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Department of English Language

# Difficulties Faced by Iraqi EFL Students at Fifth Secondary Stage in Using Cohesive Devices in Writing from Teachers and Students' Perspectives

A Thesis Submitted to the Council of the College of Basic Education/University of Babylon in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Master of Education in Methods of Teaching English as a Foreign Language

**By**

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بِسْمِ اللَّهِ الرَّحْمَنِ الرَّحِيمِ

﴿يَرْفَعِ اللَّهُ الَّذِينَ آمَنُوا مِنْكُمْ وَالَّذِينَ أُوتُوا الْعِلْمَ دَرَجَاتٍ وَاللَّهُ بِمَا تَعْمَلُونَ خَبِيرٌ﴾

صدق الله العلي العظيم

# Dedication

Thanks to:

My husband and my sons for their encouragement and supporting.

My dear parent who encouraged me to study hard and finish my

 studies.

Those who taught me how to read and write.

 My dear sisters and brother for their support.

My friends for their endless encouragement and advice.

The researcher

# Supervisors' Certificate

I certify that the thesis entitled "**Difficulties Faced by Iraqi EFL Students at Fifth Secondary Stage in Using Cohesive Devices in Writing from Teachers and Students' Perspectives**" submitted **by Gaidaa Rasheed Hammed** has been prepared under our supervision at the College of Basic Education / University of Babylon in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master in Education in /Methods of Teaching English a Foreign Language.

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I certify that I have read the thesis entitled "**Difficulties Faced by Iraqi EFL Students at Fifth Secondary Stage in Using Cohesive Devices in Writing from Teachers and Students' Perspective**s" submitted by **Gaidaa Rasheed Hammed** to the Council of the College of Basic Education /University of Babylon, in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Education Methods of Teaching English as a Foreign Language and it is found to be scientifically adequate.

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# Scientific Evaluators' Certificate

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# Examining Committee Certificate

We certify that we have read the thesis entitled "**Difficulties Faced by Iraqi EFL Students at Fifth Secondary Stage in Using Cohesive Devices in Writing from Teachers and Students' Perspectives**" submitted by **Gaidaa Rasheed Hammed** and as an examining committee examined in its contents and, that in our opinion, it is adequate as a thesis for the degree of Master Education Methods of Teaching English as a Foreign Language.


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# ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

# ABSTRACT

The present study aims at examining EFL student at 5th secondary class to know if they are familiar or unfamiliar with cohesive devices (CDs) by asking questions about all types of cohesive devices. Identifying the difficulties that face fifth secondary school's students in using cohesive devices in writing. The sample of present study consist of 150students and 150 teachers at secondary schools of Diyala Governorate during the academic year 2021-2022.To achieve the aims of study, the following procedures have been used, a descriptive method is used to collect data. The researcher an adopted questionnaire makes of 25 items for students and 28 items in addition to information about teachers which include qualification, experience and gender. Submitting the questionnaire to the jury experts in order to confirm the face validity and determine whether the questions accurately capture the research's main ideas. The researcher has analyzed the data by using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), Pearson correlation, Alfa Cronbach, percentage, and Weighted average. After analyzing the results of the study has been revealed that students are unfamiliar with CDs. Based on the findings the researcher concludes that students at secondary school have difficulties in using grammatical and lexical cohesive devices in writing. Additionally, the study suggests that English teachers have to support their students' usage of various cohesive devices in their writing. Teachers should give more emphasis on teaching cohesive devices through adding more exercises. The researcher also suggests to investigate the role of reading skill in acquiring vocabulary and cohesive devices and the suitable technique to teach cohesive devices.

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# List of Abbreviations

| Abbreviations | Description |
|---|---|
| CDs | Cohesive Devices |
| DF | Degree of Freedom |
| DP | Discriminating Power |
| PCC | Pearson Correlation Coefficient |
| SPSS | Statistical Package for Social Sciences |
| EFL | English as a Foreign Language |
| Tab | Tabulator Value |

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# CHAPTER ONE
# INTRODUCTION

## 1. Introduction

Recently, writing is seen as a complex task, a social act that represents the communication skills of the writer, which are difficult to acquire and learn, especially in an EFL context (Shokrpour and Fallahzadeh, 2007). Fageeh (2003) mentions that writing is a dynamic process that needs tremendous effort in learning and teaching because it must be learned through conscious exposure. Lexical cohesive devices refer to the relationship that exists between any two lexical elements because the purpose of writing is for readers to understand what they are reading. Students should be able to communicate all their thoughts clearly and swiftly throughout the writing process (McDonough and Crawford, 2020, p.11).

Writing in English as a foreign language is taught for students. Grammar is the basis for correctly and effectively putting words together and structuring sentences using English rules (Deepa and Gayathridevi,2017, p.30). Students should articulate their thoughts and write down all their established ideas utilizing appropriate word choices grammatical phrases, and punctuation throughout the writing process. Finally, in order to produce a decent paragraph, students must grasp how to employ coherent devices (Abu-Ayyash and McKenny, 2017, p.44). According to Kouch (2004, p.80) coherence refers to the writer's ability to integrate sentences in a text so that the reader can easily read and comprehend it.

Coherence, to put it another way, is the ability to form meaningful, correct sentences employing relevant vocabulary items and adhering to certain word order standards. Writing focuses on concepts that are mainly concerned with texts, writer, and readers (Hyland, 2009, p. 19). Writing is an

art form and a good writer like any good artist works on a piece until the desired impact is achieved (Smith,2003, p.13).

Durga and Rao (2018) defined writing as the system of representing the sounds, written symbols, syllables or words of a language, with different mechanisms - capitalization, function, spelling, word form, and punctuation. Writing is a very significant skill because it is a means of communication. Students should promote efficient writing skills to fit their needs and teachers should encourage by providing them with rules and instructions in writing processes such as writing practice, structure, types, and grammar rules (p.1). Teachers should help students to develop efficient writing abilities that meet their needs by providing them with rules and instructions in writing processes such as writing practice, form, kinds, and rules of grammar. Students must be able to write and share their views in the most appropriate and innovative manner (Hedge, 2005, p. 54). Learning to write in a first or second language is one of the most difficult challenges students encounter, according to Richards (2008) and only a few individuals can claim to have completely mastered it (p. 95).

Writing is a difficult skill to master and to achieve various goals in various circumstances with various audiences. Furthermore, because it is an innate ability, students must make an effort to acquire the conventions of a talent and practice it frequently in order to master it (Weigle, 2002, p. 22). Writing is a complicated mental output that takes careful thought, discipline, and concentration (Grami, 2010, p.9).

Many children have difficulty in learning to write, and they are always coming up with fresh ideas (Taylor, 2009, p.4). According to Kern (2000,)

writing is "at once an individual, creative process and a socially constrained normative process' 'This definition shows that sociocultural, linguistic, and cognitive factors should interact with each other for active writing (p.186). Nunan (2003) defined writing as a mental process that entails creating ideas, selecting how to communicate them and structuring them into understandable statements and paragraphs (p.88).

According to the definition provided above, writing is the result of a collection of ideas expressed in sentences or paragraphs. Despite the fact that it seems to be the most difficult task, translating thoughts into sentences or paragraphs is the most important skill that students must master in regard to that thinking.

Cohesion refers to the consistency of discourses or writings that connect the meanings of sentences, paragraphs, or other levels in writing. Cohesion, according to Norbury and Bishop, 2003, p.28; Roelofs ,1998, p.52), is a strategy for achieving coherence and is the meaningful relationship between phrases. Huang (2012, p.23) stated that coherence, is the logical unity between various segments of language, which recognized it from randomly-assembled sentences.

## 1.1. Statement of the Problem

Writing, according to Kroll (2003) is a complicated process requiring the mastery of a variety of abilities, all of which are added to the overall difficulty of writing for any language. Many challenges face students at fifth secondary schools when they use cohesive devices in writing process, this study is an attempt to identify these challenges (p.20). The current study looks into the challenges secondary school students face when using CDs, a

close link based on syntax or meaning between two components of a phrase or larger work of literature (Hornby,1992, p.48).

The nature of English cohesive device structure, as well as the involvement of the student's mother tongue, cause these challenges. This study looks into the important issues that secondary students face when writing. The majority of students are unsure of how to produce a good essay, yet the usage of coherent can have a significant impact on the quality of a written piece.

The current study deal to that challenges secondary school students have when employing English CDs. Hyland (2003, p.9) states that writing is a way of conveying personal meanings. It emphasizes an individual's ability to develop his or her own perspective on a topic. Widowson (1978, p.31) says that writing can be defined as a performance to produce proper clauses and transfer them into a written text.

According to Marzaban and Sarjami (2014, p.32), many English foreign language students believe that writing is one of the most challenging abilities to learn. The challenge stems from the formulation and organization of thoughts, as well as their translation into comprehensible writing (Richards and Renandya, 2002, p.13).

Nunan (1991) stated that writing is an extremely complex cognitive activity in which the writer is required to demonstrate control of variables simultaneously. At the sentence level, these include control of contents, format, sentence structure, vocabulary, spelling, and letter formation. Beyond the sentence, the writer must be able to structure and integrate information into a cohesive and coherent paragraph and text (p.91).

**1.2 Aims of the Study**

The aims of this study are as follows:

1. Examining student to know if students are familiar or unfamiliar with CDs by asking questions about all types of cohesive devices.

2. Identifying the difficulties that face fifth secondary schools' students in using CDs in writing by submitting questionnaire to teachers and students.

**1.3 Research Questions**

This study aims to answer the following research questions:

1. Do fifth secondary students face any difficulties in using cohesive devices in their writing?

2. Are students and teachers at fifth secondary stage aware of the importance of cohesive device in the process of writing?

**.14 Significance of the Study**

The importance of this study arises from the fact that it the problems and errors that students have when using cohesive devices in writing at the secondary level. It demonstrates the significance of cohesive devices in writing ability. It will also shed light on many forms of cohesive devices, such as lexical and grammatical, as well as the sources of errors. The necessity is in helping secondary school students with cohesive devices to avoid confusion in usage. The findings of this study might be useful to Iraqi English teachers.

**1.5 Limits of the Study**

1.The study is limited to the fifth stage at secondary schools in Diyala governorate. The sample consists of 150students and 150 teachers.

2.This study is limited to investigating the difficulties encountered by EFL fifth secondary students in using cohesive devices in writing, during the academic year (2021-2022).

## 1.6 Procedures of the Study

The following steps are to be followed in order to achieve the aims of the study.

1.Specifying the population of the study, which is all English language teachers and students in the secondary schools of Diyala governorate.

2. Selecting a sample of the study which consists of 150 EFL teachers in the secondary schools of Diyala governorate.

3. Selecting a sample of 150 students randomly from EFL fifth secondary school students in Diyala governorate.

4. Using the descriptive statistical method by designing a questionnaire of 28 items for teachers and 25 items for students. The data taken were quantitatively analyzed.

5. Submitting the questionnaire to the jury experts to test the face validity.

6. Selecting the sample of Pilot Study which consists of 30 students and 25 EFL teachers at secondary schools.

7. Submitting the questionnaire to teachers and students in Diyala Governorate.

8. Analyzing the data of the questionnaire statistically by using the SPSS program (Pearson correlation, Alfa Cronbach, percentage, and Weighted average).

9. Analyzing and discussing the results of the study to reach to the conclusions of the study, recommendations and suggestions for further studies.

## 1.7. Definitions of Basic Terms

### 1.7.1. Cohesion

Hoey (1996, p.20) defined cohesion as the way that certain words or grammatical features of a phrase relate to their predecessors and successors in a text. It implies that cohesion is an important factor in linking the meanings of two phrases.

Halliday and Hasan (1989, p.32) claimed that cohesion means a set of sentences that relate together.

**The Operational Definition**

Cohesion means that the sentences link to each other in   grammatical way.

### 1.7.2. Cohesive Devices

"Cohesive devices help link elements of a text together so that one knows what's being referred to and how the phrases and sentences relate to each other"(Harmer, 2004, p.24).

Lexical-Grammatical system realizes semantic linkages, particularly via the use of verbal devices (Adams ,2002, p.9; Roelofs, 1988, p.3).

**The Operational Definition**

Cohesive devices can be defined as devices which are used to combine sentences in a grammatical and meaningful way.

### 1.7.3. Coherence

" The relevance and accessibility of a book's organization of concepts, ideas, and theories in terms of how it makes sense to readers," (Hyland ,2006, p.311).

Coherence, according to Castro (2004, p.24), is a textual connection that connects ideas and allows readers' thoughts to flow clearly and meaningfully.

**The Operational Definition**

Coherence is the process of connecting thoughts and concepts in a coherent and semantic way.

# CHAPTER TWO

# LITERATURE REVIEW AND RELATED STUDIES

 **An Introductory Note**

This chapter includes two sections, the first one is about literature review which includes purposes of teaching writing, writing process, nature of writing, types, difficulties, definition of errors and its Source, definition of text, concept of cohesion, concept of coherence and types of cohesive devices and the second section is about previous studies and their discussion.

## 2.1Literature Review

### 2.1.1Purposes of Teaching Writing

Writing is defined by Pangaribuan and Manik (2018) as a means for students to convey their ideas, thoughts, views, and experiences. They also claim that characteristics such as grammar, vocabulary, punctuation, and spelling might have an impact on writing. Producing words and phrases is just one aspect of writing (p.74).

Writing, according to Abdul Kareem (2013) is the building and development of procedures taught in universities, such as organizing and producing students' ideas and critical thinking, as well as improving vocabulary and grammatical syntax (p.155). Darmadi (1996) stated that the advantages of writing include: discovering something, developing new ideas, training the capacity to arrange one's own conceptions or ideas, practicing objective attitudes, and making oneself active in obtaining information (p.3). Linderman (2001) defined writing as a method of communication that use a traditional visual system to deliver a message to a reader. It indicates that in the process of transmitting a message via writing, a systematic graphic inform of letters, punctuation, words, or phrases is utilized.

## *2.1.2 Steps of Writing Process*

Oshima and Hogue (2007) stated that writing process involves four phases: Prewriting is the initial phase, and it is used to generate ideas. In this phase, one chooses a subject and gather information to describe it. The next stage in the writing process is to arrange the thoughts into a basic plan. Writing a rough draft using the outline as a guide is the third phase. (p.15)

Writing introductory draft as rapidly as possible without considering grammar, spelling, or punctuation. One refines what he has written at this phase. This process is known as revising and editing. Polishing is most effective when done in two phases. To begin, address the major challenges of content and structure (revising). Then focus on minor grammatical, punctuation, and mechanical concerns (editing) (Oshima & Hogue,2007, p.18).

Writing, according to Lee (2005) may be examined from two major theoretical perspectives: cognitive and social. The cognitive view is goal-oriented, emphasizing the writing and rewriting process, while the sociocultural approach is context-oriented, emphasizing the finished result of writing for a specific audience (p.3). Writing is a multi-step process that involves generating a decent text that clearly expresses thoughts, ideas, sentiments, and emotions. Written output is typically the outcome of thinking, composing, and editing procedures that demand specific talents (Brown ,2000, p.335).

Harmer (2004) stated that the stages a writer goes through to produce something in its ultimate written form are referred to as the writing process. This process may be influenced by the writing's topic matter, style, and format (such as shopping lists, letters, essays, reports,

or novels) (pen and paper, computer word files, live chat, etc.). But it is suggested that the procedure in each of these situations contains four basic steps as can be seen in Figure 2.1 (p.4).

Figure (2.1)

The Process Wheel (Harmer, 2004, p.6)



The process wheel

The first step is planning writers must consider three primary issues when planning, they must first think about the objective of their writing before deciding what information and words to use. Secondly, writers consider the audience for whom they are writing (the shape of writing and how the paragraphs are structured, the language-for example, is formal or informal). Thirdly, the writer must think about the article's content structure, or the appropriate order in which to present the facts, ideas, and arguments (Harmer, 2004, p.4).

The second step is **drafting**. The first draft of a piece of writing is referred to as drafting. The third step is editing (reflecting and revising), the author reread his writing to check for ambiguities in the information's sequence and maybe something is written in an unclear or confusing manner (Harmer, 2004, p.5).

The last step is final version. After editing and making the adjustments, the writer creates his final version due to changes made during the editing process, this may differ greatly from both the initial plan and the first draft (Harmer (2004, p.6).

Brandvik & McKnight (2011, p.90) mentioned that there are four steps of writing process as can be Seen in Figure 2.2, they are as follows:

Figure (2.2)

Steps of Writing (Brandvik & M McKnight, 2011, p.90)



## 1. Pre-writing

The initial stage of writing is pre-writing (preparation). Introducing exercises like drawing and labeling an image and creating a vocabulary chart, aids writers in discovering and exploring ideas and developing a

plan. It is crucial to the overall success of the writing process. Pre-writing is a good opportunity to concentrate the mind, thinking, discussing, reading, and writing about a subject before creating a first draft is known as pre-writing. It is termed a means of warming up before writing (Brandvik & McKnight ,2011, p.90).

Pre-writing is the first phase in the writing process, it is an essential initial stage in constructing a great essay (Starkey, 2004, p.2). Ashima and Hogue (1997) claimed that pre-writing is the first step in writing, it uses to obtain ideas. In this step, one chooses atopic and gather ideas to explain the topic (p.15).

Richard and Renandya (2002) claimed that the first phase in the writing process is pre-writing, which is defined as a classroom activity that motivates students to write. It stimulates thought for getting started. In fact, it encourages students to move away from the bank position toward forming preliminary ideas and collecting material for writing (p.316).

Before writing about any topic, the writer generates and organizes his ideas by using various techniques such as brainstorm and list, which are considered as helpful ways provided by Fellag (2004) stated that brainstorm and list are those ways to get ideas and discuss them either in groups or individually, and that the writer brainstorm ideas and make them into lists to facilitate writing. There are other strategies that are used to prepare writing, such as mapping, clustering, and free writing (p.38).

Leki (1998) pointed to listing is faster than free writing, it follows the same general principle. Listing entails writing down everything related to your topic in the form of words or quickly phrased phrases, and it is especially useful for gathering examples or specific information

about the subject. However, all steps are beneficial to the writer in preparing the initial piece (p.70).

**2. Drafting/Writing**

The next stage of writing is drafting (notation). The students begin by making notes, initial drafts, and ideas; they then integrate them; and finally, they should only keep those that have passed revision and modification. This is the beginning of the piece's first draft (Brandvik & McKnight,2011, p.90).

The next phase in the writing process is to write a paragraph after thinking about the subject and conducting any required pre-writing. The thoughts created from pre-writing are used as a guide for creating the initial draft of the paragraph. Formal writing starts with the draft. "Drafting" refers to writing a rough, initial version of your paper. It's time to concentrate entirely on the primary points you wish to convey in your article (Galko ,2002, p.25).

Brown (1980) remarks that the writer should not concern with the most essential thing here, which is to get words on paper, while writing. This is not the time to concern with spelling, grammar, punctuation or the most appropriate language. That is, the writer ignores grammar, spelling and punctuation at this stage since the technical aspect of his writing will be refined later (p.82). According to Bell (2009) writing stage is marked by gradually less tentative attempts toward adopting a defined strategy for written communication," the writer writes preliminary notes to construct the first draft (p.56).

Brown and Hood (1989) claimed that students should not care about spelling, grammar, punctuation, or wordiness during the writing stage. As a result, the drafting stage is a vital step before beginning to

write, and it should be repeated many times to help authors employ the correct words and thoughts later on, as well as to motivate them to conquer the challenges of writing. The drafting stage is the best moment to start writing as it serves the basis for the final manuscript (p.47).

## 3. Revising

Rechecking the drafts is part of revision and editing. The initial revision of the draft comprises changing the order of the ideas, getting rid of extraneous details, and making improvements. The second revision includes ordering, fixing, and merging. The last revision includes editing, polishing, punctuation, proofreading and spelling checks (Brandvik & McKnight, 2011, p.90).

Johnson (2008) stated that rewriting is the core of writing and it may lead to more sophisticated final products if instructors and/or peers are involved. Peer review is an important educational exercise that improves students' capacity to arrange texts and raises their knowledge of the value of reading and purpose (p.59). According to Brown and Hood (1989) another important step in the writing process is when the writer examines the content and purpose to see whether they are clear and acceptable for the reader. The most crucial step in the writing process is revising which entails organizing, adding, modifying, or removing words to ensure that you have communicated what you meant to say in a clear and acceptable manner for the reader in a specific writing circumstance.

The editing step is distinct from the revision stage, and it must be completed after the revision stage (p.48). Editing takes a deeper look at your work via a stronger lens that accentuates words and phrases (Starkey,2004, p.55). The editing procedure produces the last adjustments

and verify correctness so that the content is optimally accessible to the reader (Hedge, 2005, p.54)

**4. Presenting and Publishing** is not necessary for the students but one can encourage them to write and publish. It includes reading aloud in class or a seminar, hand over a piece of writing for evaluation and publishing (Brandvik & McKnight, 2011, p.90).

### *2.1.3 Nature of Writing*

Yakhontova (2003) pointed out that writing is seen as a kind of verbal art that is assumed in three aspects: orthographic, grammatical, and stylistic. Writing is thought to be a difficult cognitive activity. The nature and purposes of writing as a college subject are described as follows: it is seen as a method of thinking growth, the "culture of thought" (in our language), and adequate to a certain social communication environment. However, one might argue that writing as a cognitive activity and writing as a linguistic art are two sides of the same coin (p.18).

Grabe and Kaplan (1996) indicated that the cost of writing in current literate cultures characterized by widespread print media is more than what most people believe. On a regular day, most individuals practice some type of writing, and almost everyone who talks about life fills out a huge number of forms. Many individuals also write for reasons unrelated to their jobs, such as letters, clarifications, notes, grocery lists, budgets, and so on (p.6). Teachers use a variety of techniques to promote quality when writing is considered a product. These methods include imitation and exercises; professors encourage students to grasp the sentence level before expecting them to write properly (Nunan, 1991, p.22).

## 2.1.4 Types of Writing

According to Jeffrey (2016) writing ability is divided into five categories: Description, Persuasive, Narrative, Expository and Creative as can be seen in Figure 2. 3.

Figure (2.3)

Types of Writing Skill (Jeffrey,2016, p.3)
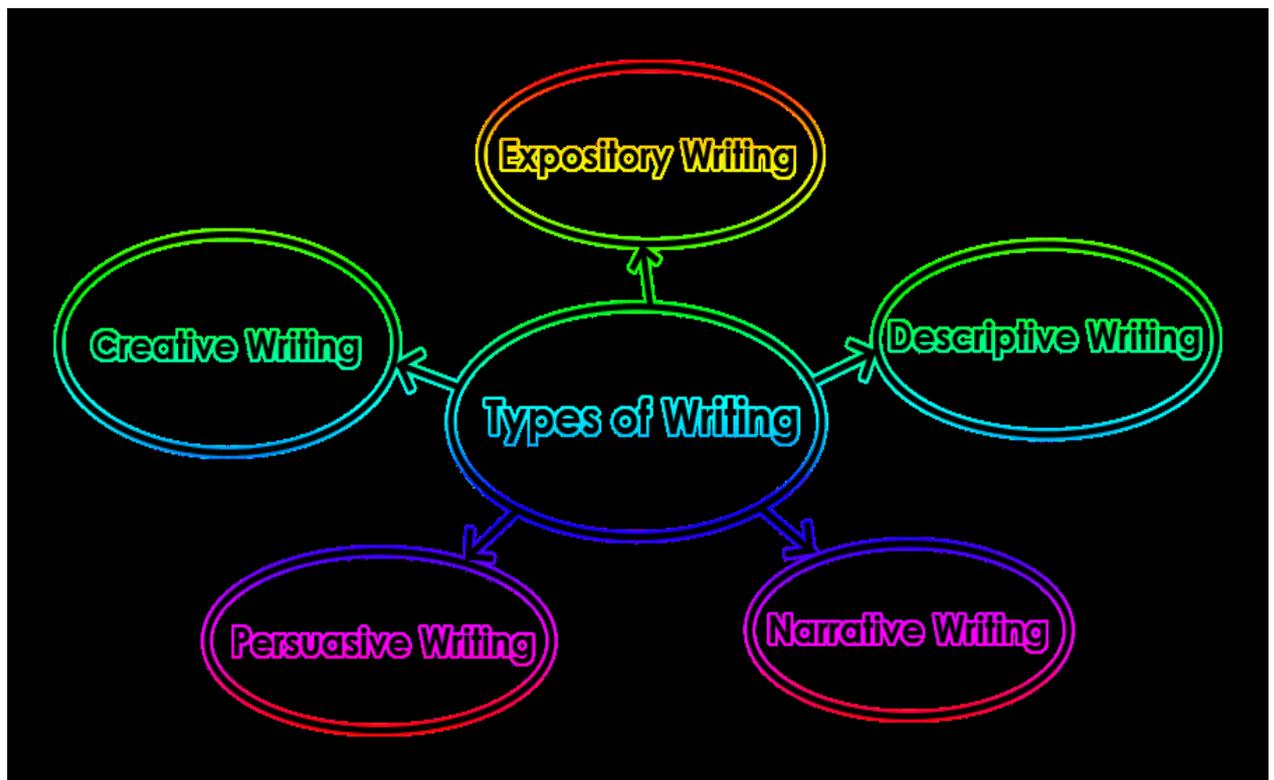


**2.1.4.1 Description**. Descriptive writing is when one uses words to describe someone, a place, or something else without trying to explain or persuade the reader. It can be found in fictional books or plays, poetry, journals, and nature descriptions (Jeffrey (2016, p.3).

Ran and Peter (1986) point out that descriptive paragraphs are divided into two types: objective descriptions, which attempt to accurately report the appearance of the object as a thing itself, regardless of the

observer's perception or feeling about it, and factual accounts, which serve to inform a reader who has not been able to see with his own eyes.

**2.1.4.2 Persuasive.** Persuasive writing entails persuading the audience of a point of view or opinion. It provides the author's viewpoints, reasoning and reasons (Jeffrey, 2016, p.4). According to Smith (2003) one of the most popular methods to structure persuasive writing is to provide plausible arguments against your position and illustrate how these arguments are weak, while another technique is to declare an opinion and then provide evidence to support it (p.28).

**2.1.4.3 Narrative.** Making a story with characters, conflict, and settings is what narrative writing entails. Novels, oral history, and anecdotes all contain it (Jeffrey,2016, p.4). According to Smith (2003) this form of writing is simply telling a narrative, whether it is true or not, and it is distinguished by a certain framework and strategies for organizing events, as well as the use of the past simple while narrating the story. Furthermore, it is separated into two sections: Simple narration, which describes events in a chronological sequence, and a complicated narrative, which focuses on a conflict resolution (p.28).

**2.1.4.3 Expository**. Expository writing entails interpreting and communicating an idea or notion to a target audience. Recipes, news reports, textbooks, and scientific writing all use expository writing (Jeffrey, 2016, p.5). Smith (2003) indicated that expository writing is used to describe a process by employing transitional phrases such as first, next, and lastly to make it apparent, and the authors aim to back up their key arguments with facts (p.30). Furthermore, according to Fiderer (2002) an expository paragraph is one that gives guidance or employs facts and details to explain information (p.17).

**2.1.4.5 Creative Writing**. The term "creative writing" referred to the creation of an artistic expression that uses imagery, story, and drama to convey meaning. Fiction (novels, short stories), scripts, and screenplays are all examples of creative writing (Jeffrey,2016, p.5). The phrase 'creative writing,' according to Harmer (2007), referred to imaginative work such as producing poetry, stories, and plays (p.259).

## 2.1.5 Importance of Writing

Writing is a valuable tool for expressing oneself (McArthur, Graham and Fitzgerald,2008, p.1). This talent is significant since it is a priority in language teaching and learning, on which instructors have placed a greater emphasis in recent years in order to enhance their students' levels. Because most tests depend on a student's ability to write in order to assess their knowledge, having great writing abilities may help them succeed (Alexander, 2008, p.15).

Because of the tight relationship between writing and thinking, Raimes (1983) pointed to writing is an integral aspect of every language training (p.6). Klimova (2012) stated that writing can assist in expressing the writer's personality, improving thinking skills, promoting communication, making convincing and logical arguments, allowing the writer to discuss his ideas, receiving and providing feedback, and preparing the student for future life (p.9).

## 2.1.6 Difficulties of Writings

Difficulties of writing, according to Byrne (1988) are due to three problems (p.4):

**1. Psychological Problem**. Speech is our natural and regular mode of communication in most situations, and it accustoms us to having someone physically present when one use language as well as receiving some

forms of reply. Writing, on the other hand, is primarily a solitary activity, and the fact that one must write on our own, without the benefit of conversation or feedback, makes the act of writing difficult in and of itself (Byrne, 1988, p.4).

**2. Linguistic Problem**. Oral communication is maintained by contact, and the participants, with the exception of particular circumstances such as a lecture, help keep it continue. One has little time to pay attention to either arranging our sentence structure or connecting our sentences because speaking is generally spontaneous. To some extent, the latter is maintained through the process of interaction depending on how people react to what one says, repeat, backtrack, expand and so on (Byrne, 1988, p.4).

**3. Cognitive Problem**. One learns to speak as children and spend a large portion of our lives doing so. One also appears to communicate without any conscious effort or thinking, and one generally talk about things that are interesting or relevant to us socially or professionally. Writing, on the other hand, is learned through a process of instruction: One must master the written form of the language and acquire particular patterns that are less commonly employed in speech, if at all, but are critical for good writing communication. One must also learn how to order his thoughts so that they may be understood by a reader who is not present, and possibly by a reader who is unfamiliar with us (Byrne ,1988, p.5).

### *2.1.7 Approaches of Teaching Writing*

Attempts to teach writing- since the time when students were merely given a topic of some kind and asked to produce a 'composition' without further help have usually focused on some particular problematical aspect

of the writing Situation. Some key approaches examined below (Byrne, 1988, p.21).

**2.1.7.1 Focus on Accuracy**. In written work, errors occur naturally and are not always seen as serious issues because they were given the freedom to write anything they pleased, it was assumed that students would make mistakes. In order to offer students practice composing connected sentences, manipulation tasks like the one below is utilized when teaching students how to write and mix different sentence kinds (Byrne, 1988, p.22). For example.

A (1) man (2) walked (3) down the street. A (4) girl (5) was waiting for him outside a (6) shop. As he approaches, she smiled (7) and said," Hello, how are you?"

1. tall, young, well-dressed

2. with a bear, in a black hat, with sunglasses

3. rapidly, hurriedly, impatiently

4. pretty, fair-haired, dark-skinned

5. in high-heeled shoes, with an umbrella, in a pink hat,

6. chemist's, grocer's, bicycle

7. pleasantly, attractively, in a friendly manner

Gradually the amount of control is reduced and the students are asked to exercise meaningful choice (in the example above they do not have to think and they cannot make mistakes) .At a still later stage, they may be given a Good deal of guidance with language and content ,but allowed some opportunities for self-expression(Byrne,1988,p.22).This controlled-to-free approach was very much a product of the audio- Lingual period , with its emphasis on step-by-step learning and formal Correctness .Many

such   schemes were carefully thought out and, although no Longer fashionable ,they,  produced many useful ideas on how to guide writing (Byrne, 1988, p.22).

    **2.1.7.2 Focus on Fluency.** With this method, learners are encouraged to write as much and as quickly as they can without worrying about making mistakes. Putting one's thoughts down on paper is crucial. Students write what they want to write in this form because they feel like they are really writing rather than just performing some sort of "exercises"; as a result, writing is a fun experience (Byrne, 1988, p.23).

  Although this method does not solve all of the issues that students face when they sit down to write. It does highlight certain important ideas that teachers should keep in mind. A fluency-approach, possibly directed into something like journaling, can be a helpful countermeasure (Byrne, 1988, p.23).

    **2.1.7.3 Focus on Text.** This method emphasizes the significance of the paragraph as the fundamental building block of written expression. Its primary goal is to teach students how to form and arrange paragraphs. It employs a variety of techniques both alone and collectively, including:

1.forming paragraphs from disordered sentence;

2.writing parallel passages;

3.developing paragraphs from topic sentences.

  This method identifies and attempts to solve one of the main issues with writing: encouraging learners to communicate successfully (Byrne, 1988, p.23).

    **2.1.7.4 Focus on Purpose. People** write to or for other people for a variety of reasons. These are elements that writing instruction and

practice frequently ignore. However, creating situations that encourage students to write with a purpose is simple. For instance, they can write to one another in class or employ a role-playing scenario (Byrne,1988, p.23). This method encourages students to write and illustrates how writing is a form of communication, even though, like fluency writing it does not address specific issues that students face while using the written language (Byrne, 1988, p.23).

### 2.1.8 Writing-for-Writing

When a teacher asks his students to design a good magazine advertisement, they may become good at writing advertisements. If teachers are to build the students'writing skills (as opposed to building their writing habits or getting them to write for language practice). Teacher will have to use such writing-for-writing tasks as often as is appropriate (Harmer, 2015, p.369). Teaching writing-for- writing is entirely, however, since the objective here is to help students to become better writers and to learn how to write in various genres using different registers (Harmer, 2004, p.34).

**Example lesson**

The following example shows a "writing-for-writing" procedure where language is put at the service of a skill and specific task, and where features such layout and language choice-including issues of register-are focused on to help students write better in a particular genre or genres (Harmer, 2004, p.34).

**Stage1**.the students first read the letter on the opposite page and answer the following questions about it:

A. where is Brenda writing from?

B. How did she and Mariel get them?

C. How did she feel when she first arrived? How does feel now?

D. What differences are there between Brenda's and Mariel's character?

E. What is Brenda's job and What is Mariel's?

F. Who is David?

G. How formal is the letter? How do you know?

When students have read the letter and answered the questions, they discuss features of an informal and friendly letter like this one ,such as where the sender's address is normally written and the date is written (Harmer, 2004, p.34).

**Stage2.**the students are then asked to choose either I(informal), F(formal), or N(neutral)for the following letter phases.

Flat 3
156 Centenary Road,
Mumbai,
India

June 15th

Dear Rosemary,

I've just received your letter — thanks. It was nice to hear from you.

Well, we've been here for three weeks already. I still can't believe it. But things have definitely improved since the bus left us at the roadside on that first day. For a minute I wanted to turn round and go home again. You know me, I'm a great pessimist. But Mariel always thinks everything is going to be fine. In less than a day she had found us a flat and here we are.

I've found myself a job giving private conversation classes. Not quite what I'm used to, but it's still teaching and my students are lovely. Mariel hasn't got a job yet, but she's made contact with various people in the film industry here and hopes she'll get work soon.

So the big news is, we've made our decision. We've decided to stay. This is our home.

Please give my love to David and the kids. Why not come and visit us soon?

Lots of love,
Brenda

A letter from *Just Right: intermediate* by Jeremy Harmer

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| a | Hi Rosemary, | I/F/N |
| b | Dear Mrs Forrest, | I/F/N |
| c | Dear James, | I/F/N |
| d | Dear Ms Forrest, | I/F/N |
| e | Dear Sir or Madam, | I/F/N |
| f | With best wishes, | I/F/N |
| g | Lots of love, | I/F/N |
| h | Yours sincerely, | I/F/N |
| i | Yours faithfully, | I/F/N |
| j | Love, | I/F/N |
| k | Thanks for your letter. | I/F/N |
| l | Thank you very much for your letter. | I/F/N |
| m | Please give my love to David and the kids. | I/F/N |
| n | I look forward to hearing from you. | I/F/N |

**Stage3**.now students have looked at features of genre and register in letter writing, it is time for them to put what they have discussed into practice. The teacher puts an invitation on the overhead projector (Harmer, 2004, p. 36).

You are invited to celebrate

**George & Mary's**

# 2nd wedding anniversary

(Yes, it's been that long!)

at The Rathmore Club, Carlock Road
7th December 2002
from 8pm

*BAR, MUSIC, NIBBLES, POOL*

**R.S.V.P.**
*13 Welland Close,*
*Harlow,*
*Essex JR5 6FT*

No presents please.

The teacher then draws two squares on the board to one side of the projected invitation.
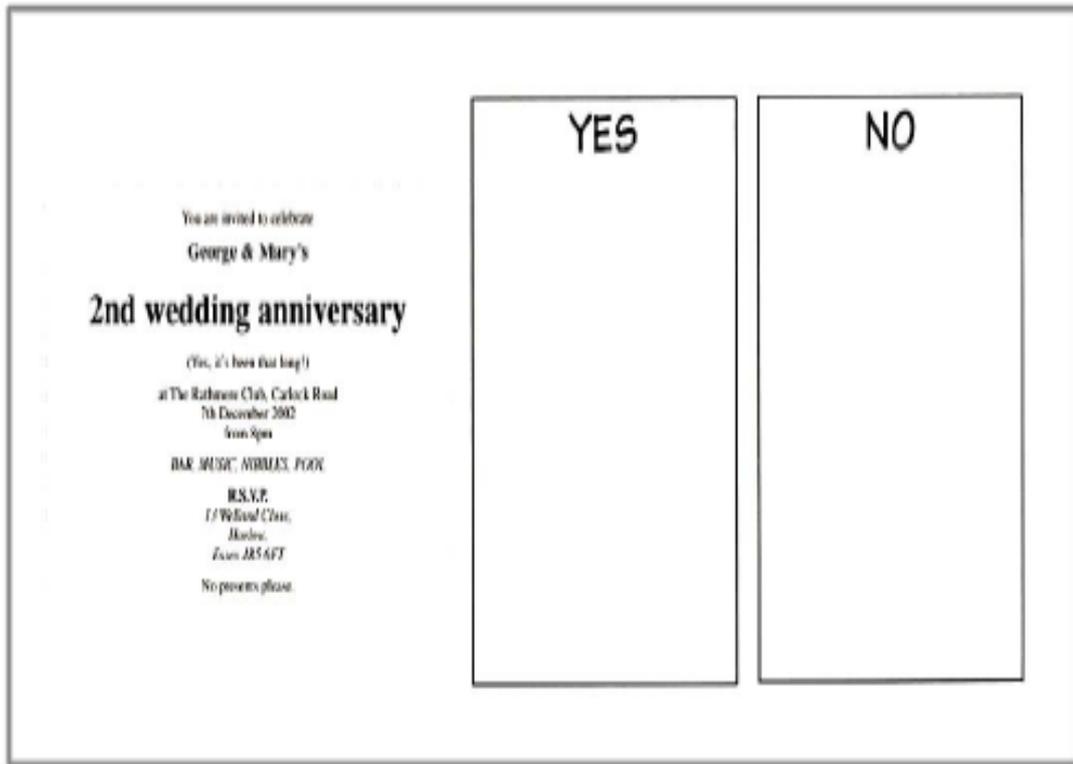
**Stage4.**Students then go up to the board one by one write first the address and date and then individual lines for the 'yes' and 'no'letters, using suggestion made by their colleagues and by the teacher. If a student puts the address in the wrong place, the student or the teacher help her to reposition it (Harmer, 2004, p.36).

The teacher may elicit the expression I'm afraid for the 'no'letter if the student at the board do not think of it. There may be a discussion about different ways of writing the date and the class can discuss the difference (in register and appropriacy) between Thank you and Thanks for example (Harmer, 2004, p.36). This process writing in miniature, each sentence being drafted and rewritten collaboratively, just as, in a more extensive sequence, students might plan and draft text which they then revise and re-draft on the basis of comment from the teacher or students. Here are two letters that were written in this way (Harmer, 2004, p.37).

28 Mill Road,
Cambridge
CB1 3NL

Nov. 12th

Dear Mary & George,

Thank you very much for your invitation. I would love to come to your party.

I look forward to seeing you on the 7th.

Lots of love,

Mi Sook

7 Lilac Court,
Cherry Hinton,
Cambridge
CB1 2XG

Nov. 13th

Dear Mary and George,

Thanks for your invitation but I'm afraid I won't be able to come because I promised to go to my grandfather's birthday party.

I hope you have a wonderful evening.

I look forward to seeing you soon.

Best regards,

Rose

Student-constructed board letters

**Stage 5**. students can then be asked to look at a new letter with gaps in it, as shown in the next page. The students complete the text by adding one word for each gap. When they have done this the teacher can go through the answers before leading a discussion about the differences between this(business/application) letter and letters they had previously seen and written, such as whether or not the recipients'address is included (Harmer, 2004, p.37).

**Stage 6.** Finally, students can write a letter for homework in response to an advertisement, like the one on the next page. Because students have had a chance to study different examples of letters and because they have discussed how they might replicate some of their features, they are in a good position to complete the homework task. When the teacher receives the homework, he or she can respond to it by saying where it has succeeded and by making suggestions for re-drafting and rewriting.

Students can then produce a final version (Harmer,2004, p.37).

17 Hillside Road
Chesswood
Herts. WD3 5LB
Tel 01923 284171
Fax 01923 286622

Thursday 17 January

David Benton
Worldwatch UK Ltd
357 Ferry Rd
Basingstoke RG2 5HP

Dear Mr Benton

I saw your ............ for a Business Journalist in today's Guardian newspaper. I am very ............ in the job and I think that I have many of the necessary ............ .

I ............ politics and modern languages at Oxford University. I am ............ in French, German and Spanish. I have ............ widely in Europe and South America, and I ............ worked as a business journalist for the BBC ............ the last five years.

I enclose a copy of my Curriculum Vitae. I look forward ............ hearing from you soon. Please let me know if you need more information.

Yours sincerely

*Nancy Mann*

Nancy Mann

From *New Headway Intermediate* by John and Liz Soars

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The procedure outline in the previous five pages show how a skill-focus lesson differs significantly from a sequence devoted exclusively, for example, to general language improvement. Here writing (in this case letter writing) was at the heart of the lesson, and was its

primary focus rather than acting as an adjunct to other activities (Harmer, 2004, p.38).

### 2.1.9Writing-for-Learning

Writing-for- learning is a type of writing, teachers work to help their students learn language or to test them on that language. Thus, if teacher asks students to write three sentences using "going to" future, their objective is not to train the students to write but rather to help them to remember the going to future. The same is true when obtain them to write (say, for a test) four sentences about what they wish about the present and the past (Harmer, 2015, p.369).

Writing (as one of the four skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing) has always formed part of syllabus in the teaching of English. However, it can be used for a variety of purpose, ranging from being merely a" backup" for grammar teaching to a major syllabus strand in its own right, where mastering the ability to write effectively is seen as a key objective for learners (Harmer, 2004, p.31).

The importance given to writing differs from teaching situation to teaching situation. In some cases, it shares equal billing with the other skills; in other curricula it is only used, if at all, in its "writing-for-writing" role where students write predominantly to augment their learning of the grammar and vocabulary of the language (Harmer, 2004, p.31).

Writing encourages students to focus on accurate language use and, because they think as they write, it may well provoke language development as they resolve problems which the writing puts into their minds (Harmer, 2004, p.31).

**2.1.9.1 Reinforcement Writing. Writing** has always been used as a means of reinforcing language that has been taught. In its simplest form, teachers often ask students to write sentence using recently learnt grammar. Suppose, for example, that intermediate students have recently been practicing the third conditional (If +bad(not)done+ would(not)have done), they might be given the following instruction (Harmer, 2004, p.32).

> Write two sentences about things you wish had turned out differently, and two sentences about things you are pleased about.

The teacher hopes then, that students will write sentences such as (Harmer, 2004, p.32).

> (things you wish had turned out differently)
>
> If I hadn't failed my exams, I would have gone to university.
>
> (things you are pleased about)
>
> If I hadn't gone to that party, I wouldn't have met my boyfriend.

The same type of sentence writing can be used to get students to practice or research vocabulary, as following exercise shows (Harmer, 2004, p.32).

Write a sentence about a friend or a member of your family using at least two of these character adjectives: proud, kind, friendly, helpful, impatient ...

Reinforcement writing need not to be confined to sentence writing, however, students can also be asked to write paragraphs or longer compositions to practice certain recently focused-on aspects of language or paragraph and text construction. Students might be asked to write a story about something that happened to them (or that is based on a character or events in their coursebook) as a good way of having them practice past tense. They could be asked to write a description of someone they know because this is a good way of getting them to use the character and physical description vocabulary they have been studying (Harmer, 2004, p.32).

Clearly the aim of these activities is to give students opportunities to remember 'new' language better. Just the act of writing sentences makes them think about the new grammar or vocabulary in a more considered way than if teacher asks them to provide instant spoken examples (Harmer, 2004, p.33).

**2.1.9.2 Preparation Writing**. Writing is frequently helpful as preparation for some other activity, in specific when students write sentences as an introduction to discussion activities. This gives students time to think up ideas rather than having to come up with instant fluent opinions. Students may be asked to write a sentence saying what their opinion is about a certain topic. For example, they may be asked to complete sentences such as (Harmer, 2004, p.33).
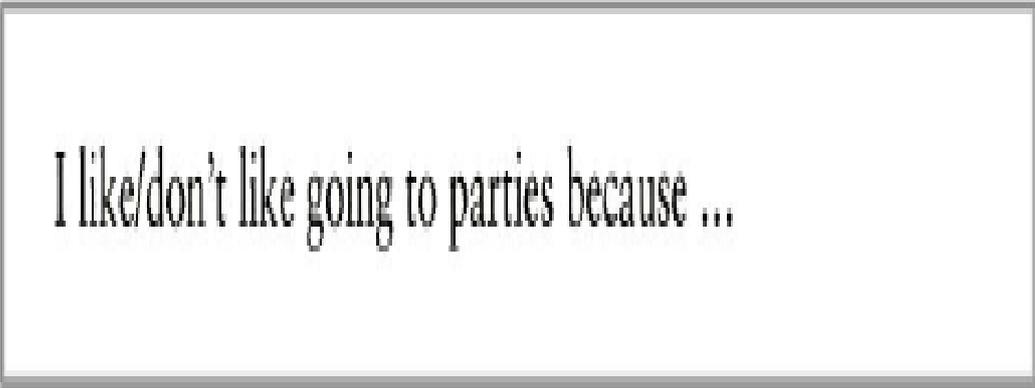
I like/don't like going to parties because …

This means that when the class as a whole is asked to talk about going to parties, they can either read out what they have written, or use what they thought as they wrote, to make their points. Another technique, when a discussion topic is given to a class, is for students to talk in groups to prepare their arguments. They can make written notes which they may use later during the discussion phase. In these cases, where writing has been used as preparation for something else, it is an immensely enabling skill even though it is not the main focus of an activity (Harmer, 2004, p.33).

**2.1.9.3 Activity Writing.** Writing can also, of course, be used as an integral part of a larger activity where the focus is on something else such as language practice, acting out, or speaking (Harmer, 2004, p.33). Teachers often ask students to write short dialogues which they will then act out. The dialogues are often most useful if planned to practice

particular functional areas, such as inviting or suggestion. Students work in pairs to make the dialogue and, where possible, the teacher goes to help them as they write. They now have something they can read out or act out in the class (Harmer, 2004, p.33).

### 2.1.10 Teacher's Tasks in Writing

Harmer (2004) stated that the teacher can help his students to be better writers so teacher has a number of crucial jobs to do. Among the jobs which teacher has to take part before, during and after students writing are the following (p.41).

1.**Demonstrating:** Teachers must be able to call students' attention to the norms of writing and the limitations of the genre in particular sorts of writing. However, students are made aware of flaws with layout or the language employed to carry out specific written functions (Harmer, 2004, p.41).

2.**Motivating and Provoking**: Teachers might help by encouraging learners to think of ideas and motivating them with the importance of the work. For instance, if teachers arrive at class with prepared suggestions, students would be able to seek support right away rather than being forced to come up with ideas on the moment (Harmer, 2004, p.41).

3.**Supporting**: Once they start, students require a lot of support and encouragement with both their ideas and the tools to put them into action. When students are writing in class, teachers need to be very encouraging. They should also be readily available and able to help students when they run into problems (Harmer, 2004, p.42).

4. **Responding:** Teachers' responses to students' written work can be divided into two categories: Reacting and evaluating. When replying,

teachers give positive feedback on the ideas and organization of each item and frequently (but not always) offer suggestions for its improvement. Teachers will comment on students' work at different stages, but they won't grade it or assess it as a finished product; instead, they'll let the student know how well it has gone thus far (Harmer, 2004, p.42).

**5. Evaluating:** Teachers want to grade their students' work and let them know how well they did. Teachers might point out where their students wrote effectively and where they made mistakes while analyzing their writing for tests and may give grades. Despite the fact that creating a test is distinct from answering, teachers can still use it to classify students and provide chance for learning (Harmer, 2004, p.42).

### *2.1.11 Errors and Mistakes*

Byrne (1988) stated that the first thing teacher should do when he finds something wrong with a piece of written work is to try to ascertain whether it is an error or mistake. Learners make mistakes when they try to use language in ways that they are not yet able to, such as when they generalize incorrectly (using a regular form instead of an irregular form, like **throwed** instead of **threw**) or when they transfer from their mother tongue (they write: **The people is angry** instead of: **The people are angry**) (p.123).

These are the two main mistakes sources. On the other hand, mistakes are a type of slip. The students have learned something, but maybe they have forgotten it for a while or are just tired or simply being irresponsible. At this point, the students must learn something, whether or not it is included in the syllabus or course book, and the best approach to assist them is to provide them the opportunity to do so. In short, mistakes

made by learners might influence our education, especially our remedial instruction (Byrne, 1988, p.123).

According to Harmer (2015) mistakes can be divided into three categories: **slips** (mistakes that students can correct themselves), **errors** (mistakes that students cannot correct themselves because they require explanation), and **attempts** (these types occur when students try to say something but do not yet understand the appropriate way to say it) (p. 155).

### 2.1.12 Definitions of Errors

A mistake is a conspicuous deviation from the mature grammar of a native speaker, showing the learner's inter linguistic ability. In a nutshell, an error refers to elements that affect competence produced by systematic failure and occur on a regular basis (Brown, 1980, p.165). An Error is described by Davies (2000, p.206) as an improper form or use of language that a student is unable to remedy because he or she is unaware of the correct form or use. Errors are improper forms or uses that occur as a result of the user's lack of knowledge about the proper form or use (Davies, 2000, p.112).

### 2.1.13 Source of Errors

Thornbury (1999, p.114) distinguishes three types of errors. When students choose the incorrect spelling of a word, they make a lexical error ("lower" instead of "lawyer", "thinks" instead of "things"). Lexical errors can also occur when words are combined incorrectly (for example, "the Sunday night past" instead of "last Sunday night"). Grammar problems, on the other hand, include errors in verb form and tense (the doorbell rang, we speaked), as well as sentence structure (was the four o'clock) where the subject of the phrase (it) is missing. There are

also discourse faults that pertain to the organization and linking of sentences in order to create a complete text (Thornbury, 1999, p.115).

### 2.1.14 Correction of Written Work

Byrne (1988) mentioned that there are various correction procedures which can be used to correct written work (p.124).

### 1.Correcting all Mistakes.

Naturally, this is the standard procedure for correcting written material. When learners get their work marked in red ink, it takes the teacher longer and discourages the students. Some students don't benefit from it at all, while others are more focused in the reasons of mistakes than the treatments. Making changes in-class, while the students are still writing and have everything fresh in their minds, is probably more advantageous for the teacher. This is as opposed to examining a lot of revisions after a few days (Byrne, 1988, p.124).

### 2.Correcting Mistakes Selectively

Teachers focus on correcting errors in certain areas, like as tenses or articles, rather than attempting to correct all the errors in a piece of writing because these are the areas where students most need guidance (Byrne, 1988, p.124).

### 3.Indicating Mistakes.

To draw the students' attention to the kind of errors they have made, this is usually achieved by highlighting the errors and using a suitable symbol, as can be seen in Table 2.1 (Byrne, 1988, p.125).

Table (**2.1**)

Correction Symbol (Byrne, 1988, p.125)

| SYMBOL | MEANING | EXAMPLE |
|--------|---------|---------|
| S | Incorrect spelling | I recieved jour letter. |
| W. O. | Wrong word order | We know well this city. Always I am happy here. |
| T | Wrong tense | If he will come, it will be too late. |
| C | Concord   Subject and verb do not agree | Two policemen has come. The news are bad today. |
| W F | Wrong form | We want that you come. That table is our. |
| S/P | Singular or plural form wrong | We need more informations. |
| ʌ | Something has been left out | They said/was wrong. He hit me on/shoulder. |
| [ ] | Something is not necessary | It was too much difficult. |
| ? M | Meaning is not clear | Come and rest with us for a week. The view from here is very suggestive. |
| N A | The usage is not appropriate | He requested me to sit down. |
| P | Punctuation wrong | Whats your name He asked me what I wanted? |

This approach raises students' awareness of the types of errors they are making, which increases their chance that they will learn something from it (Byrne, 1988, p.126).

## 4. Mistakes Self-identification

Most likely, teachers won't be able to keep to this procedure consistently. The teacher should be prepared to hand over whole responsibility for correction to the students, who will typically do it properly and with pleasure. Teachers do other things that can help students when they make mistakes such as: (Byrne, 1988, p.126).

**A.** Explain a Mistake.

For instance, teacher can write a comment in the margin or at the end of piece of written work. If teacher is able to look at students 'work in class, this step is useful for drawing attention to recurrent mistakes in a specific area (Byrne,1988, p.126).

**B.** Indicate to the Students that they Should Consult Teacher About a Mistake.

This may be used as an alternate to (2) and (3) above. Students can propose the correction when their attention has been drawn to a mistake.

**C.** Use the Mistakes as a Basis for Remedial Teaching.

If there are an adequate number of students in the class have made a mistake, this procedure should be following to require general correction. Remedial teaching may take the form of a clarification (Byrne, 1988, p.126).

### 2.1.15 Writing Challenges

Writing is a complicated mental output that takes careful thought, discipline, and concentration. Some of the difficulties that students confront when writing in English have been identified in previous studies (Grami ,2010, p.9). Grammatical errors, misspellings, weakness or lack of punctuation, unsuitable vocabulary, incorrect use of irregular verbs, articles, prepositions, and question words are among the key issues that students face (Al-Khairy, 2013, p.5). Other factors that may contribute to writing difficulties include "ambiguous writing directions from academics," "impact from their first language," "inaccuracy of grammatical usage," and "content deficit" (Chou, 2011, p.53).

### 2.1. 16 Definitions of Text

A text is anything that is communicated through speech, writing, listening, or reading (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014, p. 593). Texts can be in the form of pictures, writing, speech, art, music, or any other form of expression are all examples of symbols (Lehtonen,2000, p.73). According to James (1998) the term text is commonly used exclusively to refer to a unit of written language bigger than a sentence, for which a paragraph could be a better phrase (p.141).

### 2.1.17 The Concept of Cohesion

One characteristic that can help students improve their writing ability is cohesion. A text's cohesion is a semantic feature that permits it to link together in some way. Cohesion is frequently a significant component in academic writing. A writing that is cohesive attempts to connect its sentences semantically as a whole (Baldwin, 2014, p.63).

Cohesion refers to the connection between forms. This indicates that the text's words or phrases are complete and relevant. In language,

cohesion is a sort of surface building that can be seen in both vocabulary and syntax (Baldwin, 2014, p.63).

Cohesiveness relates to the employment of reference words (e.g., he, theirs, the former) and conjunctions (e.g., but, then) to make a sentence plain and legible as a whole (Bailey, 2011, p.115). Cohesion, according to Bailey (2006) is defined as the connection of sentences so that the entire text is clear and readable. It is accomplished by a variety of means, including the use of conjunctions. Another is the use of words like," he"," they", and "that" to relate phrases and sentences to something previously mentioned (p.73).

There are four ways by which cohesion is created in English: by conjunction, reference, ellipsis, and lexical organization (Halliday & Matthiessen,2004, p.533). Cohesion is a textual situation in which we can point to characteristics of the text that have a cohesive function, and they relate to the language devices by which the speaker can communicate the text's experiential and interpersonal coherence (Thompson, 2014, p.215). Cohesion is a network of surface relations that connect words and expressions in a text, it is what gives a text its surface unity through the use of different cohesive ties (Baker, 1991, p.241).

### 2.1.18 The Concept of Coherence

Coherence is an important aspect of any sort of writing, but it is especially important in academic writing. where the piece's success or failure is determined by its coherence. According to Crème and Lea (2008) coherence is concerned with the overall sense of the text, which should be organized and linked in a way that aids the reader's comprehension (p.30). According to Shannon (2011) coherence is the

quality that allows the reader to change rapidly from one thought to the next, and it is achieved by (p.11).

1.Organizational structure. Coherence is created only through the organization of ideas and the planning of written material.

2.The principle of paragraph unity is that each paragraph develops one core idea that is reinforced by particular details.

3.Paragraph cohesiveness is the relationship between sentences inside a paragraph and how they relate to one another.

Coherence occurs only in the minds of the writer and reader; it is a mental process that cannot be identified or quantified in the same way that cohesion can (Thompson, 2014, p.215). Coherence is a network of relationships that organize and construct a text, it refers to the system of semantic relationships that lies under the surface text. Coherence is what gives a text its structure; there should be a connection and continuity of ideas because the intended meaning can only be understood if the ideas are in continuity and developing while also supporting topic sentences (Baker, 1991, p.241).

Coherence, according to Nunan (1993), is the sensation that a series of phrases or utterances are dangling together. The form of semantic and rhetorical association that underpins texts is referred to as coherence. The sort of meaningful links between the texts is referred to as coherence (p. 39).

### 2.1.19 Types of Cohesive Devices

Cohesive devices, according to Yanti (2012), are signals utilized by speakers and hearers to discover the meanings that lie under surface utterance. They are formal connections that are used to link sentences and

phrases together. The writer can put language together and establish unity with the help of these formal ties. They're utilized to connect sections of a text in a precise way. Chojimah (2014) mentioned that CDs can be divided into two main types of grammatical and lexical cohesion. Lexical cohesion consists of repetition, synonymy, hyponymy, meronymy, and antonym helps connect ideas within a conversation while grammatical cohesion comprises, references, substitution, ellipses and conjunctions (p.8).

## *2.1.19.1 Grammatical Cohesion*

**2.1.19.1.1 Reference.** Thompson (2014) defined reference as a set of grammatical resources that enable the speaker to signal whether something is being repeated previously in the text (we have already been told about it), or whether it has not yet appeared in the text (it is new to us). The following line refers to the same item as "their bedroom", although "a" in "a large bed" indicates that this is something that has not been addressed yet (p.216). For example.

They came again into their bedroom. **A** large bed had been left in it (Thompson, 2014, p.216).

Halliday and Matthiessen (2004) mentioned that in the personal reference items of English are set out in Table2.2. They either "determiner" or "possessive". If 'determinative', they are personal pronouns serving as Thing/Head in the nominal group (as in a velveteen rabbit . . . he). If 'possessive', they are determiners serving as Deictic in the nominal group and are conflated with either Head or Premodifier (as in a velveteen rabbit . . . his coat) (p.554)

*Table (2.2)*

*Personal Reference Items (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p.556)*

| | | Head | | Pre-modifier |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Thing: pronoun | Deictic: determiner | |
| | | determinative | possessive | |
| singular | masculine | he/him | his | his |
| | feminine | she/her | hers | hers |
| | neuter | it | [its] | its |
| plural | | they/them | theirs | their |

Pronouns (e.g., she, he, it, him, they, etc.) and demonstratives (this, that, these, and those) are among the reference items (McCarthy,1991, p.35). Personal reference items create co-reference in terms of the category of person. As one noted above, there is another related, but distinct, co-referential strategy — that of demonstrative reference. Here the reference item is a demonstrative, this/that, these/those. Demonstratives as can be seen in Table 2.3 may also be either exophoric or anaphoric; in origin they were probably the same as third-person forms, but they retain a stronger deictic flavor than the personals, and have evolved certain distinct anaphoric functions of their own (Halliday and Matthiessen,2004, p.556).

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*Table (2.3)*

*Demonstrative reference Items ((Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p. 556)*

| | | nominal group | | adverbial group |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Head/Thing | Pre-modifier/Deictic | Head |
| | | pronoun | determiner | adverb |
| specific | near | this/these | this/these | here (now) |
| | remote | that/those | that/those | there (then) |
| non-specific | | it | the | |

For example:

**(i) exophoric**

Here, I'll help with **this one**.

Yes, Dad, but we mustn't even lean on **this** guitar today.

We could move **that** table.

It wouldn't matter to him really; he's half deaf after all these years working at **this** place.

I've been eating like **this** for the last ten years and nothing happens.

What is **that**?  Hmm, Hungarian pastry (Halliday and Matthiessen,2004, p.556).

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**(ii) endophoric: anaphoric**

Though Amnesty has long criticized the widespread US use of the death penalty, it found there has now been another worrying development in **this** process. The way that Icelandic expresses the phrase "I dreamed something last night" is "It dreamed me". Though **that's** also modern Icelandic, this is a medieval idea. During the European scramble for Africa, Nigeria fell to the British. It wasn't one nation at **that** point; it was a large number of independent political entities. The British brought **this** rather complex association into being as one nation and ruled it until 1960 when Nigeria achieved independence.

They have to be given instruction of course and learn to read the signals; then they'll take a driving test and there are track circuits as on all electrified lines so that once a train gets into a section no other train can move on to **that** section and run into it but **that's** just standard equipment (Halliday & Matthiessen, p.557).

**(iii) endophoric: cataphoric**

For instance:

Rather, I think we will be stronger and more effective if we stick to **those** issues of governmental structure and process, broadly defined, that have formed the core of our agenda for years.

The basic sense of 'this' and 'that' is one of proximity; this refers to something as being 'near', that refers to something as being 'not near'. The 'that' term tends to be more inclusive, though the two are more evenly balanced in English than their equivalents in some other languages. Proximity is typically from the point of view of the speaker, so this means 'near me'. In some languages, as pointed out earlier, there is a

close correspondence of demonstratives and personals, such that there are three demonstratives rather than two, and the direction of reference is near me (this), near you (that) and not near either of us (yon) (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p.557).

In comparative reference, the reference item still signals 'you know which'; not because the same entity is being referred to over again but rather because there is a frame of reference — something by reference to which what I am now talking about is the same or different, like or unlike, equal or unequal, more or less. Comparative reference items function in nominal and adverbial groups; and the comparison is made with reference either to general features of identity, similarity and difference or to particular features of quality and quantity: As can be seen in Table 2.4 (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p.560).

Any expression such as the same, another, similar, different, as big, bigger, less big, and related adverbs such as likewise, differently, equally, presumes some standard of reference in the preceding text. For example, "such", "other", more" in (**a**), (**b**) and (**c**) (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p.560).

(**a**) Two men were killed by lethal injection in Texas this year, even though they were 17 when they committed their offences, and another 65 juveniles are on death row across the country. "**Such** executions are rare world-wide," the report says.

(**b**) Zoo visitors were shaken by the episode. "I am not bringing them back. These are my grandkids. It is not safe," said Sandra Edwards, who was visiting the zoo with her grandchildren when she heard the shots and saw youths fighting. Nakisha Johnson, 17, said she saw one young man open fire after a feud between youths became violent. She said the

children who were wounded were caught in the middle of the two groups of youths. "He was just shooting at the people he was fighting" but struck the children bystanders, Johnson said. **Other** witnesses said the shooting occurred when a bottle was thrown from one group of youths to another.

(**c**) Survey results, combined with feedback [[gathered by leaders from all the Services during field and fleet visits]], have convinced us that long-term retention is not well served by the Redux retirement plan. Our men and women deserve a retirement system [[that **more** appropriately rewards their service]].

*Table (**2.4**)*

*Comparative Reference Items (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p.561)*

| | | Nominal group | | | Adverbial group* |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | post-Deictic | Numerative | Epithet | Head |
| | | adjective | adverb | adjective; adverb | adverb |
| general | identity | same, equal, identical, &c. | | | identically, (just) as, &c. |
| | similarity | similar, additional, &c. | | comparative adjective: such | so, likewise, similarly, &c. |
| | difference | other, different, &c. | | | otherwise, else, differently, &c. |
| particular | | | Submodifier: more, fewer, less, further, &c.; so, as, &c. + Subhead: numeral | comparative adjective: bigger, &c. OR Submodifier: more, less, so, as, &c. + Subhead: adjective | comparative adverb: better, &c. OR Submodifier: more, less, so, as, &c. + Subhead: adverb |

Personal references, demonstrative references, and comparative references are considered the three categories of references (Halliday and Hasan,1976). The first  personal reference includes three sub-types.(**a**) determiner(possessive)(e.g., **mine**, **her**, **his**, **their ,hers ,your**, **its, yours ,my**) ,(**b**)personal   pronouns  are used to refer to people (e.g., **I, they, him ,her, them, it, me, you, we ,us**),and (**c**) relative pronouns(**who, which**, ..etc.) .The second  demonstrative references contain two sub-types.(**1**)determiners (e.g**., the, there, that, this , those**),(**2**)demonstrative adverbs(e.g. **here, then, there**) , and(**3**) the last type is comparative reference that includes two sub-types  (**a**)comparative adjectives(e.g. **same, equal, other ,different**. etc.), and(**b**)comparative adverbs (e.g., **similarly, differently, more, less**. etc.) (Halliday and Hasan,1976).

Thompson (2014) mentioned that reference is divided into two kinds. The first type of reference is known as **exophoric** ("pointing outwards"), whereas the second is **endophoric** ("pointing inward") as can be seen in Figure 2.4. Consider the following examples (p.217):

Who'she? (Speaker pointing at photograph) (exophoric)

She appealed to Philip. He turned the main tap. (endophoric)

In the first example, the hearer interprets the meaning of "he" by relating it to something outside language- the photograph of a man. In the second, on the other hand, identifying the referent of" he" involves understanding that it refers to the man mentioned as" Philip" in the previous sentence (Thompson, 2014, p.217).

## 1. Endophoric Reference

The text contains the cohesive relationships that are interpreted by referencing to things. Where their interpretation lies within text, they

are called endophoric relation. Endophoric can divide into two subtypes which they as follow (Brown & Yule,1983, p.192):

## A. Anaphoric Reference

Anaphoric reference sends the reader or listener backward to a previously mentioned entity process or state of affairs. When the pronoun refers to a noun that has been previously named in the text. Consider the following examples (Nunan,1993, p.22):

Jane: oh, the pan has been washed it. The "pan" is anaphoric

Jane: it is alright Kate. The "it" is anaphoric (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014, p.604).

Algy met a bear. The bear was bulgy. The bugle was Algy.

In the example above we know which "bear"-the one that Algy met; and we know which bulge- the one displayed by the bear; but in this case the information had already been given before the "the" occurred (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p.557).

## B. Cataphoric Reference

When the pronoun comes before the noun to which it refers. Point the reader or listener onward- it lures us deeper into the text in order to locate the things to which the reference items refer. Consider the following example (Nunan, 1993, p.22).

This is the house **that** Jack built.

In the example above we know which "house" is being referred to, because we are told –it is the one built by Jack (Halliday & Matthiessen,2004, p.557).

**2. Exophoric Reference**

Brown and Yule (1983, p.192) remark that when their interpretation resides beyond the text in the context of scenario. The relationship is considered to be an exophoric relationship. The presence of different aspects shared by the sender and receiver is the only way to understand this reference. For examples:

Craig:this fish is cooked beautifully."this fish" is exophoric(Halliday & Matthiesse, 2014, p.604).

Jane:I'm sorry."I"is exophpric.

Figure( 2.4)

Categories of Reference (Thompson, 2014, p.220)
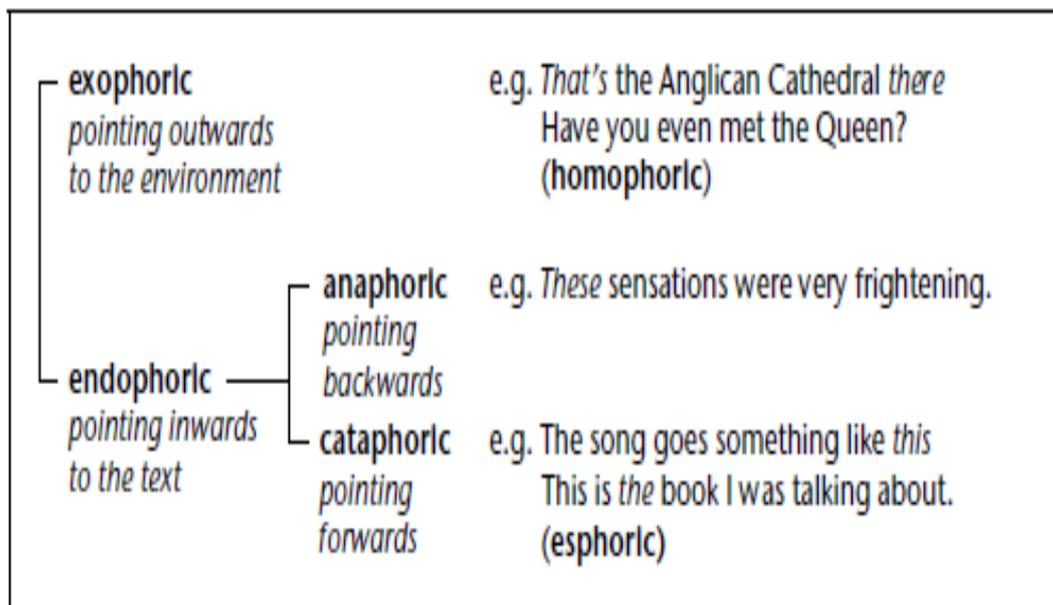


**2.1.19.1.2 Substitution.** Halliday & Hasan (1976) stated that Substitution is the second form of a grammatical cohesive device. It is the replacement of an item that has already been addressed in a text. Unlike reference, which derives its meaning from its occurrence in a literary

situation or context. Substitution is employed to reduce textual repetition. A substitute is a kind of counter that is used in place of the repetition of a certain item. Nominal, verbal, and clausal substitution are the three types of substitution:

## A. Nominal Substitution

The Nominal Substitution "one", plural "ones", which functions as a head; it can Substitute for any count noun (that is, any noun that is selecting for number, singular or plural) as can be seen in Table 2.5; for examples:

There are <u>reefs</u> around bloody Australia, isn't there? — Yeah; a Great Barrier **one**, I believe. — It's a big one, I think.

She's got she's got Big Pond which she said which is apparently not a terribly good <u>provider</u>. — No. — Mum. No. I thought Yahoo was one of the better **ones** [providers] (Halliday & Matthiessen,2004, p.568).

*Table (2.5)*

*Parallel Development of Substitutes 'Do' and 'One' (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p.569)*

|  | auxiliary as Finite | aux. as Finite with ellipsis | verb as substitute Event |
|---|---|---|---|
| verbal *do* | he **does** know | perhaps he **does** | he may **do** |
|  | he **does**n't know | surely he **doesn't** | he never has **done** |
|  | **does** he know |  |  |
| nominal *one* | **one** green bottle | there was **one** | a green **one** |
|  | a green bottle | there wasn't **one** | then green **ones** |
|  | determiner as Deictic | det. as Deictic with ellipsis | noun as substitute Thing |

**B. Verbal Substitution**

Substitution in the verbal group is by means of the verb do, which can substitute for any verb provided it is active not passive, except be or, in some contexts, have. The verb does will appear in the appropriate non-finite form (do, doing, done) as can be seen in Table2.5 above. Examples:

Does it hurt? — Not any more. It was doing last night.

Yeah, but I'm doing night shift too. If I have to teach people on night shift as I have **done**, I do night shift and then I do day shift and get a couple of hours off and then do night shift and day shift (Halliday & and Matthiessen,2004, p.567).

**C. Clausal Substitution**

Substitution is less likely in the positive, except in the expressions how so? why so? It not may appear in a WH- negative:

The kind of approach to reality and to ideas which the book offers us, is it a realistic book? — No, I don't

think so. — **Why** [Ø: do you] **not** [Ø: think so]? (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p.566).

**2.1.19.1.3 Ellipsis.** The omission of a word or a segment of a sentence is known as ellipsis. It happens when some crucial structural elements are left out of a sentence or clause and can only be recovered by referring to a previous text element (Nunan, 1993, p.25). Thompson (2014) described ellipsis as a set of resources that can be used to avoid full repeating of a sentence or clause elements and to convey to listeners that they should carry over through the phrasing from the preceding clause (p.216). Bloor and Bloor (1995) claimed that substitution and ellipsis are used when "a speaker or writer wishes to avoid the repetition

of a lexical item and is able to draw on one of the grammatical resources of the language to replace the item (p.96).

Though substitution and ellipsis both serve as language links for unity, ellipsis is distinguished by the fact that it is "substitution by zero" (Bloor & Bloor, 1995, p.142). Ellipsis involves the omission of an item. In other words, in ellipsis, an item is replaced by nothing. The three varieties of ellipsis are nominal, verbal, and clausal (McCarthy, 1991, p. 43).

A noun as a headword is frequently omitted in nominal: "Nelly liked the green tiles; I myself prefer the blue". The omission of the Verbal group is referred to as verbal. A:"will anyone be waiting?" B: "Jim will, I should think". Individual clause elements can be omitted in English through clausal ellipsis; subject-pronoun omission is particularly common ('doesn't matter, hope so, 'sorry, can't assist you,' etc.). "He said that he would take early retirement as soon as he could and he has "(McCarthy, 1991, p.44).  According to Halliday and Hasan (1976) there are three types of ellipsis: nominal, verbal, and clausal.

## A. Nominal Ellipsis

McCarthy (1991) stated that the omission of a noun headword is called nominal ellipsis. The following is an example of nominal ellipsis:

 Nelly liked the green tiles; myself I preferred the blue.

The nominal Nelly is deleted and substituted with nothing in the second phrase, and the meaning is still understood (McCarthy ,1991, p.43).

## B. Verbal Ellipsis

The verbal group consists of Finite plus Predicator, it follows automatically that any clausal ellipsis in which the Mood element is

present but the Residue omitted will involve ellipsis within the verbal group: The Predicator will be ellipse together with the rest of the Residue, as in Have a shower! — I can't [Ø: have a shower]. Consider the following examples:

Have you do you read very much Kafka? — I am **trying to** [Ø: read very much Kafka], yes, . . .

"Can you hop on your hind legs?" asked the furry rabbit. — "I don't **want to** [Ø: hop on my hind legs]," said the little Rabbit (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p.567).

**C. Clausal Ellipsis**

There are two types of clause Ellipsis (1) **yes/no ellipsis**, and (2) **WH-Ellipsis** as can be seen in Table 2.2 (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p. 563):

**(1)** yes/no ellipsis can also divide into two subtypes which they are:

**(I)the whole clause**. In a yes/no question-answer sequence may involve ellipsis the whole clause, for examples:

You mean you were interested in him as a man in private life. — **Yes, yes**. [Ø: I was interested in him as a man in private life.] (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p.563).

 Have you been interviewed by Bedford yet? —  **No**. [Ø: I haven't been interviewed by Bedford yet.] (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p.564).

**(ii)part of the clause**. As an alternative to the ellipsis of the whole clauses, there may be ellipsis of just one part of it (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p.565). Consider the following examples:

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Mum, you're not enjoying your dinner, are you? — I am [Ø: enjoying my dinner].

I've had a headache. — Have you [0: had a headache]

*Table* **(2.6)**

*Types of Substitution and Ellipsis (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p.564)*

| rank | type | extent | | substitution | ellipsis |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| clause | yes/no | whole clause | polarity (only) | so, not<br>Is he at home? – I think \|\| so. / Perhaps not. | yes, no + [Ø]<br>Is he at home? – Yes [Ø: he is at home], |
| | | part of clause | Mood | | Mood + [Ø: Residue]<br>Is he at home? – Yes, he is [Ø: at home]. |
| | | | Mood + polarity | so, nor/neither ^ Mood<br>He is at home. – So is she.<br>Mood + do, do so<br>Has he arrived? – He might do. | |
| | wh | whole clause | Wh (only) | | He is at home. – Who?<br>Who is at home? –John. |
| | | part of clause | Wh + Mood | | Will you help us? – I could tomorrow. |
| | | | Wh + polarity | | We mustn't lean on it. – Why not?<br>Who will help us? – Not me. |
| group | verbal | | | do | |
| | nominal | | | one | |

## (2) WH-ellipsis

**(a)**part of clause. Consider the following examples (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p.566):

Has the time come for these local divinities [[to give way to perhaps a bigger concept of deity, a bigger concept of religion]]? — **Who** knows [Ø: whether the time has come . . .]?

 I think that's why my generation is so tediously over-serious. **How** could we not be [Ø: so tediously over-serious]?

**(b)the whole clause.** Consider the following examples:

Well, I prefer Lord of the Flies. — **Why** [Ø: do you prefer Lord of the Flies]? —Because I don't think I understood Pincher Martin.

What have you read? — [Ø: I have read] **Lord of the Flies** (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p.566).

   **2.1.19.1.4  Conjunction.** Conjunctions, according to Herring (2016) are words that join other words, phrases, or clauses to describe a specific type of relationship between two or more components (p.14). The coordinating conjunctions are the most common: **and**, **but**, **or**, **for**, **so**, and **yet**. These conjunctions link two clauses together, such as 'I can sing **but** not play the guitar (Harmer,1998, p.45).

   Swick (2009, p. 38) states that conjunctions are employed to join two sentences into one compound sentence. Example: John is a doctor and works in Chicago.  Bailey (2011) claimed that conjunctions are words or phrases that connect sections of a sentence or link one sentence with the next (p.192).

      Herring (2016) pointed out that there are four types of conjunctions:

1. The most common conjunctions (and, but, or, yet, for, so) are used between individual words such as "I like to run and swim.", independent sentences such as "It was raining, so I took an umbrella.", and coordinating conjunctions such as "I am a big fan of playing sports **but** not watching them"(Herring,2016, p.549). The major coordinating conjunctions, or coordinators, according to Greenbaum and Nelson

(2009) are "and", "or", and "but". They're used to connect units of a similar case (p.55). Examples:

I enjoy novels **and** short stories.

You may pay by cash **or** credit card.

   Coordinators, according to Biber, Conrad, and Leech (2002) can connect words, phrases, or clauses. In English, there are three major coordinators (or, and, but) (p.227). For examples:

John is a doctor **and** Mary is lawyer (Swick, 2009, p.38).

Arthur **and** Bill **or** Charlie can play a duet (Hudson, 2010, p.180).

   Swick (2005, p.106) & Torres-Gouzerh (2016, p.3) mentioned that coordinating conjunctions (and, or, for, nor, but, yet, so) are used to link words (meat and potatoes), phrases (healthy again yet unable to work), or complete sentences (we remained by the fire, but Susan went to the park to skate).

   While Hudson (2010, pp.178-180) and Maxom (2009, p.225) claimed that coordinating conjunctions bind two sentences together when each sentence is equally essential. Examples:

She sits on the sofa. She reads her book.

She sits on the sofa **and** reads her book (Maxom, 2009, p.225).

Michael plays well. He can't jump high.

Michael plays well **but** he can't jump high (Maxom, 2009, p.225).

He saw Arthur **and** Bill on Tuesday (Hudson, 2010, p.178).

According to Stageberg (1981) coordinating conjunctions include "and","for","so","yet","or"and"but". These conjunctions link grammatical equivalents such as form classes, position classes, structure words, grammatical structures and sentences (p.284).

Connection of equivalent form-classes: Examples

Nouns        1. The library **and** the pool are nearby.

Adjectives   2. Sam is powerful **but** clumsy.

Verbs        3. He studied hard, yet failed.

Adverbs      4. Arabella dances lightly **and** gracefully.

Connection of equivalent position-classes: Examples

Adjectives 1. He was popular **and** in good health.

Adverbials 2. Is it upstairs **or** in the garage?

Nominals 3. He did what he pleased, **not** what was expected.

Verbals 4. We watched him rowing hard **but** getting nowhere.

Connection of equivalent structure-words

Auxiliaries 1. You can **and** should help your brother.

Prepositions 2. Was the witness walking to **or** from the scene of the accident?

Connection of equivalent grammatical structures: Examples

Prepositional phrases 1. You can sleep on the beach **or** in the woods

Relative clauses 2. Sara was a girl who could swim **but** who was afraid to dive.

Connection of sentences: Example

Tom began nodding, **for** the room was hot (Stageberg,1981, p.284).

Thomson and Martinet (1986) defined coordinating conjunctions such as: "and", "but, or", "both... and", "not only."." but also", "either...or", "neither...nor", as conjunctions that bind pairs of nouns, adjectives, adverbs, verbs, and clauses (p.288): Examples

He works quickly **but** accurately.

She does not smoke **or** drink.

We came in first but(we) did n't win the race.

You can **either** walk up **or** take the cable car (Thomson & Martinet ,1986, p.288).

Miller (2002, p.18) and Gelderen (2010, p.43) mentioned that if phrases and classifications are of the same type, they can coordinate, two noun phrases, two prepositions and two verb phrases. examples:

We see scorpions all the time in the house **and** the garden.  (Gelderen, 2010, p.43) (two noun phrases)

The dog went under **and** over the fence. (Two prepositions)

I read books **and** listened to music (Gelderen, 2010, p.43). (Two verb phrases)

Oshima and Hogue (2007) mentioned that coordinating conjunction bind grammatically equal parts of sentence. The parts can be words, phrases, or clauses as can be seen in Table 2.7 (p.189).

*Table* (**2.7**)

Coordinating Conjunction (Oshima & Hogue, 2007, p.189)

| Coordinating Conjunction | Use | Examples |
|---|---|---|
| And | Connect equal similar ideas | John likes to fish, **and** hunt.<br>John likes to fish **and** he often goes fishing with friends. |
| But | Connect equal different ideas | I like to eat fish **but** not to catch them.<br>John likes to catch fish, but he does n't like to eat them. |
| Or | Connect two equal choices | Do you prefer coffee **or** tea?<br>They can register for classes, online **or** they can register by mail. |
| So | Connect a result to a reason. | I did n't eat breakfast this morning, so I am a little hungry. |
| Yet | Connect equal contrasting ideas | It is sunny **yet** cold<br>John fished all day, **yet** he did n't get one bite. |
| For | Connect a result to a reason | I am a little hungry, for I did not eat breakfast this morning. |
| Nor | Connect two negative sentences | He does not eat meat, nor does she drink milk. |

2. A subordinate clause is linked to an independent clause by subordinating conjunctions. Subordinating conjunctions or subordinators introduce subordinate clauses. For example (Greenbaum & Nelson, 2009, p.56).

The negotiations succeeded because <u>both sides bargained in good faith</u>. If <u>you like the service</u>, tell the manager.

Here are some of the most common subordinators (**if, because, as, that, while, since, until, before, after, when, till, where and although**) (Greenbaum & Nelson, 2009, p.56).

Maxom (2009, p. 225) and Thomson and Martinet (1986, p.32) stated that subordinating conjunctions work in phrases when one part's understanding is dependent on the other. For instance,

We must go now. We might be late.

We might be late unless we go now.

**Although** they are expensive, people buy them (Maxom, 200, p.225).

Swick (2009, p.106) claimed that subordinating conjunctions come before dependent clauses to link with an independent clause. Here are some of the most commonly used (**so that, where, while, since, after, before, although, when, because, then, how, that, if…etc**.).

According to Greenbaum and Nelson (2002), some subordinating conjunctions are both subordinators and prepositions. If the word introduces a finite clause, it is subordinator; if it introduces a phrase, it is a preposition (p.112).

**Subordinator** I saw her **after** I had my interview<u>.</u>

**Preposition** I saw her **after** the interview (Greenbaum & Nelson, 2002, p.112)<u>.</u>

Greenbaum and Nelson (2009) stated that coordinators may be reinforced by - correlative expressions: both…and, either…or, not only…but also. Consider the following examples (p.55).

**Both** Susan **and** her brother.

 **Either** tea **or** coffee

"Not only was the speech uninspiring, **but** it was **also** full of logical statements " Greenbaum and Nelson (2009, p. 56). Maxom (2009) indicated that correlative conjunctions work in couples, thus you can't use one without the other (p.225):

I don't want milk. I want sugar.

 I want **neither** milk **nor** sugar.

   Oshima and Hogue (2007) claimed that subordinating conjunction (or subordinator) is the first word in a dependent clause.   These conjunctions use for telling a time or to give a reason, to tell where, to make contrast and subordinating words can use as relative pronouns as can be seen in Table 2.8and 2.9 (p.190).

*Table* **(2.8)**

*Relative Pronouns (Oshima & Hogue,2007,p.191)*

| Relative Pronouns | |
|---|---|
| **To refer to people** | |
| **who, whom, that** (informal) | People **who** live in glass houses should not throw stones. My parents did not approve of the man **whom** my sister married. He's a man **that** everyone in our town respects. |
| **To refer to animals and things** | |
| **which** | My new computer, **which** I bought yesterday, stopped working today. |
| **that** | Yesterday I received an e-mail **that** I did not understand. |
| **To refer to a time** | |
| **when** | Thanksgiving is a time **when** families travel great distances to be together. |

Tble**(2.9)**

*Subodinating Conjunctions(Oshima & Hogue, 2007, p.190)*

| Subordinating Conjunctions | |
|---|---|
| **To tell a time** | |
| After | He goes to school **after** he finshes work. |
| as | Several overcrowded busses passed **as** they were waiting. |
| as soon as | She felt better **as soon as** she took the medicine. |
| before | **Before** you apply to college,you have to take an entrance exam. |
| since | It has been a year **since** I left home. |
| until | We can't leave the room **until** everyone finihes the test. |
| when | **When** you start college,you sometimes have to take a placement test. |
| whenever | **Whenever** I don't sleep well,Ifeel ick the next day. |
| while | Several overcrowded busses passed **while** they were waiting. |
| **To give a reason** | |
| Because | Jack excels at sports because he trains hard. |
| since | **Since** she works daily, Jill is in great condition. |
| as | **As** they want to compete in a marathon, they ran every day. |
| **To tell where** | |
| where | I can never remember **where** I put my house keys. |
| wherever | A baby animal follows its mother **wherever** she goes. |
| **To make a contrast** | |
| Although | I love my brother **although** we disagree about almost everything. |
| even though | I love my brother **even although** we disagree about almost everything. |
| though | I love my brother **though** we disagree about almost everything. |
| while | My brother likes classical music, **while** I prefer hard rock. |
| whereas | He dresses conservatively, **whereas** I like to be a little shocking. |

3.Correlative conjunctions, according to Swick (2005, p.106), are made up of two words that appear in distinct areas of the same phrase.

Both...and, either...or, neither...nor, and not only...but also (often phrased as not only...also) are the most commonly used. Examples:

**Both** Ahmed **and** Ali have problems.

**Either** you work hard **or** you leave.

**Neither** the boys **nor** the girls wanted to end the game.

You are **not only** a poor loser **but also** a bad soccer player.

4.Conjunctive adverbs join two independent clauses. These can either be two separate sentences, or they can be joined into a single complex sentence with a semicolon (Herring,2016, p.549). Consider the following examples:

"The English language school offers discounted English language courses. There's **also** a library where you can study and borrow books".

"Jen had n't enjoyed the play; **nevertheless**, she recommended it to her friend".

### *2.1.20The system of conjunction*

The logical-semantic relation that are manifested in the system of conjunction fall into the same three kinds of expansion. Conjunctions mark relations where one span of text elaborates, extends or enhances another, earlier span of text as can be seen   in Figure 2.5. It is taken to a specific point in accuracy; the list conjunctions used for each of the most accurate characteristics as can be seen in Tables 2.5and 2.10 (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p.540).

**2.1.20.1Elaboration.** There are two categories of Elaborating relation, (i)apposition and (ii)clarification (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p.540).

**(i) apposition**. In this type of elaboration some element is re-presented, or restated. Apposition has two subtypes which they expository and exemplifying. **(a) expository**. For example:

I guess the main editorial rule that we work by is to treat all manuscripts equally. I **mean**, it doesn't make any difference who the author is.

**(b) Exemplifying**. For example

Our humor is founded on very close observation, very, very close observation of reality. You find some humorous proverbs, **for instance**, and the humor is that whoever made these proverbs was not going around the world with his eyes closed. **For example**, the dog says that those who have buttocks do not know how to sit (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p. 541).

**(ii)clarification**. Here the elaborated element is not simply restated but reinstated, summarized, made more precise or in some other way clarified for purposes of the discourse. There are seven subtypes, set out in table (2.5) above (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p.541); for examples:

Calculations by Anderson show that ozone depletion at the 410- and 420-K isentropic surfaces between August 23 and September 22 can be almost entirely explained by the amount of ClO present if one assumes that the ClO-ClO mechanism is effective. At the 360-K surface, the calculated ozone loss is somewhat less than the observed loss. **At least** we can say that above about the 400-K level, there does seem to be enough ClO to explain the observed ozone loss (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p.541). [corrective]

Customer: What's pepperoni? — Operator: Pepperoni? It's a round, it's a pork product. — Customer: Is it? Oh okay. No, I don't want that.

**Anyway**, um — can I have one of them? I'll pay the two dollars extra: the — what do you call it? the seafood (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p. 543). [dismissive)

Interviewer: You grew up in St. Louis, Missouri, went to Vassar as an undergraduate, and then came back to Iowa for your graduate work. — Smiley: **Actually**, there was a year in there where after I finished Vassar, I went to Europe with my then husband and we hitchhiked around, wondering what to do (Halliday & Matthiessen,2004, p.543). [verifactive]

Figure (2.5)

*The System of Conjunctions (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p.541)*
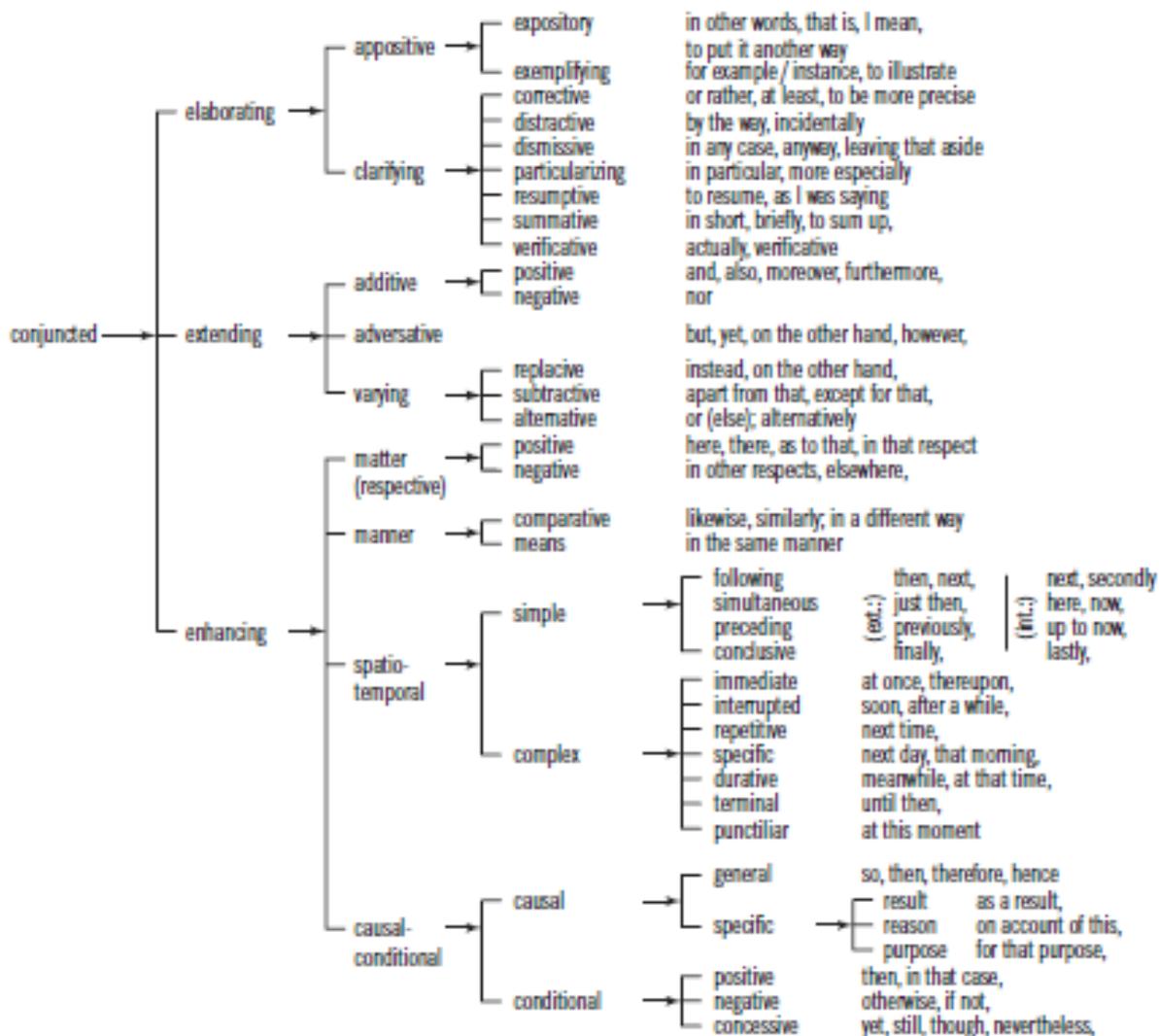
**2.1.20.2 Extension**. It involves either addition or variation. Addition is either positive and, negative nor or adversative but; but since the adversative relation plays a particularly important part in discourse it is best taken as a separate heading on its own (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p.543).

**(1) Addition**. It is either positive and negative nor or adversative (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p.543).

A. positive:

The ozone amount was also the lowest on record at all latitudes south of 60ºS latitude in 1987. **Furthermore**, the occurrence of strong depletion was a year-long phenomenon south of 60ºS and was not confined to the spring season as in preceding years, although the greatest depletion occurred during the Southern Hemisphere spring (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p.544).

B. negative:

When Kukul awoke, he saw that the feature was gone. He searched everywhere, but he could not find it. **Nor** could he remember the words of the priest on the day he was born (Halliday & Matthiessen,2004, p.544).

C. adversative:

 After the Bay of Pigs fiasco, he said ruefully, "'It would have been better if we had left it to James Bond." **On the other hand**, his reputed attempts to get Castro to extinguish himself with either an exploding cigar or a poison pen may have owed all too much to Bond (Halliday & Matthiessen,2004, p.544).

(**2**) **Variation**. It includes replacive, subtractive and alternative (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p.544).

(i)replacive:

Assad, a career air force officer who took power in a bloodless coup in 1970, has been grooming Bashar for future leadership, but the British-educated ophthalmologist has held no major political office. **Instead**, Bashar has been going abroad as his father's special envoy (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p.44).

(ii) subtractive**:**

Naturally though, it has to be within walking distance of Mayfair, but, **apart from that,** an attic with only a shower and a gas ring will suffice (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p.544).

(**ii**)alternative**:**

If there's still time, you may wish to round off the day with a visit to Fort Denison conducted by the Maritime Services Board]]. Tours leave from Circular Quay at 10.15am, 12.15am and 2.00pm Tuesday to Sunday, although you will certainly need to book in advance by ringing Captain Cook Cruises on 2515007.**Alternatively**, if you've had enough of colonial relics, a Captain Cook Cruise can be booked on the same number (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p.544).

**2.1.20.3Enhancement.** The various kinds of enhancement that create cohesion are (1) spatio-temporal, (2) manner, (3) causal-conditional and (4) matter. Each of these will be briefly discussed and exemplified (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p.544).

(**1**) **spatio-temporal**. Place reference may be used conjunctively within a text, with here and there, spatial adverbs such as **behind** and **nearby**, and

expressions containing a place noun or adverb plus reference item, for example **in the same place**, **anywhere else**. Here spatial relations are being used as text-creating cohesive devices (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p.544).

Temporal conjunction covers a very great variety of different relations; we can distinguish between (i) simple and (ii) complex ones, as can be seen in Table 2.5 above. They are important in registrations where sequence in time is a major organizing principle — narratives, biographies, procedures (Halliday &Matthiessen,2004, p.545). Examples:

(i) **simple**:

"I am Real!" said the little Rabbit. "The Boy said so!" **Just then** there was the sound of footsteps, and the two strange rabbits disappeared (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p.545) [simultaneous]

The Atlantic took a second story, and I got an agent. **Then** I started my first novel and sent off about four chapters and waited by the post office for praise to roll in, calls from Hollywood, everything. **Finally,** my agent sent me a letter that said "Dear Peter, James Fennimore Cooper wrote this a hundred and fifty years ago, only he wrote it better. Yours, Bernice." following; conclusive (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p. 545).

Interviewer: When did you first feel a sense of vocation about being a writer? — Smiley: Probably when I was a senior in college. I had done well in creative writing classes **before that**, so I signed up for the senior creative writing class and I started writing a novel (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p.545). [preceding]

(ii) **complex:**

Kukul fought bravely, at times at the very front. But wherever he was, not a single weapon fell on him. Chirumá observed this. "The gods must watch out for Kukul," he thought to himself. **All at once**, Kukul saw an arrow flying straight toward Chirumá, and Kukul positioned himself like a shield in front of his uncle (Halliday & Matthiessen,2004, p.545). [immediate]

In another story that we recently published, Robert Olen Butler's "Titanic Victim Speaks through Waterbed," a midlevel colonial official who is on the Titanic falls in love with a woman as the ship is about to sink. He has led a dry life **until then**, and the whole story is told through the eerie perspective of this guy after death, as he continues to float around in water, at various times in the ocean, in a cup of tea, a pisspot, and finally a waterbed (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p.545). [terminal]

Place the aubergine slices in a colander, sprinkle with salt and leave to drain for 10 minutes. Rinse and dry thoroughly. **Meanwhile**, mix the flour with the cayenne pepper in a bowl (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p.545). [durative].

Those that are called 'complex' are the simple ones with some other semantic feature or features present at the same time.

(iii) **simple internal:**

Organizationally, there are equally strong imperatives and challenges. Again, a **first** requirement is to do no harm to organizational frameworks that, through years of evolution, are finally at the stage where they are supporting programs that are actually helping us to get on with the business of increasing understanding. **Second**, having ensured that we do as little harm as possible, we must make sure that the interdisciplinary

linkage mentioned earlier do not fall between organizational stools. Third, we must take steps to ensure that the organizations we do have in place do not impede research that is crossing over their historical boundaries of self-definition. **Finally**, the ultimate challenge is to identify which, if any, new organizational frameworks would make a positive contribution to our ability to get on with the substantive work of understanding global change (Halliday&Matthiessen,2004, p.546). [conclusive]

*Table* **(2.10)**

*Examples of Items Serving as Conjunctive Adjuncts(contd) (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p.543)*

| TYPE OF EXP. | sub-types | | | items |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | preceding | hitherto, up to now |
| | | | conclusive | lastly, last of all, finally |
| | manner | comparison | positive | likewise, similarly |
| | | | negative | in a different way |
| | | means | | thus, thereby, by such means |
| | causal-conditional | general | | so, then, therefore, consequently, hence, because of that; for |
| | | specific | result | in consequence, as a result |
| | | | reason | on account of this, for that reason |
| | | | purpose | for that purpose, with this in view |
| | | | conditional: positive | then, in that case, in that event, under the circumstances |
| | | | conditional: negative | otherwise, if not |
| | | | concessive | yet, still, though, despite this, however, even so, all the same, nevertheless |
| | matter | positive | | here, there, as to that, in that respect |
| | | negative | | in other respects, elsewhere |

**(2) manner**. Manner conjunctives create cohesion (i) by comparison, (ii) by reference to means: As can be seen in Table 2.6 above. Comparison may be (a) positive ('is like'), or (b) negative ('is unlike'). Examples:

(i) **comparison**:

One area that holds considerable promise for RC involvement is Information Operations. By exploiting the technical skills that many reservists use on a daily basis in their civilian jobs, the military can take advantage of industry's latest techniques for protecting information systems. Similarly, defending our homeland from terrorism and responding to chemical attack are natural roles for our Guard and Reserve forces (Halliday and Matthiessen,2004, p.546). [positive]

(ii) **means**:

Expressions of means are however not often conjunctive; those that are usually also comparative, for example in the same manner, otherwise Chert originates in several ways. Some may precipitate directly from sea water in areas where volcanism releases abundant silica. Most comes from the accumulation of silica shells of organisms. These silica remains come from diatoms, radiolaria, and sponge spicules, and are composed of opal. Opalis easily recrystallized to form chert. **Thus,** much chert is recrystallized, making the origin difficult to discern (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p.546).

**3. causal-conditional**. In many types of discourse, the relation of cause figures very prominently as a cohesive agent. Some because expressions are general, others relate more specifically to result, reason or purpose as can be seen in Table 2.11 above (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p.546).

Examples:

**(i)** general**:**

We understand it still that there is no easy road to freedom. We know it well |that none of us acting alone can achieve success. We must **therefore** act together as a united people, for national reconciliation, for nation building, for the birth of a new world (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p.547).

**(ii)** specific

**(a)**result**:**

Now prices have sunk for secondary schools and experienced secondary inspectors are shifting into primary and special schools with minimal training. As a result, primary schools and teachers are being judged 'failing' by inspectors [[who have never taught younger children, but only watched a couple of lessons on video during their training]]! (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p.547).

**(b)**reason:

But you wouldn't marry me? — No. I'm not your type. I'd make you miserable.  I mean that. I'd very probably be unfaithful and that'd kill you. Then I'd be unfaithful too, to teach you a lesson. It wouldn't work. You'd do it to spite me. I would never do it for that reason (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p.547).

**(c)**purpose:

Conditionals subdivide into, positive, negative and concessive. Examples:

   **(i)**    positive**:**

That's the DEET account. Well, there must be more money coming from that. Do they tend to pay — how do they Per issue. Per issue. Well **in that case** do they pay after the issues come out? (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p.547)

**(ii)**negative:

"I mustn't say anything about it. **Otherwise**, I'll get shot by the lady [[who just shut the door]]," Holm said, referring to a publicist [[who had just left the room]] (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p.547).

**(iii)**concessive:

The outstanding performance of U.S. and other NATO military units has enabled SFOR to fulfill the military tasks spelled out in the Dayton Accords. **Nevertheless**, success in achieving the civil, political, and economic tasks identified at Dayton has been slower in coming (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p.547).

**(3) matter.** Here cohesion is established by reference to the 'matter' that has gone before. As noted earlier, many expressions of matter are spatial metaphors, involving words like point, ground, field; and these become conjunctive when coupled with reference items. The relation is either (i) positive or (ii) negative as can be seen in Table 2.6 above (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p.547). Examples:

**(i)** positive:

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

**(ii)**negative:

The serial dilutions of the serum are made in AB serum and the standard cells are suspended in 30 percent bovine albumin**.  In all other respects** the method is identical with technique (Halliday & Matthiessen,2004, p.548).

### 2.1.19.2 Lexical Cohesion

Castro (2004) stated that lexical cohesion is a device used by writers in order to create coherence in a work (p.20). Halliday and Matthiessen (2014) mentioned that lexical cohesion comes about through the selection of items that are related in some way to those that have gone before. There is repetition, synonymy, hyponymy, meronymy and collocation (p. 642)

McCarthy (1991) stated that lexical relations are the steady semantic relationship that occur between words for example, **rose** and **flower** are related by hyponymy; rose is a hyponymy of **flower, eggplant** and **aubergine** are related by synonymy (p.65).

**2.1.19.2.1 Repetition.** Repeating of a lexical item is the most direct kind of lexical cohesion; e. g "bear" in Algy met a **bear**. The **bear** was bulgy (Halliday & Matthiessen (2014, p. 642).

The second appearance of a "bear" here relates back to the first.

There is also the reference item "the" in this case, indicating that the listener is aware of "bear" as being referenced; and since there is nothing else to meet "the", we conclude that it is the same animal. However, this referential relationship is not required for lexical cohesion; Algy may have met a bear without it. Bears are bulky, but there would still be lexical continuity between "bears" and "bear" if "bears" meant "all bears". However, there would be only one tie in this scenario, whereas

there are two in the previous example, one referential (the) and one lexical (bear) (Halliday &Matthiessen, 2014, p.644).

**2.1.19.2.2 Synonymy.** Second, lexical cohesion occurs when a lexical item is chosen that is in some way synonymous with a previous one; for example, sound is synonymous with noise, and cavalry is synonymous with horses. He was just wondering which road to take when he was startled by a noise from behind him. It was the noise of trotting horses .... He dismounted and led his horse as quickly as he could along the right-hand road. The sound of the cavalry grew rapidly nearer (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014, p.645).

**2.1.19.2.3 Antonymy.** Lexical words which are opposite in meaning, namely Antonyms also function with cohesive impact in a text. For instance, "woke" and "sleep" in the following example.

He fell asleep. What woke him was a loud crash (Halliday and Matthiessen ,2014, p.645).

**2.1.19.2.4 Hyponymy.** Repetition and synonymy are two ways of developing identity-based relationships in which one lexical item restates another. There's also attribution, which is a type of elaborating relationship. The first lexical item indicates a class of thing, and the second is a subclass, or another class at the same level of classification (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014, p.645). For example:

Noah's wife and his sons' wives went to the fields to gather fruit and grain and vegetables. They would need plenty of food for themselves and the animals on the ark.

The remains of these animals may accumulate to form the limestone directly, or they may be broken and redeposited. In this

example, the words, "fruit", "grain" and "vegetables" are co-hyponyms of food.

Another example.

Pine, oak, elm is co-hyponymy of tree (Halliday and Matthiessen,2014, p.648).

**2.1.19.2.5 Meronymy.** It is a link between a concept and its components. To put it another way, Meronymy is a term used to describe terms that relate to different components of a whole. For example:

Tree: branch, leaf, trunk.

2. She knelt down and looked along the passage into the loveliest garden [ you ever saw]. How she longed to get out of that dark hall and wander about among those beds of bright flowers and those cool fountains, …

Where "flowers" and "fountains" are co-meronyms of garden (Halliday & Matthiessen,2014, p.647).

**2.1.19.2.6 Collocation.** Other instances of lexical cohesion, on the other hand, are dependent on a specific association between the elements in question - a tendency to co-occur - rather than on any generic semantic relationship of the types just outlined. Collocation is the term for this 'co-occurrence phenomenon'(Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014, p.647). For instance:

**Recreating-narrating (written, monologic): limerick**

A little fat man of Bombay

Was smoking one very hot day.

But a bird called a snipe

Flew away with his pipe,

Which vexed the fat man of Bombay (Halliday and Matthiessen,2014, p.649).

The presence of "pipe" in line four is cohesive due to a strong collocational relationship between "smoke" and "pipe". Clearly, a collocation like this has a semantic foundation; a pipe is something you smoke, and the words pipe and smoke are generally associated as range to process in a behavioral process clause. As a result, "pipe" will be taken to mean "the pipe he was smoking at the time"(Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014, p.649).

## 2.2. Previous Studies

 The Previous Studies will discuss the aims, population, sample, tool and the main findings**.**

### 2.2.1 Babiker (2019)

This study aims at investigating whether second year students of Al Neelain university have difficulties in using grammatical cohesive devices. Exploring whether 2nd year students Al Neelain university have difficulties in using lexical cohesive devices. Finding out whether teachers of English at Al Neelain university neglect teaching cohesive devices in writing for many reasons. Show that how cohesion devices play an important role in understanding of the text and writing skill. This study is limited to investigating the difficulties encountered by EFL university students in using cohesive devices in writing at university level particularly students of English language at Al Neelain university Faculty of Arts/ Department of English Language. The sample of the study are level two students (40) are given a test and teachers (20) for questionnaire, during the academic year of 2019. The data for the study

was collected using a test and a questionnaire. The findings revealed that Al Neelain University second-year students struggle to use grammatical and lexical coherent strategies in their writing.

### 2.2.2 Hajalzen (2017)

This study aims at Highlighting the problems facing EFL undergraduate students in using cohesive devices. Examining whether EFL undergraduate students are unfamiliar with the types of cohesive devices. Exploring whether the misuse of cohesive devices can affect the coherent of a written text. To achieve this purpose, the research has adopted descriptive analytical method by using a test, the population of the research consisted of 40 students drawn from the college of Languages and Translation, fourth year undergraduate students at Alrebat University. The researcher has analyzed the data by using the statistical program (SPSS). The data analysis showed that there is a weakness in the students' performance when they use cohesive device in writing, the students are unfamiliar with the types of cohesive devises for instance substitution and ellipsis, and also misuse of cohesive device affect the coherence of a written text.

### 2.2.3 Madiha and Sihem (2020)

The first aim is to determine whether students are familiar with all varieties of cohesive devices. The second aim is to determine which cohesive devices students use most frequently. A questionnaire and test are used. The sample consists of 97students at Mohamed Seddik Ben Yahia Jijel University. The findings of this study indicate that students are unfamiliar with all forms of cohesive devices; also, students use grammatical cohesive devices more frequently (811times) than lexical cohesive devices (89times).

### 2.2.4 Mohamed (2016)

This study sought to uncover the writing difficulties that English foreign language University students confront, as well as the sources of these difficulties and potential solutions. The descriptive and analytic methodologies are used in the study. The data for this study were gathered via a 20-item questionnaire that was issued to 84 English lecturers from all colleges at Jazan University in 2015. SPSS was used to examine the data. Furthermore, the (104) of students were later given a pre-test and a post-test to assess their writing abilities. The results show that the cohesive device has a significant impact on students' writing abilities. Instructors and students work together to share information, knowledge, and responsibility for academic complicated problem-solving activities, as well as to complete the assigned tasks in writing issues. According to the findings, cohesive devices are an effective, appropriate, and engaging tool for both instructors and students.

### 2.2.5 Nasir (2019)

This study aims at finding out whether secondary school students are able to use English conjunctions. Investigating whether the secondary school students can identify the deferent types of English conjunctions. Examining the causes behind student's weakness in using English conjunctions. The study employs descriptive analytic research methods. To obtain data, the researcher employed a test and a questionnaire. The study's sample comprised 30 students and 20 teachers selected randomly from Algabas Secondary Schools students. The data were analyzed using the (SPSS) Social Package for Statistical Sciences computer application. The results of the study show that the majority of EFL students struggle with conjunction in terms of meaning and function. Furthermore, EFL students had a hard time using different sorts of conjunctions.

*Table* **(2.11)**

*Review of Previous Studies*

| Name-Year of the study | Title of the study | Level of participant | Number of participants | Instruments | Results |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Mohamed, R. (2019)** | Difficulties Encountered by Saudi EFL undergraduates in Using Cohesive Devices in Writing | Instructors and students at Jazan University | 104students and 84 lecturers | questionnaire and test | The results show that the cohesive device has a significant impact on students' writing abilities. Instructors and students work together to share information, knowledge, and responsibility for academic complicated problem-solving activities, as well as to complete the assigned tasks in writing issues. |
| **Hajalzen (2017)** | Investigating the Difficulties Encountered by University Students in Using Cohesive Devices in Writing | students from the college of Languages and Translation, fourth year undergraduate students at Alrebat University | 40 students | Test | The results of the data analysis found that students perform poorly when using cohesive devices in writing; students are confused with the different forms of cohesive devices, such as replacement and ellipsis; and misuse of cohesive devices affects the coherence of a written text. |
| **Babiker (2019)** | Investigating the Difficulties Encountered by EFL University Students in Using Cohesive Devices in Writing at University Level | Students at Al Neelain University Faculty of Arts Department of English Language and English teacher | 40students and 20 English teachers | test and questionnaire | The findings revealed that Al Neelain University second-year students struggle to use grammatical and lexical coherent strategies in their writing. |

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| Nasir (2019 | Investigating the Difficulties Encountered by Secondary School students in Using English Conjunctions in Written Texts | students at Algabas Secondary Schools. | 30 students and 20 teachers | test and questionnaire | The study also discovered that EFL students require extensive practice in writing abilities in order to improve their performance in this area |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Madiha and Sihem (2020) | Investigating the Use of Cohesive Devices in EFL Learners' Essay Writing | students at Mohamed Seddik Ben Yahia Jijel University | 81students answer questionnaire and 16 students write essays | questionnaire and test | The findings of this study indicated that students are unfamiliar with all forms of cohesive devices; also, students used grammatical cohesive devices more frequently (811) than lexical cohesive devices (89). |

### 2.2.6 Previous Studies vs. the Current Study

According to the review of studies that was described above, the researcher underlined the following points.

1.The previous studies mentioned above dealt with investigating the difficulties faced by students in using Conjunctions in writing while the present study deals with difficulties faced by students in using cohesive devices in writing.

2. Previous studies contain university levels of participants with of students and teachers.  The present study deals with teachers and students at secondary schools

3.Both the population samples from earlier research and the current one was chosen randomly.

4. The sample I between (20–104) is used in the previous studies while (150) teachers and 150 students formed up the sample for the current study.

5.The previous studies are used qualitative and quantitate method in collecting data, while the present study used qualitative method.

6. The previous studies used questionnaire and test while the current study has used a questionnaire.

7. All findings of the previous studies have showed that cohesive devices have important on students' writing abilities and students struggle CDs and they use grammatical more frequently than lexical CDs while the findings of the current study have concluded that students are unfamiliar with all forms of cohesive devices.

# CHAPTER THREE

# RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

**An Introductory Note**

This chapter covers the research methodology and procedures used by the researcher to achieve the aim of the study. These procedures are summarized by describing the research population. The sample was chosen to be accurate and representative of the original population and assessing its validity and reliability. The data analyzed statistically. The procedures used in this study are discussed in the following section.

**3.1 Methods of the Study**

To describe the relationship between variables in a sample or population to summarize data in an organized manner, descriptive statistical methods are used (Kaur, Stoltzfus and Yellapu, 2018). According to Muijs (2004) quantitative research is Explaining phenomena by collecting numerical data that are analyzed using mathematically based methods (in particular statistics). Quantitative methods emphasize objective measurements and the statistical, mathematical, or numerical analysis of data collected through polls, questionnaires, and surveys, or by manipulating pre-existing statistical data using computational techniques (p.1).

**3.2 Population and Sample**

The number of people living in a country is generally referred to as population (Taherdoost,2016, p.19). The sample of this study comprises (150) students and (150) English teachers randomly selected at secondary school in Diyala governorate. The sample involves both male and female of fifth secondary school students who were seventeen years of age for the academic year2021-2022. It also involves EFL teachers who are teaching fifth secondary school students with less than 5 years to more than15years

of experiences and their qualification are bachelor, master and PhD in Diyala governorate/Iraq.

Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007) defined a sample as a small group or subset of the overall population selected in such a way that knowledge obtained is representative of the total population. The sample was chosen at random by the researcher. Each member of the population under research has an equal chance of being selected, and the chance of a member of the population being selected is unaffected by the selection of other members of the population (p.100).

## 3.3 Instrument of the Study

Johnson and Christensen (2016) mentioned that a questionnaire is an independent data collection tool that is filled out as part of the sample analysis by research participants. Researchers utilize questionnaires to collect information about the research participants' opinions, desires, attitudes, perceptions, interests, experiences, personalities and behavioral patterns (p.415). In other words, various types of characteristics can be measured by using questionnaire. The instrument's administrator should establish a connection, describe the study's objectives, and make unclear terms easier to understand (Best & Khan, 2006, p.313).

The researcher adopted the items of the questionnaire from the following sources Babiker (2019), Nasir (2019) and Mohamed (2016). The questionnaire consists of 28 items for teaches and 25 items for student' modified according to Likert's five-level items: **Strongly agree**, **Agree, Neutral**, **Disagree**, **strongly disagree** (**see Appendices A and B**).

### 3.3.1 Validity of the Questionnaire

Validity is defined by Zohrabi (2013) as the extent to which an instrument measures what it promises to measure (p.258). To evaluate

whether a tool is a good measurement of the concept that is just being checked in its face, a professional must assess the objects in the questionnaire (Bolarinwa, 2015, p.196). The researcher is exposing the questionnaire to sixteen of experts in the field of measurement and evaluation Psychology, Linguistics in and EFL. A jury of subject-matter experts who are skilled in the study are a reviewed the topic in order to confirm the face validity and determine whether the questions accurately capture the research's main ideas. By its outward appearance, a query is assumed to be valid if experts determine that it measures the predicate. If not, the researcher should change the survey questions in accordance with the opinions of experts (Almuhanna, 2018, p.155).

The recommended adjustments were made following the arbitrators' questionnaire collection (See Appendix C). There are several ways to determine the validity, including utilizing the square root of the (reliability coefficient). The range of the reliability and validity's values is (0 - 1) as can be seen in Table 3.1.

*Table* (**3.1**)

*Validity of the Questionnaire*

|                    | **Cronbach's Alpha** | **Spearman &Brown** |
|:------------------:|:--------------------:|:-------------------:|
| Reliability        | **0.67**             | **0.67**            |
| Validity=√Reliable | **0.82**             | **0.82**            |

### 3.3.2 Pilot A ministration of the Questionnaires

Best and Khan (2006) stated that it is a good idea to make a pilot study to the instrument of research with a small number of people who are close to those that would be included in the research. It should be applied on friends or colleagues to overcome any mistakes and ambiguities within

the questionnaire (p.320). The researcher has administered a pilot study that consists of 30 students and 25 EFL teachers in secondary schools of Diyala governorate to distribute the questionnaire and collect data. The researcher has used a pilot study to identify the reliability of the questionnaire, the clarity of items, and the obstacles facing the implementation of the instrument. The reliability value is 0.95 after SPSS analysis the data.

### 3.3.3 Construct Validity

According to the study of Ghazali (2016) construct validity can be defined as the extent to which an instrument accurately measures a theoretical construct that it is designed to measure. This type of validity can be measured using item discriminating power for the questionnaire items; the item-standard relationship; the relationship of the item to the overall score of the questionnaire, and the Standard-Standard relationship (p.149).

### 3.3.4 Reliability of the Questionnaire

According to Brown (2003) a measure and the tool will be dependable to the extent that it yields the same recurring result under the same conditions (p.20). Suter (2012) defined dependability as the extent to which the research tool delivers the same or similar results if it is repeated in different circumstances and at different times (p.356). Contrarily, according to Creswell (2015) reliability means that results from an instrument are stable and consistent. When researchers administer the test numerous times at various times, results should be almost identical (p.158).

Drost (2011) stated that reliability is the degree to which measurements are repeated when several individuals carry out the measurement on various occasions, under various circumstances,

especially with alternate tools that measure the structure or skillfulness (p.106). In order to decide the statistical stability of the questionnaire, the researcher has utilized the Cronbach's Alpha and the results reveal that a reliability value of 0.67 and above is acceptable.

Cronbach's alpha correlation coefficient is the statistical instrument used to assess the questionnaire's internal consistency. The formula that is thought to be the most popular and regularly applied to evaluate a tool's dependability is Cronbach's alpha correlation coefficient. For questions with multiple answer options, the alpha coefficient is often employed to build the scale; for example, the response "strongly disagree" is assigned a value of 1, while the response "strongly agree" is assigned a value of 5 (Bolarinwa, 2015, p.199; Suter, 2012, p.367).

### 3.3.5 Item Discriminating Power

One criterion for selecting more appropriate Likert's items than others is the discriminating power index. The mean scores on scale items with high DP coefficients differ from the bottom 27% of the respondent's score in the top 27% of the scale (Singh, 2007, p.75). In order to measure the relationship of the item to the standard to which it belongs, Pearson correlation coefficient has been used.

The researcher employed the T-test for the discriminating power of the questionnaire item (upper and lower). The findings demonstrate that all of the questionnaire's t-test values, means, and standard deviations are statistically significant at the beginning of 0.05 and the degree of freedom80 as can be seen in Table 3.2.

*Table* (**3.2**)

*The Discriminating Power of the Questionnaire Item*

| Items Number | | Mean | Number | Std. Deviation | T-value |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Item1 | Upper | 4.23 | 41 | 0.91 | 5.258 |
| | Lower | 3.00 | | 1.32 | |
| Item2 | Upper | 4.44 | 41 | 0.84 | 5.670 |
| | Lower | 3.12 | | 1.23 | |
| Item3 | Upper | 3.44 | 41 | 1.12 | 3.016 |
| | Lower | 2.73 | | 1.00 | |
| Item4 | Upper | 3.49 | 41 | 1.14 | 2.497 |
| | Lower | 2.83 | | 1.24 | |
| Item5 | Upper | 3.80 | 41 | 1.14 | 4.241 |
| | Lower | 2.61 | | 1.39 | |
| Item6 | Upper | 3.95 | 41 | 0.92 | 2.095 |
| | Lower | 3.44 | | 1.27 | |
| Item7 | Upper | 4.61 | 41 | 0.54 | 7.039 |
| | Lower | 3.00 | | 1.36 | |
| Item8 | Upper | 3.39 | 41 | 1.18 | 2.043 |
| | Lower | 2.83 | | 1.30 | |
| Item9 | Upper | 3.39 | 41 | 1.69 | 2.359 |
| | Lower | 2.61 | | 1.28 | |
| Item10 | Upper | 4.20 | 41 | 0.78 | 4.344 |
| | Lower | 3.20 | | 1.25 | |
| Item11 | Upper | 3.80 | 41 | 1.10 | 4.519 |
| | Lower | 2.73 | | 1.05 | |
| Item12 | Upper | 4.24 | 41 | 0.86 | 5.090 |
| | Lower | 3.10 | | 1.16 | |
| Item13 | Upper | 3.85 | 41 | 1.11 | 3.535 |
| | Lower | 2.90 | | 1.32 | |
| Item14 | Upper | 3.63 | 41 | 0.97 | 4.292 |

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
|  | Lower | 2.66 |  | 1.09 |  |
| Item15 | Upper | 4.17 | 41 | 0.95 | 3.374 |
|  | Lower | 3.34 |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  | 1.26 |  |
| Item16 | Upper | 4.22 | 41 | 0.99 | 3.462 |
|  | Lower | 3.29 |  | 1.40 |  |
| Item17 | Upper | 3.61 | 41 | 1.05 | 4.250 |
|  | Lower | 2.56 |  | 1.18 |  |
| Item18 | Upper | 3.63 | 41 | 1.04 | 2.203 |
|  | Lower | 3.07 |  | 1.25 |  |
| Item19 | Upper | 3.39 | 41 | 1.72 | 3.606 |
|  | Lower | 2.17 |  | 1.32 |  |
| Item20 | Upper | 3.44 | 41 | 1.40 | 2.809 |
|  | Lower | 2.56 |  | 1.43 |  |
| Item21 | Upper | 4.12 | 41 | 1.14 | 2.703 |
|  | Lower | 3.39 |  | 1.30 |  |
| Item22 | Upper | 4.41 | 41 | 0.74 | 8.322 |
|  | Lower | 2.46 |  | 1.31 |  |
| Item23 | Upper | 4.66 | 41 | 0.57 | 7.046 |
|  | Lower | 3.02 |  | 1.37 |  |
| Item24 | Upper | 4.12 | 41 | 1.03 | 4.204 |
|  | Lower | 3.12 |  | 1.12 |  |
| Item25 | Upper | 4.41 | 41 | 1.05 | 5.459 |
|  | Lower | 2.95 |  | 1.36 |  |

### 3.3.6 The Relationship Between Questionnaire's Items and the Total Score

To find the relationship between items and the total score of the questionnaire, Pearson correlation coefficient is used as can be seen in Table 3.3.

*Table* (**3.3**)

*Pearson correlation coefficient items and the total score*

| Item | P.P.C | Tab | DF | Item | P.C.C | Tab | DF | Item | P.C.C | Tab | DF |
|------|-------|------|-----|------|-------|------|-----|------|-------|------|-----|
| 1 | 0.38 | 0.15 | 148 | 10 | **0.35** | 0.15 | 148 | 19 | 0.35 | 0.15 | 148 |
| 2 | 0.39 | 0.15 | 148 | 11 | 0.36 | 0.15 | 148 | 20 | 0.29 | 0.15 | 148 |
| 3 | 0.23 | 0.15 | 148 | 12 | 0.42 | 0.15 | 148 | 21 | 0.20 | 0.15 | 148 |
| 4 | 0.24 | 0.15 | 148 | 13 | 0.30 | 0.15 | 148 | 22 | 0.58 | 0.15 | 148 |
| 5 | 0.33 | 0.15 | 148 | 14 | 0.30 | 0.15 | 148 | 23 | 0.47 | 0.15 | 148 |
| 6 | 0.18 | 0.15 | 148 | 15 | 0.31 | 0.15 | 148 | 24 | 0.37 | 0.15 | 148 |
| 7 | 0.45 | 0.15 | 148 | 16 | 0.27 | 0.15 | 148 | 25 | 0.39 | 0.15 | 148 |
| 8 | 0.05 | 0.15 | 148 | 17 | 0.37 | 0.15 | 148 |  |  |  |  |
| 9 | 0.20 | 0.15 | 148 | 18 | 0.06 | 0.15 | 148 |  |  |  |  |

The table (3.3) above shows that the values of all item-total correlations resulting from Pearson correlation are higher than the value of the Pearson correlation coefficient tabulated, that is (0.15). These findings indicate that the survey's items are statistically significant and correlative.

**3.4 Characteristics of the Scale**

In order to extract the characteristics of the scale, different statistical features have been calculated by the researcher to know the nature of data distribution numerically as well as graphically by using histogram as can be in seen in Table 3.4.

*Table* **(3.4)**

*Characteristics of the Scale*

|  | Sum |
|---|---|
| N      Valid | 150 |
| Mean | 85.46 |
| Median | 84 |
| Mode | 96 |
| Std. Deviation | 10.27 |
| Variance | 105.525 |
| Skewness | 0.231 |
| Std. Error of Skewness | 0.838 |
| Kurtosis | -0.575 |
| Term | 54 |
| Minimum | 62 |
| Maximum | 116 |

The following figure and statistical features for distribution of the samples and statistical features concerning the scale by using histogram as can be seen in Graph 3.1.

*Graph* (**3.1***)*

*The Distribution of the Sample*



Histogram

Mean =103.6933
Std. Dev. =10.25706
N =150
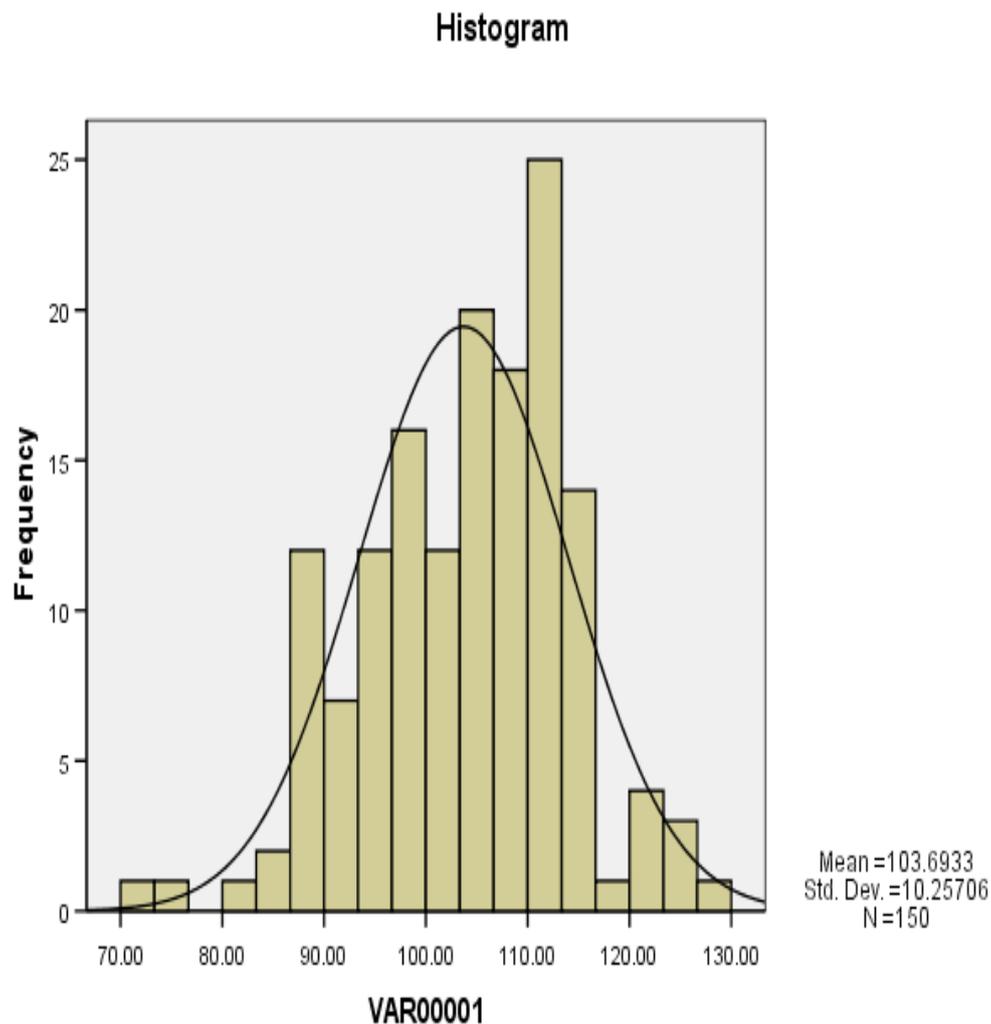
## 3.5 Statistical Tools

In order to analyze results, the SSPS program has been used as follows:

1. percentage: The researcher has utilized percentages to describe the study's sample and population, and it turned duplicate answers of the questionnaire's items into percentages to determine the relative weight of each item.

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2. getting validity of questionnaire by using the square root of the (reliability coefficient).

$$\text{Validity} = \sqrt{\text{Re liability}}$$

3. Weighted average is used to explain each questionnaire item, as well as to determine its importance and placement in relation to other items in the same field and to interpret the outcomes.

4. Alpha Cronbach is used to extract the reliability of the results.

$$\alpha = \frac{k}{k-1}\left\{1 - \frac{\sum S_i^2}{S_x^2}\right\}.$$

5. To find the item's relationship to a total score of the questionnaire, Pearson correlation coefficient is used.

$$R = \frac{n\Sigma xy - (\Sigma x)(\Sigma y)}{\sqrt{[n\Sigma x^2 - (\Sigma x)^2][n(\Sigma y^2) - (\Sigma y)^2]}}$$

**3.6 Data Analysis**

To analysis data, the researcher has used the following percentages: 80-100% is very high degree in difficulties of using cohesive devices. 70-79.9% is a high degree in difficulties of using CDs. 60-69.9% is a moderate degree in difficulties of using CDs. 50-59.9% is a low degree in difficulties

of using cohesive devices. Less than 50% is a very low degree in difficulties of using cohesive devices.

The researcher finds that the degree on items (16,17,23,28) is very high where the percentages of responses of teachers are between 82.00 %-86.80%. While the degree on items (1,2,5,6,7,8,10,11,13, 14,15,18,19 ,20,22,24,25,26) is high where the percentages of responses of the teachers are between 79.80 % - 72.00%. The items (4,9,12,21,27) are moderate where the percentages of responses of the teachers are between 62.93% - 67.60%.

The degree on item (3) is low where the percentage of response of the teachers was 58.00%. The degree on items (1,2,6,7,12,15,16,18,21,23,24,25) is high where the percentages of students' responses are between 76.80% - 70.40%. While the degree on items (3,4,5,8,10,11,13,17,20,22) is moderate where the percentages of students' responses are between 69.60%. As for items (9,19) the degree is low where the percentage of response is 56.27%.60.53%.

# CHAPTER FOUR

## *RESULTS, DISCUSSIONS CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATION AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDIES*

**An Introductory Note**

   This chapter is mainly concerned with findings with the demonstration and discussion of results that have been obtained after the application of the questionnaire as well as the conclusions, recommendations and suggestions for further studies.

**4.1 Presentation of Results**

   The basic study sample is selected which consists of 150 English language instructors and 150 students at Diyala Governorate secondary schools and then distributed the questionnaire to the research sample in order to gather data and information. The study's findings on personal information as can be seen in Tables (4.1), (4.2).

*4.1.1 Teachers' Education*

   Three degrees for the academic achievement are used, Bachelor, Master and Ph.D. The data collection show that (110) teachers who participate in this survey have Bachelor degree in English. This number represents 88.4% of the total size of the sample as can be seen in Table 4.1. Only six teachers with Ph.D. degree in English and thirty-four teachers with Master degree.

*Table* **(4.1)**

*Teachers' Qualification*

| Qualification | No. of participants | % |
|---|---|---|
| Bachelors | 110 | 73.3 |
| Master | 34 | 22.7 |
| Ph. D | 6 | 4 |
| Total | 150 | 100 |

### 4.1.2 Teachers 'Years Experiences

Table 4.2 shows that fifty teachers are less than5 years of experiences while thirty teachers are between (6-10) years of experiences. There are twenty-nine teachers between (11-16) and forty-one teachers are more than15years of experiences.

*Table* (**4.2**)

*Teachers 'Years of Experiences*

| Experience | No. of participants | % |
|---|---|---|
| Less than 5 years | 50 | 33.33 |
| 6-10years | 30 | 20 |
| 11-15 years | 29 | 19.33 |
| More than 15 | 41 | 27.33 |
| Total | 150 | 100 |

## 4.2 Results of Teachers' Questionnaire

Data linked to each questionnaire item were obtained after the researcher has administered the questionnaire to the sample of teachers. The researcher has then calculated the weighted mean value and the percentage weight for each item a can be seen in Table 4.3.

*Table* (**4.3**)

*Difficulties Faced by Students in Using CDs in Writing from Teachers 'Point of View*

| No. | Items | Weighted average | percentage | Degree |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | The complexity of cohesive Devices in written texts may be the cause of students' writing difficulties. | 3.96 | 79.20 | High |

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| 2 | In teaching reading, teachers should focus on cohesive device while his students are reading a passage. | 3.73 | 74.53 | High |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 3 | I don't use the right teaching techniques for introducing cohesive devices. | 2.90 | 58.00 | Low |
| 4 | I do not pay much attention to the cohesive devices, just I move through them fast while teaching writing. | 3.00 | 60.00 | Moderate |
| 5 | I do not have enough time to add exercises to make learners obtain more practice with cohesive device. | 3.79 | 75.73 | High |
| 6 | The main reason of difficulties of cohesive devices is that teachers of English as a Foreign Language do not integrate with cohesive devices. | 3.60 | 72.00 | High |
| 7 | Misuse of cohesive devices leads to misunderstanding the written materials. | 3.96 | 79.20 | High |
| 8 | Students face difficulties to distinguish between personal pronouns and possessives. | 3.87 | 77.47 | High |
| 9 | Cohesive devices are not integrated in the textbook | 3.20 | 64.00 | Moderate |
| 10 | Usually, students find it difficult to realize instances of substitution and ellipsis in English writing. | 3.83 | 76.67 | High |
| 11 | Syllabus cannot help secondary school students learn English cohesive devices because textbook do not contain a lot of exercises to training them. | 3.73 | 74.67 | High |
| 12 | In teaching English as a Foreign Language, teacher often concentrates on the aspect of coherence and cohesion. | 3.38 | 67.60 | Moderate |
| 13 | Most of English as a Foreign Language learners do not use | 3.67 | 73.33 | High |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | lexical cohesion aspects such as repetition, synonymy, antonymy and hyponymy. | | | |
| 14 | Most of the English as a Foreign Language learners have not known the functions of cohesive devices in English writing. | 3.72 | 74.40 | High |
| 15 | Students usually find it difficult to write meaningful topic sentence. | 3.93 | 78.53 | High |
| 16 | The large majority of English as a Foreign Language students have difficulties in using grammatical cohesive devices. | 4.04 | 80.80 | Very High |
| 17 | The ignorance of correct usage of the cohesive devices leads to misunderstanding or to less quality of the written material. | 4.10 | 82.00 | Very High |
| 18 | Most of English as a Foreign Language students use conjunction such as (but, so, and) or reference such as (that, this ). | 3.85 | 67.93 | Moderate |
| 19 | Students at fifth secondary stage are not aware of the importance of cohesive devices in writing material. | 3.76 | 75.20 | High |
| 20 | Most learners of writing lack use of tenses and pronouns agreement. | 3.85 | 76.93 | High |
| 21 | Students are able to use punctuation marks in a correct way when they write. | 3.19 | 63.73 | Moderate |
| 22 | Students haven't enough knowledge about personal pronouns (I, them….), (possessives) (her, me.). relative pronouns (who, which, whom, etc.). | 3.69 | 73.87 | High |
| 23 | Most students tend to translate their ideas from Arabic to English when writing in English. | 4.04 | 80.80 | Very High |
| 24 | Students' sentences often lack a | 3.87 | 77.33 | High |

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| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | coherent link due to the absence of subordination and coordination. | | | |
| 25 | When writing in English, most of students concentrate on mechanics and grammar rather than on writing as a process of different stages. | 3.67 | 73.33 | **High** |
| 26 | Students encounter difficulties in using grammatical structure correctly when they write. | 3.89 | 77.87 | **High** |
| 27 | Your students are able to use comparative adjective (same, other, different, better.etc.) in a correct way when they write. | 3.15 | 62.93 | **Moderate** |
| 28 | Lack of vocabularies make students confuse in writing. | 4.34 | 86.80 | **Very High** |

The degree on items (16,17,23,28) is very high where the percentages of responses of teachers are between 82.00 %- 86.80%. This indicates that students have not enough vocabulary and knowledge about grammatical CDs. Teachers also see that neglecting the correct usage of CDs leads to misunderstanding or less quality of the written material (Hajalzen,2017, p. 80).

While the degree on items (1,2,5,6,7,8,10,11,13,14,15,18,19,20,22,24 ,25,26) is high where the percentages of responses of the teachers are between 79.80 % - 72.00%. Teachers see that students face difficulties because students do not have enough knowledge about all types of CDs, they do not distinguish between personal determiners(possessives) and personal pronouns and they have difficulty to realize ellipsis and substitution (Babiker,2019, p.80) and Madiha and Sihem, 2020, p. 81). Teachers also see that there is not enough time to add exercises to make

students practice in order to help them improve ability in using CDs in writing.

As for items (4,9,12,21,27), the degree is moderate where the percentages of responses of the teachers are between 62.93% - 67.60%. This indicates that some teachers do not pay much attention to CDs when they teach writing. Teachers see that some students can use punctuation and comparative in correct way. The degree on item (3) is low where the percentage of response of the teachers was 58.00. This indicate that teachers use right techniques to explain CDs for their students.

### 4.3. Results Related to Students' Questionnaire and Items

Data linked to each questionnaire item were obtained after the researcher has administered the questionnaire to the sample of students. The researcher has then calculated the weighted mean value and the percentage weight for each item as can be seen in Table 4.4.

*Table* (**4.5**)

*Difficulties Faced by Students in Using Cohesive Devices in Writing from Students' Point of View*

| No. | Items | Weighted average | Percentage | Degree |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **1** | I believe that writing skill is a difficult task. | **3.52** | **70.40** | **High** |
| **2** | I can't practice enough because of shortage in time. | **3.77** | **75.47** | **High** |
| **3** | I don't have enough knowledge about personal reference: personal pronouns (I, them….), possessives (her, my.). relative pronouns (who, which.). | **3.09** | **61.73** | **Moderate** |

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| 4 | I don't have enough information about the use of cohesive devices in writing. | 3.11 | 62.13 | Moderate |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 5 | I usually find it difficult to write a meaningful topic sentence. | 3.03 | 6.53 | Moderate |
| 6 | Reading texts which include a set of conjunctions help learners have a better understanding of conjunctions. | 3.84 | 76.80 | High |
| 7 | lacking vocabularies makes me confused in writing. | 3.83 | 76.53 | High |
| 8 | I can use cohesive devices properly (but, and…). | 3.33 | 66.67 | Moderate |
| 9 | The teacher forces us to participate in the writing activity. | 2.81 | 56.27 | Low |
| 10 | I don't have ability to build an English sentence properly when I write. | 3.84 | 69.60 | Moderate |
| 11 | I face difficulties in using relative pronouns in my writing. | 3.34 | 66.80 | Moderate |
| 12 | I don't have enough information about all types of cohesive devices. | 3.59 | 71.87 | High |
| 13 | I find it difficult to use antonymy, synonymy, hyponymy and repetition in writing. | 3.41 | 68.13 | Moderate |
| 14 | I face difficulties in using references of cohesion, personal (I, they, my, mine, his, who,), demonstrative (the, this, there, then.), comparative (same, equal, different, more less….) in writing. | 3.21 | 64.27 | Moderate |
| 15 | The activities in the writing materials are interesting. | 3.73 | 74.67 | High |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **16** | I can use punctuation marks in a correct way when I write. | **3.54** | **70.80** | **High** |
| **17** | I find it difficult to realize instances of substitution and ellipsis when I write. | **3.20** | **64.00** | **Moderate** |
| **18** | I  use conjunction such as (but, so, and) or reference such as (that, this, who, which, my, mine, there, then, similarly, differently, same, other.). | **3.53** | **70.67** | **High** |
| **19** | There is not enough training for cohesive devices in the syllabus. | **2.81** | **56.27** | **Low** |
| **20** | I am unable to use the right cohesive device due to the lack of exercises. | **3.05** | **61.07** | **Moderate** |
| **21** | I can use personal pronouns   in a correct way when I write. | **3.81** | **76.13** | **High** |
| **22** | I  have  difficulties  in  choosing  the  correct word(synonymy) with the right meaning when I try to replace a word by another. | **3.73** | **67.33** | **Moderate** |
| **23** | I have a difficulty to get my ideas down on paper. | **3.76** | **75.20** | **High** |
| **24** | I lack information about ellipsis and how to use correctly. | **3.86** | **73.60** | **High** |
| **25** | Having poor grammar makes writing process so difficult. | **3.62** | **72.40** | **High** |

The results show that the degree on item (1,2,6, 7,12,15, 16,18,21,23 ,24,25) is high where the percentages of responses are between 76.80% -

70.40%. This indicates that students believe that writing skill is a difficult task and lacking vocabulary and grammar makes them confused in writing, they also do not receive enough information about all types of cohesive devices (Babiker, 2019, p. 80).

While the degree on items (3,4,5,8,10,11,13,17,20,22) is moderate where the percentages of responses are between 69.60% - 60.53%. This indicates that students face difficulties in using lexical CDs and how to use relative pronouns correctly in writing. They also face difficulties in using lexical CDs in writing and distinguish between ellipsis and substitution (Hajalzen, 2017, p. 80). As for items (9,19) the degree is low where the percentage of response is 56.27%. This indicate that students have enough exercises to practice writing to develop ability in using cohesive devices correctly in writing.

## 4.3 Discussion of the Results

The findings show that secondary students face difficulties in using grammatical and lexical cohesive devices in writing. Students are not aware of the importance of cohesive devices and neglecting the correct usage of them leads to misunderstanding or to less quality of written material. The outcomes show that students have not enough knowledge about all types of cohesive devices. Students cannot distinguish between pronouns and they face difficulties in using lexical CDs due to many reasons, the shortage of time, lack of exercises and teachers do not pay much attention to cohesive devices. Students also cannot distinguish between pronouns and how use them correctly. they have difficulty in realizing between ellipsis and substitution. students need more practice on the usage of cohesive devices

## 4.5 Conclusions

Findings of the current study have clarified that there are difficulties faced by students in using cohesive devices in writing from teachers and students' perspectives. According to the results of the study, the researcher concludes the answers of research questions.

1. The findings reveal that students face difficulties in using grammatical and lexical cohesive devices in writing. They have not enough knowledge about all kinds of cohesive devices. They cannot distinguish between pronouns and they do not recognize the function of CDs in writing.

2.The findings reveal that students have difficulties in distinguishing between pronouns and how use them correctly in writing.

3. The findings confirm that teachers believe that neglecting correct usage of cohesive devices leads to misunderstanding or less quality of a written text. Teachers also see that students usually find it difficult to write meaningful and grammatical sentences. They also find it difficult to realize between ellipsis and substitution.

## 5.6 Recommendations

1.Teachers should help students use different types of cohesive devices.

2. The designer of secondary school curricula should focus more on all forms of CDs.

3.Students should focus more on all types of cohesive devices.

4. Teachers should give more attention on CDs through doing more exercises and activities.

## 5.7 Suggestion for Further Studies

1. A study can be carried out to investigating the role of reading skill in acquiring vocabulary and cohesive devices.

2. A study can replicate the current one to investigating the suitable technique to explain types of CDs.

3. A study can be carried out to investigate if students can distinguish between ellipsis and substitution.

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# Appendices

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## Appendix A

## Teacher's Questionnaire

*University of Babylon*

*College of Basic Education*

*Higher Studies /*

*Method of Teaching English as a Foreign Language*

*Dear Teachers,*

The researcher is very glad to your participation in this questionnaire for a study entitled**; Difficulties Faced by Iraqi EFL Students at Fifth Secondary Stage in using Cohesive Devices in Writing from Teachers´ and Students´ Perspectives**. Therefore, I designed this questionnaire as the first phase of my study. The information on this questionnaire will be used solely for academic research. Your cooperation in filling out the required information is highly appreciated. Your objective and truthful answers will help us get a realistic assessment of this experience. Please **tick (√)** where appropriate. Scale: **Strongly agree**, **Agree**, **Neutral**, **Disagree**, **strongly disagree.**

**Name(optional)………………      Gender: Male** (), **Female ( ).  Years of experiences ………... Qualification: Bachelor ( ), Master (  ), Ph.D. ( ).**

| No. | Statements | Strongly Agree | Agree | Neutral | Disagree | Strongly Disagree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | The complexity of cohesive devices in written texts may be the cause of students' writing difficulties. | | | | | |
| 2. | In teaching reading, teachers should focus on cohesive device while his students are reading a passage. | | | | | |
| 3. | I don't use the right teaching techniques for introducing cohesive devices. | | | | | |
| 4. | I do not pay much attention to the cohesive devices, just I move through them fast while teaching writing. | | | | | |
| 5. | I do not have enough time to add exercises to make learners obtain more practice with cohesive devices. | | | | | |
| 6. | The main reason of writing difficulties is that teachers of English as a Foreign Language do not integrate with cohesive devices. | | | | | |
| 7. | Misuse of cohesive devices leads to misunderstanding the written materials. | | | | | |
| 8. | Students face difficulties to distinguish between personal pronoun and possessives. | | | | | |
| 9. | Cohesive devices are not integrated in the textbook. | | | | | |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **10.** | Usually, students find it difficult to realize instances of substitution and ellipsis in English writing. | | | | | |
| **11.** | Syllabus cannot help secondary school students learn English cohesive devices because textbook do not contain a lot of exercises to training them. | | | | | |
| **12.** | In teaching English as a Foreign Language writing, teacher often concentrate on the aspect of coherence and cohesion. | | | | | |
| **13.** | Most of English as a Foreign Language learners do not use lexical cohesion aspects such as repetition, synonymy, antonymy and hyponymy. | | | | | |
| **14.** | Most of the English as a Foreign Language learners have not known the functions of cohesive devices in English writing. | | | | | |
| **15.** | Students usually find it difficult to write meaningful topic sentences. | | | | | |
| **16.** | The large majority of English as a Foreign Language students have difficulties in using grammatical cohesive devices. | | | | | |
| **17.** | The ignorance of correct usage of the cohesive devices leads to misunderstanding or to less quality of the written material. | | | | | |
| **18.** | Most of English as a Foreign Language students use conjunction such as (but, so, and) or reference such as (that, this ). | | | | | |
| **19.** | Students at fifth secondary stage are not aware of the importance of cohesive devices in writing material. | | | | | |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **20.** | Most learners of writing lack use of tenses and pronouns agreement. | | | | |
| **21.** | Students are able to use punctuation marks in a correct way when they write. | | | | |
| **22.** | Students haven't enough knowledge about personal pronouns (I, them….), personal determines(possessives) (her, me.). relative pronouns (who, which, whom, etc). | | | | |
| **23.** | Most students tend to translate their ideas from Arabic to English when writing in English. | | | | |
| **24.** | Students' sentences often lack a coherent link due to the absence of subordination and coordination. | | | | |
| **25.** | When writing in English, most of students concentrate on mechanics and grammar rather than on writing as a process of different stages. | | | | |
| **26.** | Students encounter difficulties in using grammatical structure correctly when they write. | | | | |
| **27.** | Your students are able to use comparative adjective (same, other, different, better. etc.) in a correct way when they write. | | | | |
| **28.** | Lack of vocabularies making students be confused in writing. | | | | |

**M.A Candidate: Gaidaa Rasheed Hammed**

## Appendix B

## Student's Questionnaire

**University of Babylon**

**College of Basic Education**

**Higher Studies /**

**Method of Teaching English as a Foreign Language**

*Dear* **Student,**

The researcher is very glad to your participation in this questionnaire for a study

**Name(optional)**..........................................

  **Gender:(male (    ), female (  ).**

Entitled; **Difficulties Faced by EFL Iraqi Students at Fifth Secondary stage in using Cohesive Devices in Writing from Teachers' and Students' Perspectives.** Therefore, I designed this questionnaire as the first phase of my study. The information on this questionnaire will be used solely for academic research. Your

cooperation in filling out the required information is highly appreciated. Your objective and truthful answers will help us get a realistic assessment of this experience. Please **tick (√)** where appropriate choice. Scale**: Strongly, Neutral, Disagree, strongly disagree.**

| No. | Statements | Strongly Agree | Agree | Neutral | Disagree | Strongly disagree |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | I believe that writing skill is a difficult task. | | | | | |
| 2. | I can't practice enough because of shortage in time. | | | | | |
| 3. | I don't have enough knowledge about personal reference: personal pronouns (I, them….), personal determine (possessives) (her, me.). relative pronouns (who, which.). | | | | | |
| 4. | I don't have enough information about the use of cohesive devices in writing. | | | | | |
| 5. | I usually find it difficult to write a meaningful topic sentence. | | | | | |
| 6. | Reading texts which include a set of conjunctions help learners have a better understanding of conjunctions. | | | | | |
| 7. | lacking vocabularies makes me confused in writing. | | | | | |
| 8. | I can use cohesive devices properly (but, and…). | | | | | |
| 9. | The teacher forces us to participate in the writing activity. | | | | | |
| 10. | I don't have ability to build an English sentence properly when I write. | | | | | |
| 11. | I face difficulties in using relative pronouns in my writing. | | | | | |
| 12. | I don't have enough information about all types of cohesive devices. | | | | | |
| 13. | I find it difficult to use antonymy, synonymy, hyponymy and repetition in writing. | | | | | |
| 14. | I face difficulties in using references of cohesion, personal (I, they, my, mine, his, who,), demonstrative (the, this, there, then.), comparative (same, equal, different, more less….) in writing. | | | | | |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **15.** | The activities in the writing materials are interesting. | | | | | |
| **16.** | I can use punctuation marks in correct way when I write. | | | | | |
| **17.** | I find it difficult to realize instances of substitution and ellipsis when I write. | | | | | |
| **18.** | I  use conjunction such as (but, so, and) or reference such as (that, this, who, which, my, mine, there, then, similarly, differently, same, other.). | | | | | |
| **19.** | There is not enough training for cohesive devices in the syllabus. | | | | | |
| **20.** | I am unable to use the right cohesive device due to the lack of exercises. | | | | | |
| **21.** | I can use personal pronouns   in a correct way when I write. | | | | | |
| **22.** | I have difficulties in choosing the correct word(synonymy) with the right meaning when I try to replace word by another. | | | | | |
| **23.** | I have difficulty to get my ideas down on paper. | | | | | |
| **24.** | I lack information about ellipsis and how to use correctly. | | | | | |

**M.A Candidate**: Gaidaa Rasheed Hammed

# Appendices

## Appendix C

## Jury Members

| No. | Academic Rank | Expert's Name | Degree | Specialty | Place of work |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | Prof. | Abdul-Kareem Fadhil Jameel | Ph.D. | EFL | College of Education – Ibn Rushd\ University of Baghdad |
| 2. | Prof. | Amthal Mohammed | Ph.D. | Linguistic | College of Basic Education, University of Diyala |
| 3. | Prof. | Alana Ismail Challob | Ph.D. | EFL | College of Education for Humanities, University of Al Anbar |
| 4. | Prof. | Dhea Mizhir Krebt | Ph.D. | EFL | College of Education – Ibn Rushd\ University of Baghdad |
| 5. | Prof. | Sami Abdul Alazez Al Mamory | Ph.D. | EFL | College Basic of Education, University of Diyala |
| 6. | Prof. | Sondos Talib Hasan | Ph.D. | EFL | College of Basic Education, University of Diyala |
| 7. | Prof. | Sabeeha Hamza Deham | M.A | EFL | College of Basic Education, University of Babylon |
| 8. | Asst. Prof. | Ali Sabah Jameel | Ph.D. | EFL | College of Arts, University of Al Anbar |
| 9. | Asst. Prof. | Asmaa Sirry Mahoud | Ph.D. | EFL | College of Education – Ibn Rushd\ University of Baghdad |

| 10. | Asst. Prof. | Elaf Rriyad Kalil | Ph.D. | EFL | College of Education – Ibn Rushd\ University of Baghdad |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 11. | Asst. Prof. | Hasan Kadam Hasan | Ph.D. | EFL | College of Education Human Sciences/ University of DhiQar |
| 12. | Asst. Prof. | Lihadh Abdul Ameer Kareem | Ph.D. | EFL | College of Education for Humanities, University of Babylon |
| 13. | Asst. Prof | Mauna Mohammed Abbas | Ph.D. | EFL | College of Basic Education University of Babylon |
| 14. | Asst. Prof. | Muntaha Sabbar | Ph.D. | EFL | College of Basic Education, Mustansiriyah University |
| 15. | Asst. Prof. | Mais Falaieh Hasan | Ph.D. | EFL | College of Basic Education, University of Babylon |
| 16. | Asst. Prof | Nadia Majeed Hussein | Ph.D. | EFL | Middle Technical University\ Technical Instructors Training Institute |

# Appendices

## Appendix E

**RES MILITARIS**
REVUE EUROPÉENNE D'ÉTUDES MILITAIRES · EUROPEAN JOURNAL OF MILITARY STUDIES

### LETTER OF ACCEPTANCE

**Dear Author (s)**

**Gaidaa Rasheed Hammed1  Ahmed Rawdhan Salman2  Abd Ali Nayif  Hasan3**

**1,2,3College of Basic Education, University of Babylon, Iraq**

*It's my pleasure to inform you that, after the peer review, your paper:*

*Difficulties Faced by Iraqi EFL Students in using Cohesive Devices in Writing from Teachers' and Students' Perspectives.*

has been ACCEPTED to publish with *Res Militaris*" ISSN 2265-6294".

*The journal is publishing original research articles and reviews including wide ranging issues on:* **Social Sciences (miscellaneous); Safety Research; Political Science and International Relations; Sociology and Political Science**
*It will be published in upcoming issue (Issue 4) of  December  (2022).*

| ACCEPTED | REVISIONS REQUIRED | REJECTED |
|----------|--------------------|----------|
| | | |

Please do not hesitate to contact me if you have any further questions.

Sincerely,

**Editor Manager**

**Res Militaris**

**Res Militaris**

Q4  Political Science and International Relations  best quartile
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# المستخلص

تهدف الدراسة الحالية الى فحص الطلبة لمعرفة ما إذا كانوا مألوفين أو غير مألوفين مع ادوات الربط (CDs) من خلال طرح أسئلة حول جميع أنواع ادوات الربط. التعرف على الصعوبات التي تواجه طلبة اللغة الانجليزية كلغة اجنبية في مرحلة الخامس الثانوي في استخدام ادوات الربط في الكتابة

التعرف على الصعوبات التي تواجه طلبة مرحلة الخامس الثانوي في استخدام ادوات الربط في الكتابة، وتتكون عينة الدراسة الحالية من 150 طالباً و150 مدرساً في المدارس الثانوية بمحافظة ديالى خلال العام الدراسي 2021-2022، ولتحقيق أهداف الدراسة تم استخدام الإجراءات التالية، تم استخدام الطريقة الوصفية لجمع البيانات. واعتمدت الباحثة استبانة مكونة من 25 فقرة للطلاب و28 فقرة بالإضافة إلى معلومات عن المدرسين تشمل المؤهلات والخبرة والجنس. رفع الاستبيان إلى خبراء لجنة التحكيم لاختبار صحته.

تم تحليل المعلومات باستخدام الحزمة الإحصائية للعلوم الاجتماعية (SPSS)، ارتباط بيرسون، ألفا كرونباخ، النسبة المئوية، والمتوسط المرجح. بعد تحليل نتائج الدراسة تم الكشف عن عدم إلمام الطلبة بأدوات الربط، وبناءً على النتائج خلص الباحث إلى أن طلبة المرحلة الثانوية يواجهون صعوبات في استخدام أدوات التماسك النحوي والمعجمي في الكتابة. بالإضافة إلى ذلك، تقترح الدراسة أنه يتعين على مدرسي اللغة الإنجليزية دعم استخدام طلبتهم لجميع انواع أدوات الربط في كتاباتهم. يجب أن يركز المدرسون بشكل أكبر على تدريس ادوات الربط من خلال إضافة المزيد من التمارين كما تقترح الباحثة دراسة دور مهارة القراءة في اكتساب المفردات وادوات الربط والتقنية المناسبة لتعليم أدوات الربط.

**الصعوبات التي يواجهها طلبة اللغة الإنجليزية في مرحلة الخامس الثانوي في استخدام ادوات الربط في الكتابة من وجهة نظر المدرسين والطلبة.**

**رسالة مقدمة الى مجلس كلية التربية الأساسية في جامعة بابل وهي جزء من متطلبات نيل درجة الماجستير في التربية / طرائق تدريس اللغة الانجليزية كلغة اجنبية**

**من قبل الطالبة**

**غيداء رشيد حميد جمعة**

**بإشراف**

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