Matsuda, et al., 2003). This may be because “the range of settings and contexts where L2 writing is taught and learned is enormous, as are the types of learners who set out to attain language proficiency and skills requisite to produce quality L2 writing.” (Hinkel, 2011, p. 535). The lack of a comprehensive theory of L2 writing may be due to the variant influence on L2 writing from other key disciplines, such as rhetoric and composition, applied linguistics, and TESOL (Raimes, 1991; Grabe & Kaplan, 1996; Matsuda, 1998, 1999, 2003; Leki, 2000; cited in Ferris & Hedgecock, 2005, p. 3). Hinkel (2011) postulated the minimal effect of rhetoric on the investigations of L2 writing. This being the case, most scholars were of the opinion that any discussion of L2 writing research had to begin with a discussion of contributions from L1 writing theory (Hamp-Lyons & Kroll, 1997; Kroll, 2003; Matsuda, 2003; Silva & Leki, 2004; Ferris & Hedgecock, 2005; di Gennaro, 2006). Not only this, but the idea of distinguishing between novice and expert writers, the role of schema in accessing and creating written text, the illustration of cognitive processes involved in producing a piece of writing, and the examination of similarities and differences between L1 and L2 writing (Johns, 1995; Ferris & Hedgecock, 2005; di Gennaro, 2006) had to be taken into account (Bennett, 2011). Though not explicitly focusing on differences between novice and expert writers, the research reported here does examine expert writing in order to influence novice writing instruction, thereby creating the argument that this study is influenced by L1 writing theory.

2.7.2. Further trends in L2 writing methodology

Other trends in L2 writing methodology have also developed. As stated by Bennett (2011), the first of these maintained a focus on form and production, engaging writers in controlled compositions to practice lexical and grammatical forms (Silva, 1990; Matsuda, 1999; Kroll, 2001; Ferris & Hedgecock, 2005). A second trend in the

methodology of L2 writing maintains a focus on the writer engaged in the composition process, encouraging readers to focus on fluency and ideas (Raimes, 1991; Ferris & Hedgecock, 2005; di Gennaro, 2006). In response to these trends, two additional L2 writing teaching methods were developed. The focus of these methods was on disciplinary content and practices and communities, which emphasized learners' need to write for academic audiences within established genres (Ferris & Hedgecock, 2005). Following the mentioned pedagogies, writing instruction emphasizes noticing, practicing, and producing the features of texts written for particular audiences. An additional recently developed L2 writing methodology maintains a focus on sociocultural issues and critical pedagogy, which emphasizes the important function and the nuclear position of the L2 writing instruction. In other words, this theory maintains that L2 writing instruction cannot be "neutral, value-free, and nonexclusionary" (Belcher & Braine, 1995, p. xiii), but that "sociopolitical issues affecting life in and outside of academic settings" must be also be examined (Benesch, 2001, p. xv).

2.7.3. Research on the Transfer from L1 to L2 in Writing

Research on L1 writing strongly influences L2 writing research. Taken traditionally, L2 writers' reliance on their L1 in writing is regarded as the interference of L1 in L2 writing. A large number of research studies have found both negative and positive L1 transfer and its effect on the L2 writers' abilities and strategies. Liu (2012) found L2 writers who could compose like L1 writers (Edelsky, 1982; Lay, 1982, 1983; Zamel, 1982, 1983) and their writing knowledge and skills were found transferable across languages (Edelsky, 1982; Fu, 2009; Zamel, 1982, 1983). ESL writers perform the act of writing in a similar way as L1 writers perform: they go through stages such as prewriting, drafting, revising, and editing. At the same time, they are capable of applying writing knowledge and skills gained in L1 into English writing.

It was found that writers who enjoyed better L1 literary proficiency wrote better in L2 because ESL/EFL students who had literacy in their native language were equipped with knowledge of what good writing was. They demonstrated a better sense of audience and organization skills and, consequently, transferred their L1 linguistic, cultural, and literacy knowledge and skills to L2 writing tasks (Edelsky, 1982; Friedlander, 1990; Lay, 1983). The research results showed that the transfer of literacy

skills between languages significantly facilitated the development of L2 writing skills. Fu in her 2009 study arrived at four stages of an English language learner's writing development: (1) first language stage; (2) code-switching or mixed stages; (3) inter-language stage; and (4) close to Standard English. She suggested that teachers recognize the legitimacy of the L1 to L2 transfer and facilitate the gradual development of communicating skills (Liu, 2012). Fu (2009) also found ESL students' use of their native language to express themselves is a good way to achieve writing fluency.

Researchers also found L1 writing practice to be of great help to learners in retrieving academic information on certain topics (Friedlander, 1990; Lay, 1982). Friedlander's study (1990) showed that if ESL writers could plan in the language in which the topic was learned, they could also produce better text, no matter which language the planning took place. In another study on four adult Chinese-speaking L2 writers, Lay (1982) demonstrated that L2 writers produced better essays in terms of ideas, organization, and details if they thought in their L1, in comparison with the essays written without L1 assistance. Zamel (1982) found that ESL students' proficiency in L1 writing was of more importance than their English proficiency in their writings in English. The logical outcome of Zamel's (1982) study was that L2 instructors could use students' previously learned knowledge and skills to assist and facilitate them and avoid repeated instruction. Foong (1999) studied a group of Chinese students who had enrolled in an intensive language program aiming to improve their English communication skills. He found that literate Chinese students who had already processed planning and writing strategies were of the opinion that teaching the planning and writing strategies again was unnecessary. Students with high L1 writing proficiency may be in need of more specific help in improving L2 language proficiency instead of writing skills.

In spite of similarities, L2 writing students are different from L1 writing students in significant ways. L2 learners write while they learn the language they are attempting to write in. The processes of writing in L1 and L2 are also radically different (Leki & Silva, 2008; Raimes, 1983a; Silva, 1993; Zamel, 1982) because L2 writers did less planning for their writing, and were less fluent and productive (Silva, 1993). Hence, he suggested L2 writing instructors to "include more work on planning," "have students draft in stages," "familiarize students with L1 audience expectations," "familiarize them

with different textual patterns and task types,” and “enhance L2 writers’ grammatical and lexical resources” (p.671).

2.8. Grammatical Cohesion

Grammatical connections can be observed in spoken and written discourses between individual clauses and utterances. As McCarthy (1991) states, these grammatical links can be classified under three broad types reference (or co-reference), ellipsis/substitution, and conjunction.

Halliday and Hasan note themselves that the effect of grammatical cohesion is clearer than that of lexical cohesion: reference items, substitutes and conjunctions clearly presuppose another element for their interpretation, whereas lexical items carry no indication of their possible cohesive function: “Reference items, substitutes and conjunctions all explicitly presuppose some element other than themselves. In lexical cohesion, however, it is not a case of there being particular lexical items which always have a cohesive function.” (Halliday & Hasan 1976, p. 288).

Some researchers have pointed the fact out that Halliday and Hasan’s (over)concentration [parenthetical quotation mine] on grammatical cohesive devices, and more generally on explicit, overt markers of cohesive relations, somehow ignores the role of the underlying semantic relations in a text. However, the objective followed in Halliday and Hasan (1976) is to examine the linguistic resources that can be used to mark cohesion, rather than to find out how texts are understood. (For critically favorable views see, for instance, Brown & Yule 1983; Enkvist 1978, 1985a; Hoey 1983, 1988; 1991; Lindeberg 1985). Halliday and Hasan's viewpoint has been most severely criticized over the years due to their insistence on seeing cohesion as a necessary property for the creation of unity in texts. Several researchers were of the opinion that overt markers of cohesion were not enough to make a text connected; therefore, they hurried to demonstrate that cohesion was not necessary at all to make a text appear a unified whole. They insisted that what mattered was the unity or coherence between the propositional units in the text: without coherence, a set of sentences would not form a text, no matter how many cohesive links there were between the sentences (de Beaugrande & Dressler 1981; Brown & Yule 1983; Ellis 1992; Enkvist 1978; Hellman 1995; Lundquist 1985; Sanford & Moxey 1995).

Grammar teachers have long been aware of the frequently-occurring interference factors related to pronouns and reference. Examples include cases such as the Japanese tendency to confuse he and she, the Spanish tendency to confuse his and your, and so on, and it is a challenging and demanding task to devise ways to ease those evergreen problems. Perhaps, one way to heal the ailment is to directly teach about a system such as that of English, focusing on the different ways of referring to the discourse itself by use of items such as it, this and that, which do not seem to translate in a one-to-one way to other languages, even where these are closely cognate (cf. German, French, Spanish).

Grammar has traditionally been referred to, in teaching, as individual items and their relation with each other depending of the form of other related/surrounding items. But McCarthy (1991) argues that structuring the individual utterance, clause and sentence, structuring the larger units of discourse and creating textual coherence are ultimately inseparable. Discourse analysts can tell us about contextualized uses of structures and grammatical items, and considering whether grammar teaching needs to broaden or shift its orientations to cover significant areas at present under-represented in grammar teaching. Discourse analysis gives a different approach to the grammar. It brings in the situational and contextual uses of grammar.

Spoken and written discourses display grammatical cohesions between individual clauses and utterances. These grammatical links are classified by McCarthy (1991) under three broad types co-reference, ellipsis subordination and conjunction. Spoken and written discourses display grammatical cohesions between individual clauses and utterances. What is, therefore, decide to be brought to the front of the clause (by whatever means) is a signal of what is to be understood as the framework within which what is intended to be said is to be understood. The rest of the clause can then be seen as transmitting what we want to say within this framework. Items brought to front-place in this way we shall call the themes (or topics) of their clauses.

A great deal of attention has recently been paid to the relationship between tense-aspect choices and overall discourse constraints. By examining natural data, discourse analysts were able to observe regular correlations between discourse types and the predominance of certain tense and aspect choices in the clause. Equally, the emphasis of discourse analysis on interactive features of discourse such as speaker /

writer perspective and standpoint, and the focusing or foregrounding of certain elements of the message, has led to reinterpretations of conventional statements about tense and aspect rules.

McCarthy (1991) took a selection of grammatical concepts and attempted to show how discourse analysis had contributed to our understanding of the relationship between local choices within the clause and sentence and the organization of the discourse as a whole. McCarthy believes that language teachers need not to take grammar as the individual items, their relationship with other surrounding items, their interdependency and rules governing them. Rather grammar has to be taken as a binding force of the entire discourse as a single whole. It works as an adhesive for the entire body of discourse with a beginning, middle and an end.

2.9. The Interdependence of Grammatical and Lexical Cohesion

Hasan (1994) suggested that there are cases where two implicit terms remain uninterpreted. She further stated that even under these circumstances, it was still possible to perceive relations of co-reference and co-classification between them. Even in the absence of both a specific linguistic referent and any situational clues, there could be occasions when it was possible to provide an interpretation of the implicit device. She believed that these things could happen largely because of the semantic relations maintained through lexical ties. In a text of non-minimal size, there normally occur many such threads of semantic relation, and their simultaneous operation is important in the resolution of both the above problems. The logical conclusion of this state, she added, was: "to be effective, grammatical cohesion requires the support of lexical cohesion. (p. 86).

The relationship between grammar and lexicon, however, is not one-sided. To prove effective, lexical cohesion also needs the support of grammatical cohesion. The reciprocity of these two kinds of cohesion is essential. Hasan (1994) concludes that grammatical and lexical cohesion move hand in hand in a typical text, one supporting the other.

2.10. Previous Studies on Cohesive Devices in ESL/EFL Writing

Since the publication of Halliday and Hasan's (1976) *Cohesion in English*, many researchers have attempted to carry out research on the relationship between cohesion and the quality of writing. It is strongly believed that “essay quality is highly related to the cohesion and coherence of the essay” (Crossley & McNamara, 2011, p. 984). This is reflected in many studies about writing (e.g., Collins, 1998; DeVillez, 2003 in Crossley & McNamara, 2011) and also in textbooks that teach students how to write (Golightly & Sanders, 1990, cited in Crossley & McNamara, 2011). “However, there are few studies that have empirically investigated the role of cohesion cues and by consequence, coherence in essays (ibid, p. 984). Whereas there is a strong assumption that coherence is an important aspect of writing, few studies have documented this assumption or tied the notion of coherence to explicit linguistic features of the essay” (ibid, p.984).

Halliday and Hasan's "Cohesion in English" as one of the principle sources in the literature has been used in many scientific studies around the world. This theory not only helps to analyze the association between text and its context or the way in which a text is organized; but also aids language learners in understanding how a text reveals in virtue of the semantic system created by cohesive ties within the text, thus, promoting learner's awareness of the entire text as a macro holistic semantic entity.

In the last three decades, a number of studies have examined cohesive devices in ESL/EFL writing and some of them have also analyzed the association between the deployment of cohesive devices and writing quality. However, the findings of these studies have been found to be somewhat contradictory. Several research studies have explored the use of cohesion in evaluating compositions. Witte and Faigley (1981) examined the relation between patterns of cohesiveness and quality of writing. These researchers analyzed first-year college writers to determine if differences existed between high-and low-rated compositions according to holistic scoring. They found that high-rated essays had more cohesive ties than low-rated essays. The researchers thus concluded that cohesion is an important property of writing. Similarly, Jafarpur (1991) indicated that highly rated essays differ from low rated ones in the use of cohesive devices. Another study carried out by Weicheng (2000) suggests that in the compositions of Chinese seniors, lexical ties were the only cohesive features of significance that distinguished good from poor writing. According to this study, lexical

ties are the specific cohesive features that contribute most to the judgments of writing quality and coherence of the compositions.

In contrast, Meisuo's (2000) study of cohesion in 107 expository compositions created by Chinese English majors showed there was no significant relationship the scores of the essays and the number of ties used. He concluded that the frequency of ties was not a discriminating factor in relation to the quality of writing. Thus, his findings indicate that "the number of ties alone could not be a reliable indicator of the quality of writing (pp. 85-86).

Similarly, Johnson's (1992) findings suggested that there was no correlation between the frequency of cohesive ties and quality of writing. Also, Fitzgerald and Spiegel conducted a research on children's writing with focus on the effect of cohesion to a whole writing. The results showed the quality of children's writings is not greatly influenced by their use of cohesive devices and there is not a big gap in the skills of cohesion between different grades.

Connor (1984, cited in Meisuo, 2000) investigating six essays in comparison between native and non-native subjects in argumentative writing reached the conclusion that the number of cohesive ties was not a discriminating factor between the native students and ESL students. Moreover, some other scholars also claimed that cohesion did not represent an element of writing quality (e.g., Todd, Khongput & Darasawang, 2007).

It should be noted that most of the research studies conducted so far adopted as their framework Halliday and Hasan's (1976) concept of cohesion and well-developed taxonomy of cohesive ties. It proves that Halliday and Hasan's framework can aid researchers to set up a relationship between the frequency of cohesive ties used and quality of English writing; and meanwhile, it can make possible the qualitative analysis of cohesion.

To gain more insight into the relationship between cohesive devices (CDs) and the quality of the writing, Ghasemi (2013) reviewed some studies that focused on the employment of CDs and the relationship between the number of CDs and writing quality. The analysis of collected data from different EFL/ESL researchers showed that the learners were able to use various CDs in their writings. Additionally, Ghasemi's

(2013) study highlighted some of the cohesive problems in writing and the possible pedagogical implications for teachers. His findings provided insight into the abilities of nonnative and native writers in conveying their ideas into written forms. Ghasemi's (2013) findings showed that some CDs were more preferred than some others for a variety of reasons. This could be attributed to the nature of the data collection procedure since some CDs in his study belonged to the conversational data in oral performance. The second reason could be related to the minimal amount of knowledge and necessary discourse in which such structures were used. Third, it could also be related to the fact that language learners in his study lacked the ability to use syntactic and lexical tools to enable them to produce competent written text. This part of his study was in line with Hinkel (2008). More scrutiny into Ghasemi (2013) demonstrated that there were cross-linguistic differences in the use of CDs by native and nonnative learners. The findings of his study illustrated language users' resort to pronominal more than other CDs in creating textuality between and among the sentences. Upon more careful examination of Ghasemi's (2013) findings, one could find other reasons for the differences between the natives and nonnatives in the use of certain CDs. This, on the one hand, could be attributable to the lack of nonnatives' English language proficiency, particularly because of the lack of knowledge of what makes a written material a meaningful English text by nonnative learners, which itself turned out to be the outcome of nonnatives' insufficient feedback. On the other hand, insufficient linguistic knowledge of and/or by inexperienced English teachers could stand for the cause of this problem.

The conflicting results reported in studies about cohesion and coherence and the results of the studies trying to integrate them into a unified theory to account for writing quality are all indicative of the existing dichotomy between cohesion and coherence. For instance, in their study, Tierney and Mosenthal (1983) analyzed the correlation between coherence scores and the number of cohesive ties that had been used in compositions of ESL students. Two different scenarios were randomly offered to the participants in Tierney and Mosenthal's (1983) study. Then they were assigned to write two essays. In the first, more familiar writing scenario, the participants watched a film on a writer before writing essays. The participants in the other unfamiliar writing scenario watched a film on another writer before writing. The participants were provided with the outlines to follow in writing essays to be able to control the content

and the structure of the writing task. After that, the essays were holistically scored and ranked on the basis of their coherence by three teachers. The results of the statistical analyses that were employed to compare the rankings of coherence in the essays and also to compare the use of cohesive devices in the two scenarios written on the two different writing topics, revealed no statistical significance regarding the interaction effect concerning the use of cohesive devices. However, a significant interaction was gained for coherence rankings. As there was no causal relationship between cohesive ties and coherence rankings, cohesion analysis was considered to be a poor index of coherence or writing quality (Tangkiengsirisin, 2010).

2.11. Student's Problems with Cohesive Devices in Writing

Since the publication of Halliday and Hasan's (1976) *Cohesion in English*, language teachers and educators have become sensitive to the use of cohesive devices in language students' written essays. In this part, I intend to deal with some of the cohesive errors that students commit while writing. English writing, compared with English speaking, is a more formal way of English production. To help ESL/EFL learners write better English essays, teachers should be sensitive to the problems which appear in students' essays. But it should be noted that only a small number of studies have been carried out in this area. One of such studies is conducted by Ting (2003) suggesting that "erroneous or inadequate cohesive ties, as opposed to properly used ones, deserve k2greater attention" (p. 1). Ting's study produced some findings on the features of cohesive errors made in the compositions of Chinese tertiary EFL students. The study helps set up an understanding of what types of cohesive errors significantly distinguish poor compositions from good ones – and what types do not. It also helps a perception of the extent to which different types of cohesive errors weaken the quality of writing.

Ting (2003) argued that errors in the use of pronominal are specific to the poor essays, while the errors of demonstratives and comparatives are common to both poor and good essays. That is, the poor essays show significantly more errors of personal pronouns, compared to the good essays. In contrast, errors in use of demonstratives and comparatives have an influence on not only the poor essays but also the good ones. Ting's (2003) study is similar to those of Zhang (1998, cited in Zhang, 2000) "the students sometimes omitted obligatory articles ...but more often they inserted

unnecessary ones... (ibid p. 74). the most of demonstrative errors relate to inappropriate use of the definite reference item “the”. The inappropriate and incorrect use of the definite article ‘the’ relates to the fact that there are no articles in the Chinese language (Chang, 1987, p. 331 cited in Ting, 2003). This is why both good writers and poor writers find it difficult to use the definite article correctly.

In the qualitative analysis, Meisuo (2000) found that among the three sub-categories of reference, learners used comparatives less than the two others. In the area of conjunction, the analysis indicates that Chinese students had a tendency to overuse additives and temporal devices and to misuse adversatives. There was also found some difference between the better writers and the weaker writers in the use of temporal devices. The better writers used temporal devices clearly and effectively whereas the weaker ones tended to use them only in listing random and sometimes confusing ideas (ibid.).

Shuang-mei (2009) in the writing exercises of 30 undergraduates of non-English majors in their second semester of the first academic year in Hainan University, China, indicated that some of the students committed an incorrect usage of reference which was caused by interlingual interference. Some cohesive errors with ellipsis occurred as a result of intralingual interference an example of which was the generalization of relative pronoun, using the relative pronoun “**that**” for “**who**”. Another example observed was the use of “another” instead of “other” (ibid.).

Kargozari (2012) in his study on cohesive devices in argumentative, descriptive, and expository essays argues that the students had difficulty in using lexical devices: first, a limited choice of lexical items which cause repetition and second, misuse of collocation. It implies that the majority (83.8%) of the lexical devices were the repetition of words. Other types of lexical devices such as antonym, synonym were hardly used in the writing.

It is evident that language learners at different proficiency levels experience problems with the use of cohesive devices, which in turn affect the quality of their writing. There are a good many of research works that have studied cohesive devices from the descriptive and contrastive perspectives (mainly quantitatively) to elaborate the role and significance of cohesive devices in written discourse. However, further

research is needed to address these devices both quantitatively and qualitatively (research triangulation). The dearth of qualitative research on cohesive devices triggered the present research. In an attempt to fill this research gap, the present study focused on Turkish undergraduate students' use and perceptions of cohesive devices. The participating teachers' and students' attitudes towards the cohesive devices were supposed to be significant in revealing how cohesive devices were perceived by students and to what extent they were represented in their writing.



CHAPTER III

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

Writing plays a vital role in people's everyday communication. For university students, writing an English composition constitutes a difficult task, in which the use of cohesive devices is one of the major problems. The reason why researchers focus on the role of cohesion in writing so much is the fact that cohesion is assumed to contribute to the coherence of any piece of writing. It is argued that it has a facilitative effect on text understanding and is regarded to be related to essay coherence.

The sections that follow, will see the detailed description of the participants, of the instruments used for the collection of both quantitative and qualitative data, and data analysis procedure.

3.2. Research Type and Methodology

This study employed a combination of descriptive-analytical (survey) research techniques, and a quasi-experimental research design with one intact group. This was mainly because it was almost impossible to randomly select from population to sample. Also, in this study, a triangulated methodology was adopted as a result of the current scholarly interest in the triangulation research methodology as well as the nature of the present study. Therefore, the two major research paradigms, quantitative and qualitative, were synthesized in the use of multiple data-collection and analysis procedures. Quantitative methodology was adopted when the researcher intended to collect the participants' writing samples. Qualitative methodology was adopted when open-ended attitudinal questions towards cohesion were collected both from teachers and from students.

3.3. Research Instruments

The primary instrument of this study consisted of student compositions, out of which the cohesive devices were to be elicited. The second part comprised the researcher-designed attitudinal questions addressed both to teachers and to students.

3.4. The participants of the studies

3.4.1. Participants of the Quantitative Studies (Population and Sample)

The participants of the present study consisted of one group of EFL university students majoring in English in Ataturk University, Erzurum, Turkey. They ranged in age from 20 to 25 and the years of studying were the same for them. The number of the students was 100 of whom 48 were females and the rest were males. Confessedly, each of these students, when attending the essay writing session, had taken the required writing courses and they came from the same department, the English department. The students shared a common L1 – Turkish, and had a common cultural background. They were taken to be the representative of university students in Turkey. Besides, a group of teachers of English also participated in the study. Table 3.1 illustrates the features of participants.

Table 3.1.
The description of the research participants (students)

Gender				Age	
Male	Female	Male	Female	Minimum	Maximum
Number	Percent	Number	Percent	20	25
52	52%	48	48%		
Total	100				

3.4.2. Participants of the Qualitative Studies (Population and Sample)

In these studies, four cohesion-related questions of open-ended type were devised to be answered by forty students majoring in English. They were asked to give their ideas and attitudes towards the questions. The students ranged in age from 20 to 25

years of age. All of them were at the same level of English and they were expected to have passed the required writing courses.

Similarly, four other cohesion-related questions of open-ended type were given to ten university instructors ranging from M. A. to Ph. D. to express their attitudes towards the questions devised. They were from different ages from 25 to 50.

3.5. Sampling Method

Convenience sampling method was employed. According to Gravetter & Forzano (2012, p. 151), “In convenience sampling, researchers simply use as participants those individuals who are easy to get. People are selected on the basis of their availability and willingness to respond.” Examples include conducting research with students from an EFL class. It should be commented that convenience sampling is considered a weak form of sampling due to the fact that the researcher exercises very little or no control over the representativeness of the sample and generalizability of the results.

3.6. Data Collection Procedures of the quantitative study

The leading source of data in this quantitative study was obtained from the university students’ write-ups. From 120 English majors’ essays, 100 essays were randomly chosen as the data for. Of course, some unqualified samples were removed. The students had to write their essays in the argumentative mode on a given topic. The topic was - *Advantages and Disadvantages of Living in a Big City and in a Small Town* They were asked to write a composition of about 200 – 250 words. A total of one and a half hours were given to the students for the completion of the whole writing task and all essays were written without notes, dictionaries or other language resources. This was to make certain that the subjects wrote individually under identical conditions.

All the essays, then, were assessed holistically by two experienced writing instructors independently. To avoid possible discrepancies in awarding scores and to ensure that each rater would follow the same standards, five essays written by some university students other than the subjects of this study were discussed at a meeting in advance. A holistic rating scale ranging from zero to twenty points was used. The rating scale consisted of such factors as content, explicitness of ideas, coherence, cohesion,

syntax and vocabulary. The grades were in the form of numerical scores: 20 – the best, 12 – fail.

3.6. Validity Index of the Study Instruments

Validity has been defined as “how closely your results map on to reality” (Rugg & Petre, 2007, p. 226). On the other hand, “the validity of the results depends on a high response rate” (Winter & Munn-Giddings, 2001, p. 229) which is very difficult to obtain. This study tried to use almost enough number of respondents to guarantee the validity of results.

In order to assure the content validity of the instruments, it was firstly distributed among 15 specialists. The specialists held M.A. and Ph.D. degrees in humanities in disciplines such as linguistics, literature, EFL, economics, humanities, and social sciences. They were asked to score each question first according to the relevance of the question to the subject of the study and second according to the amount of comprehensibility of each question on a scale of zero to 100 in intervals of ten. The average percentage of scores was equal to 0.873. The obtained index indicated that the questionnaire was highly valid.

3.7. Reliability Index of the Study Instruments

Reliability is “the extent to which you get the same answer when the same question is asked repeatedly” (Rugg & Petre, 2007, p. 224). Reliability also refers to the amount of agreement of questions with each other (internal reliability). The internal reliability of the research instrument is usually measured by Cronbach’s Alpha, which is “a measurement of intraclass correction” (Larson-Hall, 2010, p. 170). According to Cortina (1994) coefficient alpha is an internal consistency estimate. It was first named alpha by Lee Cronbach in 1951.

Nunnally & Bernstein (1994) indicated 0.7 to be an acceptable reliability coefficient but lower thresholds are sometimes used in the literature. The calculated Cronbach’s Alpha of the instrument employed in the present study was equal to 0.77 which is a quite satisfactory reliability level.

3.8. Data Analysis

Data analysis is one of highly critical and sensitive stages in a scientific research work. After being collected, the data underwent different analyses by means of SPSS. Two main types of analyses were employed in this research.

3.8.1. Descriptive Statistics

The descriptive part of the analysis included the calculation of frequency, mean, percentages, standard deviation, and so on.

3.8.2. Inferential Statistics

As cited in Mobashshernia (2014), this is a kind of statistics that can be utilized to generalize the results obtained from the research sample to the research population from which the sample has been taken “meaning that the results of a statistical test may be generalized to a wider group of people (or texts or test scores) than just those who participated in the experiment” (Larson-Hall, 2010, p. 394). Depending upon the type of data, in this section of analysis, Mann-Whitney U Test, Kruskal–Wallis H test, Chi-Square for Independence, t -Test, One-Way ANOVA, and regression analysis were employed.

Kruskal-Wallis H test is non-parametric alternative to the One-Way between-groups ANOVA. This test is used to measure the mean variance of the independent variable with three or more levels and one dependent variable. In other words, it allows the researcher to compare the scores on some continuous variable for three or more groups. It is similar in nature to the Mann-Whitney U Test, but it makes possible the comparison of more than just two groups. Scores are converted to ranks and the mean rank for each group is compared. This is a ‘*between groups*’ analysis, so different people must be in each of the different groups (Pallant, 2011).

Chi-Square for Independence is a non-parametric test which uses only nominal data for both the dependent and the independent variable. It tests whether or not there is a relationship between two variables. Chi-Square for Independence is the best tool where it is important to explore the relationship between two categorical variables. Each of these variables can have two or more categories. This test compares the observed frequencies or proportions of cases that occur in each of the categories, with the values

that would be expected if there was no association between the two variables being measured. It is based on a Crosstabulation table, with cases classified according to the categories in each variable (Pallant, 2011).

The Mann-Whitney U Test is used to test the differences between two independent groups on a continuous measure. An example can be the differences in gender groups associated with their attitude towards cohesive devices. This test is the non-parametric alternative to the t -Test for independent samples. Instead of comparing means of the two groups, as in the case of the t -Test, the Mann-Whitney U Test compares medians. It converts the scores on the continuous variable to ranks across the two groups. It then evaluates whether the ranks for the two groups differ significantly (Pallant, 2011).

One-Way between-groups ANOVA is a model that includes only one categorical independent variable (e.g. gender). The interest here is in seeing whether or not “groups defined by the independent variable performed differently on the dependent measure” (Larson-Hall, 2010, p. 389).

3.9. The Conceptual Model of the Analysis

The following section comprises the conceptual model used in the present study. According to the model, with resort to context, co-text and pre-text, writers engage in the task of writing. In so doing, they draw upon resources latent in cohesion and coherence. The produced text obtains quality based on different factors, all of which are under the mercy of reader judgment. The end product is, therefore, fuzzy.

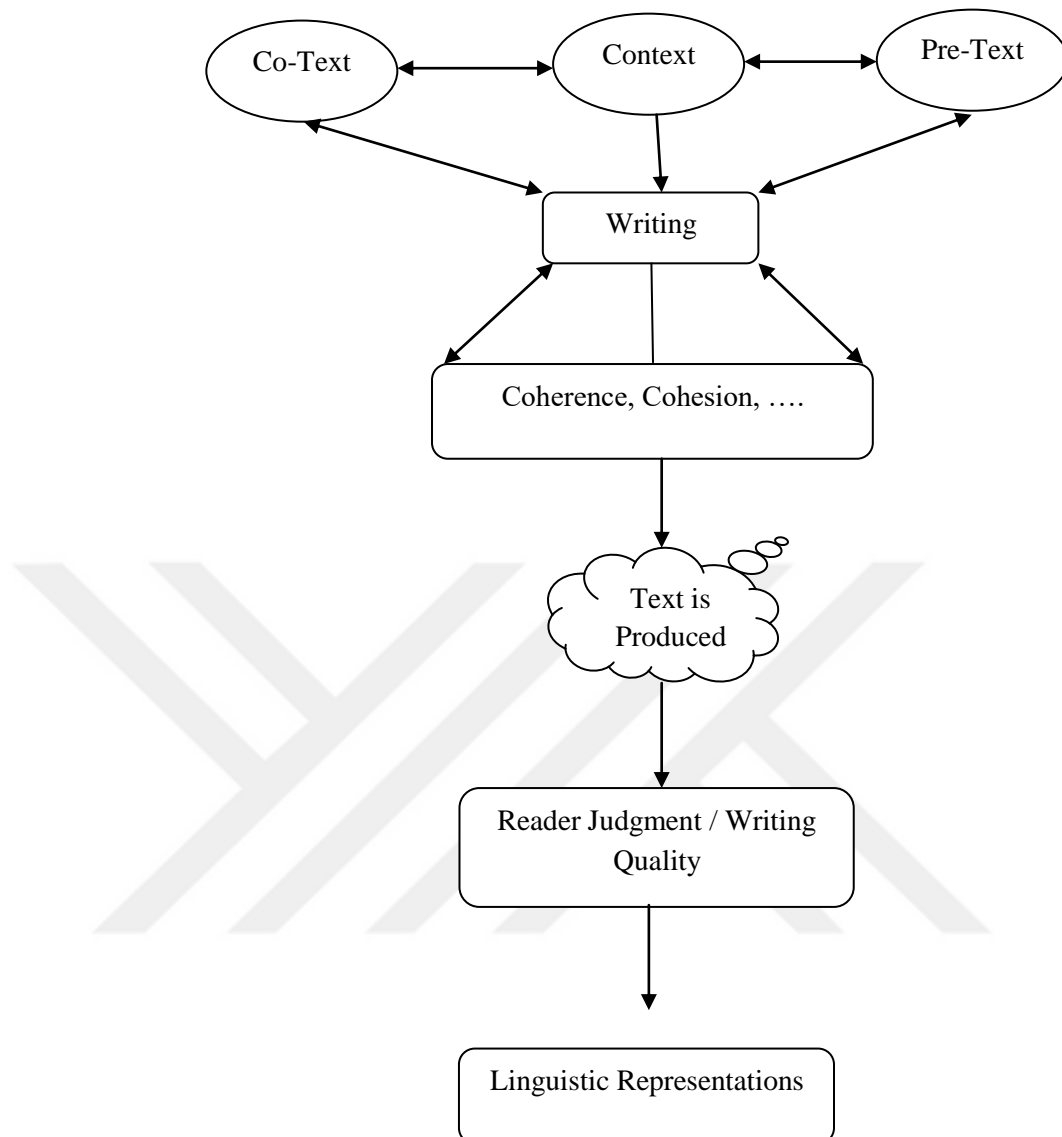


Diagram 3.1. The Conceptual Model of the Analysis: The

3.10. Chapter Summary

This chapter intended to state the research type and the research methodology adopted, research instruments used, research sample, sampling method, instrument validation procedures, instrument reliability, data analysis methods, descriptive statistics, inferential statistics, and the conceptual model of the analysis.

CHAPTER IV

4. FINDINGS AND RESULTS

4.1. Introduction

In the preceding chapter, the methodology of the study was explained. The participants, the procedure, strategy and the instruments used in the data gathering of the research as well as some information about the analyses of the collected data were detailed. This chapter is going to report the findings and the results of the present research. The researcher used descriptive and inferential techniques to calculate, analyze and interpret the data to be able to work through the questions and the hypotheses of the study. The contents of this chapter cover findings concerning the descriptive and inferential analyses.

4.2. The Quantitative and Descriptive Statistics and Findings

What follows includes the descriptive findings of the present research. It includes correlation coefficient and the frequency results.

4.2.1. Quantitative Data analysis

Halliday and Hasan offer a method for the analysis of cohesion in a text in Chapter 8 in *Cohesion in English* (1976: 329-330). The coding scheme provides a means of identifying the cohesive devices in the texts of the present study. This method is followed in this study to analyze the use of cohesive devices in students' compositions.

Table 4.1.
Halliday and Hasan's Coding Scheme (1976)

Coding				
Reference			1	
Pronominals			1	
	a.	Singular, masculine	<i>he, him, his</i>	11
	b.	Singular, feminine	<i>she, her, hers</i>	12
	c.	Singular, neuter	<i>it, its</i>	13
	d.	Plural	<i>they, them, their, theirs</i>	14
Demonstratives	a.	Demonstrative, near	<i>this/these, here</i>	21
	b.	Demonstrative, far	<i>that/those, there, then</i>	22
	c.	Definite article	<i>the</i>	23
Comparatives	a.	Identity	<i>same, identical</i>	31
	b.	Similarity	<i>similar(ly), such</i>	32
	c.	Difference	<i>difference, other, else, additional</i>	33
	d.	Comparison	<i>more, less, as many</i>	34
	e.	Comparison	<i>as + adjective; comparatives and superlatives</i>	35
Substitution				S
	a.	Nominal substitution	<i>one/ones, the same, so</i>	1
	b.	Verbal substitution	<i>do, be, have</i>	2

c.	Clausal substitution	<i>so, not</i>	3
Ellipsis			E
a.	Nominal Ellipsis		1
b.	Verbal Ellipsis		2
c.	Clausal ellipsis		3
Conjunction			C
a.	Additive	<i>and, or, also</i>	1
b.	Adversative	<i>yet, though, but</i>	2
c.	Causal	<i>so, for because</i>	3
d.	Temporal	<i>then, next, after that</i>	4
e.	Continuative	<i>now, of course, well</i>	5
Lexical			L
a.	Same item		1
b.	Synonym		2
c.	Antonym		3
d.	Super-ordinate		4
e.	General item		5
f.	Collocation		6

The following is a sample text from *Cohesion in English* by Halliday and Hasan (1976, cited in Yunhong, 2011, pp.15-17).

She looked at the Queen, who seemed to have suddenly wrapped herself in wool (1). Alice rubbed her eyes, and looked again (2). She couldn't make out what had happened at all (3). Was she in a shop (4)?

Table 4.2.
Sample Analysis by Halliday and Hasan (1976)

Sentence No.	No. of Ties	Cohesive Tie	Type	Presupposed item
1	3	She	R12	Alice
		The queen	L1	The queen
		Wool	L5	Sheep
2	3	Alice	L1	Alice
		Looked	L1	Looked
		Again	C44	Looked at the Queen
3	1	She	R12	Alice
4	1	She	R12	Alice

In the present study, the researcher analyzed the collected data through the use of two procedures: identifying and quantifying the cohesive devices in the compositions and evaluating the overall quality of the essays. For the first part of data analysis, as noted above, Halliday and Hasan's (1976) cohesion framework was selected and adopted due to its comprehensiveness and well-developed taxonomy. The number of cohesive features that occurred in each category was counted, and descriptive statistics such as frequency, mean, and standard deviation, etc. were computed by the SPSS statistical software package.

4.2.2. Analysis of the students' compositions

The tables coming below present the numbers and percentages of the different main categories of cohesive devices along with their subcategories identified in the compositions.

Table 4.3.
Mean, Standard Deviation, etc. of the Essay Scores

Mean	St. D.	Minimum	Maximum	Range	Median
16.06	1.67	10.50	19.50	9	16.50

Altogether, 100 essays were collected and evaluated by two experienced university teachers. The scores given to each essay by the teachers were averaged and the mean determined the final score for that piece. The inter-rater reliability was .88, which revealed that the overall writing scores were consistent and reliable. Therefore, the scores of the two raters were averaged, and the averaged scores were correlated with the number of cohesive devices used in the compositions. Table 4.3 above, indicates the mean score, standard deviation, and the ranges of scores.

As the above table shows, the mean score of the 100 essays was 16.06 (out of a maximum score of 20) and the standard deviation was 1.67. Therefore, the essays scored 15 or above were considered the best, while those scored 12 or below were regarded as the weakest (mean score + SD).

Table 4.4.
The Distribution of the Cohesive Devices by Main Categories

Cohesion Types	Reference	Substitution	Ellipsis	Conjunction	Lexical	Total
N	100	100	100	100	100	100
Frequency	1622	12	6	1317	4191	7148
Mean	16.22	0.12	0.15	13.17	41.91	71.41
Median	14	0	0	12.50	36	0
Std. Deviation	9.74	0.38	0.93	5.56	21.71	26.36
Std. Error of Mean	0.97	0.03	0.09	0.55	2.17	2.63
Range	79	22	9	26	96	129

Maximum	83	2	9	29	107	156
Minimum	4	0	0	3	11	27
Percentage	22.69	0.16	0.08	18.42	58.63	100%

Table 4.4 indicates that the students in this study used a variety of cohesive devices with some types of devices employed more frequently than others. Among the main categories of cohesion, lexical devices had the most frequency of use (58.63%), followed by reference (22.98%) and conjunction (18.42%).

4.2.3. Analysis of the students' compositions in terms of reference devices

The following table illustrates the analysis of students' compositions in terms of referencing cohesive devices.

Table 4.5.
The Distribution of Reference Cohesion by its Subcategories

Ref. Types	Pronoun	Demonstrative	Definite Article	Comparative	Total
N	100	100	100	100	100
Frequency	599	206	355	450	1610
Mean	5.99	2.06	3.55	4.50	16.10
Median	4	2	3	4	14
Std. D.	5.65	1.84	3.22	3.40	14
Std. Error of Mean	0.56	0.18	0.32	0.34	0.97
Range	40	9	16	23	79
Maximum	40	9	16	23	83
Minimum	0	0	0	0	4
Percentage	37.15	12.77	22.02	27.95	100%

As shown in Table 4.5, in the three subcategories of reference devices, pronouns formed the highest percentage of use, followed by demonstratives (including the definite article **the**) and then comparatives.

As regards reference ties, Table 4.5 shows that the students used different types of reference ties. The highest percentage of use belonged to pronominals (37.15%), followed by comparatives (27.95%), and definite articles (22.02%). Personal pronouns or possessive pronouns such as *he*, *it*, or *them* were used for keeping aware of participants in the text. The most common personal pronoun referring to participants was *they* as students in their essays usually focused on a group of people. Demonstrative reference was employed by the use of demonstratives, such as *the* or *this*. Comparative reference was the least used reference device, and the frequently used examples in the texts were *more* or *such*. The analysis of these cohesive devices indicates that all of the ties were anaphoric.

The extensively-used pronouns in the compositions were **they**, **it**, and **them**, which might be due to the nature of the topic. The definite article **the** had the largest use (357 times) of the demonstratives, even greater than any other demonstratives. After that, the predominant use of other items were **this** and **these**. Comparatives were the least used in all the compositions. Among them, the comparative form of adjective (adjective + -er) was also used more because of the comparative nature of the topic of the compositions.

4.2.4. Analysis of students' compositions in terms of substitution and ellipsis

As mentioned earlier, substitution and ellipsis are rarely used in academic and formal writing. Nevertheless, some cases were found in the students' essays and they are illustrated below:

(Essay no. 44) 1. Another sorrowful thing which is related to previous **one** is environment pollution.

(Essay no. 92) 2. In the past, there were small villages or towns which were good places to live in, but today, there are big cities which overcome small **ones** to live in.

(Essay no. 41) 3. People live in somewhere. **Some** live in a big, beautiful city. **Some** live in bad conditions.

(Essay no. 97) 4. Some people prefer to live in small towns, however, **others** prefer to live in a big city.

4.2.5. Analysis of students' compositions in terms of conjunctive devices

The following table shows the analysis of students' compositions in terms of conjunctive cohesive devices.

Table 4.6.

The Distribution of Conjunctive cohesion by its subcategories

Conjunctive Cohesives	Additive	Adversative	Causal	Temporal	Conjunction	Total.
N	100	100	100	100	100	100
Frequency	716	204	266	168	23	1377
Mean	7.16	2.05	2.66	1.66	0.23	13.76
Median	7	2	2	1	0	12.50
Std. Deviation	4.19	1.44	2.56	4.17	0.58	7.21
Std. Error of Mean	0.41	0.14	0.25	0.41	0.05	0.72
Range	20	6	21	40	4	47
Maximum	21	6	21	40	4	50
Minimum	1	0	0	0	0	3
Percentage	51.99	14.81	19.31	12.20	1.67	100%

In the five subcategories of conjunction devices, additive devices formed the largest percentage of use (51.99%), followed by causal (19.31%), adversative (14.81%), temporal (12.20%) and continuative (1.67%), as shown in Table 4.6. Regarding the additive devices, the items “and”, “or” occurred most often. Of the causal devices, the words “because”, “because of” were mostly used. Among the adversative devices, “but”

“on the other hand” were frequently employed by the students. As to the temporal devices, the nature of the topic let the students use “first”, “firstly”, “secondly”, “finally”, more than other temporal expressions to sequence their arguments. The final subcategory of conjunctions is continuatives which again, like substitution and ellipsis, are employed in spoken language. An instance of the continuative devices used in some compositions is “of course”.

4.2.6. Analysis of students’ compositions in terms of lexical devices

This section demonstrates the analysis of students’ compositions in terms of lexical devices.

Table 4.7.
The Distribution of Lexical Cohesion by its Subcategories

Lexical Cohesion	Repetition	Synonym	Antonym	Super-ordinate	General Word	Collocation	Total
N	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Frequency	2753	628	537	88	42	75	4191
Mean	27.88	6.28	5.37	0.88	0.42	0.75	41.58
Median	26	4	3	0	0	0	36
Std. Dev.	14.62	6.31	6	1.65	1.16	1.15	21.88
Std. Err. of M.	1.46	0.63	0.60	0.16	0.11	0.11	2.18
Range	59	27	27	7	6	5	96
Maximum	63	27	27	7	6	5	107
Minimum	4	0	0	0	0	0	11
Percentage	65.68%	14.98%	12.81%	2.09%	1%	1.78%	100%

In the present study, lexical cohesion with 58.63% had the highest frequency among the main categories of cohesion, followed by reference (22.69%), and the conjunction devices (18.42%).

As shown in Table 4.7, repetition of the same word formed the largest percentage of use (65.68%), followed by synonym (14.98%) and antonym (12.81%) respectively. The other three lexical devices, i.e., super-ordinates, general words and collocations, were rarely used. The students tended to use repetition more than half of the lexical devices. The most frequently used cohesive items were “live”, “pollution” “big”, “small” “problems”; these words were directly related to the theme of the topic of the composition.

4.3. The Correlation and Regression Analysis

The following section includes the descriptive findings. Tables 4.8 to 4.29 illustrate the correlation between the number of cohesive devices used and writing quality. In this section, the analysis of substitution and ellipsis were excluded because, as Halliday and Hasan (1976) state, they are seldom used in formal written language including compositions.

4.4. The Relationship between the Cohesive Devices and the Quality of Writing

As noted in Tables 1. to 7, the students employed all types of cohesive devices in various degrees, i.e., some of them were used with high frequency including reference and lexical devices and some others with less frequency. In this study, this part is devoted to the exploration of the second research question "The relationship between cohesive devices and the quality of writing". To this end, all the papers were subjected to careful statistical analysis of correlation, multiple regression and ANOVA.

Regression . Reference

Table 4.8.

The Correlation between Reference Subcategories and Writing Quality

	Pronominal	Demonstrative	Definite Article	Comparative
Pearson	-.007	-.009	.001	-.042
Correlation	.473	.463	.495	.339
Sig. (2-tailed)	100	100	100	100
N				

Based on the results obtained in Table 4.8, the correlation between Pronominal, Demonstrative, Definite Article, Comparative and writing quality are $p = .473$ and $r = -.007$, $p = .463$ and $r = -.009$, $p = .495$ and $r = .001$, and $p = .339$ and $r = -.042$, respectively. This means that none of them are significant at the level of .01 or .05. In other words, not any of the subcategories of reference can account for better writing.

Table 4.9.

The Multiple Regression of (Enter) Predicting Power of Reference Subcategories on the Quality of Writing

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
Regression	.604	4	.151	.052	.995b				
Residual	276.723	95	2.913			.047a	.002	-.040	1.70672
Total	277.328	99							

a. Dependent Variable: Scores

b. Predictors: (Constant), Comparative, Demonstrative, Pronominal, Def. Article

In Table 4.9, in order for predicting the power of the reference devices on writing quality, the regression analysis, model Enter was used. The results obtained in Table 4.9 indicate that F and P being .052 and .99, respectively, are not significant statistically. Similarly, $R^2 = .002$ is not significant at the level of .01 or .05. Therefore, the reference devices cannot predict the writing quality.

Table 4.10

The Regression Coefficients of Reference Subcategories as Predictors of Writing Quality

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
(Constant)	16.149	.353		45.735	.000	15.448	16.850
Pronominal	.001	.033	.003	.026	.979	-.064	.066
Demonstrative	-.008	.095	-.009	-.087	.930	-.197	.181
Def. Article	.010	.060	.020	.176	.861	-.108	.129
Comparative	-.024	.055	-.050	-.439	.662	-.135	.086

a. Dependent Variable: Scores

Table 4.10 shows the raw coefficients of B and the standard Beta for each of reference devices. According to Table 4.10, the coefficient B for Pronominal, Demonstrative, Definite Article, and Comparative is .001, -.008, .010 and -.024, respectively. Here it is not necessary to keep on doing the predicting equation since these coefficients are not significant,

Regression. Conjunction

Table 4.11
The Correlation between Conjunction Subcategories and Writing Quality

	Additive	Adversative	Causal	Temporal	Continuative
Pearson Correlation	-.076	-.090	-.024	-.083	.093
Sig. (2-tailed)	.225	.186	.405	.205	.178
N	100	100	100	100	100

Based on the results obtained in Table 4.11, the correlation between Additive, Adversative, Causal, Temporal, Continuative and writing quality are $p = .225$ and $r = -.076$, $p = .186$ and $r = -.090$, $p = .405$ and $r = -.024$, $p = .205$ and $r = -.083$, and $p = .178$ and $r = .093$, respectively. This means that none of them are significant at the level of .01 or .05. In other words, not any of the subcategories of conjunction can account for better writing.

Table 4.12
The Multiple Regression (enter) Predicting Power of Conjunctive Subcategories on the Quality of Writing

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
Regression	7.920	5	1.584	.553	.736	.169	.029	-.023	1.69294
Residual	269.408	94	2.866						
Total	277.328	99							

a. Dependent Variable: Scores

b. Predictors: (Constant), Continuative, Causal, Adversative, Temporal, Additive

In Table 4.12, in order for predicting the effect of conjunctive devices on writing quality, the regression analysis, model Enter was used. The results obtained in Table

indicates that F and P being , .553 and .736, respectively, are not significant statistically. Similarly, $R^2 = .029$ is not significant at the level of .01 or .05. Therefore, the conjunctive devices cannot predict the writing quality.

Table 4.13

Regression Coefficients of Conjunctive Devices as Predictors of Writing Quality

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
	(Constant)	16.453	.423				38.873
Additive	-.023	.042	-.058	-.560	.577	-.106	.059
Adversative	-.108	.119	-.093	-.903	.369	-.345	.129
Causal	-.003	.068	-.004	-.041	.967	-.137	.132
Temporal	-.033	.041	-.082	-.801	.425	-.115	.049
Continuative	.270	.292	.094	.923	.358	-.311	.850

a. Dependent Variable: Scores

Table 4.13 shows the raw coefficients of B and the standard Beta for each of conjunctive devices. According to Table 6, the coefficient B for Additive, Adversative, Causal, Temporal, and Continuative is -.023, -.108, -.003, -.033, and .270, respectively. Here it is not necessary to keep on carrying out the predicting equation since these coefficients are not significant,

Regression. Lexical

Table 4.14

The Correlation between Lexical Devices and Writing Quality

	Repetition	Synonym	Antonym	Superordinate	G. Word	Collocation
Pearson Correlation	-.112	-.136	-.150	-.055	-.076	.193
Sig. (2-tailed)	.133	.089	.068	.292	.225	.027
N	100	100	100	100	100	100

Based on the results obtained in Table 4.14, the correlation between Repetition, Synonym, Antonym, Super-ordinate, General Word, Collocation and writing quality are $p = .133$ and $r = -.112$, $p = .089$ and $r = -.136$, $p = .068$ and $r = -.150$, and $p = .292$ and $r = -.055$, $.225$ and $r = -.076$, $.027$ and $r = .193$, respectively. This means that none of them

are significant at the level of .01 or .05. In other words, not any of the subcategories of conjunction can account for better writing.

Table 4.15.

The Multiple Regression (Enter) of Predicting Power of Lexical Devices on the Quality of Writing

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1 Regression	14.525	6	2.421	.857	.530				
Residual	262.802	93	2.826			.229	.052	-.009	1.68102
Total	277.328	99							

a. Dependent Variable: Scores

b. Predictors: (Constant), Collocation, Superordinate, Repetition, G. Word, Antonym, Synonym

In Table 4.15, in order for predicting of the conjunctive devices on writing quality, the regression analysis, model Enter was used. The results obtained in Table 4.15. indicate that F and P being .857 and .530, respectively, are not significant statistically. Similarly, $R^2 = -.002$ is not significant at the level of .01 or .05. Therefore, the reference devices cannot predict the writing quality.

Table 4.16.

Regression Coefficients of Lexical Devices as Predictors of Writing Quality

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
(Constant)	16.217	.459		35.344	.000	15.305	17.128
Repetition	-.006	.013	-.051	-.435	.664	-.032	.021
Synonym	-.015	.059	-.057	-.256	.799	-.133	.102
Antonym	-.009	.061	-.033	-.150	.881	-.131	.112
Superordinate	.015	.132	.015	.113	.911	-.247	.277
G. Word	-.073	.166	-.051	-.438	.662	-.403	.257
Collocation	.231	.155	.160	1.491	.139	-.077	.538

a. Dependent Variable: Scores

Table 4.16. shows the raw coefficients of B and the standard Beta for each of lexical devices. According to Table 4.16, the coefficient B for Repetition, Synonym, Antonym, Super-ordinate, General Word, Collocation is -.006, -.015, -.009, .015, -.073 and .231, respectively. Here it is not necessary to keep on doing the predicting equation since these coefficients are not significant,

Table 4.17.

The Correlation between Substitution and Writing Quality

		Scores	Substitution
Pearson Correlation	Scores	1.000	.208
	Substitution	.208	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	Scores	.	.019
	Substitution	.019	.
N	Scores	100	100
	Substitution	100	100

Based on the results obtained in Table 4.17, the correlation between Substitution and writing quality is $p = .019$ and $r = .208$. Since they are higher than .05, we can conclude that there is a significant correlation between substitution and writing quality. This may suggest that the Turkish students might achieve cohesion by employing substitution.

Table 4.18

The Regression Analysis (Enter) of Substitution on Students' Compositions

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
Regression	12.003	1	12.003	4.434	.038	.208	.043	.034	1.64541
Residual	265.324	98	2.707						
Total	277.328	99							

a. Dependent Variable: Scores

b. Predictors: (Constant), Substitution

In Table 4.18, in order for predicting the reference devices on writing quality, the regression analysis, model Enter was used. The figures in Table 4.18 indicate that F and P being 4.434 and .038, respectively, are significant statistically. Similarly, $R^2 = .043$ is significant

Table 4.19
Regression Coefficients of Substitution Devices as Predictors of Writing Quality

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		t	Sig	95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
	B	Std. Error	Beta				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
(Constant)	15.956	.172			92.506	.000	15.614	16.298
Substitution	.908	.431	.208		2.106	.038	.052	1.764

a. Dependent Variable: Scores

Table 4.19 shows the raw coefficients of B and the standard Beta for substitution. According to Table 4.19, the coefficient B for Substitution is .908. Since it is lower than .05, it is significant and we can conclude that substitution devices have the power of predicting the quality of writing.

Regression. Elipsis

Table 4.20
The Correlation between Ellipsis and Writing Quality

		Scores	Ellipsis
Pearson Correlation	Scores	1.000	.10
	Ellipsis	.100	1.000
Sig. (2-tailed)	Scores	.	.16
	Ellipsis	.161	.
N	Scores	100	100

In Table 4.20, the correlation between Ellipsis and writing quality is $p = .161$ and $r = -.042$. This means that the correlation is not significant at the level of .01 or .05. In other words, the Ellipsis cannot account for better writing.

Table 4.21
Regression Analysis(Enter) of Ellipsis on the Quality of Writing

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
Regression	2.782	1	2.782	.99	.32				
Residual	274.546	98	2.801			.100a	.010	.000	1.67376
Total	277.328	99							

a. Dependent Variable: Scores

b. Predictors: (Constant), Ellipsis

In this section, regression analysis, the model Enter was used to indicate the effect of Ellipsis on writing quality. In this Table, F and P being .99 and .32, respectively, are not significant. Also, R^2 being .010 is not significant at the level of .05.

Table 4.22.
Regression Coefficient of Ellipsis as a Predictor of Writing Quality

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
(Constant)	16.029	.171		93.585	.000	15.689	16.369
Ellipsis	.603	.606	.100	.996	.321	-.598	1.805

a. Dependent Variable: Scores

The coefficients of B and the standard Beta for Ellipsis are .603 and .10, respectively. Being the case, it is not necessary to keep on doing the predicting equation since these coefficients are not significant,

From the correlation matrix, it came to be found that there was no statistically significant relationship between the number of cohesive devices used and the quality of writing. As Table 24 shows, the statistical figures for this lack of correlations are: reference devices ($r = -.020$), conjunctive devices ($r = -.112$), lexical devices ($-.153$), and the total number of cohesive devices ($r = -.157$). Thus, no significant correlation was found between the number of cohesive devices used and writing quality. In other words, the high density of cohesive devices in the compositions didn't lead to better writing quality. These findings are supported by Karasi (1994) cited in Meisuo (2000), Tierney and Mosenthal (1983), Johnson (1992), Connor (1984) and Ulatowska (1991).

Similarly, based on the analysis of variance, it was found that there was no statistically significant difference between the highly-rated and poorly-rated compositions in the frequency of use of cohesive devices. These findings seemingly imply that the number of devices alone could not be a reliable gauge of the quality of writing. Some papers were found to possess greater number of cohesive ties but poorly rated and vice versa. Some of such compositions have been illustrated below. It should be noted that the score given is out of 20.

Disadvantages of Living in a Big City

Who wants to live in a big city or how do we live?

Living in a big city is ^{C1}disadvantages such as water pollution, air pollution, problem of money etc.

One of the sources for living necessity is water. For our life is very ^{R23}important element. ^{L1}Without drinking water we can't live.

^{C3}Because water has a important place for human body. ^{L1}But water sources is getting pollute ^{L1}more and ^{C2}more. And this situation is seen ^{L1}much more in big cities. ^{R34}

^{C1}Beside, there is an air pollution that is thought an important ^{L1}problem. It is that air is one of ^{L1}the thing necessity for lungs. ^{L1}But air is getting pollute ^{R23}by ^{L1}burning. In big cities this rate ^{L1}is increasing ^{L1}more and ^{R34}more, for example ^{L1}gases of fossil fuels, ^{L1}from giving ^{R34}the cars etc. ^{L1}In brief, while we are getting pollute ^{L1}to air, we ^{R23}destroy our lungs. ^{C4}

One more problem is money. Money has a big place in our life. Without ^{R34}having money, to live for us very difficult. ^{L1}Because in our life we need to buy ^{L1}most of things. ^{L1}But ^{C3}these needs are things necessity for our life. that everything is money. ^{C2}But ^{R21}if you live in big city, everything is very expensive. ^{C2}So you think how ^{L1}you ^{L1}making ends meet. ^{C3}As a result of ^{L1}living in a big city is very difficult for you. ^{C3}and you have ^{L1}most of disadvantages that effects your life. ^{C1}

needs for us more and more

Disadvantages of Living in a Big City.

Living in a big or small city depends on the option of a person or an obligation. No matter where you live, in a big or small city, Are you satisfied with your place? I think, firstly you can answer this question. For most of people, living in a big city is much attractive than in a small city in terms of access quickly to everything that you want. Of course, it is true because we are living in technological and busy world, we are obliged to be quicker to think and to move and because of this you will want to live in a big city. But, don't forget this reality, if you're a big head, you will have a big problem.

Firstly, you will have enough money to continue your life at the way you wanted. Unfortunately, in Turkey's conditions, if you live in a big city, you will be rich or have second job. As another option, you will also have own your house. However with these conditions you will live in a relax way, and thus you will make your meet end.

Secondly, you are deal with the problems which you have got in a big city such as transportation problems, health problems, pollution. Because, especially Turkey has problems in these areas in the big cities. and you have to deal with those problems.

Yes, of course "Think bigger, Live bigger and better" is true. But you have a political and economical power for this and the most important thing that you do, Are you happy with your place? The answer is "yes." there is no problem living in a big city.

Advantages and Disadvantages of Living in a Big City.

Living is a very important part of human life, of course. According to where you're living, your condition can be change. You can live in a big city or small village. It doesn't matter. But these have advantages and disadvantages. Our essay is about in a big city. Living in a big city has advantages and disadvantages.

Firstly, if we look at advantages, there are the most two important things; education and transportation. Education is very important part of our lives. If you are living in a big city, you have a lot of opportunity in education. You can go to school, you can learn everything from your teacher who is very high degree. But if you're living in a small town, maybe you can't go to school. Because that's possible there may not be a school for you. And the other transportation. It is very important, as well. In a big city, there are a lot of alternative in transportation. You can go wherever you want by plane, by bus, by plane and by ship. But in small village, even there has no road yet. So these are very important opportunity for people who are living in a big city.

Secondly, if we look at disadvantages, there are two important part; global warming and forgetting your culture. Global warming is a disaster which is become by people, especially who are living in a big city. Because they open a lot of factories, they use a lot of product of perfume. They are hazardous for global. And the other one, forgetting your culture. Because of living in a big city, a lot of people even don't know their hometown and their culture. They are living like foreign people. They use internet and mobile phones and they can't talk with their parents. So their parents can't say or talk about their culture to their children. It is very important and it should be changed by scientists.

Consequently, a lot of people are living in a big city or in a small village. According to living in a big city, it has both advantages and disadvantages. And people who are living in a big city should overcome disadvantages because it can be harmful for them.

A popular disputation of today is living in a big city. Lots of people dispute about benefits and losses of living in a big city. Openly, big cities have lots of advantages.

First of all, education is very important in our life. In big cities, to reach books, documents or study in labs is easier than to reach in small cities. For example, Kars hasn't got any library and book shop, while there are more than 30 libraries in Antara.

Furthermore, learning foreign language is easier in big cities. There are many courses in big cities and lots of native speakers work in these courses. Moreover, it is very difficult to find any foreign newspapers and books in small cities.

Another important advantage of living in a big city is about social life. Lots of concerts are held in big cities. For instance, the most famous singers take the stage only in big cities in Turkey. Also there are more theatres and cinemas in big cities.

ADVANTAGES OF LIVING IN A BIG CITY

Living in a big city may be a chance for people. Because people can easily access what they want. For example, if you want to buy clothes or other necessities, you can easily find a store to buy. But if you live in a village, you can not easily find anything you want.

In the big cities, there are many people who live in and do shopping there. The more people means the more selling. So, in the big cities there are so many stores because people do shopping and some things are being sold.

In addition, people who live in a big city may have an easy life. Because in big cities, people can have a good education. There are many schools in big cities. So, people can be educated well. Children can be educated well, too.

And, people can learn foreign language in big cities. Because, there are many tourists in big cities. One can speak with a tourist and he can advance his foreign language. Or, in schools or courses, he can learn foreign language. There are native speakers in big cities. They can teach foreign languages to people.

Briefly, in big cities life can be easy and accessible. Because there are many schools, shops, stores, factories, companies and etc. People can be educated well, can find what they want, can learn foreign language, can find job and etc. So, living in a big city is an opportunity for people.

- Advantages and disadvantages of living a big city. 39

- A Big City -

Living a big city is an opportunity according to many people (but otherwise), some people think that it's a big problem. What about you?

I think that there are good advantages you, especially, if you are a university student. Because when a student study for university exam, she or he has a lot of expectations from university surroundings.

She wants to get in activities such as cinemas, theatres, courses for jolleyball, table tennis, drawing picture... etc

These activities only can be provided by a big city. Because a big city gives you usefull opportunities.

It is not only activities but also it provides you to meet a lot of people. you can make many friends thanks to it. It is will be easy to connect with people for you. Because the more you know people, the more connection will be easy for you.

As a result, living a big city is a big advantage for you because of its opportunities.

Cohesive devices: 29

Score: 17

Advantages and disadvantages of living in a big city.

DISADVANTAGES OF LIVING IN A BIG CITY

There is a lot of debates about living in a big city. While some people say it has lots of advantages, other people claim the opposite of that. If you ask me, they are enough to wipe its "good" sides "a confused, noisy life and don't have any real friendships. Firstly I'll mention about noisy life. In a big city there is no area without cars and everyone use their horns without thinking. At the same time They cause lots accidents. For example, if I have a child, I am afraid of his/her playing outside because everywhere is full of roads, streets and motorways are used for speed by thoughtless people.

The second problem is that. There is no good friendships. In a big city you have to get used to live alone because everybody thinks themselves. So most people experience psychological problems because of loneliness.

In my opinion it is good for us living in a small city because dangerous is less and more quiet. At least I think it is enough.

Cohesive devices: 27

Score: 17

Living in a big city is better than living in a small one.
 Because in big cities there are everything ^{R35} what you want. You easily ^{S1}
 get your demands in a big city.
 C3 L L L L

In a big city you can find everything what you need. For
 example if you want to be you can do this easily in a big city.
 Because big cities have big hospitals. Being healthy isn't about not.
 C3 L L L L R21
 only being careful but also going to good doctors and good hospitals.
 C1 L L L L

Big cities have got good and big hospitals. Actually some of them
 has got two or more. In a small city there isn't good doctors.
 C2 L L L L R14
 Ellipsis

They don't prefer small cities. Because they want more money and
 being beneficial more people. So they choose big cities big hospitals.
 C3 R14 R34 L L L L

Big cities have big opportunities about education and
 labor. Every family wants a good future for their children. If you
 want to a good future you must have a good job. If you want
 to a good job you must go to a good school and you must
 take a good education. There aren't good education opportunities in
 small cities. In a small city there are a few department. also small
 department, but big cities have more opportunities than small cities.
 R34 L L L L C1

In conclusion, being healthy, good opportunities and
 good financial situation is only about living in a big city. If you
 live in a big city you can get these easily.
 L L L L R21

- Lexical { repetition 54
 synonym 3
 Antonym 5
 superordinate
 General item
 collocation 2

624

Chen and You (2007) mention two types of explanations for the lack of significant correlation between the number of cohesive devices used and the writing scores. The first might be the existence of schemata theory. Carrell (1982) claims that the coherence of a text depends on readers' background knowledge of the text and of the writers' purpose, and also their reasoning ability and assumption. The second may be the students' overuse of cohesive devices. In other words the betterment of writing cannot be inferred from the overuse of cohesive items.

Contrary to the findings arrived at in the present study, there have been some other studies suggesting a positive correlation between the use of cohesive devices and writing quality. Witte and Faigley's (1981) study on the relation between patterns of cohesiveness and quality of writing manifests that high-rated compositions had more cohesive ties than the low-rated ones. The low-rated compositions were redundant, had fewer conjunctive devices and reference ties and lacked appropriate vocabulary. Thus, they concluded that "cohesion may be potentially useful in distinguishing between stages of writing quality" (Witte and Faigley, 1981:199). McCulley (1985) in his study of writing quality, coherence and cohesion supports the assumption made by Witte and Faigley that especially lexical collocation indicates overall writing ability to construct ideas or to take advantage of associations to make the text hang together.

Liu and Braine (2005) also found a correlation between cohesion and writing quality. Their study on EFL learners' argumentative writing reveals that the essay scores were closely correlated with the number of lexical ties and the total number of cohesive ties used (Liu & Braine, 2005, p. 634). It is worth noting that students' vocabulary level of English is an important factor affecting their writing quality (Guanghui & Qiufang, 1999 cited in Zhang, 2010).

Table 4.23
The Correlation between Composition Scores and the Number of Cohesive Devices

Scores		
Repetition	Pearson Correlation	-.112
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.266
	N	100
Synonym	Pearson Correlation	-.136
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.177
	N	100
Antonym	Pearson Correlation	-.150
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.137
	N	100
Super-ordinate	Pearson Correlation	-.055
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.584
	N	100
General Words	Pearson Correlation	-.076
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.450
	N	100
Collocation	Pearson Correlation	.193
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.054
	N	100
Additive	Pearson Correlation	-.076
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.450
	N	100
Adversative	Pearson Correlation	-.090
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.373
	N	100
Causal	Pearson Correlation	-.024
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.811
	N	100
Temporal	Pearson Correlation	-.083
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.411
	N	100
Continuative	Pearson Correlation	.093
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.357
	N	100
Pronominal	Pearson Correlation	-.007
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.946
	N	100
Demonstrative	Pearson Correlation	-.009
	Sig. (2-tailed)	
	N	100

	Sig. (2-tailed)	.925
	N	100
Definite Article	Pearson Correlation	.001
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.990
	N	100
Comparative	Pearson Correlation	-.042
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.677
	N	100
Substitution	Pearson Correlation	.208*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.038
	N	100
Ellipsis	Pearson Correlation	.100
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.321
	N	100
Reference	Pearson Correlation	-.020
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.843
	N	100
Conjunction	Pearson Correlation	-.112
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.269
	N	100
Lexical	Pearson Correlation	-.153
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.128
	N	100
Cohesive	Pearson Correlation	-.157
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.119
	N	100

4.5. The Frequency Analysis

Following is a frequency report of cohesive devices used in the compositions of Turkish undergraduate students.

Table 4.24

The Frequency of Cohesive Devices Used in the Compositions of Turkish Undergraduate Students

Descriptive Statistics			
	N	Minimum	Maximum
Repetition	100	4	63
Synonymy	100	0	27

Antonymy	100	0	27
Superordinate	100	0	7
General Word	100	0	6
Collocation	100	0	5
Additives	100	1	21
Adversatives	100	0	6
Causals	100	0	21
Temporals	100	0	40
Continuatives	100	0	4
Pronominals	100	0	40
Demonstratives	100	0	9
Definite Article	100	0	16
Comparatives	100	0	23
Referencing	100	4.00	83.00
Conjunction	100	3.00	50.00
Lexical Cohesives	100	11.00	107.00
Valid N (listwise)	100		

As shown in Table 4.24, the most frequently-used devices are the lexical cohesives and the least frequently-used devices are, comparatives, definite article, demonstratives, pronominals, continuatives, temporals, causals, adversatives, collocation, general word, superordinate, antonymy, and synonymy and some with zero use in some compositions. This indicates that Turkish students achieve writing quality mostly by employing lexical cohesive devices.

4.6. The Qualitative Findings

This section tries to answer and analyze the qualitative research questions.

4.6.1. The analysis of the students' responses to four open-ended questions (qualitative study I):

Research Question 1: What do you know about cohesion? Have you ever taken explicit information or instruction about cohesion?

The responses in common:

Cohesion can be used as connection of two or more sentences, by using connectors and conjunctions. It is necessary for creating meaningful text. It creates meaning integrity in essays and makes the meaning of a text clear. Cohesion also makes sentences coherent with each other and implies connectivity in a text.

Cohesion means that the sentences and thoughts are relevant to each other and helps reader understand the main idea. It also renders sentences meaningful and effective and provides a fluent passage. Cohesion and coherence are inseparable parts of writing.

1. (Student 2) In a piece of writing, sentences must be related each other. We need to be careful about sequence of the sentences. Cohesion is that every sentence's meaning should be related to both previous and next sentence. Cohesion should exist from top to bottom of a text.
2. (Student 7) We use cohesion to link two sentences. It is very useful for us to make cohesion because it shortens our writing and gives us opportunity to avoid ambiguity. I have taken instruction about cohesion in my second year.
3. (Student 4) We ignore cohesion in grammar lessons and language lessons. Cohesion is important for the sentence order. We have never taken explicit instruction in our courses. We should have more information about it.
4. (Student 11) Cohesion is more important for my compositions. I have taken explicit information or instruction about cohesion. I try to practice these information and instruction in compositions.
5. (Student 14) I know cohesion. We use it in sentences. Cohesion combines two or more sentences. We have taken some instruction about cohesion. We always see it in newspapers, books, etc.

Research Question 2: Where do you attach importance while you are writing your composition?

The responses in common:

The most important parts of a piece of writing are introduction, body and conclusion because a well-organized introduction attracts readers. Besides, the choice of appropriate words, or vocabulary, the correct use of conjunctions and of grammatical

structures along with cohesion and coherence are important and thus, they should be taken into consideration in writing. Creating logical unity and relatedness of sentences with each other (coherence) are also of great importance in in writing any piece of writing.

1. (Student 15) While I write my composition, I attach importance to cohesion, grammar and vocabulary. It is very important to write a text by using grammar rules. Also, cohesion is so important to connect words. Vocabulary has a great importance in writing. We should select words with great care.
2. (Student 22) While I'm writing my composition, I attach iomportance for introduction, body and conclusion.
3. (Student 23) While I'm writing my composition, I give importance to grammatical structures, introduction, body, conclusion, and clear message about the subject.
4. (Student 24) In my opinion, conjunction is very important while we're writing. It's a useful method for our writing. It makes our writing of high quality. We can use them for introduction, body and conclusion.
5. (Student 31) In a composition, the use of cohesion is inevitable. Your background and language about the subject is essential in writing.

Research Question 3: What is your belief about writing? Positive or negative?

The responses in common:

Writing is a difficult task requiring sufficient knowledge of vocabulary, knowledge of the topic under discussion, much reading, and thinking in English. Writing is a good means of explaining and expressing thoughts and feelings.

Positive. Writing is an enjoyable, creative and productive process. Some students say that they are afraid of writing because they don't have enough knowledge of English.

1. (Student 3) Writing is good for students, because writing improve their skills. Not only writing skills but also it improves their grammar skills, reading skills.
2. (Student 8) My belief about writing is positive. In my opinion, everyone who learns language should write something by that language. I think it is the best

way to explain feelings, opinions, ideas and the like. Everyone may benefit from writing about any topic. People apply to writing to support their ideas and so on.

3. (Student 9) I like writing. It is enjoyable. But if we like writing, we have to know grammar rules, connections, and also how to make introduction, body and conclusion.
4. (Student 11) Negative, because I don't like writing. I think I'm not good at writing.
5. (Student 12) I have positive belief about writing because writing is one of the important areas in developing the foreign language.

Research Question 4: What would you want to write better in English?

The responses in common:

Content and style are more important than grammar and they overshadow grammatical problems. In most of the responses, grammatical structures along with cohesion and coherence were mentioned to be written better in English. A few responses implied the choice of the topic as an interesting one attracting students to write better. Some of the responses emphasized error-free writing.

1. (Student 22) Grammar is important for us. I want to write grammatical structures, expressions, content, context, and so on. I pay attention to these points.
2. (Student 21) In English, content is important. Content must be understandable.
3. (Student 19) While I am writing an essay or a paragraph, grammatical and logical structures are important for me.
4. (Student 17) Cohesion and content are important for me.
5. (Student 15) When I write in English, it is very important for me to give attention to both coherence and grammatical rules. Without coherence, the text can be boring and the reader won't enjoy reading it. It can be nonsense if we don't give attention to grammatical rules.

4.6.2. The analysis of the teachers' responses to the open-ended questions (qualitative study II):

Research Question 1: What is the place of cohesive devices while you're rating students' compositions?

The responses in common:

Most of the responses showed that cohesion and cohesive devices are of great importance in evaluating students' writings. They link the sentences to create a unified whole. Using them effectively in compositions affects the score obtained.

Cohesive devices have the second place in evaluating compositions. First, the three components of writing an essay, namely, introduction, body development, and conclusion are taken into account. Then, the use of cohesion is among the key components of writing evaluation.

Some teachers argued that cohesion, or to say connection, were much more important than grammar. Even in teaching, students should be exposed to a lot of cohesion-related practice.

1. (Teacher 1) I pay extra attention while rating my students' papers. Otherwise the products remain quite novice and not academic. Connection is very important, even more important than grammar.

2. (Teacher 3) As rating the students' compositions, cohesive devices have the second place following the organization of the work as *introduction*, *body paragraphs*, and *conclusion*. After looking at these three components of writing, I look for unity and comprehensibility of the sentences and ideas. Therefore, as rating the compositions of the students, I put the use of cohesion and cohesive devices among the key components of writing, without which the work cannot be considered as a composition and cannot get a high score in my assessment.

3. (Teacher 9) While rating students' compositions, I try to take into consideration the use of cohesive devices. I also focus on the meaningfulness and the general harmony of words.

4. (Teacher 8) In rating compositions, cohesive devices are evaluated as one of the basic factors which distinguish essays ranked high and low in quality. In terms of

textuality, these devices are of importance to obtain relationships between sentence boundaries, which provide the unity and connectedness of paragraphs.

5. (Teacher 7) In essays, cohesive devices are of great importance to understand a paragraph easily. In evaluation of students' compositions, cohesive devices are the first things to be searched.

Research Question 2: Do you attach importance to cohesion and cohesive devices while teaching writing? And how?

The responses in common:

Based on the responses made, any type of writing requires sound knowledge of cohesion. The teachers said that while teaching, they emphasized the value and importance of cohesive devices through exemplifying correct use of them. They also added that in writing-oriented courses, cohesive devices should be taken into consideration i.e., students should be exposed to sufficient cohesion-related input.

The responses indicated that the teachers paid much attention to cohesion and cohesive devices while teaching not only in writing but in writing-oriented courses as well. According to them, there exist different techniques and procedures in teaching cohesive devices both explicitly and implicitly ranging from using puzzles, games to asking them to produce and read short pieces of texts.

1.(Teacher 1) I pay close attention while teaching. While teaching, I explicitly inform my students to make them aware of cohesion and coherence and make some practice.

2. (Teacher 2) Yes. There is no one way of teaching cohesive devices. Different techniques are used to teach them. For texts including cohesive devices, puzzles and games can be used. Using these techniques related to cohesion shows the attributed importance of cohesion.

3. (Teacher 3) To me, the use of cohesion and cohesive devices is of great importance for writing good compositions. In order for ideas and sentences are brought together in a clear and comprehensible way, they have to be used. So, in teaching writing, I especially emphasize these devices by spending a few hours for their teaching. In these lessons I present the pieces of writing with and without them. After discussing

these pieces, I explain the role of these devices for writing well-organized compositions. In what follows, I ask the students to write their own compositions being curious about the devices. As rating the compositions, I underlie the devices used and then give feedback about their usage.

4. (Teacher 6) Any type of writing requires sound knowledge of cohesion. Therefore, I always emphasize the value and the importance of cohesive devices and frequently exemplify the correct use of them.

5. (Teacher 9) I don't focus too much on teaching cohesive devices, but when I do, I show students some sample compositions and articles related to the use of cohesive devices. So, they can realize what cohesive devices are.

Research Question 3: What is the awareness level of your students about cohesion and cohesive devices?

The responses in common:

Most of the responses analyzed manifested that students are mainly weak in writing and hence, in using cohesion and cohesive devices. This might be due to the lack of reading and poor use of oral mode of language. Therefore, the explicit instruction of them are recommended to raise the awareness level of their cohesion knowledge. According to the results obtained, the students who are successful in essay writing in their native language are capable of producing coherent texts. Students who passed writing courses systematically can make use of cohesive devices to create coherent essays.

1.(Teacher 6) Unfortunately, general awareness level of students is rather low. This is mainly due to lack of reading and poor use of oral form of language.

2. (Teacher 1) My students unfortunately lack about cohesion and coherence in terms of awareness. That's why I need to give some explicit instruction.

3. (Teacher 2) They are aware of those devices sufficiently. They use them when they are needed. They also use them effectively.

4. (Teacher 3) The students who are good at writing compositions in their first language are already aware of cohesion and cohesive devices. Therefore, their awareness level is higher than the other students who will just learn these devices and

their role in composition writing in EFL. However, there is not much difference among these two groups in terms of their level of success in the use of these devices.

5. (Teacher 8) The awareness level of the students is directly related to the knowledge they have about essay writing and its organization. At this point, the students, successful in their native language, are more aware in the production of coherent texts because they know the system and mechanics of a well-organized essay. Additionally, the students who have had writing courses systematically make effort to use cohesive devices and to write coherent essays.

Research Question 4: How do you rate or give scores while reading your students' compositions?

The responses in common:

In rating students' compositions, cohesion and coherence are more important. Mechanics is also of great importance. Short criteria list involving both holistic and analytic rating are used in giving scores to compositions. For some teachers, introduction, body and conclusion of an essay come first. Then, cohesion, coherence and grammatical accuracy are taken into consideration.

1.(Teacher 1) I rate students' papers considering content first and mechanics second. Cohesion and coherence and content knowledge are more important to me.

2. (Teacher 2) The students' writings are evaluated as to some pre-determined criteria. There is not a holistic evaluation. A scale is used for assessing students' writings.

3. (Teacher 9) Harmony of words, coherence, order and flow of sentences related to the composition topic, are some of the points I take into consideration while rating students' compositions.

4. (Teacher 8) To rate the students' essays, I prefer using analytical and holistic rubrics through which the specific details of the essays as well as the overall organization can be professionally and adequately analyzed. According to the instructions and criteria within these rubrics, I give scores to their productions.

5. (Teacher 6) I apply the rule of "three Cs". Considering the fact that a composition should be concise, coherent and clear. I also find it necessary to rate correct use of vocabulary as well as good grammar.



CHAPTER V

5. DISCUSSIONS, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

5. 1. Introduction

This chapter is first going to report the significant correlations and then explain how correlation between cohesive devices can indicate their role in writing quality. The significant correlations are presented in Table 4.23 in previous chapter. A quick look at the table reveals that successful Turkish L2 writers employed all types of cohesive devices including many subtypes of cohesion. Lexical devices constituted the largest part of cohesion, followed by reference and conjunction. Within lexical cohesion, repetition was the highest, accounting for more than three-fifths of all lexical cohesive devices, followed by synonymy and antonymy constituting an almost equal share together. The findings of the present study are compatible with those of past studies and suggest that increased use of synonymy and antonymy may be a characteristic of very advanced writers, labeled “high-rated writers” in Witte & Faigley’s (1981) study.

In the present study, pronominals made up the largest percentage of reference devices, followed closely by comparatives and demonstratives. This finding showed that nonnative writers used more pronominals, often in ways that made their texts “confusing” to the reader (Hinkel, 2001, p. 124)

Within the conjunctive type, temporals exceeded additives, adversatives and causals. For the most part, the most frequent items matched findings in previous studies. The high employment of temporal connectors intensifies the pace of composition where the passage of time is an important concept. This result was compatible with findings of Vahid Dastjerdi, et al. (2011).

5.2. Cohesion

Descriptive statistics was used in the analysis of the raw data. All cohesive ties were counted and the percentages were calculated. It was shown that the subjects employed a variety of cohesive devices in their argumentative compositions, with one category of ties being used more frequently than others.

5.2.1. Reference Cohesion

Among the three subcategories of reference devices, pronouns had the highest percentage of use (37.15%), followed by the demonstratives (including the definite article **the**, 34.79%), and the comparatives (27.95%). Comparatives had the least percentage of use. Meisuo's (2000) findings are rather different from the findings of the current study in that demonstratives (excluding the definite article **the**) were the least used in expository compositions by Chinese undergraduate English majors (Meisuo, 2000). The frequently used pronouns were "they" "them" "this" "these" and "you".

The third person plural pronouns "they", "them", "their" were used for widely-accepted truth or popular belief or opinion or even for referring to a common phenomenon or situation which is far from the students as writers. In addition to that, the students heavily used the pronoun "you" and this signifies the fact that they didn't take their readers and their voice into consideration. Thus, by avoiding the use of third person pronouns, the participants made their compositions more subjective and personal (Chen & You, 2007).

First person plural pronouns **we**, **our**, **us**, were employed to imply writer's awareness that he/she is arguing for a group and that the problem of under discussion includes others. Thus, it establishes common ground with the reader. On the other hand, first person singular pronouns were employed for expressing personal opinion in relation with the problem of argumentation. The students tended to use third person pronouns so that they could appear more objective and authoritative in their writing (Liu & Braine, 2005). In some compositions, too many pronouns were used, while some of them are actually not necessary and even cause redundancy and ambiguity to readers. In such cases, the writer is expected to employ the grammatical structures in which to use fewer pronouns, i.e. to combine sentences.

In the present study "this" and "these" were employed more than "that" and "those", and all of them are basically used to indicate distance. However, the example 2 shows that the demonstratives of nearness were used to connect ideas to previously given information rather than distance. All of them can be demonstrated by the following extracts from the students' compositions.

The frequent use of referencing by pronouns is indicative of the fact that Turkish undergraduate writers tend to develop their ideas in separate sentences or clauses because employing a pronoun necessitates referring back to the first sentence or clause. Pronoun reference relating to the concept of cohesion and coherence deeply affects both reading and writing (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000). In reading, the readers need to have and use the knowledge of grammatical features as an instrument to indicate the references that appear in the text, such as the definite article, pronouns, or demonstratives. However, the pronoun reference can have many possible antecedents, and it is sometimes difficult to indicate the correct referent. The ESL/EFL readers, then, have to reread the sentence again and again to insure their comprehension. To improve EFL and ESL students' reading skill, Celce-Murcia suggested that the learners should have enough opportunity to practice identifying correct antecedents of pronoun reference and using the pronoun in more accurate ways. In writing, Fox (1987) investigated the use of third-person singular references and said that successful text from the audience's viewpoint should demonstrate an anticipation of the reader's comprehension of the texts, or at least develop reader's understanding throughout the text because it is impossible for the readers to access the writer's head in order to figure out what the text is all about. In addition, use of an appropriate pronoun referring back to the key word is one of the tactics that makes the writing smooth and allows readers to follow the text more easily (Greenberg, 1988).

Pronominal

1. (Essay no. 1) First of all, if **we** look at a street in a big city, **we** can see not only a lot of moving cars but also the cars that parked both sides of the street.
2. (Essay no. 43) In **my** opinion, it is good for us living in a small city because there is less danger and more quiet.
3. (Essay no. 48) Living in small towns has its own difficulties, **people** are very close together. **They** are familiar with each other, but **they** don't have many comfortable things for living better. **They** have to work in farms, **they** grow vegetables, grow children. All the time **they** are busy. **They** have not much income. **They** have not much places for fun of children.

Demonstrative

4. (Essay no. 2) Living in a big city has many advantages such as social and economical opportunities, the better health conditions. **These** are important for both young and old people. So, **these** make living in a big city very attractive for them.
5. (Essay no. 2) People who live **in there** go another city to find a job.

In the extract no. 1 the demonstrative **these** as well as **this** in no. 11 below were used alone, i.e., functioning as head. Also, in no. 2 the demonstrative **there** was accompanied by the preposition **in** which might be due to interference from L1.

Comparative

2. (Essay no. 52) In big city (cities), because of the large distance between places, people have to waste more time to do thing or even to go to work. Traffic is one of the usual problems in **such** cities.

5.2.2. Substitution and Ellipsis

According to Table 4.4., it is evident that the least use of cohesive devices belonged to substitution (16%) and ellipsis (0.08%). The pilot study carried out by the researcher also produced similar results. This is due to the fact that they are mainly employed in dialogues, that is, they are seldom used in formal writing and compositions (Halliday & Hasan, 1976).

7. (Essay no. 44) Another sorrowful thing which is related to previous **one** is environment

8. (Essay no. 92) In the past, there were small villages or towns which were good places to live in, but today, there are big cities which overcome small **ones** to live in.

9. (Essay no. 41) People live in somewhere. **Some** live in a big, beautiful city. **Some** live in bad conditions.

10. (Essay no. 97) Some people prefer to live in small towns, however, **others** prefer to live in a big city.

5.2.3. Conjunctive Cohesion

As far as the conjunction is concerned, the analysis indicated that the students had some knowledge of the conjunction devices and employed some of them to connect their ideas and elaborate on them in their compositions, but not all the conjunctive devices were used by them. The heavily used conjunctive devices were “and”, “or” from additives, “but”, “so” from adversatives, “because”, “so”, “on the other hand” from causal, “ first of all”, “secondly”, “thirdly”, “ to sum up” from temporal and “of course” from continuative. Among them, “and” and “but” occurred much more frequently than any other cohesive devices because they are simple and useful connectors to link nouns, clauses, or sentences together. Furthermore, English learners learn them very easily in the learning process. The examples for each one are given below.

Additive

10. (Essay no.29) **Also** using technology is another important characteristic of big cities.

Adversative

11. (Essay no. 75) Living in a big city, you have access to much more both educational and job opportunities. Furthermore, you have ca higher level of convenience, better hospitals, ... **On the other hand**, big cities have their own disadvantages, crowdedness, pollution, more extra working hours and high living costs.

Causal

12. (Essay 43) The second problem is that there is no friendship. In a big city you to get used to live alone **because** everybody thinks themselves. **So**, most people experience psychological problems **because of** loneliness.

Temporal

13. (Essay no. 15) Firstly, education is very important for children. So, they must be educated properly.

Continuative

14. (Essay no. 44) Have you thought is living in a big city is good or not before? **Of course** it has both advantages and disadvantages. It depends on what kind of life you like.

Further analysis suggested that almost all of conjunctive devices were placed in the initial position. The preference for putting conjunctions at the beginning of the sentence is also supported by Yvette and Yip who contended that “Cantonese L2 writers opted for initial position more frequently than the native-speakers, and the L1 writers chose non-position commonly as well” (Yvette & Yip, 1992: 21-22 cited in Sanczyk, 2010).

5.2.4. Lexical Cohesion

Table 4.4 shows that the students possessed some knowledge of lexical devices and were capable of employing a variety of them in their compositions with one category or subcategory being used more extensively than others. According to the percentage of each category, the lexical cohesion was the most common device. This finding supports the idea that lexical cohesion is an important category of cohesion, and among its subcategories, repetition of the same word had the highest frequency. Thus, it is evident that the students employed it to keep the continuity of their writing. These results on the frequency of lexical cohesion resemble Liu and Braine’s (2005) study in which he also found that in argumentative writing, repetition was the most frequently used device. Although the repetition devices were widely used, however, some of them were wrong and thus, made the text seemed awkward and incorrect.

Errors in lexical cohesion might be due to various factors including limited vocabulary, misuse of words and expressions or interference from the first language, i.e., Turkish. Connor (1984) claims that the limited choice of vocabulary manifests a developmental problem which can be improved over time with the development of language proficiency.

Repetition

As mentioned above, repetition having the highest frequency was extensively used in the students’ compositions. The following texts illustrate this point:

12. (Essay no. 36) **Living** in a **big city** has lots of **advantages**, such as well-developed education and health care systems and a well-built structure. I think **living** in a **big city** has some **advantages** than **living** in a small **city**.

Synonym

Synonymous words belong either to the same or different parts of speech. In this study, the synonymous words were rarely used across sentences, they were usually employed within the sentences.

13. (Essay no. 68) These knowledgeable people design very **useful** and **profitable** plans to enhance the situation of city.

Antonymy

Words with opposite in meaning also contribute to the cohesiveness and coherence of a text. In comparison with the previous subcategories, e.g., repetition and synonym, antonym is the third subcategory in terms of frequency.

14 (Essay no. 92) **Big** cities have their special **advantages** and also **disadvantages** in comparison with **small** towns.

Superordinate

Super-ordinate refers to the cohesive relation by the use of a general class item and the one that belonged to it.

15. (Essay no. 18) Big cities have every kind of transportation when you want to go somewhere, you can find a **transportation vehicle**, if haven't **vehicle**. People do not think how can I go there. **Taxis, buses, ships, motorcycles, trains** etc. work for them.

General Word

This is the cohesive relation of two words that have a specific-general relation. In other

16. (Essay no. 18) But now **people** go to schools and send to schools their **children**.

Collocation

Collocation subcategory of lexical cohesion is achieved through the association of lexical items that regularly comes together.

17. (Essay no. 12) Firstly, **education** conditions in big cities are the most particular thing. Because teachers **in schools** have more experience than small cities. They know how they should **teach students**.

5.3. Cohesion and Writing Quality

Since the emergence of cohesion in text linguistics (Halliday and Hasan, 1976), a plethora of studies have been conducted to investigate the relationship between cohesive devices and writing quality. Unfortunately, few studies, if any, (see Coşkun, 2011; Gunay, 2003; Gokturk, 1988; Gultekin, 2000) have been carried out on cohesion and writing quality in Turkey. The current study whose research questions are to explore frequency, cohesion problems and cohesion in writing quality is expected to contribute significantly to EFL writing of Turkish students.

As shown in Tables in Chapter 4, the students had a knowledge of cohesive devices and employed a variety of them in their compositions. Nevertheless, it should be noted that the two main categories of cohesion, namely, reference, and lexical cohesion had a considerable range, from 79 to 96, respectively. In order to investigate the relation between the number of cohesive devices and writing quality, correlation was computed between the numerical composition scores and the frequency of devices in terms of three main cohesive categories, i.e., reference, conjunction and lexical cohesion as well as in terms of their subcategories (Liu and Braine, 2005).

The correlation matrix indicated that there was no statistically significant relationship between the number of cohesive ties used and the quality of writing. Similarly, based on the analysis of variance, no statistically significant differences between the highly-rated and poorly-rated compositions in the frequency of the use of cohesive ties were found. These findings showed that the number of cohesive devices cannot be a proper gauge for the quality of writing. In other words, the number of cohesive devices could not be a reliable indicator of the quality of writing. These findings correspond to some other studies conducted by different researchers, (Tierney

and Mosenthal (1983), Connor (1984), Allard and Ulatowska (1991), Johnson (1992) and Karasi (1994) cited in Meisuo 2000).

Chen and You (2007) mention two types of explanations for the lack of significant correlation between the number of cohesive devices and the writing scores. The first might be the existence of schemata theory. Carrell (1982) claims that the coherence of a text depends on readers' background knowledge of the text and of the writers' purpose, and also their reasoning ability and assumption. The second may be the students' overuse of cohesive devices. In other words the betterment of writing cannot be inferred from the overuse of cohesive items.

Contrary to the findings arrived at in the present study, there have been some other studies suggesting a positive correlation between the use of cohesive devices and writing quality. Witte and Faigley's (1981) study on the relation between patterns of cohesiveness and quality of writing manifests that high-rated compositions had more cohesive ties than the low-rated ones. The low-rated compositions were redundant, had fewer conjunctive devices and reference ties and lacked appropriate vocabulary. Thus, they concluded that "cohesion may be potentially useful in distinguishing between stages of writing quality" (Witte and Faigley, 1981:199). McCulley (1985) in his study of writing quality, coherence and cohesion supports the assumption made by Witte and Faigley that especially lexical collocation indicates overall writing ability to construct ideas or to take advantage of associations to make the text hang together.

Liu and Braine (2005) also found a correlation between cohesion and writing quality. Their study on EFL learners' argumentative writing reveals that the essay scores were closely correlated with the number of lexical ties and the total number of cohesive ties used (Liu & Braine, 2005, p. 634). It is worth noting that students' vocabulary level of English is an important factor affecting their writing quality (Guanghai & Qiufang, 1999 cited in Zhang, 2010).

5.4. Problems with Cohesion

As mentioned earlier, the data of the present study were the 100 students' compositions in Ataturk University. This section aimed at the third research question being "*do students have any problems regarding cohesive devices in their writing?*" The analysis of the data manifested that the students had a knowledge of cohesive

devices and used them to produce cohesive and coherent texts. However, in the process of analyzing, the researcher found some cohesion problems made by the students in their writing and they are briefly illustrated below.

5.4.1. Problems with reference

As previously stated, the reference devices were the second most frequently used cohesive devices in the compositions. But the students came out not to be able to use them easily. The use of some of the cohesive devices seemed to be problematic. There were frequent use of “we” “you” “us” and “our”, “they” indicating that the writers intended to convey personal involvement and to engage the reader in the discussion. In some compositions, the writer employed the pronoun “I” to bring an example of himself/herself to give his/her personal idea or experience. Moreover, the high use of such reference words made the writing seem informal and confusing.

Some reference problems were found to be noticeable in the compositions. One of the problematic areas for the students was the frequent use and shift of pronouns. That is, in the shifted use of pronouns, the writer moved from the second person pronouns to the third ones, that is, moving from “you” to “we” “our” or “they” and vice versa. In example no. 3. below the writer talked about **people** in the first part of the sentence, but in the second part he used the pronoun “**you**” instead of **them**. Such sudden shift of pronouns not only confuses the readers in understanding the text but also mixes up the reference use (Chen & You, 2007). These errors may occur because of weak awareness of reference clarity and consistency.

On the other hand, the writer used the reference items so extensively that he/she made the reader perplexed and the text ambiguous. What was obtained in this regard is in line with the results of some other studies of cohesion (Castro, 2004; Crewe, 1990; Liu & Braine, 2005; Zhang, 2000). Some examples of wrongly used pronouns and the definite article “the” from the students’ compositions are given below. The texts have been left intact.

In no. 1, the student made use of **you** instead of **we** and in no. 2, **you** instead of **them** was used. In no. 3, the student did not know where to use definite article, and as the text shows, the student used ‘**the**’ in cases where there was no need for the use of it.

1.(Essay 3) One more problem is money. Money has a big place in **our** life. ... in **our** life we need to buy most of things. If **you** live in big city, everything is expensive. So **you** think how **you** making ends meet.

2. (Essay no. 11) **People** rush in around the city and this situation bothers **you**.

3. (Essay no.11) There are a lot of advantages and disadvantages in **the** city life. **The** advantages of living in a big city are: **the** easy access to **the** developed social activities, **the** easy availability of health care systems, job opportunities, and education In big cities, most of **the** streets, public places, parks, trains, buses are crowded.

4. Essay no. 10) Today many people are living in a big city. **They** want to know everything, do **their** best for better life, so, **they** need to reach quick information, recently (recent) news, because if **they** know a lot of something, **they** reach it and develop themselves much more.

Regarding the other subcategories of reference type, the demonstratives and comparatives, the former was employed more than the latter. The reason for this might be the inclusion of the definite article “the” in the demonstrative subcategory. In some compositions, the definite article “the” had a frequent use (357 times). However, in some cases the students omitted the necessary definite articles and in some other cases they inserted unnecessary ones. The students lacked the knowledge of the correct use of it. The demonstrative devices “this” and “these” also had a high frequency and were used alone, i.e., with no modifier. Comparative reference was the least used reference device, and the frequently used examples in the texts were *more* or *such*, and the comparative degree. The analysis of these cohesive devices indicates that all of the ties were anaphoric. Other comparative expressions as “as + adj./adv.”, and “so/as + adj./adv. + as” were very rarely used. This may manifest that either the students were weak in this area and had difficulty in producing them or they avoided employing them for fear of making ungrammatical structures. Thus, it requires more attention in both teaching and learning.

5. (Essay no. 44) Big cities are very crowded. As you know, population is increasing day by day. **This** brings other problems with it.

7. (Essay no. 55) Living in small towns, on the other hand, has its own advantages including low cost of living, the **lower** amount of air pollution, the **shorter** streets that save your time.

5.4.2. Problems with Conjunctions

The conjunction cohesion had the third percentage of use among the main categories of cohesion. This did not mean that the students were at ease with the use of this type of cohesion. The analysis indicated that they also had some problems of using conjunctive devices appropriately. They frequently employed some simple conjunctive devices such as “and”, “but”, “because”, “or” because they are easily used to connect phrases, clauses and sentences in writing. They are referred to as easy group of devices. Moreover, language learners start to learn them as soon as they attend English classes.

The close examination of the conjunctive devices showed that some of these devices were employed in an inappropriate and ineffective way. Therefore, the students wrote sentences with incorrect use of these devices ranging from the redundant use, misuse, overuse, to omission. In other words, some devices were unnecessary and their use not only did not contribute to the coherence of a text, but made texts appear disconnected and difficult to understand as well.

Some students used two conjunctive devices together in one place where only one was needed. Also, the students were not enough competent to use the conjunction devices in different positions to connect ideas and arguments properly. They usually preferred placing them in the initial. As to the temporal devices, “first”, “firstly”, “secondly”, “thirdly” and “finally” were used to show importance or sequence of time. The continuative devices were rarely used in the compositions with only 23 times in the 100 compositions. This might be due to the fact that they usually occur in spoken discourse. One instance of continuatives is illustrated below. In general, the students of this study did not have the sufficient knowledge of the conjunction devices and in some cases they used some conjunctive devices incorrectly and without knowing the meaning of the conjunctive device used as in no. 14. (See Examples below).

11. (Essay no. 1) I’m assuming that in every family at least two people have personal car. **And** nobody in that family uses public transportation. **So**, it is not helpful to have two cars. **Because** it is not useful.... . Lots of people live in big cities. That’s

why they called big cities. **Of course**, there are good people, too. **But** in every good, there are bad as well. **So, second** disadvantage is that people who are bad have bad habits, too.

12.(Essay no. 4) As another option, you will have your own house. **However**, with these conditions you will live in a relaxed way. **And thus**, you will make your meets end.

13.(Essay no. 99) I'm not interested in moving to a big city, **because although** it has many merits, it's definitely difficult for me to think about it **because of** some reasons: being in a hurry all the time **and** breathing in a polluted air.

14. (Essay 12) Firstly, education conditions in big cities are the most particular thing. Because teachers in schools have more experiences than small cities. They know how they should teach to student. **On the other hand**, the materials are so many in big cities.

5.4.3. Problems with Lexical Cohesion

In the subcategories of lexical devices, repetition of the same word had the highest percentage of use, followed by synonym and antonym, respectively. The other devices were scarcely used. The students used repetition of the same word more than half of the lexical cohesion.

Although lexical cohesion had a high frequency of total ties used, problems were recognized in the correct use of them. The high frequency in the repetition of the same words was due to either a limited repertoire of vocabulary by the students or time limit during writing. Therefore, the students had a tendency to use more words related to the topic of the composition. A glance at the words used indicates that the students k8focused on employing a fixed number of lexical items around the given topic of the compositions. Thus, the idea that the lexical cohesion is the most extensively device is supported in the analysis of the Turkish students' compositions (Liu & Braine, 2004; Meisuo, 2000). This study also supported the claim that repetition is the most frequently used device in the compositions written by EFL learners. Some of the repetitious words contained in the compositions were "live", "life", "big", "small", "problem", "people", "city", "town", "pollution", "facilities", "transportation".

As stated in the previous paragraph, another factor affecting the quality of writing in the use of lexical cohesion might be the time allotted during writing. Some students need much time in order to produce effective writing by avoiding repetitious words or phrases and employing appropriate synonyms, antonyms, collocations, superordinates and so on. Moreover, some others get embarrassed when they are asked to write essays in a limited time and this may affect the quality of writing.

Another factor concerning the wrong use of lexical devices, in particular, superordinates, general words or collocations might be brought about by learning vocabulary and other aspects of language in isolation i.e., learning English words and expressions through isolated bilingual lists or English-Turkish dictionaries, rather than English-English dictionaries. Learning language, in this case English, in context makes the students feel confident in knowing where, when and how to use language. The results obtained in the present study are similar to Zhang's (2000) findings in which the lexical devices were the most frequently used, but they followed by conjunction and reference devices. He also contended that foreign learners of English had difficulties in the use of lexical cohesion in their writing. This is the case with the results arrived at in this study.

5.5. Redundancy in Lexical Cohesion

Some errors in repetition involve redundant use of it, that is, the same lexical item is frequently repeated in the compositions. Redundant repetition, although not seriously blurring the meaning of the message, renders writing monotonous and uninteresting, and thus, hinders the flow of ideas. The main cause of redundant repetition seems likely to be the limited vocabulary, which prevents students from employing diversified words and expressions in writing. It can also be due to the assumption that the more cohesive devices, the better the writing would be, but such assumption of overuse cause the writing to be redundant and difficult to make sense out of it.

Another factor contributing to this problem may be that the students have been used to using redundant words in speech and bring this habit into formal writing. In other words, the students seem not to have been aware that one of the important features of formal/academic writing is to avoid redundant words and expressions. The fact that the good essays reveal no errors of redundant repetition suggests that the good writers

not only possess a significantly larger vocabulary vis-à-vis the poor writers, but are relatively familiar with the conventions of language use for formal/academic writing.

12. (Essay no. 18) Secondly, everyone must be educated. In the past, most of the **people** couldn't go to school and couldn't be educated. Because at that time, **people** had not enough schools and **people** didn't know anything about the importance of education. But now **people** go to school.

13. (Essay no. 4) Secondly, you deal with the **problems** which you have got in a big city, such as transportation **problems**, pollution **problems**, health **problems** and education **problems**. Because, especially Turkey has **problems** in these areas in the big cities and you have to deal with those **problems**.

14. (Essay no. 49) Another issue is **pollution**; large cities have a lot of **pollution**. This is very harmful for old men and old women. This **pollution** may be air **pollution** or noise **pollution** and maybe water **pollution**.

These examples unfold several points pertaining to the repetition of the same word. The students either are not competent enough in the English language to produce appropriate grammatical structures or use words repeatedly to make their compositions seem longer when they are asked to write an essay of about 250 words. Or even the time-constraint can affect the quality of writing. These findings seem to indicate the need to further investigate students' attempts to achieve lexical cohesion in their compositions. The results could be useful for ESL teachers in planning appropriate measures to assist ESL learners write more cohesively and coherently.

5.6. The Comments of the Qualitative Studies

5.6.1. Comments for Students' Responses

Research Question 1: What do you know about cohesion? Have you ever taken explicit information or instruction about cohesion?

Almost all of the students of the study stated that cohesion and cohesive devices were employed to connect sentences. However, the responses revealed that they did not have an adequate knowledge of cohesion as one of the necessary features of the texture of any piece of discourse. Some of them said that they had remembered only the term

'cohesion' of whatever they had learnt in their writing and linguistics courses offered in the second year of their education.

The analysis of the responses also indicated that the students mostly equated cohesion with conjunctions, or connectors. This might be due to the fact that the teacher had mentioned or exemplified such simple cohesive devices as 'and', 'but' and 'or' for connecting sentences and thus, the other types of cohesive devices were left unexplained, especially lexical cohesion which is of great importance in contributing to the coherence of writing.

In the responses, the students talked of coherence as an important feature of a text, saying, any text which is supposed to be a text should be coherent. However, they actually did not know what the notion of 'coherence' meant

Research Question 2: Where do you attach importance while you are writing your composition?

The points extracted from the students' responses to the above question revealed difference in opinion. Most of them regarded introduction, body and conclusion as the three main parts of an essay. However, they did not give any details of them. Some of the responses manifested that the choice of appropriate vocabulary, correct use of conjunctions and grammatical structures made the text coherent. In addition to it, the notions of coherence, cohesion and unity of meaning were introduced in the responses as important features of good and understandable writing.

In the compositions analyzed in quantitative study, few students, if any, observed the three parts of an essay, namely, introduction, body and conclusion. Although in the responses, cohesion and coherence were considered important in writing, the compositions had problems with different types of cohesive devices including lexical cohesion, i.e., redundancy, misuse and overuse. In some cases, there was lack of coherence in them. This inadequacy might result from the limited time in classroom activities or limitation in the related courses offered.

Research Question 3: What is your belief about writing? Positive or negative?

Based on the responses provided by the students, writing is a complex process which requires a high command of English knowledge, enough repertoire of

vocabulary, knowledge of the topic under discussion, much reading and thinking in English. The responses manifested that those who read a lot are successful in writing. Moreover, writing is a good means of communicating ideas and expressing thoughts and feelings.

Some responses indicated that the students were afraid of writing because of not having confidence in writing. This lack of confidence resulted from weakness in general knowledge and knowledge of the English language. Some students expressed negative attitude towards writing and said that they did not like writing essays in English.

The topic of writing an essay was also important and it had to be of great interest and appeal to students.

Research Question 4: What would you want to write better in English?

Almost all of the students said that they wrote grammatical structures better than any other area of language. According to the responses, they attempted to make their writings cohesive and coherent, but the results obtained showed that some of the compositions were problematic in terms of cohesion and coherence.

A favorite topic was another factor which caused the students to write better in English. To support this idea, the topic of the compositions in the quantitative study was “*Advantages and disadvantages of living in a big city and in a small town*”. According to the students, this topic appealed to the students and thus, some of them had written better compositions with high cohesion and coherence.

5.6.2. Comments for Teachers' Responses

Research Question 1: What is the place of cohesive devices while you're rating students' compositions?

According to the assertions made by teachers, three components constituting a good essay would be effective when they were accompanied by diverse cohesive devices, including lexical cohesion and conjunction devices to make the ideas logical. In the responses collected, grammar and cohesion were discussed separately, while they seem to complement each other. Grammar looked like a large umbrella covering the notion of cohesion.

Research Question 2: Do you attach importance to cohesion and cohesive devices while teaching writing? And how?

Based on the responses collected, any type of writing required sound knowledge of cohesion. The teachers said that while teaching, they emphasized the value and importance of cohesive devices through exemplifying correct use of them. They also added that in writing-oriented courses, cohesive devices had to be taken into consideration i.e., the students had to be exposed to sufficient cohesion-related input.

Research Question 3: What is the awareness level of your students about cohesion and cohesive devices?

Most of the responses analyzed manifested that students were mainly weak in writing and hence, in using cohesion and cohesive devices. This could be due to the lack of reading and poor use of oral mode of language. Therefore, the explicit instruction of writing activities and the cohesive devices was recommended to raise the awareness level of their cohesion knowledge.

Research Question 4: How do you rate or give scores while reading your students' compositions?

The totality of teachers' responses indicated that cohesion and coherence were the most important criteria in rating students' compositions. Mechanics was also of great importance. Short criteria list involving both holistic and analytic rating were used in giving scores to compositions. For some teachers, introduction, body and conclusion of an essay came first. Cohesion, coherence and grammatical accuracy were taken into consideration in the second place.

5.7. Conclusion and Pedagogical Implications

5.7.1. Introduction

Writing appears to be one of the most important ways of getting ideas across to other people. To express ideas in writing in a second or foreign language coherently and accurately is a demanding task. Any piece of writing must indicate some forms of cohesion and coherence in presenting ideas. In recent years, great attention has been given to how EFL and ESL learners actually write and what problems they usually encounter in their writing.

5.7.2. Conclusion

The aim of this dissertation was to investigate the essays written by Turkish undergraduates majoring in English as regards the use of cohesive devices. Cohesion is considered to be an important part of the unified texts; thus, the investigation of cohesion in texts produced by EFL students was supposed to provide useful information how relations contribute to the text being perceived as a whole.

The analysis was based on the framework proposed by Halliday and Hasan (1976) on the concept of cohesion in texts. The various aspects of cohesion were explained and exemplified and the cohesiveness in essay writing was outlined in the second chapter that was the theoretical basis for the analysis. Halliday and Hasan's system of analysis was more or less easily applicable, however, some difficulties occurred. First of all, some categorization of conjunction devices was confusing, for example, *nevertheless* or *nonetheless* was placed in different categories in Halliday and Hasan (1976) and Halliday (1994). I chose to follow the categorization by Halliday and Hasan and label , *nevertheless* and *nonetheless* as adversative as students used these conjunctions to contrast ideas or arguments, Secondly, the difficulties were encountered in applying collocation category. Different people associate differently, thus, some lexical items could be related for people with different backgrounds or experience. Some lexical items also can collocate differently in various situations. The essays were put under scrutiny as regards the use of cohesive devices, the frequency, cohesive chains and any problems connected with the use of cohesive ties. The investigation also aimed at determining relation between the cohesiveness of essays and the writing quality.

Although the collection of the material was cumbersome, the analysis proved to be interesting as it was revealed that the cohesive devices in the compositions written by Turkish students were used in a great amount and diversity. Thus, Turkish students were aware of the variety of cohesive devices that build up texture of a text. As was found in a few previous studies on cohesion in EFL writing, the most frequent device was used by Turkish students was lexical cohesion. By establishing lexical bonds through reiteration or collocation, students signaled what ideas were expressed in their compositions; for example, by repetition of keywords students stressed that the text was

centered around. Thus, lexical devices achieved through repetition contributed to the consistency of the subject matter under discussion. Turkish undergraduates also employed a variety of lexical items to vary the contents of the compositions. The lexical relations were also expressed through collocations that formed cohesive chains. The similarity chains provided a general field of the text, by creating lexical links of various words that were connected to the main idea of the text. The interaction between the identity and similarity chains in Turkish students' compositions facilitated the information flow and in consequences formed a coherent text.

Despite the fact that students seemed to employ many cohesive devices and chains in their texts, the essays were not free from mistakes. Apart from grammatical mistakes, the students had considerable problems in appropriate use of cohesive devices. The analysis revealed that students indeed had troubles in using cohesive devices properly and effectively, by overusing, misusing and underusing some devices. Thus, the inappropriate use affected the flow of ideas and arguments. The students had difficulties in using all three categories of cohesive chains, especially with conjunction links. There were minor mistakes found with the use of reference devices, such as the omission of definite pronouns, and some mistakes with lexical devices, such as the inaccurate use of collocations or mistakes in the proper use of wording. However, the most problematic matter was the use of conjunctions. Some students overused temporal or additive conjunctions which affected the readability of the compositions, other students had difficulties in choosing the correct conjunction link to express the relations between ideas. Hence, the use of cohesive devices caused some obstacles for EFL students, and this was proved in the analysis based on the Turkish learners. Thus, the right implementation of cohesive chains is a skill that is a prerequisite for effective writing, and the analysis implies the fact that students at the very advanced level still had difficulties in choosing the correct cohesive feature to express what they wanted. In addition, no correlation was found between the use of cohesive devices and the scores of compositions. This indicates that the number of cohesive devices was not a determining factor of the writing quality.

5.7.3. Pedagogical Implications

The findings of this study have some implications for both the teaching and learning of English writing for university undergraduates as well as for teachers. Most of the studies including the present one show that most university students have difficulty in using cohesive devices effectively and accurately. Based on the current quantitative analysis, the students were capable of employing only certain number of devices. For instance, among conjunction devices the students repeatedly made the use of the additives **and**, **also** and **or**. This is true for adversatives among which **but**, **on the other hand** were heavily used. As far as writing is concerned, conjunctives assist students produce an effective piece of writing and, in fact, they play a facilitating role in interaction; therefore, the lack or misuse of them would hinder successful communication.

First of all, students' unawareness of marking criteria is an important drawback in writing. i.e., since students do not know upon what criteria their compositions are going to be marked, they do not know what cohesive devices to use. Therefore, since marking criteria set the standards for judging students' writing, writing teachers and learners need to be familiarized with the marking criteria. It is incumbent upon the writing teachers to comprehend and explain the marking and assessing criteria to their class members, and thereby enhance students awareness of what contributes to the quality of writing (Densteadt, 1996, cited in Liu & Braine, 2005). As a result, the students will know what to emphasize when writing in English.

Second, some of the students were found to have problems in accurate and effective use of cohesive devices. As a result, the provision of explicit instruction with examples seems necessary by the writing teachers in class rather than accumulated awareness through learning (Al-Jarf, 2001; Reichelt, 2001). This becomes ever more required with regard to the fact that the Turkish undergraduate non-English majors may not have enough time to learn or have enough access to English.

In addition, focused activities should be developed and combined with explicit instruction. It is suggested that students use different cohesive devices and write a paragraph for 3–5 minutes. After that, peer review can be used to analyze the cohesive devices used in writings and to comment on the effects of using those cohesive devices.

After finishing each task, it is necessary for the teacher in writing class to choose a sample composition for critique, and thereby emphasize the effective and appropriate use of the cohesive devices and remind the students to avoid over-using or under-using cohesive devices.

Another point worthy of attention is the fact that the acquisition of English vocabulary by EFL learners has often been a hard task because learning a word requires learning subtle features of each word such as pronunciation, meaning and use. The kind of teaching referred to above may not be effective with the learning of lexical devices, because as noted, learning them concerns far more aspects of language such as semantics and pragmatics. To help raise the students' awareness of syntax and semantics, they need to be motivated and encouraged to read extensively. By so doing, they will extend their vocabulary and will, in addition, be able to better understand the use and meaning of words in different contexts. Not only reading (suggested by Liu, 2000), but also training students to paraphrase words or phrases by means of synonyms, antonyms, or examples through exercises seems highly demanded. Consequently, the students will not only recall many words but will also be able to compose clearer and more effective compositions through the use of lexical devices.

Moreover, because of the close relation between reading and writing (e.g., Carson, 1993; Kroll, 1993; Leki, 1993), reading should be integrated into and employed in the teaching of writing. The students should be made aware of the use of cohesive devices through training by means of explicit instruction, practice, and reading. The emphasis should be placed on the features that are explained and taught by the writing teacher in the class. On the other hand, students should produce types of writing modeled on the text they read. In this way, "the students are expected to become more sensitive to the characteristics of good English writing and more able to create writing of high quality as far as cohesion is concerned" (Liu & Braine, 2005, p. 635).

It is suggested that focused lessons (Meisuo, 2000) should be developed in this regard and aimed at improving the use of various cohesive devices. Most importantly, teachers should incorporate cohesion and coherence into the teaching of English writing and properly teach cohesive devices to students and encourage the correct use of these items.

Lubelska (1991) have suggested materials in teaching cohesive devices. The purpose of her sample materials is to improve the students' ability to understand cohesive devices better, employing what she calls "discovery procedures" (p. 569) to give the students the ability of discovering the significance of cohesive devices in an original text. According to Lubelska, the students' failure in understanding reading might be due to the lack of their ability to see the relationship of sentences to one another and the whole text.

In order to avoid any overuse, misuse or underuse of cohesive devices, teachers should provide students with adequate examples along with explaining the meaning and correct use of them. This explanation is necessary because students often use, for instance, a reference item(s) without really knowing what it/they refer(s) to, thus, resulting in ambiguity and problems in comprehension. The teaching of cohesion is also supported by Xin-hong (2007) in his study in applying cohesive devices in the teaching of writing to Chinese graduate students..He argues that the teaching of cohesive devices help students improve their writing skills, at least in the area of textual cohesion.

Some researchers on cohesion such as Meisuo (2000), Olateju (2006) state that explicit teaching of cohesive devices is of great help in improving cohesion in students' compositions. Hinkel (2001) also believes that "teachers need to work to expand accessible repertoire of grammatical structures and lexis (cohesion) because all these features play a crucial role in non-native speakers' ability to construct cohesive and coherent academic essays" (Hinkel, 2001:111-132).

The integration of the teaching of writing and the teaching of reading is another possible way of improving the students' knowledge of cohesion. In other words, there is little cooperation and integration between these two courses (Wang, 1986:14 cited in Meisuo, 2000). To arrive at the purpose of integration, the reading teacher can help students analyze the reading passages, e.g., effective use of cohesive devices and summary discussing issues taken from reading texts. On the other hand, the writing teacher may incorporate "model texts" (Meisuo, 2000, p. 89) in the classroom, i.e., exemplary texts of the type that the students themselves will be supposed to produce. It is hoped that, with the integration of reading and writing, students would have the knowledge of the characteristic features of good English writing.

The above-mentioned points somewhat correspond to those obtained by Alarcon and Morales (2011). They recommend teachers to make students understand the connection between the form and the function of language. According to them, in this way the students will come to know how pieces of text can be coherent without being cohesive or cohesive without being coherent (*ibid*, p. 127). For example, much emphasis should be placed upon concessive devices as more important argumentative tools than the adversative ‘but’.

Concerning the use of cohesion and cohesive devices in Turkish, as mentioned before, very few studies have been carried out. The most comprehensive study conducted on the use of cohesive devices in Turkish was by Coşkun (2005). In this study, the use of cohesive devices in Turkish was described on the basis of narrative texts written by primary education students. According to the results obtained by Coşkun (2011), the elliptical cohesive device, rarely used in formal writing in English, is heavily employed in the Turkish language and even it is a distinctive feature of the Turkish language.

Cohesion is an important criterion affecting the quality of writing and is of great importance for the improvement of the writing ability of the students and any errors made by students in producing cohesive relationships lessen the text coherence and its quality (Ramadan, 2003 cited in Coşkun, 2011). Thus, the teacher and practitioners involved in the English writing curriculum and teaching materials should take such points into consideration. Writing teachers and instructors should identify the types of errors students commit in their writing as well as know whether the errors recognized are specific to poor essays, good essays or both. Such recognition will help English language teachers take related pedagogical measures to tackle with the errors in students’ compositions.

The analysis of the data in the current study suggested that errors or misuse in conjunctions and demonstrative reference especially the definite article “the” and comparative reference are common to both poor and good compositions. Therefore, it may become necessary to incorporate teaching materials or lessons with focus on these areas into the teaching of writing. Moreover, they should be accompanied by elucidating with adequate examples the meaning and correct use of the cohesive devices in

question. This type of explanation can help students recognize the logical meaning of conjunctions as well as the rules and conventions of the reference cohesive devices. To help ESL/EFL learners write better English compositions, teachers are expected to devote time to the problems which appear in the students' writing, attempt to find the causes of errors and then take relevant pedagogical measures.

Besides, the students' knowledge and awareness of cohesion may be improved by independent reading activity because the time allotted for teacher-guided reading activities is unavoidably limited. It is worthwhile mentioning that any learning of cohesive items whether on behalf of the teacher or through students' independent reading should be "context-bound".



REFERENCES

- Alarcon, J. B. & Morales K. N. S. (2011). Grammatical Cohesion in Students' Argumentative Essay. *Journal of English and Literature*, 2(5), 114-127.
- Al-Jarf, R. S. (2001). Processing of cohesive devices by EFL Arab College Students. *Foreign Language Annals*, 34, 141-150.
- Allard, L. & Ulatowska, H. K. (1991). Cohesion in Written Narrative and Procedural Discourse of Fifth Grade Children. *Linguistics and Education*, 3, 63-79.
- Atkinson, D. (2000). On Robert B. Kaplan's response to Terry Santos et al.'s "On the future of second language writing." *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 9(3), 317-320.
- Bain, A. (1867). *English composition and rhetoric* (2nd American ed.). New York: D. Appleton and Company.
- Belcher, D. & Braine, G. (Eds.) (1995). *Academic Writing in a Second Language: Essays on Research and Pedagogy*. Norwood: Ablex-Greenwood.
- Benesch, S. (2001). *Critical English for Academic Purposes*. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.
- Bennett, G. R. (2011). *A Staircase Model for Teaching Grammar for EAP Writing in the IEP: Freshman Composition and the Noun Phrase*. Doctoral Dissertation. Department of English, School of English, Drama, and American and Canadian Studies, The University of Birmingham.
- Bhatia, V. (2014). *Worlds of written discourse: A genre-based view*. Bloomsbury Academic.
- Brown, G. & Yule, G. (1983). *Discourse Analysis*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Carrell, P. L. (1982). Cohesion is not coherence. *TESOL Quarterly*, 16(4), 479-488.
- Carson, C. (2001). Second language writing and second language acquisition. In T. Silvia & P. Matsuda (Eds.), *On second language writing* (pp. 191-200). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

- Carson, J. (1993). Reciprocal themes in ESL reading and writing. In J. G. Carson & I. Loki (Eds.), *Reading in the Composition Classroom: Second Language Perspectives* (pp. 85-104). Henley & Henley, Boston, MA.
- Castro, C. D. (2004). Cohesion and the social construction of meaning in the essays of Filipino college students writing in L2 English. *Asia Pacific Education Review*, 5(2), 215-225.
- Celce-Murcia, M. (Ed.). (2001). *Teaching English as a second or foreign language* (3rd edition.). Boston: Heinle & Heinle.
- Celce-Murcia, M., & Olshtain, E. (2000). *Discourse and context in language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Chang, J. 1987. Chinese Speakers. In M. Swan and B. Smith (Eds.). *Learner English* (pp. 224-237). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Chen, Y. L., & You, Y. L. (2007). *Less experienced EFL writers' knowledge and self-awareness of coherence in English writing*. Selected Papers from the Sixteenth International Symposium and Book Fair on English Teaching, 335-346. Taipei: Crane.
- Chomsky, N. (1976). On the nature of language. In S. R. Harnad, H. D. Steklis & J. Lancaster (Eds.), *Origins and Evolution of Language and Speech*. *Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences*, 280, 46-57.
- Christiansen, T. (2011). *Cohesion: A Discourse Perspective*. Peter Lang AG, International Academic Publishers.
- Collins, J. L. (1998). *Strategies for struggling writers*. New York: The Guilford Press.
- Connor, U. (1984). A Study of Cohesion and Coherence in English as a Second Language Students' Writing. *Papers in Linguistics: International Journal of Human Communication*, 17, 316-325.
- Connors, R. A. (1981). The rise and fall of the modes of discourse. *College Composition and Communication*, 52(4), pp. 444-455.
- Cook, Guy (1989). *Discourse*. Language Teaching: A Scheme for Teacher Education. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

- Cortina, J. M. (1994). What is coefficient alpha? An examination of theory and applications. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 78(1), 98-104.
- Coşkun, E. (2011). Cohesion in Compositions of Turkish and Immigrant Students, *Educational Sciences: Theory & Practice* 11(2), 892-899.
- Coulthard, M. (1985). *An Introduction to Discourse Analysis*. London: Longman
- Crewe, W. J. (1990). The illogic of logical connectives. *ELT Journal*, 44(4), 316-325.
- Crossley, S. A. & McNamara, D. S. (2011). Predicting second language writing proficiency: The role of cohesion, readability and lexical difficulty. *Journal of Research in Reading*
- Crossley, S. A., Varner, L. K., Roscoe, R. D., & McNamara, D. S. (2013). Using Automated Indices of Cohesion to Evaluate an Intelligent Tutoring System and an Automated Writing Evaluation System. In H. C. Lane, K. Yacef, J. Mostow, & P. Pavlik (Eds.), *Artificial Intelligence in Education: 16th International Conference, AIED 2013 Memphis, TN, USA, July 9-13, 2013 Proceedings*.
- Crossley, S., & McNamara, D. (2010). Cohesion, Coherence, and Expert Evaluations of Writing Proficiency. In S. Ohlsson, & R. Catrambone (Eds.) *Proceedings of the 32nd Annual Conference of the Cognitive Science Society*, (pp. 984-989). Cognitive Science Society, Austin.
- Crossley, S., & McNamara, D. (2011). Text Coherence and Judgments of Essay Quality: Models of Quality and Coherence. In L. Carlson, C. Hoelscher, & T. F. Shipley (Eds.) *Proceedings of the 29th Annual Conference of the Cognitive Science Society* (pp. 1236–1241). Cognitive Science Society, Austin.
- Crossley, S., & McNamara, D. (2012). Predicting Second Language Writing Proficiency: The Roles of Cohesion and Linguistic Sophistication. *K2Journal of Research in Reading*, 53, 115–136.
- Crossley, S., Weston, J., Sullivan, S., & McNamara, D. (2011). The Development of Writing Proficiency as a Function of Grade Level: A Linguistic Analysis. *Written Communication*, 28, 282–311.

- De Beaugrande, R. & Dressler, W. (1981). *Introduction to Text Linguistics*. London & New York: Longman.
- Densteadt, J. (1996). Balancing the teaching and assessment of writing. *TESOL Quarterly* 6, 35–36.
- Devillez, R. (2003). *Writing: Step by Step*. Kendall Hunt, Dubuque.
- Di Gennaro, K. (2006). Second language writing ability: Towards a complete construct definition. Teachers College. *Columbia University Working Papers in TESOL & Applied Linguistics*, 6(2), 1-17.
- Dueraman, B. (2007). *Cohesion and coherence in English essay written by Malaysian and Thai medical students*. Southern Thailand English Language Teaching/Cultural Change Conference.
- Edelsky, C. (1982). Writing in a bilingual program: The relation of L1 and L2 text. *TESOL Quarterly*, 16, 211-228.
- El-Gazzar, N. K. (2006). *Lexical Cohesive Devices in Arab Students' Academic Writing: Implications for Teaching Vocabulary*. M.A. Thesis. American University of Sharjah: College of Arts and Sciences.
- Ellis, D. G. (1992). *From Language to Communication* [Communication Textbook Series: Language and Discourse Processes]. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Enkvist, N. E. (1978). Coherence, pseudo-coherence, and non-coherence. In J.-O. Östman (Ed.), *Cohesion and Semantics* (pp. 109–128). Åbo: Meddelanden från Stiftelsens för Åbo Akademi Forskningsinstitut.
- Enkvist, N. E. (1985a). Coherence and inference. In U. Pieper & G. Stickel (Eds.), *Studia Linguistica Diachronica et Synchronica* (pp. 233–248). Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Ferris, D. R. & Hedgcock, J. (2005). *Teaching ESL composition: Purpose, process, and practice*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Flower, L. S., & Hayes, J. R. (1980). The cognition of discovery: Defining a rhetorical problem. *College Composition and Communication* 3, 1(1), 21-32.

- Foong, P. K. (1999). Second language writers' knowledge and perceptions about writing and learning to write strategies. In M. Y. Cheah & M. S. Ng. (Eds.), *Language Instructional Issues in Asian Classrooms*. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.
- Fox, B. A. (1987). *Discourse structure and anaphora*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Friedlander, A. (1990). Composing in English: Effects of a first language on writing in English as a second language, In B. Kroll (Ed.), *Second Language Writing: Research insights for the classroom* (pp.109-125). (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Fu, D. (2009). *Writing between languages: How English language learners make the transition to fluency (grade 4-12)*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Ghasemi, M. (2013). An Investigation into the Use of Cohesive Devices in Second Language Writings. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 3(9), 1615-1623.
- Golightly, K., & Sanders, G. (2000). *Writing and Reading in the Disciplines, vol. 2*. Pearson, New Jersey.
- Grabe, W., & Kaplan, R. B. (1996). *Theory and practice of writing: An applied linguistics perspectives*. London: Longman.
- Gravetter, F. J. & Forzano, L.-A. B (2012). *Research methods for the behavioral sciences* (4th ed.). Wadsworth, Cengage Learning.
- Greenberg, K. L. (1988). *Effective Writing Choices and Conventions*.
- Guanghai, M. & Qiufang, W. (1999). Research on the Influence Factors of College Students' English Writing Ability. *Foreign Language Teaching and Researching*, 4, 34-39.
- Halliday, M. A. K. & Hasan, R. (1985). *Language, context, and text: aspects of language in a social-semiotic perspective*. Oxford: OUP

- Halliday, M. A. K. & Hasan, R. (1985). *Language, context, and text: Aspects of language in a social-semiotic perspective*. Victoria: Deakin University Press.
- Halliday, M. A. K. (1970). Language structure and language function in J. Lyons (ed.), *New Horizons in Linguistics*. Harmondsworth: Penguin, 140-164
- Halliday, M. A. K. (1970). Language structure and language functions in Lyons (ed.), *New Horizons in Linguistics*, Harmondsworth: Penguin, 140-164
- Halliday, M. A. K. (1985). *An introduction to functional grammar*. Edward Arnold
- Halliday, M.A. K. & Hasan, R. (1976). *Cohesion in English*. London: Longman.
- Hamp-Lyons, L. & Kroll, B. (1997). *TOEFL 2000—writing: Composition, community, and kassessment* (TOEFL Monograph Series, MS 5). Princeton, NJ: Educational Testing Service.
- Harris, Z. (1952). Discourse analysis, *Language*, 28, 1-30
- Hasan, R. (1994). The texture of a text. In D. Graddol & O. Boyd-Barrett (Eds.). *Media Texts: Authors and Readers. A Reader* (pp. 74-89). Multilingual Matters Ltd.
- Hellman, C. (1995). The notion of coherence in discourse. In G. Rickheit & C. Habel (Eds.), *Focus and Coherence in Discourse Processing* (pp. 190–202). Berlin & New York: de Gruyter.
- Hinkel, E. (2001). Matters of cohesion in L2 academic texts. *Applied Language Learning*, 12(2), 111-132.
- Hinkel, E. (2003). *Second language writers' text*. London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Hinkel, E. (2008). Teaching grammar in writing classes. In E. Hinkle, & S. Fotos (Eds.), *New perspectives on grammar teaching in second language classrooms* (pp. 150-198). New York: Routledge.
- Hinkel, E. (2011). What research on second language writing tells us and what it doesn't. In E. Hinkel (Ed.) *Handbook of research in second language*

teaching and learning: Volume 2, (pp. 523-538). New York, NY: Routledge.

Hoey, M. (1983). *On the Surface of Discourse*. London: George Allen & Unwin.

Hoey, M. (1988). The clustering of lexical cohesion in non-narrative text. *Trondheim Papers in Applied Linguistics*, 4, 154–180.

Hoey, M. (1991). *Patterns of Lexis in Text*. Oxford: Oxford University Press

Hyland, K. (2003). Genre-based pedagogies: A social response to process. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 12, 17-29

Hymes, D. (1972). On communicative competence in *Pride and Holmes*, 269-293

Hymes, D. H. (1972a). Models of interaction of language and social life in Gumperz, J. J. & Hymes, D. H. (eds.) *Directions in Sociolinguistics*, Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 35-71

Hymes, D. H. (1972b). On communicative competence in *Pride and Holmes* (eds.) *Sociolinguistics*. Penguin. 269-285

Irwin, J. W. (1982). Cohesion and comprehension. *Illinois Reading Council Journal*. Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association.

Jafarpur, A. (1991). Cohesiveness as a basis for evaluating compositions. *System*, 19(4), 459-465.

Jakobson, R. (1960). Closing Statement: Linguistics and Poetics. In T. A. Sebeok, (Ed.), *Style in Language* (pp. 350-370). Cambridge, MA: Massachusetts Institute of Technology Press.

James, C. (1980). *Contrastive Analysis*. London: Longman.

Johns, A. (1995). Teaching classroom and authentic genres: Initiating students into academic cultures and discourses. In D. Belcher & G. Braine (Eds.), *Academic writing in a second language: Essays on research and pedagogy*, (pp. 277-291). Norwood, NJ: Ablex.

Johns, A. M. (1980). Cohesion in written business discourse: Some contrasts. *The ESP Journal*, 1(1), 35-44.

- Johns, A. M. (1980). Cohesion in written business discourse: some contrasts. *The ESP Journal 1*, 36-44.
- Johns, A. M. (1986). Coherence and Academic Writing: Some definitions and suggestions for teaching, *TESOL Quarterly*, 20(2), 247-265.
- Johnson, P. (1992). Cohesion and coherence in compositions in Malay and English. *RELC Journal*, 23(2), 1-17.
- Khalil, A. (1989). A study of cohesion and coherence in Arab EFL collage students' writing. *System*, 17, 359-371.
- Khorsand, N. & Eskourdi, S. (2005). *Textual discourse competence of ESP students in technical text*. Proceedings of the First National ESP/EAP Conference. Tehran.
- Kinneavy, I. (1971). *A theory of discourse*. Englewood Cliffs, NT: Prentice- Hall.
- Kroll, B. (1993). Reciprocal themes in ESL reading and writing. In: J. G. Carson & I. Leki (Eds.), *Reading in the Composition Classroom: Second Language Perspectives*. Heinle & Heinle, Boston, MA, pp. 61–81.
- Kroll, B. (2003). *Exploring the dynamics of second language writing*. New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.
- Kuo, C. H. (1995). Cohesion and coherence in academic writing: From lexical choice to organization. *RELC Journal*, 26, 47-62.
- Larson-Hall, J. (2010). *A guide to doing statistics in second language research using SPSS*. Routledge, Taylor & Francis.
- Lay, N. (1982). Composing process of adult ESL learners: A case study. *TESOL Quarterly*, 16, 406-407.
- Lay, N. (1983). Native language and the composing process. In M. S. B. Kwalick & V. Slaughter (Eds.), *New York Writes* (pp.17-21). New York: City University of New York.
- Lee, I. (1998). In the Classroom/En classe: Enhancing ESL Students' Awareness of Coherence-Creating Mechanisms in Writing. *TESL Canada Journal/La Revue TESL Du Canada*, 15(2), pp. 36-49

- Lee, I. (2002). Teaching coherence to ESL students: A classroom inquiry. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 11*, 135-159.
- Leki, I. (1993). Reciprocal themes in ESL reading and writing. In: J. G. Carson & I. Leki (Eds.), *Reading in the Composition Classroom: Second Language Perspectives* (pp. 9-31) Heinle & Heinle, Boston, MA.
- Leki, I. (2000). Writing, literacy, and applied linguistics. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, 20*, 99-115.
- Leki, I., Cumming, A., & Silva, T. (2008). *A synthesis of research on second language writing in English*. New York: Routledge.
- Lindeberg, A. C. (1985). Cohesion, coherence patterns, and EFL essay evaluation. In N. E. Enkvist (Ed.), *Coherence and Composition: A Symposium* (pp. 67–92). Åbo: Meddelanden från Stiftelsens för Åbo Akademi Forskningsinstitut.
- Liu, D. (2000). Writing cohesion using content lexical devices in ESOL. *English Teaching Forum, 38*(1) January-March.
- Liu, M. & Braine, G. (2005). Cohesive features in argumentative writing produced by Chinese undergraduates. *System 33*, 623–636.
- Liu, Q. (2012). *A Case Study of Native-English-Speaking (NES) Instructors Teaching English Writing in a University in China*. Doctoral Dissertation. University of Florida.
- Lubelska, D. (1991). An approach to teaching cohesion to improve reading. *Reading in a Foreign Language, 7*(2) 569-588.
- Lundquist, L. (1985). Coherence: from structures to processes. In E. Sözer (Ed.). *Text Connexity, Text Coherence: Aspects, Methods, Results* (pp. 151–175). Hamburg: Helmut Buske.
- Matei, M. (2010). Philology and Cultural Studies. *Bulletin of the Transilvania University of Brasov, 3*(52), Series IV.
- Matsuda, P. K. (1998). Situating ESL writing in a cross-disciplinary context. *Written Communication, 15*(1), 99-121.

- Matsuda, P. K. (1999). Composition studies and ESL writing: A disciplinary division of labor. *College Composition and Communication*, 50(4), 699-721.
- Matsuda, P. K. (2003). Second language writing in the twentieth century: A situated historical perspective. In B. Kroll (Ed.), *Exploring the dynamics of second language writing*, (pp. 15-34). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Matsuda, P. K., Canagarajah, A., Harklau, L., Hyland, K., Warschauer, M. (2003). Changing currents in second language writing research: A colloquium. *Journal of Second Language Writing* 12, 151–179.
- McCarthy, M. (1991). *Discourse Analysis for Language Teachers*. Cambridge University Press.
- McCulley, G. A. (1985). Writing Quality, Coherence, and Cohesion. *Research in the Teaching of English*, 19(3), 269-282.
- McNamara, D., Crossley, S., & Roscoe, R. (2012). *Natural Language Processing in an Intelligent Writing Strategy Tutoring System: Behavioral Research Methods, Instruments and Computers*. Advance online publication.
- McNamara, D., Kintsch, E., Songer, N., Kintsch, W. (1996). Are Good Texts Always Better? Interactions of Text Coherence, Background Knowledge, and Levels of Understanding in Learning from Text. *Cognition and Instruction*, 14, 1-43.
- Meisuo, Z. (2000). Cohesive features in the expository writing of undergraduates in two Chinese universities. *RELC Journal*, 31: 1, 61-95.
- Mobashshernia, R. (2014). *Critical Discourse – Semiotic Analysis of Multiplicative Linguistic Representations of Symbols of Power and Gender in Persian Proverbs: The Effect of Social Class and Place of Residence*. Unpublished PhD Dissertation. IAU, Shiraz, Iran.
- Myles, J. (2001). *Second Language Writing and Research: The Writing Process and Error Analysis in Student Texts*. <http://tesl-ej.org/ej22/a1.html> (Retrieved on 2015/02/12).

- Nunnally, J. C., & Bernstein, I. H. (1994). *Psychometric theory*. McGraw-Hill, Inc.
- Olateju, M. A. (2006). Cohesion in ESL classroom written texts. *Nordic Journal of African Studies*, 15(3), 314-331.
- Pallant, J. (2011). *SPSS survival manual: A step by step guide to data analysis using SPSS* (4th ed.). Allen & Unwin
- Polio, C. (2003). Research on second language writing: An overview of what we investigate and how. In B. Kroll (Ed.), *Exploring the dynamics of second language writing*, (pp. 35-66). New York, NY: Cambridge University k2Press.
- Raimes, A. (1983a). Anguish as a second language? Remedies for composition teachers. In A. Freeman, I. Pringle, & J. Yalden (Eds.), *Learning to write: First language/second language* (pp. 258-272). London: Longman.
- Raimes, A. (1991). Out of the woods: Emerging traditions in the teaching of writing. *TESOL Quarterly*, 25(3), 407-430.
- Reichelt, M. (2001). A critical review of foreign language writing research on pedagogical approaches. *The Modern Language Journal*, 85, 578–593.
- Rennes, E., & Jonsson, A. (2014). *The Impact of Cohesion Errors in Extraction Based Summaries*. Proceedings of the Ninth International Conference on Language Resources and Evaluation (LREC-2014).
- Rugg, G., & Petre, M. (2007). *A gentle guide to research methods*. Open University Press.
- Sanczyk, A. (2010). *Investigating argumentative essays of English undergraduates studying in Poland as regards their use of cohesive devices*. Master's thesis, The Faculty of Humanities. The University of Oslo
- Sanford, A. J. & Moxey, L. M. (1995). Aspects of coherence in written language: a psychological perspective. In M. A. Gernsbacher & T. Givón (Eds.), *Coherence in Spontaneous Text* (pp. 161–187). Amsterdam & Philadelphia: John Benjamins.

- Shea, M. C. (2011). *Cohesion in second language writing*. Doctoral Dissertation. Michigan State University.
- Shuang-Mei, L. (2009). Analysis of students' problems in writing with reference to theory of cohesion and error analysis. *Sino-US English Teaching*, 6(11), 41-45
- Silva, T. (1993). Toward an understanding of the distinct nature of L2 writing: The ESL research and its implications. *TESOL Quarterly*, 27(4), 657-675.
- Silva, T., & Leki, I. (2004). Family matters: The influence of applied linguistics and composition studies on second language writing studies—past, present, and future. *Modern Language Journal*, 88, 1-13.
- Spiegel, D. L., & Fitzgerald, J. (1990). Textual cohesion and coherence in children's writing revisited. *Research in the Teaching of English* 24, 48-66.
- Stern, H. H.(1983). *Fundamental Concepts of Language Teaching*. Oxford. Oxford University Press
- Tangkiengsirisin, S. (2010). *Enhancing Cohesion in Thai Postgraduate Students' Expository Writing through Feedback Delivery and Revision*. Doctoral Dissertation. University of Nottingham.
- Tierney, R. J., & Mosenthal, J. H. (1981). *The Cohesion Concept's Relationship to the Coherence of Text* (Technical Report No. 221). Urbana: University of Illinois, Center for the Study of Reading (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 212991).
- Tierney, R. J., & Mosenthal, J. H. (1983). Cohesion and textual coherence. *Research in the Teaching of English*, 17,215-229.
- Ting F. (2003). An investigation of cohesive errors in the writing of PRC tertiary EFL students. *Language and Communication*, 2(2), 1-8
- Todd, R. W., Khongput, S. & Darasawang, P. (2007). Coherence, cohesion and comments on students' academic essays. *Assessing Writing*, 12, 10-25

- Vahid Dastjerdi, H., Rahavard, S., & Ghadiri, M. (2011). Literary Discourse: An Investigation into Semiotic Perspectives of Persian Narratology. *Cross-Ck2ultural Communication*, 7(2), 2011, 116-130
- Wikborg, E. (1990). Types of coherence breaks in Swedish student writing: Misleading paragraph division. In: U. Connor & A. M. Johns (Eds.), *Coherence in writing: Research and pedagogical perspectives* (pp. 131-148), TESOL, Alexandria ,VA.
- Winter, R., & Munn-Giddings, C. (2001). *A Handbook for action research in health and social care*. Routledge.
- Witte, S. & Faigley, L. (1981). Coherence, cohesion, and writing quality. *College composition and communication*, 32(2), 189-204.
- Xin-Hong, Z. (2007). Application of English Cohesion Theory in the Teaching of Writing to Chinese Graduate Students, *US-China Education Review*, 4(7).
- Zamel, V. (1982). Writing: The process of discovering meaning. *TESOL Quarterly*, 16(k22), 195-209.
- Zamel, V. (1983). The composing processes of advanced ESL students: Six case studies. *TESOL Quarterly*, 17(2), 165-187.
- Zhang, A. (2010). Use of Cohesive Ties in Relation to the Quality of Compositions by Chinese College Students, *Journal of Cambridge Study*, 5(2-3), 78-87.
- Zhang, M. (2000). Cohesive features in the expository writing of undergraduates in two Chinese universities. *RELC Journal*, 30(1), 61-95.

APPENDICES

Appendix A: The Frequency of Main Categories of Cohesion along with their Subcategories Used in the Quantitative Study

Table 1.

The Distribution of Cohesive Devices by Main Categories

No. of Essays	Reference	Substitution	Ellipsis	Conjunction	Lexical	Total No.
1	13	1	0	20	42	76
2	28	0	0	10	41	79
3	7	0	0	11	33	51
4	13	0	0	19	36	68
5	17	0	0	11	69	97
6	7	0	0	16	54	75
7	11	1	0	6	23	35
8	10	0	0	18	40	68
9	12	0	0	10	34	56
10	15	0	0	19	27	61
11	15	0	0	10	19	44
12	21	0	0	14	51	86
13	14	0	0	22	30	66
14	6	0	0	28	68	101

15	17	0	0	20	39	76
16	15	0	0	9	24	48
17	21	0	0	11	34	66
18	20	0	0	13	72	105
19	13	0	0	13	40	66
20	7	0	0	12	36	55
21	14	0	1	21	17	52
22	10	0	0	10	44	64
23	15	0	0	20	33	68
24	16	0	0	14	46	76
25	18	0	0	8	33	59
26	20	0	0	13	50	83
27	11	0	0	7	20	38
28	20	0	0	10	36	66
29	5	0	0	6	29	40
30	12	0	0	4	39	55
31	58	0	0	8	32	45
32	11	1	0	4	26	41
33	15	0	0	15	25	55
34	7	0	0	5	28	40

35	11	1	0	22	49	83
36	10	0	0	12	45	67
37	10	0	0	11	30	51
38	8	0	0	5	24	37
39	7	0	0	6	16	29
40	7	0	0	14	27	48
41	13	0	2	12	28	55
42	15	0	0	13	27	55
43	8	0	0	7	12	27
44	34	2	0	13	32	81
45	10	1	1	9	64	83
46	15	0	0	9	38	62
47	11	0	0	16	62	89
48	26	0	0	10	29	65
49	6	0	0	8	50	64
50	26	0	0	19	28	73
51	14	0	0	5	16	35
52	22	0	0	10	26	58
53	24	0	0	13	11	48
54	29	0	0	10	14	53

55	14	0	0	8	26	48
56	26	0	0	12	15	53
57	83	0	0	16	36	135
58	12	0	0	10	16	38
59	26	0	0	15	22	63
60	11	0	0	14	19	44
61	11	0	0	9	26	46
62	10	0	0	10	17	37
63	14	0	0	11	17	42
64	20	0	0	8	13	41
65	14	0	0	9	25	48
66	18	0	0	7	20	45
67	18	0	0	9	23	49
68	25	0	0	3	64	92
69	12	0	0	17	83	112
70	11	2	0	16	52	79
71	30	0	0	20	71	121
72	28	0	1	19	85	133
73	21	0	0	14	84	119
74	13	0	0	15	52	80

75	22	0	0	14	17	52
76	24	0	0	20	88	132
77	21	1	0	7	54	83
78	33	1	0	25	46	105
79	19	0	0	29	50	98
80	18	0	0	11	59	88
81	9	0	0	24	49	82
82	19	0	0	22	52	93
83	16	0	0	10	77	103
84	21	0	0	25	31	77
85	7	0	0	10	107	124
86	18	0	0	13	58	89
87	4	0	0	15	80	99
88	27	0	0	18	35	80
89	20	0	0	19	47	86
90	5	0	0	12	75	92
91	7	0	0	14	100	121
92	12	1	0	11	50	74
93	23	0	0	10	47	80
94	14	0	0	6	54	74

95	21	0	0	12	74	107
96	32	0	0	24	100	156
97	14	0	1	14	54	83
98	8	0	0	15	47	71
99	6	0	0	17	32	55
100	18	0	0	17	44	79
	1622	8	12	6	1317	4191

Table 2.

The Distribution of Reference Cohesive Devices by its Subcategories

No. of Essays	Pronominal	Demonstrative/ Definite Article	Comparative	Total No.
1	6	0 3	4	13
2	8	5 9	6	28
3	0	1 3	3	7
4	2	4 2	5	13
5	1	1 2	13	17
6	1	1 1	4	7
7	4	0 3	4	11
8	4	1 1	4	10
9	2	3 1	6	12
10	11	1 0	3	15
11	1	1 1	3	15
12	1	9 6	5	21
13	5	3 4	2	14
14	5	0 0	0	5

15	13	0 2	2	17
16	4	3 0	8	15
17	14	4 2	1	21
18	11	3 4	2	20
19	4	6 1	2	13
20	0	1 0	6	7
21	0	1 1	12	14
22	5	2 1	2	10
23	4	3 1	7	15
24	6	2 4	4	16
25	12	0 0	6	18
26	6	4 2	8	20
27	3	4 2	2	11
28	11	3 6	0	20
29	2	1 1	1	5
30	2	3 3	4	12
31	0	0	0	5

		5		
32	5	2 0	4	11
33	12	2 0	1	15
34	1	0 5	1	7
35	6	3 0	2	11
36	1	1 5	3	10
37	1	1 5	3	10
38	2	2 3	1	8
39	4	1 0	2	7
40	1	3 2	1	7
41	4	2 4	3	13
42	2	7 4	2	15
43	2	1 2	3	8
44	15	5 9	5	34
45	4	2 0	4	10
46	3	4 3	5	15
47	5	1 2	3	11

48	15	2 8	1	26
49	1	3 0	2	6
50	13	1 8	4	26
51	3	1 3	7	14
52	3	2 8	9	22
53	13	3 6	2	24
54	16	4 3	6	29
55	2	0 7	5	14
56	6	3 8	9	26
57	40	4 16	23	83
58	6	0 2	4	12
59	7	2 1	7	17
60	3	1 3	4	11
61	1	0 2	8	11
62	2	2 2	4	10
63	4	2 1	7	14
64	8	0	11	20

		1		
65	7	0 5	2	14
66	4	3 3	8	18
67	12	1 1	4	18
68	2	7 10	6	25
69	4	4 3	1	12
70	5	4 0	2	11
71	9	2 10	9	30
72	13	2 9	4	28
73	2	6 7	6	21
74	9	0 2	2	13
75	5	2 6	9	22
76	14	3 1	6	24
77	11	4 3	3	21
78	21	5 2	5	33
79	11	0 3	5	19
80	9	0 6	3	18

81	2	1 5	1	9
82	6	2 5	6	19
83	7	0 3	6	16
84	10	3 3	5	21
85	5	0 2	0	7
86	2	2 6	8	18
87	1	0 0	3	4
88	16	0 4	7	27
89	3	0 6	11	20
90	2	0 0	3	5
91	2	2 0	3	7
92	4	4 0	4	12
93	3	4 1	6	23
94	8	0 3	3	14
95	5	3 5	8	21
96	7	2 14	9	32
97	5	0	3	14

		6		
98	3	1 4	0	8
99	3	1 2	0	6
100	8	1 5	4	18
	599	206	357	450



Table 3.

The Distribution of Conjunction by Subcategories

No. of Essays	Additive	Adversative	Causal	Temporal	Continuative	Total No.
1	8	3	4	4	1	20
2	4	1	2	3	0	10
3	3	3	4	1	0	11
4	10	2	3	2	2	19
5	3	2	5	1	0	11
6	7	1	4	4	0	16
7	1	2	0	3	0	6
8	12	1	2	3	0	18
9	6	1	0	3	0	10
10	7	2	5	5	0	19
11	8	1	0	1	0	10
12	5	2	5	2	0	14
13	14	2	1	5	0	22
14	16	3	5	3	1	28
15	9	2	6	3	0	20
16	7	0	2	0	0	9
17	5	3	3	0	0	11
18	4	2	4	3	0	13
19	8	1	2	2	0	13
20	10	0	0	2	0	12

21	12	1	21	8	0	21
22	6	0	3	1	0	10
23	8	2	4	6	0	20
24	5	0	4	5	0	14
25	3	1	3	1	0	8
26	9	2	3	1	0	13
27	3	1	1	2	0	7
28	7	0	1	1	1	10
29	3	0	3	0	0	6
30	3	0	1	0	0	4
31	7	1	1	0	0	8
32	2	2	0	0	0	4
33	7	3	4	1	0	15
34	1	1	2	1	0	5
35	9	4	8	0	1	22
36	8	1	1	2	0	12
37	4	3	3	0	1	11
38	3	1	1	0	0	5
39	2	1	3	0	0	6
40k8	6	2	6	0	0	14
41	5	3	3	0	1	12
42	2	5	5	0	1	13
43	3	0	3	1	0	7

44	5	1	4	1	2	13
45	4	1	4	0	0	9
46	3	0	5	1	0	9
47	10	0	5	1	0	16
48	5	3	0	1	1	10
49	5	8	1	2	0	8
50	9	5	3	1	1	19
51	2	2	0	1	0	5
52	3	5	2	0	0	10
53	4	3	6	0	0	13
54	6	1	2	0	0	9
55	4	2	2	0	0	8
56	8	1	3	0	0	12
57	7	3	2	3	1	16
58	4	0	1	1	4	10
59	10	1	4	0	0	15
60	9	3	2	0	0	14
61	2	5	2	0	0	9
62	4	3	3	0	0	10
63	3	3	4	1	0	11
64	6	1	1	0	0	8
65	3	4	0	2	0	9
66	2	2	2	1	0	7

67	3	4	2	0	0	9
68	2	1	0	0	0	3
69	12	2	3	0	0	17
70	12	1	2	1	0	16
71	11	5	3	1	0	20
72	15	2	2	0	0	19
73	8	4	2	0	0	14
74	10	1	3	1	0	15
75	10	1	0	3	0	14
76	10	3	5	1	1	20
77	6	1	0	0	0	7
78	21	1	2	1	0	25
79	20	3	5	1	0	29
80	8	3	0	0	0	11
81	15	2	5	2	0	24
82	15	2	3	2	0	22
83	5	1	3	1	0	10
84	15	6	4	0	0	25
85	7	2	1	0	0	10
86	3	2	3	5	0	13
87	10	5	0	0	0	15
88	13	3	2	0	0	18
89	11	2	4	2	0	19

90	8	2	0	1	1	12
91	9	4	1	0	0	14
92	6	3	0	2	0	11
93	6	2	2	40	0	10
94	3	2	1	0	0	6
95	7	1	3	0	1	12
96	17	4	1	2	0	24
97	8	3	0	3	0	14
98	8	5	1	0	1	15
99	8	4	4	1	0	17
100	11	3	0	2	1	17
		716		204		266
23						168

Table 4.

The Distribution of Lexical cohesion by Subcategories

No. of Essays	Repetition	Synonym	Antonym	Super-ordinate	General item	Collocation	Total No.
1	37	0	5	0	0	1	43
2	36	0	4	1	0	0	41
3	32	1	0	0	0	0	33
4	34	1	1	0	0	0	36
5	63	0	4	2	0	0	69
6	50	0	0	1	0	3	54
7	21	2	0	0	0	0	23
8	32	3	2	0	3	0	40
9	33	0	0	0	0	1	34
10	24	2	0	0	0	1	27
11	12	4	1	1	0	1	19
12	43	1	4	0	0	3	51
13	24	5	1	0	0	0	30
14	55	2	9	0	1	1	68
15	34	0	2	2	0	1	39
16	21	2	1	0	0	0	24
17	26	4	4	0	0	0	34
18	63	2	0	5	0	2	72
19	36	4	0	0	0	0	40
20	30	3	3	0	0	0	36
21	14	1	2	0	0	0	17
22	42	2	0	0	0	0	44

23	29	3	1	0	0	0	33
24	44	1	1	0	0	0	46
25	30	2	1	0	0	0	33
26	49	1	0	0	0	0	50
27	18	1	0	0	0	1	20
28	32	0	2	0	0	2	36
29	25	1	0	0	0	3	29
30	36	1	1	0	0	1	39
31	30	2	0	0	0	0	32
32	25	1	0	0	0	0	26
33	24	1	0	0	0	0	25
34	26	1	1	0	0	0	28
35	44	2	2	0	1	0	49
36	39	2	4	0	0	0	45
37	27	0	3	0	0	0	30
38	20	2	2	0	0	0	24
39	15	1	0	0	0	0	16
40	23	2	1	0	0	1	27
41	25	3	0	0	0	0	28
42	23	0	3	0	0	1	27
43	10	1	1	0	0	0	12
44	27	2	2	0	0	1	32
45	54	3	5	0	0	2	64
46	26	4	4	1	2	1	38
47	57	1	2	0	1	1	62

48	12	7	4	3	1	3	30
49	18	4	3	2	1	1	29
50	12	8	4	0	0	4	28
51	7	4	2	1	1	1	16
52	7	3	2	0	0	0	12
53	7	1	0	0	0	3	11
54	8	2	1	0	0	3	14
55	10	7	4	2	0	3	26
56	9	2	0	0	0	4	15
57	16	6	5	3	1	5	36
58	8	6	2	0	0	0	16
59	13	3	3	0	1	2	22
60	9	5	4	1	0	0	19
61	11	8	5	0	0	2	26
62	5	5	6	0	0	1	17
63	7	8	0	0	0	2	17
64	8	3	0	1	0	1	13
65	14	5	6	0	0	0	25
66	11	4	3	1	0	1	20
67	7	8	5	1	0	2	23
68	29	17	10	6	2	0	64
69	48	17	13	5	0	0	83
70	26	15	11	0	0	0	52
71	36	19	16	0	0	0	71
72	48	19	10	6	2	0	85

73	46	17	19	2	0	0	84
74	25	13	8	6	0	0	52
75	16	1	0	0	0	0	17
76	54	17	17	0	0	0	88
77	27	17	9	1	0	0	54
78	4	16	18	2	6	0	46
79	30	7	6	2	5	0	50
80	35	7	12	5	0	0	59
81	24	13	12	0	0	0	49
82	25	10	8	2	3	4	52
83	28	21	15	7	6	0	77
84	19	6	4	0	0	2	31
85	59	15	27	2	4	0	107
86	35	11	12	0	0	0	58
87	47	17	16	0	0	0	80
88	21	11	3	0	0	0	35
89	23	14	7	1	1	1	47
90	40	16	19	0	0	0	75
91	57	23	20	0	0	0	100
92	24	12	14	0	0	0	50
93	30	9	8	0	0	0	47
94	27	10	16	0	0	1	54
95	40	14	20	0	0	0	74
96	50	27	17	6	0	0	100
97	29	13	10	2	0	0	54

98	28	9	7	3	0	0	47
99	19	6	7	0	0	0	32
100	20	13	8	2	0	1	44
75	2753	628	537	88			42



No. of Essays	Inter-rater 1	Inter-rater 2
1	17	18
2	17	16
3	10	12
4	12	13
5	18	17
6	15	17
7	17	18.5
8	16	18
9	15	14
10	18	16
11	16	17
12	15	16.5
13	19	18
14	16	15
15	17	16
16	12	14
17	12	10
18	17	16.5
19	15	17
20	20	19
21	16	17
22	19	18
23	16	15

24	18	16
25	15	15.5
26	10	11
27	18.5	16
28	18	15
29	18	16
30	18	17
31	16	15
32	18	17
33	16	17.5
34	16.5	15
35	17.5	16
36	19.5	18
37	18	19
38	18	17
39	18	16.5
40	18.5	17
k41	18	17
42	17	17
43	18	16
44	19	18
45	18	16
46	16	17
47	16	15
48	16	17

49	15.5	16
50	15	16
51	17	18
52	14	16
53	13.5	14.5
54	16.5	16
55	16	18
56	18	19
57	18.5	17
58	17.5	16
59	17	16
60	16	17
61	16.5	16
62	17	17
63	16	18
64	15	16
65	14	16
66	16	17
67	17.5	19
68	15	16
69	16	17.5
70	17	18
71	15	14
72	16	15
73	14	16

74	14.5	13
75	14	15
76	16.5	15.5
77	15	16
78	17	18
79	14.5	16
80	13	15
81	15	14
82	16	17
83	13	15
84	15	16
85	14	13
86	15	13
87	16	15
88	12	14
89	14	13
90	15	17
91	16	18
92	15	14
93	13	15
94	16	17
95	16	15
96	17	19
97	16	18
98	17	15

99	16	17
100	17	17



Appendix B: Four Open-Ended Questions (students) Used in the Qualitative Study I

Dear respondent, (student)

The present questionnaire contains some open-ended questions about cohesion and cohesivk8e devices in writing. Please read the questions carefully and give your ideas clearly. It is worth mentioning that your answers will certainly influence the results obtained. Therefore, it is incumbent that your answers are true and careful. You can also be sure of anonymity and confidentiality of responses you provide. In advance, so many thanks are due to you for your invaluable time spent on answering the questions.

Age:

Field of study:

Gender:

Qualification:

.....

First language background:

Questions:

1. What do you know about cohesion? Have you ever taken explicit information or instruction about cohesion?
- K8 2. Where do you attach importance while you're writing your composition?
3. What is your belief about writing? Positive or negative?
4. What would you want to write better in English?

Appendix C: Four Open-Ended Questions (teachers) Used in the Qualitative Study II

Dear respondent, (teacher)

The present questionnaire contains some open-ended questions about cohesion and cohesive devices in writing. Please read the questions carefully and give your ideas clearly. It is worth mentioning that your answers will certainly influence the results obtained. Therefore, it is incumbent that your answers are true and careful. You can also be sure of anonymity and confidentiality of responses you provide. In advance, so many thanks are due to you for your invaluable time spent on answering the questions.

Age:

Field of study:

Gender:

Qualification:

First language background:

Questions:

1. What is the place of cohesive devices while you're rating students' compositions?
2. Do you attach importance to cohesion and cohesive devices while teaching writing?
And how?
3. What is the awareness level of your students about cohesion and cohesive devices?
4. How do you rate or give scores while reading your students' compositions?

CURRICULUM VITAE

He was born in 1965 in Khoy, West Azarbaijan Province, Iran. He completed his primary and high school education in Khoy. In 1983, he was admitted to associate language teaching program in Qazvin, Having obtained an associate degree in English language teaching, he started teaching English in guidance school. One year later, he was admitted to B. A. program in English literature in Tabriz University. Upon finishing his B. A. program, he was succeeded to enter M. A. program in English language teaching. He completed his M. A. studies in 1994 and the title of his thesis was *Cohesion in English and Persian*. He has taught in Khoy and other Azad and Payam-e-Noor Universities as a visiting instructor for years. Having insatiable desire for learning, he decided to pursue his studies at Ph.D. level in Ataturk University, Erzurum. His Ph.D. dissertation is entitled *Cohesion and Writing Quality in Undergraduate Students' Compositions*. Hia areas of interest are cohesion, coherence and discourse analysis.